QUALITY OF SUPERVISOR-SUBORDINATE RELATIONSHIP, CULTURAL VALUES, AND ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE

A Dissertation

by

RUN REN

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

December 2007

Major Subject: Management

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ABSTRACT

Quality of Supervisor-Subordinate Relationship, Cultural Values,

and Organizational Justice. (December 2007)

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Organizational justice literature indicates that high quality relationships will result in more favorable treatment of the individual. However, little has been done regarding how relationships with the supervisor (i.e., ingroup/outgroup identification, leader-member exchange, and *guanxi*: a Chinese concept for interpersonal relationship) can influence the effects of organizational justice on employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust in the supervisor, and trust in the organization. Thus, the first purpose of this dissertation is to examine how different relationships with the supervisor influence the effects of organizational justice on individual and organizational outcomes. Further, most of the current research on organizational justice is done in the U.S. culture. But, there is still doubt that employees recognize principles of justice the same across all cultures, and that organizational justice would have the same consequences on affected employees. The second purpose of my dissertation is to investigate how the relationships between organizational justice and its consequences vary among employees with different cultural values, specifically in the U.S. and China.

Finally, I explore the potential three-way interaction of relationships with supervisors, cultural values, and organizational justice on key outcomes. Specifically, I hypothesized that supervisor-subordinate relationships and cultural values will each separately moderate the effects of organizational justice on outcome variables. In addition, I hypothesized that there will be joint moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationships and cultural values on the influence of organizational justice.

Data were collected from the U.S. and China to test the hypotheses of the present study. Results from hierarchical linear regression showed that only a small percent of hypothesized effects was significant and there was no strong evidence to support hypotheses. However, there were also some interesting results. LMX, *guanxi*, and ingroup identification all exhibited some extent of moderating roles on the effects of organizational justice, suggesting a multi-dimensional supervisor-subordinate relationship. Cultural values did not show much moderating effects as predicted. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and cultural values were more complex and did not show a consistent pattern. Possible explanations for these results and limitations were discussed. Contribution to the literature, practical implications, and future research were also addressed.

DEDICATION

To my dear mother and father

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Motivation

Research has shown that people tend to treat individuals with whom they have good relationships more favorably than those with whom they do not have such good relationships (e.g., ingroup favoritism). This notion is supported by a meta-analysis (Mullen, Brown, & Smith, 1992) which found that people tend to see the ingroup in more positive terms than the outgroup. Organizational justice literature has also demonstrated this ingroup favoritism. For instance, people tend to favor ingroup members when making resource allocation decisions (Makimura & Yamagishi, 2003). However, most of the research on the influence of group membership and organizational justice is from the perspective of the conductor of the treatment (i.e., people tend to treat ingroup members more fairly than outgroup members), little has been done from the perspective of the receiver of the fair or unfair treatment. Particularly, would people perceive organizational justice differently if the source of the justice is from a supervisor of good relationship rather than one without such good relationship? And if the answer is "yes", how would that difference impact various outcomes of organizational justice on individuals, such as employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust in the supervisor, and trust in the organization?

This dissertation follows the style of ***The Academy of Management Journal***.

In the workplace, the relationship of employees with their supervisors plays a critical role in employees' attitudes and behaviors. This relationship can be examined from three similar, but distinct perspectives: ingroup/outgroup identification, leader-member exchange (LMX), and *guanxi*[1].

Although there are many ways to identify and categorize relationships with supervisors, in this dissertation, I will focus on how subordinates classify their relationships with their supervisors based upon ingroup or outgroup membership; the quality of LMX; and *guanxi* or the existence of a common background. In general, people have favorable preferences toward individuals with whom they have good relationships, such as sharing the same group, having high quality LMX, or having strong *guanxi*. They would also expect to be treated favorably (e.g., fair treatment) by such members with whom they have good relationships. However, when they are treated unfavorably (e.g., unfair treatment) by these members, they may have even more negative perceptions, reactions, or behaviors toward the members from whom they receive unfair treatment. Thus, in this study, I examine organizational justice from the perspective of the treatment receivers, studying the effect of employees' relationships with supervisors, who exhibit fair or unfair treatment to them.

Most of the justice theories, such as Adams' (1963) equity theory, Thibaut and Walker's (1975) procedural justice theory, Bies and Moag's (1986) interactional justice,

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[1] G*uanxi* is a Chinese concept. The term refers to a certain interpersonal relationship. It is personal and built on particularistic criteria (Tsui & Farh, 1997). Jacobs (1979) stated that a base for *guanxi* exists when two or more persons have a commonality of shared attributes, identity, or origin, such as kinship, coworkers, classmates, and locality (i.e., hometown). *Guanxi* prescribes mutual obligations for relational partners and different levels of *guanxi* differ in the pressure for relational partners to fulfill obligations (Zhang, 2006).

and recently, the group value model (Tyler, 1989; Tyler & Lind, 1992) and fairness heuristic theory (van den Bos, 2001) are developed in the U.S. context. Although many researchers have studied and found that justice theories are universal and generalizable to some extent, it is still possible that how people perceive justice depends on their culture or ethnicity (Leung & Morris, 2001). A number of studies have been done to investigate how the justice theories work in other cultures outside the U.S. context (e.g., Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997; Kashima, Siegal, Tanaka, & Isaka, 1988; Zhang & Yang, 1998). A meta-analysis by Fischer and Smith (2003) showed that the cultural samples did differ in their reward allocation behaviors; such as people from more masculine cultures allocated rewards significantly more equitably than those from more feminine cultures. These studies demonstrate that justice theories or rules are not universally applicable to every culture. Because of its critical role in world business, understanding how justice norms or principles work in China may dramatically add to the development of justice theories, and organizational practice.

Previously I have stated that relationships with supervisors will influence the effect of organizational justice on outcome variables. This influence may differ across cultures (e.g., the U.S. and China). Even today, the Chinese society is still heavily influenced by the Confucian legacy. According to Confucianism, every individual is fundamentally a social or relational being. So, Chinese view themselves as interdependent with the surrounding social context. This is opposite to the American view of an independent self, which sees each human being as an independent, self-contained, and autonomous entity (Tsui & Farh, 1997). This difference in the importance

of relationships between two cultures will influence the effects of supervisor-subordinate relationships and organizational justice on outcomes.

Research Questions

The above discussion provides me initiatives for this dissertation. To summarize, this dissertation will attempt to answer the following three research questions.

Research Question 1: How will strong or weak relationships with supervisors influence the effect of organizational justice on employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust in the supervisor, and trust in the organization? In other words, will organizational justice have the same effects when employees get the fair/unfair treatment from supervisors of strong/weak relationships?

Research Question 2: How will different cultural values influence the effect of organizational justice on the above key outcomes?

Research Question 3: Will employees of different cultural values consider relationships more or less important when judging organizational justice and its impact on the above key outcomes?

Methodology Overview

Part-time and full-time MBA students from China and undergraduate students from the U.S. were invited to participate in this study. They answered two surveys at two different times. Scales from existing literature were used to measure critical variables in the study. A self-developed scale was used to measure a key variable—ingroup identification. Hierarchical linear regressions were conducted to test the hypotheses

developed in Chapter III. The main purpose of this study is to investigate the moderating effects of relationships with the supervisor and individuals' cultural values on the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables. That is, the study aims to examine the effects of individuals' perceptions, such as perceived fairness and perceived relationship with the supervisor, and their values influenced by their national cultures. In addition, this study is to test the influence of proposed factors on individual-level outcomes, such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, trust in the supervisor, and trust in the organization. Therefore, the proposed model used the individual as the unit of analysis.

Contribution

This dissertation contributes to organizational justice literature in three different ways. First, our understanding of the impact of workplace interpersonal relationship on organizational justice and its effects will be enhanced by investigating the effects of relationships with the supervisor. I will also distinguish three related, but different constructs: ingroup identification, LMX, and *guanxi*. Interpersonal relationship is so ubiquitous in people's life and plays a critical role in the workplace. Understanding how people will react under different relationships helps managers to better predict employees' reactions to managerial decisions and behaviors.

Second, studying organizational justice from a cultural perspective benefits not only theory development, but also organizational practice. Theoretically, Leung and Stephan (2001) have argued that research on organizational justice must go beyond the Euro-American cultural boundaries if the aim is to develop more universal and

generalizable theories in justice. Leung and Morris (2001) also suggested that cross-cultural research can advance justice theories in ways that are not possible in a single cultural context. For instance, cross-cultural studies can help to compare the differences or similarities of the application of justice principles in different cultural context. This will allow the researchers to better understand the different conditions under which justice norms function. Empirically, the development of the global organization in diverse industries has dramatically increased the need of cross-cultural studies. Managers and employees in the organization need to know if there is any difference in perceptions of fairness across cultures and what reactions may arise from it. Being aware of these, they can avoid misunderstandings and unnecessary animosity in cross-cultural communication, which may just be caused by tiny differences in perceptions of justice. A better understanding of the cultural difference will also help to foresee the potential reactions from culturally diverse workforce when the organization is trying to implement any particular policy or procedure.

Third, many existing studies focus on only one or two types of organizational justice (e.g., distributive and procedural justice), or most popular cultural values (e.g., individualism/collectivism and power distance). In this dissertation, I examine the relationship among all four types of organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, five cultural values, and outcome variables. This provides a more complete picture of the research question I am trying to answer.

Organization of the Dissertation

The remainder of the dissertation is organized as follows. Chapter II provides a literature review on three related topics. First, a review of organizational justice is provided, followed by a review on supervisor-subordinate relationships in the workplace. Lastly, different cultural values are reviewed based on Hofstede's framework.

Chapter III develops hypotheses concerning the moderating effects of relationships with the supervisor and cultural values respectively. Later, the joint moderating effects of relationships with the supervisor and cultural values are hypothesized.

Chapter IV provides a description of the research methods that were used to empirically test the hypotheses generated in Chapter III. Sample selection, measurement issues, and statistical analysis techniques are discussed. Chapter V provides the results from the empirical tests.

Finally, Chapter VI presents a discussion of the results in Chapter V, limitations of the study, and implications for future research and organizational practice.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section reviews the central theoretical constructs of the proposed framework. First, I will review the literature on organizational justice. Both theoretical and empirical development is discussed regarding distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice. Second, the ingroup/outgroup identification, leader-member exchange (LMX), and a special phenomenon in Chinese culture, *guanxi*, are reviewed and explained. Next, a review of cultural values follows, which is based on Hofstede's (1980, 1990) framework of cultural dimensions. Lastly, I also discuss research on organizational justice across cultures. The literature review in this chapter will provide the theoretical foundation for the hypotheses developed in Chapter III.

Justice and Its Effects

Organizational justice research deals with the perceptions of fairness in organizational decisions and decision-making procedures. Research has shown that it is an important determinant of individuals' attitudes, decisions, and behavior in the workplace. Justice concepts have been applied to various organizational issues, including selection and staffing, performance appraisal, compensation, diversity management, sexual harassment, only to name a few (for a review, see Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Gilliland & Chan, 2002). It has been demonstrated that organizational justice is one of the most important topics in organizational science. For

instance, it was cited as one of the most popular topics among papers submitted to the Organizational Behavior Division of the Academy of Management during the latter part of 1990s (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997).

The research on organizational justice has demonstrated that employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and trust in the supervisor and the organization could all be influenced by organizational justice—the extent to which employees are treated fairly (Colquitt et al., 2001). However, many individual (including both justice conductors and receivers) and contextual factors influence the relationship between organizational justice and these outcomes. The purpose of this paper is to identify such factors which are paid less attention in the organizational justice literature.

Historically, the conceptualization of justice started with Adams' work on equity theory (Adams, 1965), though the topic of justice or fairness can be dated back as far as Plato and Socrates (Ryan, 1993). As one of the most important and of great interest topics in the fields of organizational behavior and human resource management, organizational justice—the perception of fairness in the organization, has been ubiquitous among every issue in the organization, such as compensation, performance evaluation, and discrimination. As both scholars and researchers have realized the importance of the topic, the research on organizational justice has proliferated, especially since 1990s. In general, the study of organizational justice has focused on two important issues: people's responses to what they receive—outcomes; and how they obtain these outcomes—procedures. More recently, researchers also showed concerns about the fairness of interpersonal communication during the process of outcome allocation, and

availability of information used to determine procedures. These concepts are referred to as the interpersonal and informational justice. Below, I will review the literature on organizational justice in terms of distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal, and informational justice respectively.

Distributive Justice

Distributive justice is concerned about the fairness of outcomes. Aristotle first brought up a similar concept of distributive justice. In his Nichomachean Ethics, he stated fairness as, "that which is manifested in distributions of honor or money or the things that fall to be divided among those who have a share in the constitution" (Ross, 1925: p. 1130). The cornerstone work in the research of distributive justice in the organizational literature was written by Adams (1963; 1965). According to equity theory, people compare the ratios of their own perceived work outcomes (e.g., rewards) and their own perceived work inputs (e.g., contributions) to the corresponding ratios of a comparison other (e.g., a coworker, or past self). Equal ratios are believed to gain equitable states and associated feelings of satisfaction. If the ratios are not equal, when the ratio is higher or he/she is inequitably overpaid, the person should feel guilty. Whereas when the ratio is lower or he/she is inequitably underpaid, the person should feel angry. When inequity exists, people will adjust their own actual or perceived inputs and/or outcomes, or the perceptions of the comparison other's input and/or outcomes, or even change the comparison other in order to change the unpleasant inequities (Greenberg, 1984).

Although Adams' theory advocates the use of an equity rule to determine fairness, several other allocation rules have also been discussed by researchers, such as equality and need rules for allocation (Leventhal, 1976a). Leventhal's (1976b; 1980) justice judgment model studies the conditions under which people proactively employed various justice norms, whereas equity theory focused on people's reactions to pay inequities. Leventhal and colleagues (e.g., Greenberg & Leventhal, 1976) suggested that individuals apply justice rules selectively and follow different rules at different times, according to different situations. Studies have shown that different goals can activate the use of different allocation rules (Deutsch, 1975). For instance, if the objective is to achieve and maintain the harmony of the group, an equality rule is more likely to be used. On the other hand, if productivity is the primary goal, then, equity rule would be applied.

By suggesting the use of alternative allocation rules, Leventhal (1976b) and Deutsch (1975) significantly broadened the scope and meaning of distributive justice. An outcome is perceived to be fair whenever an allocation rule benefits the achievement of key objectives (e.g., productivity, harmony, welfare). Following their work, other researchers expanded the list to a total of 17 distinct rules of distributive justice (Reis, 1986). It is now well accepted that allocation decisions are governed by multiple allocation goals and are made according to multiple allocation rules (e.g., Elliott & Meeker, 1986; Mannix, Neale, & Northcraft, 1995; Meindl, 1989).

Procedural Justice

In their book about disputant reactions to legal procedures, Thibaut and Walker (1975) introduced the study of process to the justice literature. They suggested that third-party dispute resolution procedures (e.g., mediation and arbitration) involved both a process stage and a decision stage. They used process control and decision control to refer to the amount of influence disputants had in each stage. Process control refers to the amounts of control disputants have over the procedures used to settle their grievances, and decision control refers to the amounts of influence they have in determining the outcomes. They found that people believed the procedure was fair if they perceived that they had process control, even if they did not have decision control. This process control effect is often referred to as the "voice" effect (Folger, 1977; Lind & Tyler, 1988).

Although Thibaut and Walker (1975) introduced the concept of procedural justice (the perceived fairness of the process by which the outcomes are achieved (Folger & Greenberg, 1985)), their work focused primarily on disputant reactions to legal procedures. Leventhal and colleagues (Leventhal, 1980; Leventhal, Karuza, & Fry, 1980) extended the notion of procedural justice into non-legal contexts, such as organizational context. Leventhal's theory of procedural justice judgments focused on six criteria that a procedure should meet if to be perceived as fair. These six rules are: (a) the consistency rule, meaning that allocation procedures should be consistent across persons and over time; (b) the bias-suppression rule, stating that decision-makers' personal self-interests should not be active during the allocation process; (c) the

accuracy rule, suggesting that during the process, accurate information should be collected and used in making decisions; (d) the correctability rule, meaning that the process should have some mechanism to correct flawed or inaccurate decisions; (e) the representativeness rule, stating that the needs, values, and opinions of all parties involved should be represented in the process; and (f) the ethicality rule, meaning that the allocation process must be compatible with fundamental moral and ethical standards of the perceiver. Research has offered support for many of these procedural justice principles (e.g., Greenberg, 1986).

Interpersonal and Informational Justice

Starting from the mid-1980s and continuing today, justice researchers noticed that people also consider interpersonal treatment as a form of justice and started to pay more attention to the interpersonal aspects of justice. Bies and Moag (1986) called it interactional justice. They stated, "by interactional justice, we mean that people are sensitive to the quality of interpersonal treatment they receive during the enactment of organizational procedures" (p 44). It focuses on the human side of organizational justice, specifically, the interpersonal treatment and communication from management to employees, who are the recipients of justice.

Based on the unpublished research by Bies (1985), Bies and Moag (1986) identified four rules deciding the fairness of interpersonal treatment. Specifically, these four rules are: (a) truthfulness: authorities should be open, honest, and candid in their communication, and should avoid any sort of deception to any party affected by their decision; (b) justification: authorities should provide adequate explanations of the

outcomes of a decision-making process; (c) respect: authorities should treat individuals with sincerity and dignity, and avoid being rude; and (d) propriety: authorities should refrain from making discriminatory statements or asking inappropriate questions.

More recently, interactional justice has been considered to be divided into two specific types (e.g., Greenberg, 1990, 1993): interpersonal justice, which reflects the degree to which people are treated with politeness, dignity, and respect by the authorities executing procedures or making outcome decisions; and informational justice, which focuses on the explanation provided to individuals, conveying information about why procedures were used or why outcomes were distributed in a certain way. Also, Greenberg (1993) argued that interpersonal justice acts primarily to modify reactions to decision outcomes, because sensitivity can make people feel better about an unfavorable outcome; whereas informational justice acts primarily to change reactions to procedures, in that explanations provide the information needed to evaluate structural aspects of the process. The two dimensions have been shown to have independent effects (e.g., Bies, Shapiro, & Cummings, 1988; Greenberg, 1993). For instance, Bies and Shapiro (1988) found that when a supervisor provided an explanation of his/her decision, the employee felt greater fairness of the decision-making process than when no explanations were given.

Further, Colquitt (2001) found that a four-factor justice structure (e.g., procedural, distributive, interpersonal, and informational justice) provided in the best fit to the data from both a university and a field sample. Finally, the meta-analysis by Colquitt and colleagues (Colquitt et al., 2001) also supports the separation of

interpersonal and informational justice from procedural and distributive justice. Consistent with the above argument, I will follow the four-factor structure of organizational justice, namely, distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal, and informational justice.

Effects of Organizational Justice

One reason that organizational justice has emerged as an important topic is that it influences many attitudes and behaviors of employees in the workplace. This in turn impacts the overall organizational performance and its prosperity in the long run. Of the most interest are employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust in supervisors, and trust in organizations (cf. Colquitt, et al., 2001). In addition, employees, supervisors (or managers), and organizations represent the three parties in the workplace. The four outcome variables selected here reflect employees' reactions to themselves, their supervisors and organizations when they receive fair/unfair treatment. Therefore, these four outcome variables are chosen in my dissertation to investigate the effects of relationships and cultural values on the consequences of organizational justice.

Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as "… a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1300). Managers also believe that a happy worker is a productive employee. It is widely believed that people satisfied with their job also achieve more, have better psychological and physical health, and even experience greater satisfaction in their lives (Fritzsche & Parrish, 2005). Among various antecedents to job satisfaction, studies have shown that distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice all predict job satisfaction (e.g.,

McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Mossholder, Bennett, & Martin, 1998). In fact, a meta-analysis on organizational justice has shown that various types of justice are moderately or highly related to job satisfaction (corrected population correlation ranging from 0.37 to 0.68 with different kinds of organizational justice; Colquitt et al., 2001).

Organizational commitment refers to the strength of individuals' identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Meyer and Allen (1991) incorporated both attitudinal and behavioral approaches to organizational commitment and their complementary relationship, and suggested a three-component framework of organizational commitment. They are affective, continuance, and normative commitment.[2] Common to all three components is the view that commitment is a psychological state that characterizes employees' relationship with the organization, and has implications for the decision of whether to continue membership in the organization (Meyer et al., 1991). Organizational justice, especially procedural justice, has been found to show a strong relationship with organizational commitment. Based on data from 36 employees working at all levels in a manufacturing plant, Konovsky, Folger, and Cropanzano (1987) found that the variance in organizational commitment was uniquely associated with procedural justice. Colquitt and his colleagues' (2001) meta-analysis also supported the notion that different types of

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[2] According to Meyer and Allen (1991), affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees remain in the organization because they need to do so. Normative commitment is a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees feel that they ought to remain with the organization.

organizational justice are significantly correlated to organizational commitment (correlations ranging from 0.19 to 0.57).

Another individual outcome of organizational justice I will investigate in this study is trust. The social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) suggests that trust emerges through the repeated exchange of benefits between two persons, and is essential for stable social relationships. In the organizational context, trust between employees is important for the survival and long-term prosperity of the organization (Schindler & Thomas, 1993). Employees' trust is defined as a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based on expectations of positive intentions from or behaviors by the supervisor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998). In the workplace, employees have been found to distinguish between two trust referents: (a) specific individuals or groups (e.g., supervisors and co-workers); (b) generalized representatives (e.g., employer and organization). Empirical studies have shown that organizational justice influences employees' trust in their supervisors and organizations. Wong and colleagues (Wong, Wong, & Ngo, 2002) found that in Chinese joint ventures, employees' perceived interactional justice had a strong positive relationship with trust in supervisors. Colquitt and colleagues (2001) found that various types of organizational justice have strong correlations with trust (either trust in supervisors or trust in organizations; correlations with various types of justice ranging from 0.47 to 0.64).

Research has shown that people tend to identify others into different categories and treat them differently (e.g., Social Identification Theory; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Individuals tend to treat other people with whom they have good relationships more favorably than those with whom they don't have such good relationship. In addition, people expect to be treated more favorably by those with whom they have good relationships. In the workplace, when employees believe they have good relationships with their supervisors, they would expect to be treated more fairly, and this will impact their work attitudes and performance. Therefore, the relationship between employees and their supervisors may influence the effect of organizational justice on various outcomes discussed early.

Although the above discussed relationships between organizational justice and various outcomes are primarily based on studies conducted in the U.S. context, there have been studies in other cultural contexts supporting these relationships. For instance, Fields, Pang, and Chiu (2000) found that similar to previous U.S. studies, employees' perception of distributive and procedural justice also predicted their job satisfaction, intent to stay, and evaluation of supervisors among Hong Kong participants. Similarly, Fong and Shaffer (2003) found that distributive and procedural justice were significant determinants of employees' pay satisfaction in both Hong Kong and U.S. samples. As a consequence, it is reasonable to conclude that the effects of organizational justice on these outcome variables are generalizeable across different cultures.

However, cultural differences may also influence the strength of these effects. In Fong and Shaffer's (2003) study, they found that when interactional justice was low, the

U.S. participants were even less satisfied with pay raise/administration than Hong Kong participants. They explained this difference in terms of power distance of the two cultures. In a high power distance culture, like Hong Kong, employees more readily accepted that their supervisors were less caring, and therefore, their reaction to perceived interactional justice would be less striking (Fong et al., 2003). Fields et al.'s (2000) study also found although procedural and distributive justice predicted Hong Kong employees' job satisfaction, intent to stay, and evaluation of supervisors, there were different results compared with previous U.S. studies. In conclusion, the effects of organizational justice on these outcome variables can generalize across different cultures. But the strength of these effects may vary in different cultures. In other words, culture may moderate the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables.

Relationships between Employees and Supervisors

In this section, I review the relationship between the supervisor and subordinates, which is a potential moderator between organizational justice and outcome variables. Three similar but distinct constructs are used to describe the supervisor-subordinate relationship. They are ingroup/outgroup identification, LMX, and *Guanxi* respectively.

Ingroup/Outgroup Identification

People are social beings and know their position in the society by identity. Social identity is defined as "the individual's knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of his group membership" (Tajfel, 1972; p. 292). Social identification, "therefore, is the perception of

oneness or belongingness to some human aggregate" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; p. 21), where the individual defines him or herself in terms of the aggregate in which he or she is a member. Tajfel (1982) suggests that, "In order to achieve the state of 'identification,' two components are necessary… a cognitive one, in the sense of awareness of membership; and an evaluative one, in the sense that this awareness is related to some value connotations" (p. 2). Most researchers agree that identification involves the process in which an individual comes to see another (individual, group, or object) as being definitive of one's own self (e.g., Brewer & Kramer, 1985; Tajfel, 1981, 1982).

From the above definitions, social identities are conceptualizations of the self that derive from membership in emotionally significant social categories or groups (Turner, 1982). When people identify themselves and others around them, they find some people are similar to them, and others not. They tend to regard similar others as members in the same group, while dissimilar others as belonging to different groups. Sumner (1906) used the term "ingroup" and "outgroup" to refer to social groupings to which a particular individual belongs or does not belong. Ingroups can be based on relational demographics, such as family, neighbors, and friends, or, it can be based on demographics, such as gender, race, nationality, and religion. Usually, people attach to their ingroups and have a preference of ingroups over outgroups. Sumner (1906) used the term "ethnocentrism" to refer to the special social psychological phenomenon.

Social identity theory (SIT; Tajfel et al., 1986) is widely used to understand intergroup relations. SIT investigates how social categories serve as "a system of orientation which helps to create and define the individual's place in society"(Tajfel,

1981; p. 255). Individuals incorporate knowledge of their group memberships into conceptions of their self-identities. Together with other theories on intergroup relations in social psychology (e.g., social dominance theory, Sidanius & Pratto, 1999; self-categorization theory, Turner, Hoggs, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetheerell, 1987), SIT posits that people have a strong tendency to favor their ingroup in terms of their attitudes, beliefs, and behavior. SIT argues that when people strongly identify with their ingroup and when their self-esteem is linked to the perceived worthiness of their ingroup, they will tend to favor their ingroup and sometimes derogate other outgroups (e.g., Tajfel, 1981; Tajfel et al., 1986; Turner et al., 1987).

There are two processes underlying identification: categorization and self-enhancement. Categorization involves clarifying ingroup-outgroup boundaries. One of the key conditions to make the ingroups perceptually different from outgroups is that the target ingroup is distinctive (Moreland, Levine, & Wingert, 1996). This distinctiveness allows the ingroup to be more easily separated from other outgroups, which facilitates categorization and finally, identification. Self-enhancement involves making comparisons with outgroups. This social comparison process is oriented toward positive image and distinctiveness for one's ingroup, and thus, the maintenance and achievement of positive social identity. People's motivation for self-enhancement strives them to protect or enhance self-evaluation of their own groups via social identity (e.g., Turner, 1982).

As an offshoot of SIT, Self-categorization theory (SCT; Turner et al., 1987) investigates the cognitive process by which individuals categorize themselves as

members of social groups: maximizing intracategory similarity and intercategory differences (Ashforth & Johnson, 2001). The categories with which people feel membership could be characteristics like nationality, race, sex, and so on. Individual characteristics that are easier to assess, such as race and gender, are more likely to form the basis for categorization than characteristics that are more difficult to assess, such as personality and ability (Higgins, 1996).

Both SIT (Tajfel et al., 1986) and SCT (Turner et al., 1987) propose that individuals seek to maintain a positive social identity through a process of self-categorization, to build a positive self-image and to enhance their self-esteem. In fact, many studies have demonstrated people's tendency to automatically associate positive characteristics with their ingroups more easily than outgroups (i.e., ingroup favoritism) as well as their tendency to associate negative characteristics with outgroups more easily than ingroups (i.e., outgroup derogation) (Dasgupta, 2004).

Strong identification with the organization has been found to result in lower employee turnover, higher job satisfaction, motivation, and higher compliance with organizational dictates (Ashforth et al., 1989; Mael & Ashforth, 1995). However, members' identifying "too much" may also lead to some negative outcomes. For instance, identification with a particular ingroup may cause stereotyping and degrading outgroup members and to more intergroup conflict (Hogg, 1996a; Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995).

Leader-Member Exchange

First proposed by Graen and his colleagues (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975), leader-member exchange (LMX) theory is distinguished from other leadership theories by its focus on the dyadic relationship between a leader and a member. According to Scandura, Graen, and Novak (1986), LMX is "(a) a system of components and their relationships, (b) involving both members of a dyad, (c) involving interdependent patterns of behavior, (d) sharing mutual outcome instrumentalities, and (e) producing conceptions of environments, cause maps, and value" (p. 580). LMX theory proposes that leaders (i.e., supervisors) develop different relationships with employees in their work groups. LMX focused on the quality of exchanges between the supervisor and the subordinate, and is based on the degree of emotional support and exchange of valued resources (Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002).

According to LMX theory, leaders (i.e., supervisors) offer their limited resources, such as time, attention, energy, and other resources to certain subordinates, called ingroup members, in exchange for trust, support, and loyalty. Those subordinates in the outgroup do not share these benefits. Empirical studies have confirmed that leaders allot membership in the ingroup and outgroup based on personal characteristics which may be unrelated to performance, such as age, gender, race, etc. (e.g., Dansereau et al., 1975; Liden & Graen, 1980).

In lower quality exchanges, supervisors exercise formal organizational authority, and get routine subordinate performance while the subordinates receive standard organizational benefits (Graen et al., 1975). The exchanges adhere to the terms of the

employment contract. In contrast, higher quality exchanges are good working relationships with mutual trust and support, interpersonal attraction, and loyalty, which go beyond the formal employment contract. In higher quality exchanges, subordinates receive favorable performance appraisals, promotions, and satisfying positions; and supervisors get committed, competent, and loyal subordinates (e.g., Dansereau et al., 1975; Liden et al., 1980). Feelings of unfairness are more likely to be aroused among lower quality exchange subordinates (Yukl, 1994). A recent meta-analysis (Gerstner & Day, 1997) has shown that high quality exchanges has been a significant correlate of many desired outcomes, such as increased subordinate satisfaction and performance, and decreased turnover intention.

Guanxi *in China*

Guanxi is a special construct originated in Chinese society. However, it has recently gained its standing as a legitimate and accepted socio-cultural construct in the U.S. literatures of cultural anthropology, sociology, social psychology, political science, business, and management (e.g., Farh, Tsui, Xin, & Cheng, 1998; Tsang, 1998; Tsui & Farh, 1997). Though there are some theories similar to *guanxi*, such as relational demography, interpersonal relationship, or social network[3], they can only help to explain

[3] According to Chen and Chen (2004), social network theories tend to focus on network structure and individuals' positions in the network (Brass, 1995), rather than on the content and process of dyadic relationships. Theories on interpersonal relationships tend to accept a universalistic "culture free" perspective. According to Tsui and O'Reilly (1989), relational demography refers to "the comparative demographic characteristics of members of dyads or groups who are in a position to engage in regular interactions." It focuses on the similarity or dissimilarity in given demographic characteristics of a supervisor and a subordinate or of members who interact with each other in the workplace. In addition, *guanxi* bases relate to an individual's native and socioeconomic origin or background rather than their physical attributes, such as age or sex (Tsui & Farh, 1997).

some general aspects of *guanxi* in China, but they do not capture the unique characteristics of *guanxi* (Chen & Chen, 2004).

There are many definitions of *guanxi*. Chen and Chen (2004) defined it as "an informal, particularistic personal connection between two individuals who are bounded by an implicit psychological contract to follow the social norm of *guanxi* such as maintaining a long-term relationship, mutual commitment, loyalty, and obligation" (p. 306). The two parties who have *guanxi* would show mutual trust in each other and have feelings developed through numerous interactions following the self-disclosure, dynamic reciprocity, and long-term equity principles (Chen et al., 2004). When *guanxi* is established between two people, one can ask for a favor from the other and the other can expect that he or she will be repaid sometime in the future (Yang, 1994). Compared with similar constructs in the U.S. literature (e.g., LMX and ingroup identification), *guanxi* is more obligation-bound (e.g., Fiske, 1992). But the pressure to fulfill such obligation differs based on the strength of *guanxi* between the two parties and can change over time. Once it evolves to a close *guanxi* due to the change of affective feelings involved, for example, from "acquaintance" to "good friends," the obligations and the obligatory pressure become strong (Zhang, 2006). The maintenance of *guanxi* requires the endeavor of both parties and it can fade away if one or both parties do not carry out their obligations.

The fundamental meaning of *guanxi* can be tracked back to ancient Chinese philosophies, especially to Confucianism (Confucius, 1915). Tsui and Farh (1997) traced the cultural origin of *guanxi* and found that the word *lun* used in Confucian ideology

actually referred to the concept of *guanxi*. Confucius defined five cardinal or dyadic role relations, called *wu-lun*: emperor-subject, father-son, husband-wife, elder-younger brothers, and friend-friend. Yang (1993) stated that in a highly formalistic cultural system like in China, *wu-lun* required each actor in the society to perform his or her role. "He or she should precisely say what he or she was supposed to say, and not to say what he or she was not supposed to say" (p. 29). In addition, "to be a good role performer, the actor actually had to hide his or her free will…That is why Chinese has been said to be situation-centered or situationally determined" (p. 29-30).

From traditional Chinese literature and more current anthropological studies, Tsui and Farh (1997) summarized nine bases of *guanxi*, including close kin, distant kin, surname, former neighbor, former teacher-student, former supervisor-subordinate, former coworker, former classmate, and locality or native origin.

In the Chinese society, the concept of *guanxi* is applicable to all kinds of interpersonal relationships. The particular behaviors or activities between two individuals will depend on the strength of their *guanxi*. Not only in the social life, *guanxi* can also be applied to organizations, where people develop social relationships above and beyond their work duties. Law and colleagues' findings (Law, Wong, Wang, & Wang, 2000) have indicated that supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* could influence supervisors' decisions on bonus allocation and subordinates' promotion. In fact, people will regard the ones with whom they have *guanxi* as their ingroup members, while those they don't as outgroup members. So, the ingroup favoritism can also exist among people with different *guanxi*.

Jacobs (1979) stated that a base for *guanxi* exists when two or more persons have a commonality of shared attributes, identity, or origin, such as kinship, coworkers, classmates, and locality (i.e., hometown). Though there is not a corresponding term in English that captures all the meaning of the Chinese term *guanxi*, the same *guanxi* bases exist as well as in the U.S., e.g., classmates, schoolmates, coworkers, neighbors, and etc.

Ingroup/Outgroup Identification, LMX, and Guanxi

As discussed above, ingroup/outgroup relations, LMX, and *guanxi* are related, but distinct constructs. Although all three constructs can be used to identify the relationship between employees and their supervisors in the workplace, each emphasizes different aspects.

"Ingroup" and "outgroup" are used to refer to social groupings to which an individual belongs or does not belong. This grouping is based on people's perceptions that they are similar to ingroup members and different from outgroup members in one way or another. Usually, the bases for ingroup/outgroup identities include relational demographics (e.g., family, neighbors, and friends) and individual's demographics (e.g., gender, age, race). In addition, this categorization or grouping does not directly measure the closeness of the relationship between two individuals. For instance, an employee may categorize the supervisor as an ingroup member because they are all Asian females, but may not have a very close relationship.

LMX is specifically used to describe the relationship between employees and their supervisors. This relationship is developed by interacting with each other in the workplace. Although leaders may allot membership in the ingroup and outgroup based

on personal characteristics, such as gender, age, race, etc., LMX emphasizes the quality of exchanges between the leader and the subordinate, and is based on emotional support to each other and the exchange of valued resources (Wayne et al., 2002). A necessity to develop LMX is that the employee and the supervisor have work-related interactions. Usually, LMX is established after people come to work together. But ingroup identification and *guanxi* are established based on some existing common basis or previous interactions.

Guanxi, though originated in Chinese society, has been accepted as a legitimate socio-cultural construct in the U.S. literature. *Guanxi* is an informal personal connection which is bounded by an implicit psychological contract. The two parties are supposed to maintain a long-term relationship, show mutual commitment and trust, and fulfill their obligation in this *guanxi*. The phenomenon of *guanxi* is overwhelming in Chinese society, not only in people's personal lives, but also in the workplace. Compared with the other two types of relationships, *guanxi* is more obligation-bounded. When one party receives a favor from the other party, he/she is expected to return an even larger favor sometime in the future. When one party finds out that the other party does not fulfill his/her obligation, this party may feel betrayed and will move away from this *guanxi*. This pressure to carry out their obligation is not rooted in LMX or ingroup identification.

Culture Values

In this section, culture values will be reviewed based on Hofstede's (1980, 1990) framework of five cultural dimensions. As discussed early, the influence of organizational justice exists across different cultures, but the strength may differ and

culture may impact the effects of organizational justice on outcome variables. Therefore, an understanding of different culture values is necessary to develop future hypotheses.

Definitions of culture abound, and many have been used in anthropology and psychology (Berry, Poortinga, Segall, & Dasen, 1992: Chapter 7). Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) proposed a definition that encompasses both objective patterns and subjective patterns: "Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behavior acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e., historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values" (p.118). Poortinga (1992) also posited culture as a set of "shared constraints that limit the behavior repertoire available to members of a certain…group" (p. 10). These "boundary conditions for behavior" (p. 12) include the internal constraints of genetic and cultural transmission and the external constraints of ecological, socioeconomical, historical, and situational contexts. Similarly, Hofstede (1991) defines culture as "… the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another" (p. 5). Put in an easier way, culture is about the shared beliefs and values among people in the same society. Erez and Earley (1992) have suggested that culture shapes the cognitive schema, which ascribes meaning and values to motivational variables and guide people's behaviors. Put differently, culture specifies what behaviors are desirable for members of the culture (norms), individuals in the social structure (roles), and the goals and principles that are important in one's life (values) (Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow, & Lawler, 2000). In

addition, people living in the same cultural environment tend to share similar values and cognitive schema (Triandis, 1989).

The usefulness of culture as an explanatory variable depends on researchers' ability to investigate the culture concept (Rohner, 1984). To do this, we need to view culture as complex, multi-dimensional structure rather than taking it simply as a categorical variable (Clark, 1987), and to array different cultures along interpretable dimensions (Schwartz, 1994). In his highly influential and widely cited book *Culture's Consequences*, Hofstede first derived four dimensions along which the dominant value systems in different cultures can be ordered, including individualism/collectivism, power distance, masculinity/femininity, and uncertainty avoidance, based on a study of more than a hundred thousand IBM employees in 50 countries. Later on, Hofstede (1991) derived a fifth cultural dimension—long term orientation. Hofstede's framework is important because it organizes cultural differences into overarching patterns, which facilitates comparative research across nations. These dimensions are widely implemented by many researchers in cross-cultural studies (e.g., Bond, Leung, & Wan, 1982; Eylon & Au, 1999; Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997). Although in my dissertation, I am more interested in individuals' cultural values, such values are heavily influenced by the culture where they live or were brought up. In addition, Hofstede's framework is also based on individual employees' responses. Thus, reviewing Hofstede's framework of cultural dimensions provides theoretical foundation for my hypothesis development in next chapter. In the following section, I will briefly review Hofstede's five cultural dimensions.

Individualism/Collectivism

Among these culture dimensions, individualism/collectivism has captured the most interest of cross-cultural research. Hofstede (1980) defines individualism/ collectivism as "the relationship between the individual and the collectivity which prevails in a given society" (p. 213). Individualism has a focus on rights above duties, a concern for oneself and immediate family only, an emphasis on personal autonomy and self fulfillment, and it bases one's identity on one's personal accomplishments (Hofstede, 1980). On the other hand, collectivist cultures are communal societies characterized by diffuse and mutual obligations and expectations based on ascribed statuses. In such societies, a tightly knit social framework is preferred, and individuals can expect their relatives, clan, or other ingroup members to look after them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty to them. Social units with common fate, common goals, and common values are centralized (Schwartz, 1990). According to Hofstede (1980), individualism/collectivism is a unidimensional construct and could be considered to be a continuum, with individualism at one end, and collectivism at the other. In other words, people from individualist culture have a tendency to put a stronger emphasis on one's own interests and goals, whereas people from collectivist cultures have a stronger emphasis on the interests and goals of the group to which they belong (Hofstede, 1980). Based on Hofstede's (1980) report of different countries' ranking on cultural dimensions, the United States, Canada, and Western European countries are high on individualism; and most Asian, Latin American, and African countries are high on collectivism.

Triandis (Hui & Triandis, 1986; Triandis, 1990) regards individualism/ collectivism as two separate entities and provides a more comprehensive and concise definition of the two constructs. He suggests that individualism has the following characteristics: 1) priority of personal goals over collective goals; 2) emphasis on competition; 3) independence of people; and 4) self-reliance. In contrast, collectivism has: 1) priority of collective goals over individual goals; 2) sense of harmony; 3) interdependence of people; and 4) concern for others.

Individualism implies that creating and maintaining a positive sense of self is a basic human endeavor (Baumeister, 1998); feeling good about oneself, personal success, and having many unique or distinctive personal attitudes and opinions are valued (Oyserman & Markus, 1993; Triandis, 1995); and abstract traits (as opposed to social, situational descriptors) are central to self-definition (Fiske, Kitayama, Markus, & Nisbett, 1997). However, collectivism implies that group membership is a central aspect of identity, and valued personal traits reflect the goals of collectivism (Hofstede, 1980; Markus & Kitayama, 1991), and valued personal traits reflect the goals of collectivism, such as sacrifice for the common good and maintaining harmonious relationships with close others (Markus et al., 1991; Oyserman, 1993; Triandis, 1995).

Power Distance

Inequality exists in every culture, but the degree to which it is tolerated differs (Hofstede, 1980). According to Hofstede (1983), power distance refers to "the extent to which members of a society accept that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally"(p. 336). Similarly, Earley (1997) refers to power distance as the

extent to which indiviudals of a culture accept inequality and large differentials between those with power (e.g., superiors) and those with little power (e.g., subordinates). People in high power distance societies accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a ranking that needs no further justification. They agree that supervisors should have a great degree of power over subordinates, and have the privilege to make decisions without consulting subordinates. People behave submissively to the supervisor, or are at least unwilling to openly disagree with the supervisor. In such cultures, employees perceive their supervisors to be more autocratic and paternalistic. The authority regards it an obligation to provide support and protection to their subordinates. In return, subordinates reciprocate such support and protection of the paternal authority by showing loyalty, deference and compliance to them.

In low power distance societies, people strive for power equalization and demand justification for power inequalities (Hofstede, 1980). The hierarchical system is often considered as an inequality of roles that is set up for administrative reason. In addition, subordinates expect supervisors to consult them (Lam, Schaubroeck, & Aryee, 2002), and want to approach supervisors to express their opinions on important issues. Participatory democracy is favored, and subordinates are given opportunities to share information and participate in decision-making process. Australia, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Norway, New Zealand, Sweden, and the U.S. are some examples of low power distance countries. Philippines, Singapore, Brazil, China, Guatemala, Indonesia, Malaysia, and Mexico are of high power distance (Hofstede, 1980).

Hofstede (1991) conceded that power distance and individualism/collectivism are generally highly correlated. However, he also argued that this is not the case for all the countries in his study. Specifically, the Latin European countries (such as France and Belgium), Austria, Israel, and Costa Rica have a relatively low correlation between these two dimensions. He also suggests that the correlation could partly due to a third underlying factor, i.e., economic development: "If economic development is held constant, i.e., if rich countries are compared to rich ones only and poor to poor ones, the relationship disappears" (p56). Consequently, power distance is still a distinct cultural dimension we cannot neglect in cross-cultural studies.

Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance refers to "the degree to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity, which leads them to support beliefs promising certainty and to maintain institutions protecting conformity" (Hofstede, 1983a; p. 336). Individuals from countries high in uncertainty avoidance tend to prefer rules, favor consensus, and always want to operate in predictable situations. Also, individuals in such countries tend to be highly intolerant of ambiguity, and are likely to be distrustful of new ideas. Violation of the rules and norms will upset uncertainty-reducing activities. In such countries, people are uncomfortable with high risk and ambiguity, and would like to follow the rules, avoid deviant ideas and behaviors, and minimize uncertainty and risk. They also believe that conflict and competition should be avoided, and security in life is important. Such people are also characterized by a belief in absolute truth (Kotler, 2003).

In nations low in uncertainty avoidance, there is less desire of rules and less conformity to the wishes of authority. The society is more tolerant of deviations from social norms. People believe that competition and conflict are beneficial and constructive, and dissent is more accepted.

Greece, Guatemala, Japan, Portugal, and Poland are countries with high uncertainty avoidance. Denmark, Hong Kong, Ireland, Jamaica, Sweden, and Singapore rank as low uncertainty avoidance countries. Compared to the U.S., China is more uncertainty avoidant culture.

Masculinity/Femininity

Masculinity/femininity refers to the extent to which values associated with stereotypes of masculinity (e.g., aggressiveness and dominance) and femininity (e.g., compassion, empathy, and emotional openness) are emphasized. More specifically, it describes a preference for accomplishment, heroism, assertiveness, and material success as opposed to a preference for relationships, interactions, modesty, caring for the weak, and the quality of life (Hofstede, 1983a).

Masculine cultures (e.g., Japan, Hungary, Austria, China, Germany, the United States, and Mexico) tend to have more sex-differentiated occupational structures with certain jobs mostly held by women and others by men. The culture admires the acquisition of material possessions and value aggressive attempts to acquire additional wealth. Such cultures tend to favor large-scale enterprises, and economic growth is seen as more important than environmental conservation. There is also a stronger emphasis on achievement, growth, and challenge in jobs. Also in masculine cultures, people are more

assertive, define their life through work and achievement, and are driven to gain achievements, which are defined by recognition and wealth.

However, in feminine cultures (e.g., Denmark, Costa Rica, Finland, the Netherlands, Norway, and Sweden), working conditions, job satisfaction, and employee participation are emphasized. People concentrate more on relationship, interdependence, and equality. Managers are not as achievement oriented as those in masculine cultures. Rather, they are more nurturing and concerned about relationships with employees.

Based on Hofstede's survey results, the U.S. and China do not differ much on this cultural dimension. Both countries rank around the middle among all the nations in the survey (Hofstede, 2001).

Long-Term Orientation

In 1991, Hofstede published a revised version of his 1980 *Culture's Consequences*. A vital feature of this new version is the inclusion of the fifth cultural dimension—long-term orientation, also known as "Confucian dynamism," which deals with time orientation.

According to Hofstede (1991), long-term orientation refers to a positive, dynamic, and future oriented culture linked with four "positive" Confucian values: persistence, ordering relationships by status and observing this order, thrift, and having a sense of shame. Short-term orientation, on the other hand, represents a negative, static, and traditional, and past-oriented culture related with four "negative" Confucian values: personal steadiness and stability, protecting the face, respect for tradition, and reciprocation of greetings, favors, and gifts.

Countries with long-term orientation are able to adapt traditions to a modern context. For instance, Japan's ability to accept western technological innovation into its culture is a key to its economic success. In long-term oriented cultures, people tend to pursue a goal, or have a consideration for more permanent and sustainable outcomes. Also, people are willing to save for the future and have a high regard for perseverance and discipline. They exercise greater financial responsibility by showing respect for social and status obligations within the limit. However, nations with a short-term orientation have respect for past traditions but remain within the constraints of the traditions instead of moving forward. People from short-term oriented cultures have small personal savings, expect to receive quick results and feedback, and are under social pressure to keep pace with peers. They have a respect of social and status obligations regardless of costs. The credit card system in the United States is an example to support the excessive spending of their people. China, Japan, Korea, Thailand are examples of long-term oriented countries. Pakistan, Philippines, Canada, the UK, and the USA are examples of short-term oriented countries.

Justice Research across Cultures

Leung (2005) argued that although concerns about justice may be universal, justice effects may not necessarily take the same form across cultures. Existing studies also have indicated that we cannot expect managerial practices to transfer across ethnic, cultural, and national boundaries (Bond & Smith, 1996). As a result, cross-cultural research is needed if we want to fully understand different justice theories and how they work in different cultures before we can say that they are universal.

Research on cross-cultural justice was first investigated in the context of resource allocation, particularly rewards allocation. Bond, Leung, and Wan (1982) found that people in collectivist cultures prefer egalitarian resource allocation because they value and want to maintain harmony with others, whereas people in individualist cultures prefer equitable resource allocation due to their emphasis on individual performance. Allocations based on personal needs are also more likely to occur in collectivist cultures because of concerns for group solidarity (Berman, Murphy-Berman, & Singh, 1985). In their study, Leung and Bond (1984) found that Chinese allocators employed the equity norm more closely to Americans for an outgroup member, but were more likely to use the equality norm for an ingroup member.

A few studies have also focused on the procedures through which resource allocation decisions are made. In the cross-cultural settings, Lind, Tyler, and Huo (1997) argued that the preference for low power distance, which is evident in the United States, is associated with a relative emphasis on procedural judgments in evaluating authorities. This conclusion was supported both cross-culturally using Japanese respondents and within culture using an individual measure of preferred power distance.

In sum, cross-cultural studies indicate that the effects of organizational justice on various outcomes do differ across different cultures. It is this difference that drives me to investigate how the effects may change across cultures.

Summary of Chapter II

In this chapter, I reviewed the literature on organizational justice and its effects on various outcomes, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust to the

supervisor, and trust to the organization. The relationship between supervisors and subordinates may influence the effect of organizational justice on the above outcomes. Three similar, but distinct types of relations are discussed, including ingroup/outgroup relations, LMX, and *guanxi*—the special relationship existing in the Chinese society. In addition, in different cultures, the effect of justice may also differ. Therefore, various cultural dimensions and associated values were also reviewed.

Having reviewed the main constructs in my model, the next chapter will present the development of my model and theoretical rationale for each corresponding hypothesis.

CHAPTER III

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

In this chapter, I will develop the hypotheses of this study. Specifically, I will first discuss the main effect of organizational justice on outcome variables. Secondly, I will examine the moderating effect of relationships with the supervisor (i.e., ingroup/outgroup identification, LMX, and *guanxi*). Next, the moderating effect of different cultural values on the relationships between organizational justice and outcome variables will follow. Lastly, I will investigate the joint impacts of relationships and cultural values on the effects of organizational justice on outcome variables.

Main Effects of Justice on Individual Outcomes

As has been demonstrated by the literature, employees' perceptions of fair treatment are critical for predicting a number of their work attitudes and behaviors. Social exchange theory has been used to explain relations between organizational justice and various individual outcomes. According to Blau (1964), social exchange theory focuses on the relationship developed by the exchange of resources between two parties. Individuals feel obliged to repay the benefits they receive from the other party. In addition, social exchange theory states that employees and organizations look for long-term, mutual social transactions between each other (Greenberg & Scott, 1996). Justice is considered to be an input of the organization to the exchange relationship (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000). Thus, when employees are treated fairly by the

management, they will repay the organization or supervisors by increased commitment to the organization, and trust in their supervisors and the organization. For instance, in a large survey of US government employees, Alexander and Ruderman (1987) found that both procedural and distributive justice perceptions were related to employees' job satisfaction, evaluations of supervisors, trust in management, and turnover intentions. McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) also found support that procedural and distributive justice predict organizational commitment, pay satisfaction, and job satisfaction. In addition, when examining survivors' reactions to reorganization, Kernan and Hanges (2002) found that interpersonal and informational justice added unique variance to the prediction of trust in management.

A range of empirical studies has found different effects of various types of justice on individual outcomes. Overall, these results suggest that procedural justice may be a more important predictor than distributive justice of outcomes related to evaluating a company as an institution and its representatives, such as organizational commitment and trust in supervisor. In contrast, distributive justice may be a more important predictor of personal outcomes, like satisfaction with pay level, than procedural justice (for a review, see Colquitt et al., 2001). Nonetheless, Colquitt et al.'s (2001) review supports the notion that various types of organizational justice are related to individual outcomes which are of interest in this study.

Based on the above discussion, and consistent with previous studies, I would expect that,

H1: Organizational justice (i.e., procedural justice, distributive justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice) is positively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust in the supervisor, and trust in the organization.

Moderating Effects of Supervisor-Subordinate Relationships

In chapter II, I have reviewed the relationships between employees and their supervisors, i.e., ingroup/outgroup relationship, LMX, and *guanxi*. These three perspectives are distinct, but have similarities as well. All are used to describe strong or weak relationships between employees and their supervisors. In addition, similar to ingroup/outgroup identification, employees also identify supervisors with whom they have high quality LMX or good *guanxi* as their ingroup members, and those with whom they have low quality LMX or poor *guanxi* as their outgroup members. Therefore, in this section, I will investigate the influence of relationships on the effect of organizational justice without separating these three types of relationships. By doing so, I use ingoup/outgroup relationship to make my argument. But the argument also holds for LMX and *guanxi*.

People are social beings who identify with certain social groups. The groups people identify with can have a profound impact on their attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors. Not only do they identify themselves with certain groups, people also regard others around them according to the groups to which those others belong. Individuals regard others who are in the same social group as ingroup members and those who are not outgroup members (e.g., Tajfel et al., 1986; Turner et al., 1987). Sumner (1906) stated that the essential characteristics of an individual's relationship to ingroups are

loyalty (i.e., adherence to ingroup norms and trustworthiness in dealing with fellow ingroup members) and preference (i.e., differential acceptance of ingroup members over outgroup members and positive evaluation of ingroup characteristics).

Numerous studies have documented people's tendency to associate positive characteristics with their ingroup members more easily than outgroup members (i.e., ingroup favoritism), as well as the tendency to associate negative characteristics with outgroup members more easily than ingroup members (i.e., outgroup derogation) (Dasgupta, 2004). For instance, based on social identity theory (Tajfel et al., 1986), Chen, Brockner, and Katz (1998) found that both their American and Chinese participants showed positive biases towards their ingroup members and discriminated against outgroup members. One reason provided by social identity theory (Tajfel et al., 1986) for this ingroup favoritism—outgroup derogation is that people are motivated to seek or maintain a positive identity; and a primary means of achieving this objective is through biased comparisons with outgroups along relevant dimensions.

In the workplace, research has shown that employees who feel that they belong in a group and share the group's fate and who see their self-image through being a group member will be more likely to show positive attitudes and behaviors toward the group than employees who do not. For instance, researchers on relational demographics suggest that employees compare their own demographic characteristics with those of other members of their workgroup or unit. The extent to which they are similar with their colleagues influences their identification with the workgroup and consequently, work-related outcomes, such as decreased turnover intentions and absenteeism, and

increased commitment and citizenship behavior (Chattopadhyay, 1999; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992).

There is also research on the effect of group membership demonstrating that people react more positively to decisions from member of the ingroup than those of the outgroup (i.e., ingroup favoritism). The effect of group membership extends to authority, such that individuals respond more strongly to processes and procedures promoted by ingroup rather than outgroup authorities (Smith, Tyler, Huo, Ortiz, & Lind, 1998). Similarly, the identification effect (Tyler, Boeckmann, Smith, & Huo, 1997) suggests that procedural fairness would have a greater impact on people who identify strongly with the group than on people who identify less. This hypothesis is supported by Tyler and Degoey's (1995) study. Conducted in the context of a naturally occurring social dilemma (the California water shortage), their study found that people were more willing to support authorities who made water conservation decisions using fair decision-making procedures; and that this relationship was stronger for those who had positive relational bonds to the authorities than those with weaker bonds.

The group-value model of procedural justice investigates hierarchical social relationships in organizations. It incorporates the social identity principle (Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Tajfel et al., 1986) that people use groups, and the authorities that represent those groups, as a source of information about their self-worth (Tyler, Degoey, & Smith, 1996). According to the group-value model, people value treatment that is unbiased, trustworthy, and dignified (Tyler et al., 1992). This type of high quality treatment from group authorities indicates to people that they are valued group members,

which makes them feel proud of being group members. In contrast, biased, untrustworthy, and rude treatment communicates to individuals their marginal status within the group.

Therefore, an important premise of the group-value model is that people's relationship to the group should impact the importance they place on how they are treated by group authorities. More specifically, higher treatment quality should increase feelings of self-worth when the authority represents a valued ingroup, but not when the authority represents an outgroup (Smith et al., 1998). Recent research has provided some evidence in support of the moderating effect of group membership on the importance of treatment quality. For instance, people's interactions with organizational authorities show that the relationship between treatment quality and acceptance of authorities and their decisions is stronger when the authority and group member share the same cultural background than when the authority and group member are from different cultural backgrounds (Huo & Tyler, 1998; Tyler, Lind, Ohbuchi, Sugawara, & Huo, 1998). Therefore, based on the group-value model, I also expect that higher treatment quality increases perception of people's self-worth, and consequently increases their satisfaction with the job, commitment to the organization, and trust in their supervisors and organizations. On the other hand, low treatment quality from their ingroup authorities will make people exhibit especially negative attitudes and behaviors toward the authority and the organization of which the authority is the agent, when compared to injustice received by an outgroup authority member.

Although the above discussion is based on the group-value model of procedural justice, I would expect that the moderating effect of relationships on the influence of procedural justice on employees' attitudes would also extend to distributive, interpersonal, and informational justice as well. The outcomes people receive (distributive justice), and the ways in which they are treated (interpersonal and informational justice) also reflect their status in the group and their self-worth. When people receive fair outcomes and are treated with respect and dignity, they believe that they are valued members of their groups. When the higher quality of treatment is from their supervisors of strong relationships, these people's satisfaction with the job, commitment to the organization, and trust in their supervisors and organizations will also be stronger than if high quality treatment is received from supervisors of weak relationships. Therefore, I hypothesize that,

H2: Relationships with the supervisor will moderate the effects of organizational justice on outcome variables such that the positive relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables will be stronger when employees perceive that they have a strong relationship (e.g., ingroup relations; high quality LMX; or strong guanxi) with their supervisors than when there is a weak relationship.

Moderating Effects of Cultural Values

As mentioned earlier, researchers have begun to pay attention to cross-cultural studies on the topic of organizational justice, and more empirical studies are now conducted in different cultures. However, the results are not consistent with what we learn from the U.S. cultures. For instance, Bond and colleagues (Bond et al., 1982)

found that Chinese participants tend to emphasize equality or need rules in reward allocation, whereas American participants preferred equity rule. Regarding procedural justice, contrary to the findings in the extant American literature, Yoon (1996) found that among Korean employees procedural justice was more strongly related to job satisfaction than distributive justice. Leung and colleagues (Leung, Smith, Wang, & Sun, 1996) found similarly stronger procedural justice effects, compared to distributive justice effects, on job satisfaction in joint venture companies in China. These different results suggest that different cultural values held by individuals may be a potential moderator in the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables. In the following section, I will discuss the potential moderating effects of people's cultural values on the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables. The discussion of people's cultural values is based on the review of Hofstede's framework of cultural dimensions in Chapter II.

Moderating Effect of Individualism/Collectivism

The cultural dimension of individualism/collectivism has been used to explain a variety of cross-cultural differences in social and organizational behaviors. According to Hofstede (1980), it describes "the relationship between the individual and the collectivity which prevails in a given society" (p. 213). In individualist societies, "ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family" (Hofstede, 1991; p. 51) On the other hand, in collectivist cultures, "people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive ingroups,

which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (Hofstede, 1991; p. 51).

Hofstede (1980) believes that the level of individualism/collectivism in a given society strongly influences the nature of the relationship between workers and their organizations. Workers with collectivist values are more morally and socially involved and emotionally identified with their workplaces. They value the group and considerations of kinship, mutual obligation, and reciprocity. People with such values also have a stronger need to belong, and are more willing to be subordinates to the authority. In addition, employees would expect their organizations to care them like a family and the separation between personal and work life is much less than in individualist societies.

On the other hand, individualism's self-orientation results in an emotional independence of the individual from organizations and institutions; an emphasis on individual initiative, achievement, and rights; and a universalistic feeling that value standards should apply to all. The involvement of workers with individualist values is more calculative and utilitarian, and people believe that decisions should be made based on individual merit.

As specified by Thibaut and Walker (1975), organizational justice that emphasizes performance-based reward systems (e.g., distributive justice), coupled with structures that facilitate consistent treatment of employees (e.g., procedural justice), should enhance employees' control over their attainment of personal outcomes. Employees with individualist values are more achievement-oriented and are motivated

by the need to maximize personal outcomes. Therefore, such employees are more concerned about an equitable distribution of rewards through a fair process and being treated with respect and dignity. Consequently, the fairness they receive will have a stronger effect on their attitudes and behaviors, including their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust in their supervisors, and trust in their organizations. However, people with collectivist values prefer group harmony and relationship with others. The interest of the collectivity (i.e., group, organization, and nation) precedes personal interest, and justice will have less of an impact in these cultures. So, I hypothesize that,

H3a: Individualism/collectivism will moderate the relationship between organizational justice and outcomes such that the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables will be stronger among employees with (1) high rather than low individualist values; (2) low rather than high collectivist values.

Moderating Effect of Power Distance

Power distance describes "the extent to which less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally" (Hofstede, 1991, p. 28). Work-related power distance refers to how much hierarchical inequality people will accept and indeed regard as proper, according to that society's general power distance norms (Hofstede, 1980).

Individuals with high power distance values believe that organizations and society should to be hierarchically ordered. People of high status have power and many privileges. Subordinates are reverential towards their supervisors. People tend to comply

with the demands of authority and accept its punitive actions if they fail to reach an expected performance level. On the contrary, people with low power distance values tend to minimize status differentials, and subordinates are less likely to submit to authorities with no reason. Such subordinates also expect to contribute input into decisions that may affect them and are less willing to accept arbitrary treatment from their supervisors (Hofstede, 1980, 1991). For instance, a study (Bond, Wan, Leung, & Giacalone, 1985) found that although both American and Chinese participants felt an insult as more legitimate when it was from a superior rather than an inferior person, the tendency was even stronger for Chinese. Using Chinese and American MBA students, Leung, Su, and Morris (2001) found that after being criticized by their supervisor, Chinese participants regarded the criticism as less unfair and were less likely to attribute negative traits to their supervisors than did American participants.

Equity-based rewarding systems ensure that managers do not use personal criteria for reward distribution. So, employees with low power distance values can expect to have some control over the attainment of important work outcomes if their reward is based on their performance. Also consistent with such beliefs, the voice mechanism of the procedural justice can provide an opportunity to suggest decision-makers on critical issues that will influence themselves.

To employees with high power distance values, authority relations are more strongly regimented by the relative positions of the superiors and subordinates (Tyler, Lind, & Huo, 2000). Because of their beliefs in the legitimacy of power inequalities between supervisors and subordinates (Bond et al., 1985), people with high power

distance values will accept the treatment (either fair or unfair) from their supervisors or organizations without much criticism, and are less sensitive to organizational justice than those with low power distance values. Therefore, based on the above discussion, I would expect that,

H3b: Power distance will moderate the relationship between organizational justice and outcomes such that the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables will be stronger among employees with low power distance values than with high power distance values.

Moderating Effect of Masculinity/Femininity

Masculinity/femininity is another cultural dimension that differentiates various cultures. According to Hofstede (1980), masculinity expresses the extent to which the dominant values of the society are stereotypically masculine, such as assertive, ambitious, competitive, striving for material achievement, and respecting the big, strong, and fast. In cultures dominated by feminine values, the quality of life, interpersonal relationships and concern for the weak are emphasized, and neither men nor women should be assertive, competitive, or ambitious.

Employees with masculine values attach great importance to achievement and assertiveness. Both supervisors and subordinates endeavor to achieve their goals, and pay less attention to their interpersonal relationships. To such people, achievement and success are defined in terms of recognition and wealth (Hofstede, 1980), so the distributive justice and procedural justice which determine employees' achievement are more important to them. Employees want to receive their fair share of the outcomes and

hope that the outcomes are determined through a fair process. Otherwise, their recognition and wealth would be hurt by the unfair treatment, which then arouses negative reactions from employees. In addition, people with masculine values pay relatively less attention to interpersonal relations with others (Hofstede, 1980) due to their focus on achievement in wealth and recognition.

However, to employees with feminine values, neither male nor female employees tend to be achievement oriented. Instead, they are more concerned about nurturing and relationship. Supervisors are expected to show care for their subordinates. Subordinates' perceptions of supervisors are more strongly based on their interpersonal behaviors and traits (Dickson, Den Hartog, & Mitchelson, 2003). For employees with feminine values, they are much more concerned on their interpersonal relationship with their supervisors and coworkers. Such employees endeavor to establish and maintain good relationships with others. Moreover, such employees will have less strong negative reactions toward distributive or procedural injustice than those in masculine cultures, for the concern is on developing and maintaining a good interpersonal relationship. However, they tend to be more sensitive to how they are treated interpersonally (interpersonal justice and informational justice). When they are treated unfairly interpersonally, their desire to establish good interpersonal relationships is broken and will result in their more negative reactions than those in masculine cultures. Therefore, I predict that,

H3c: Masculinity/femininity will moderate the relationship between organizational justice and outcomes such that (a) the relationship between procedural and distributive justice and outcome variables will be stronger among employees with

masculine than feminine values; and (b) the relationship between interpersonal and informational justice and outcome variables will be stronger among employees with feminine than masculine values.

Moderating Effect of Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance refers to the extent to which people feel the need to avoid ambiguous situations and manage such circumstances by providing explicit rules and regulations; it also refers to people's acceptance of varying situational demands, openness to change, and propensity to take risks (Hofstede, 1980).

Employees with high uncertainty avoidance values prefer the structure of policies and procedures. Unexpected changes in procedures can result in ambiguity and stress and may be perceived as threatening by such employees who feel the need to avoid ambiguous situations. Such employees tend to show great obedience to the authority of their leaders, and they also expect their supervisors to act according to the ways that are generally accepted. Conforming to the accepted norms and rules will tend to increase the feeling of stability among followers, thus influencing them to more willingly carry out orders and assignments from the supervisor. Any new initiatives by supervisors or organizations, even though they may be successful, will tend to bring a feeling of uncertainty to the employees, thus negatively influencing their attitudes at workplace, such as job satisfaction, commitment to the organization, trust in the supervisor, and trust in the organization.

On the other hand, for employees with low uncertainty avoidance values, rules are only established in case of necessity. People believe that many problems can be

solved without formal rules. Employees are more likely to accept behaviors and opinions different from their own, and are more tolerant of uncertainty and open to new ideas. They attach more importance to the outcome of a behavior no matter if it conforms to rules and norms (Hofstede, 1980). Also, employees with low uncertainty avoidance values are more open to new ideas and outside influence. They are more tolerant of change of norms and rules in case these changes might bring good outcomes to the organization. They are also more tolerant of others' deviant behaviors because these behaviors may not bring damage to the performance of the entire organization.

The extent to which people try to avoid uncertainty will also influence the effect of organizational justice in the workplace. Lind and van den Bos (Lind & van den Bos, 2002; van den Bos, 2001; van den Bos & Lind, 2002) extended the fairness heuristic theory to suggest that the ultimate reason people care about unfairness is to contend with uncertainty. Fairness heuristic theory suggests that people may process fairness-related information by relying on heuristics (e.g., van den Bos, 1999; van den Bos, Vermunt, & Wilke, 1997; van den Bos, Wilke, & Lind, 1998). Researchers have argued that in such cases, fairness information may be used as a heuristic substitute to decide whether the authority can be trusted (van den Bos et al., 1998), and that individuals' perceived fairness acts as a heuristic that directs the interpretation of subsequent events (van den Bos et al., 1997).

Van den Bos (2001) argued that uncertainty plays a critical role in the fairness judgment process and is therefore an important, but hidden assumption of fairness heuristic theory. Under conditions of uncertainty, when individuals are unaware of

specific reasons to trust another, or other uncertain aspects in their lives, they will use justice information as the critical heuristic in their decisions. In a laboratory study, van den Bos and colleagues (van den Bos et al., 1998) found that when no information about the authority's prior reputation on trustworthiness was provided, participants relied heavily on procedural justice to make the judgment of whether to trust the authority. Consequently, such participants reacted more positively toward the outcomes of the authority's decisions if the authority is using fair instead of unfair procedures. However, when people clearly knew that the authority could or could not be trusted, information of procedural fairness was less needed, leading to less strong effects of procedural justice on participants' reactions. The findings of three experiments on the influence of uncertainty salience (van den Bos, 2001) also suggest that fairness matters to people especially when they are trying to deal with situations that make them uncertain (i.e., to avoid uncertainty).

People high in uncertainty avoidance prefer certainty and try to lower the extent to which there is uncertainty. In pursuit of certainty, they need more fairness information, and more heavily rely on such information too, to complement the lack of certainty. So, fairness of the treatment may arouse stronger reactions in employees high in uncertainty avoidance. When employees in high uncertainty avoidance cultures are treated unfairly, they will experience more negative attitudes than those in low uncertainty avoidance cultures. Therefore, I expect that,

H3d: Uncertainty avoidance will moderate the relationship between organizational justice and outcomes such that the relationship between organizational

justice and outcome variables will be stronger among employees with high uncertainty avoidance values than with low uncertainty avoidance values.

Moderating Effect of Long-Term Orientation

Hofstede's fifth cultural dimension deals with time orientation and has two contrasting ends: long-term orientation and short-term orientation. Cultures of long-term orientation adhere to values inherent to Confucianism, such as perseverance, ordering relationships by status and observing that order, thrift, and having a sense of shame. Particularly, thrift means that people value savings and the availability of capital for reinvestment. In addition, having a sense of shame supports the interrelation with social contacts through sensitivity to them and a stress on keeping one's commitment. People of short-term orientation focus on the past and present and value personal steadiness and stability, saving face, respect for tradition, and reciprocation of greetings, favors, and gifts (Hofstede, 1991).

Long-term oriented people are willing to save for the future and have a high regard for persistence and discipline. Such people also have a consideration for more permanent and sustainable outcomes. This emphasis on future outcomes makes it more important to receive fair treatment at present. Because of the uncertainty of future outcomes, people will use fairness information to avoid uncertainty and predict future outcomes (e.g., van den Bos et al., 1998). Van den Bos and his colleagues' recent study (van den Bos et al., 2005) found that subordinates' prior experience of fairness with the supervisor influenced their reactions to subsequent communications with that particular supervisor. Specifically, when subordinates had fair experiences with the supervisor,

they would react more positively toward subsequent neutral messages from the same supervisor. Therefore, when people are long-term oriented, employees care more about organizational justice because it can influence their future outcomes. When they receive unfair treatment, they would expect that their future outcomes would be influenced negatively as well. Consequently, they would have even stronger negative reactions (e.g., low job satisfaction, low organizational commitment, low trust to the organization and the supervisor) to the unfair treatment they receive from the organization and supervisors at present. Similarly, when they receive fair treatment, such employees also believe that their future results would be satisfactory as well. This certainty about future positive outcomes will then increase their positive reactions to future outcomes at present.

Short-term oriented people expect to receive quick results. Individuals may achieve relatively good outcomes by behaving in accord with direct self-interest. Consistent with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), people with short-term oriented values show respect for social and status obligations, and would expect to receive a fair return on their input. However, because of their focus on the present and past, instead of on the future, their treatment at present would only influence their current outcomes, and they will not use current treatment to predict future results. So, although they still have positive reactions to fair treatment and negative reactions to unfair treatment, the effect would not be as strong as for people of long-term orientation. Therefore, I predict that,

H3e: Long-term orientation will moderate the relationship between organizational justice and outcomes such that the relationship between organizational

justice and outcome variables will be stronger with long-term than with short-term oriented values.

Three-Way Interactions of Organizational Justice, Supervisor-Subordinate Relationship, and Cultural Values

In previous sections, I have discussed the separate moderating effects that types of relations and cultural values may have on the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables. However, it is possible that the effects of types of relations may also differ among people with different cultural values. Therefore, to further explore the cross-cultural difference of the effects of types of relations on the influence of organizational justice, I will investigate the joint effects of types of relations and cultural values on organizational justice's impact on employees' attitudes.

Supervisor-Subordinate Relationship, Individualism/Collectivism, and Organizational Justice

In previous sections, I have discussed that the relationship with the supervisor impacts employees' reactions to fair/unfair treatment. In particular, the positive relationship between organizational justice and employees' attitudes will be stronger when they have closer relationship with the supervisor.

People with collectivist values are more group-oriented than people from individualist cultures (Hofstede, 1980), and social groups play a more critical role in people's life in collectivist societies. Such people attach more to their social groups, they will exhibit even more ingroup favoritism, and have more expectations from their ingroup members compared with people in individualist culture. In fact, Chen, Brockner,

and Katz's (1998) study found that although both participants from China and American showed ingroup favoritism, the Chinese participants had more of a collective-primacy orientation and exhibited more ingroup favoritism by evaluating ingroup members more positively than their American counterparts. Due to this stronger cultural norm in collectivist cultures, employees will expect to be treated more fairly by their supervisors who are their ingroup members than in individualist cultures. Thus, when it turns out that the ingroup supervisor treats them unfairly, employees will feel that the supervisor break their cultural norm of ingroup favoritism and will exhibit more negative reactions than employees in individualist cultures where the norm of ingroup favoritism is less strong. Therefore, I predict that,

H4a: There will be a 3-way interaction between organizational justice, relationships, and cultural values such that the moderating effect of relationship on organizational justice and outcomes will be stronger among employees with (1) high rather than low collectivist values, (2) low rather than high individualist values.

Supervisor-Subordinate Relationship, Power Distance, and Organizational Justice

As discussed earlier, people with high power distance values tend to follow the demands from the authority, and take treatment from authorities as legitimate. However, employees with low power distance values are less likely to submit to authorities with no reason. Instead, employees with low power distance values want to be treated with respect and dignity. Therefore, they are more sensitive to how they are treated by their supervisors and organizations than those from high power distance cultures (Hofstede, 1980, 1991). Leung, Su, and Morris (2001) provided support for this notion by showing

that Chinese participants were more likely to accept the criticism from supervisors than did American participants.

Further, based on previous discussion, when employees have close relationship with their supervisors and regard them as ingroup members, they would expect to receive favorable or fair treatment from the supervisor. When such expectation is broken, the negative consequences caused by unfair treatment can be even stronger. But in high power distance cultures, employees are more likely to accept the treatment from the supervisor without much question, no matter whether the treatment is fair or unfair. Consequently, the impact of relationship with the supervisor is weakened. In other words, in high power distance cultures, when an employee is treated unfairly, he or she would not have strong negative reactions even if he or she has close relationship with the supervisor. However, in low power distance cultures, employees regard themselves as equal to the supervisor. They want to be treated with respect and dignity and would not yield to any unfair treatment easily. The effect of the relationship with the supervisor in previous discussion is thus stronger than in high power distance cultures.

Therefore, I will expect that,

H4b: There will be a 3-way interaction between organizational justice, relationships, and culture such that the moderating effect of relationship on organizational justice and outcomes will be stronger among employees with low power distance values than with high power distance values.

Supervisor-Subordinate Relationship, Masculinity/Femininity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Long-term Orientation, and Organizational Justice

The research on people with masculine/feminine, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term oriented values are much less, compared with the first two cultural values. Because of the lack of theories and research, I will not predict specific hypotheses of their influence on the moderating effects of relationships on the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables. Instead, these cultural values' influence will be discussed in an exploratory manner.

Masculinity/Femininity

Employees with masculine values focus more on achievement and assertiveness. Such individuals attempt to reach their personal goals of recognition and wealth, and pay less attention to their interpersonal relationships (Hofstede, 1980). Consequently, distributive justice and procedural justice are more critical to people with masculine values because whether or not employees receive their fair share of the outcome through a fair process significantly influences their achievement or recognition. When they receive unfair outcomes or the outcomes are determined by an unfair procedure, employees will react negatively. Especially when they have good relationships with their supervisors, but receive unfair treatment, this negative reaction will be even stronger because the unfair treatment is of sharp opposite of their expectation based on their relationship with the supervisor. Therefore, the interaction between distributive and procedural justice and relationship with the supervisor on employees' reactions will be stronger among employees with masculine than feminine values.

However, for people with feminine values, the quality of life and interpersonal relationships are emphasized (Hofstede, 1980). Supervisors are expected to show care for their subordinates. Subordinates are eager to establish and maintain a good relationship with the supervisor. They may even sacrifice other interests to nurture the interpersonal relationship. For instance, they may accept the unfair outcomes determined unfairly by a close supervisor in exchange for maintaining this good relationship with him or her. Thus, even if the treatment is from the supervisor of a good relationship, employees with feminine values may not respond to distributive or procedural injustice as strong as those with masculine values. However, if they are treated without respect or dignity, which hurts the interpersonal relationship, they may feel upset. Particularly, when their supervisors do not show interpersonal or informational fairness to them, they would think that their effort and desire of developing close relationships with their supervisors are not appreciated and would therefore have stronger negative reactions to this interpersonal and informational injustice than those with masculine values who care less about interpersonal relationship.

Uncertainty Avoidance

Hofstede (1980) suggested that employees of high uncertainty avoidance values show preference to the structure of policies and procedures, and also show great obedience to the authority of their leaders. They also expect their supervisors to act in a predictable way that is commonly accepted. Conforming to the accepted norms and rules will tend to increase the feeling of stability among subordinates. When employees have good relationships with their supervisors, they are more likely to know authorities well

and therefore can predict their actions of fair treatment to subordinates. As a result, employees' feeling of uncertainty decreases. When supervisors of good relations do not treat employees in a fair and predictable way, uncertainty about the result of the treatment is increased. Employees will have much stronger negative reactions not only because they are treated unfairly by a close supervisor, but also because of the uncertainty that they don't expect.

On the other hand, employees low in uncertainty avoidance values are more likely to accept behaviors and opinions different from their own, and are more tolerant of uncertainty and open to new ideas. They are more tolerant of change of norms and rules in case these changes might bring good outcomes to the organization. Therefore, people low in uncertainty avoidance values will not be easily shocked by unexpected unfair treatment because of their tolerance to change and uncertainty, even if such unfair treatment is from the supervisor with whom they have close relationships.

Long-Term Orientation

In previous sections, it has been discussed that people who are long-term oriented want to save for the future and respect for persistence and authority, whereas short-term oriented people focus on the past and present, and want to receive quick results (Hofstede, 1991). In addition, long-term oriented individuals use the current information they have to predict their future outcomes (e.g., van den Bos et al., 1998). In the workplace, long-term oriented employees care more about the procedural and informational justice because procedures and information about how they are treated currently can predict how they are going to be treated in the future. When they receive

unfair procedural and informational justice treatment from a close supervisor, they tend to believe that their future outcomes would be negatively influenced as well and thus have stronger negative reactions.

Employees with short-term oriented values are more concerned about the present (i.e., what they get right now), and will not use information from the present to predict long-term results when compared with long-term oriented people. So, distributive and interpersonal justice, which determine their current outcomes and how they are treated now, are more important to them. When they receive unfair distributive and interpersonal treatment from a close supervisor, they would have more negative reactions because their current outcomes and results are hurt.

The Relationship between Cultural Values and Nationality

As discussed early, culture refers to the shared beliefs and values among people in the same society. Country or nation refers to the geographic territory occupied by people in a society. Although it is frequently said that each country has its own culture, there are countries that may have similar cultures and others of quite different cultures. For instance, the U.S. has more similar culture with Canada than with China. Most of the cross-cultural research is conducted by sampling from two different countries, assuming that the difference between these two countries is caused by the difference between two cultures. In some studies, countries are directly used in the analysis without measuring their cultures (e.g., Robert et al., 2000; Spencer-Oatey, 1997). In my dissertation, I will measure people's cultural values from both the U.S. and China. But consistent with Hofstede's results, I suggest that,

H5: Participants from China will have more collectivist, high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, and long-term oriented values. Participants from the U.S. will have more individualist, low power distance, low uncertainty avoidance, and short-term oriented values. Participants from both countries will show similar level of masculine values.

Summary of Chapter III

In this chapter, the hypotheses of my dissertation are developed. I first suggested the main effect of organizational justice on outcome variables, being consistent with previous literature. Second, I developed the moderating effects of relationships on the main relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables. Third, the moderating effects of individuals' cultural values are discussed and hypothesized. Lastly, the joint influence of relationships and cultural values are discussed.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

This chapter specifies the procedures, describes the sample and measures, and discusses the statistical analyses used to test hypotheses developed in Chapter III.

Sample and Procedure

In the current study, most of the variables of interest were about people's perceptions, values, and attitudes. This means that all the data were collected from the same source, leading to a potential common method variance problem (Fiske, 1982). To minimize the influence of common method variance, I conducted two surveys as recommended by Podsakoff and Organ (1986). Survey 1 included measures about demographic characteristics, ingroup identification with their supervisors, *guanxi* with the supervisor, LMX, five cultural values, and four types of organizational justice. Two weeks after participants filled out survey 1, participants were asked to fill out survey 2, which measured the dependent variables, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust in the supervisor, trust in the organization, and control variables (see Appendix for the survey instruments).

Data were collected in both the U.S. and China. In China, part-time and full-time MBA students with working experience from a large university in north China were invited to participate in the study. Paper copies of survey 1 were handed out to them in October 2006 in class and they filled it out during class break. After 2 weeks, paper copies of survey 2 were filled out. To appreciate their participation, a thank-you gift was

provided to each participant who finished both surveys. Surveys conducted in China were written in Chinese, their native language. Two graduate students who were fluent in both English and Chinese translated the original English survey into Chinese. To ensure equivalence of the measures in Chinese and English versions, back-translation from Chinese into English (Brislin, 1970) was conducted by another two graduate students knowing both languages, but unaware of the purpose of this study, and was compared with the original English version. The surveys were used until the translations revealed no substantial differences in the meaning of items.

The final sample from China included 173 part-time/full-time MBA students, representing a response rate of 63.14%. Sixty eight percent of participants were male and participants had an average age of 29 years old. Ninety two percent of participants were among 25 and 35 years old. All the participants had at least college education and had an average full-time working experience of 6.6 years.

Effort made to collect MBA data in the U.S. was unsuccessful. Two southern university did allow me to conduct my surveys with their MBA students, but the response rate was quite low, with less 30 students participated in both phase 1 and phase 2 surveys. Because of the time constrain, I decided to invite junior and senior undergraduate students in a large southern university to participate in the study. Students were recruited from a general management course and received extra credits for their participation. Web-based surveys were used. Participants were sent an email that contained a link to survey 1 and had one week to complete it. Two weeks after survey 1 was closed, a second email with the link to survey 2 was sent out to those who filled out

survey 1. Finally, 296 undergraduate students participated both phases in the study. Responses from 33 students were excluded because they were not originally from the U.S. So, the final U.S. sample consisted of 263 participants, with an average age of 21.6 years old, and 49% being male. Participants reported an average full-time working experience of 1.45 years and all of them had some part-time working experience.

Measures—Dependent Variables

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured by the three-item scale of Hackman and Oldham's (1976) overall job satisfaction scale. Items included (1) "Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job." (2) "I am generally satisfied with the feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get from doing this job." (3) "I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job." Participants were asked to use a 5-point Likert scale (1-strongly disagree; 5-strongly agree) to answer these questions. Cronbach's alphas were 0.89 in the U.S. sample and 0.73 in Chinese sample.

Organizational Commitment

Different dimensions of organizational commitment were measured. Affective commitment and normative commitment were measured with the scale developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993). Continuance commitment was measured with the scale developed by Meyer, Barak, and Vandenberghe (1996). Sample items were "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with my present organization;" "I would feel guilty if I left this organization now;" and "I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization" (1-strongly disagree, 7-strongly agree). Cronbach's alphas

were 0.83 in the U.S. sample and 0.72 in Chinese sample for affective commitment; 0.85 in the U.S. sample and 0.78 in Chinese sample for normative commitment; and 0.88 in the U.S. sample and 0.79 in Chinese sample for continuance commitment.

Trust in the Supervisor

Trust in the supervisor was measured by a 10-item scale of Mayer and Gavin (2005). A sample item was "I would be willing to let my supervisor have complete control over my future in this company." (1-strongly disagree, 5-strongly agree). Cronbach's alphas were 0.79 in the U.S. sample and 0.63 in Chinese sample.

Trust in the Organization

A 6-item scale adapted from Robinson (1996) was used to measure trust in the organization. A sample item was "I believe my employer has high integrity" (1-strongly disagree; 5-strongly agree). Cronbach's alphas were 0.89 in the U.S. sample and 0.80 in Chinese sample.

Measures—Independent Variables

Organizational Justice

Organizational justice (i.e., distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice) was measured by Colquitt's (2001) measures. A sample item for procedural justice was "I have been able to express my views and feelings during those procedures." A sample item for distributive justice was "My outcome reflects the effort I have put into my work." A sample item for interpersonal justice was "My supervisor has treated me in a polite manner." A sample item for informational justice was "My supervisor has explained the procedures thoroughly." (1-

strongly disagree; 5-strongly agree). Cronbach's alphas were 0.95 in the U.S. sample and 0.95 in Chinese sample for distributive justice; 0.85 in the U.S. sample and 0.88 in Chinese sample for procedural justice; 0.90 in the U.S. sample and 0.82 in Chinese sample for interpersonal justice; and 0.86 in the U.S. sample and 0.89 in Chinese sample for informational justice;.

Ingroup Identification of the Supervisor

I composed a set of items to measure ingroup identification of the supervisor based on previous literature on group identification and ingroup relationship (e.g., Hogg & Hains, 1996). Seven items were used to compose a measure for ingroup identification. A sample item was "I have a lot in common with my supervisor" (1-strongly disagree; 7-strongly agree). These 7 items reported high reliabilities (0.93 for the U.S. sample, 0.90 for Chinese sample). Principle factor analysis in both samples also yielded one factor (Table 1) explaining 67.17% of variance in the U.S. sample and 57.37% of variance in Chinese sample.

LMX

LMX was measured by LMX7 (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Scandura & Graen, 1984). A sample item was "I always know how satisfied my supervisor is with what I do" (1-strongly disagree; 5-strongly agree). Cronbach's alphas were 0.89 in the U.S. sample and 0.82 in Chinese sample.

Guanxi

Employees' *guanxi* with their supervisors was measured by Law, Wong, Wang, & Wang (2000). It was a 6-item scale, and a sample item was "During holidays or after

office hours, I would call my supervisor or visit him/her" (1-strongly disagree; 5-strongly agree). Cronbach's alphas were 0.92 in the U.S. sample and 0.73 in Chinese sample.

Cultural Values

Individualism, collectivism, and power distance were measured by scales from Cultural Profile Questionnaire 8 (Maznevski, DiStefano, Gomez, Noorderhaven, & Wu, 2002). Eight items were used to measure individualism and a sample item was "People should satisfy their own needs before they think about others' needs." Collectivism was measured by 8 items. A sample item was "All members of the group should be mutually responsible for each other." Power distance was measured by 7 items with a sample item of "People at higher levels should make significant decisions for people below them." Masculinity/femininity was measured by a 4-item scale from Vitell and colleagues (Vitell, Paolillo, & Thomas, 2003). A sample item was "It is important for me that I outperform others in my company." Uncertainty avoidance was measured by 5 items from Clugston and colleagues' (Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000) cultural dimension survey. A sample item was "Instructions for operations are important for employees on the job." Long-term orientation was measured by Hofstede and Bond's (1988) 4-item scale. A sample item was "Managers must be persistent to accomplish objectives." All the items of cultural values were rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1-strongly disagree; 7-strongly agree). Cronbach's alphas were 0.80 in the U.S. sample and 0.67 in Chinese sample for individualism; 0.81 in the U.S. sample and 0.65 in Chinese sample for collectivism; 0.67 in the U.S. sample and 0.40 in Chinese sample for power distance;

0.76 in the U.S. sample and 0.58 in Chinese sample for masculinity/femininity; 0.89 in the U.S. sample and 0.75 in Chinese sample for uncertainty avoidance; and 0.67 in the U.S. sample and 0.59 in Chinese sample for long-term orientation.

Control Variables

Research on organizational justice has shown that various individual characteristics influence employees' perception of organizational justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). For instance, negative affectivity (NA) influences people's perception of justice because people who tend to experience negative emotional states across time and situations are more likely to perceive situations as unfair than people low in NA trait (Wanberg, Bunce, & Gavin, 1999). Negative affectivity was therefore controlled in the current study and was measured by the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Cronbach's alphas were 0.85 in the U.S. sample and 0.75 in Chinese sample.

Power Analysis

The statistical power of the analyses presented in the next chapter was derived based on Cohen and Cohen's (1983) Equation 3.7.2. The average total R^2 change in two-way interactions for the outcome variables was 0.10 in the U.S. sample, resulting in a statistical power of over 0.95 with an N=263 and α=0.05. The lowest level of total R^2 change (0.07) resulted in a statistical power of over 0.80. The average total R^2 change in two-way interactions in Chinese sample was 0.12, resulting in a statistical power of over 0.85 with an N=173 and α=0.05. The lowest level of total R^2 change (0.08) in Chinese sample resulted in a statistical power of over 0.60.

The average total R^2 change in three-way interactions for the outcome variables was 0.23 in the U.S. sample, resulting in a statistical power of over 0.99 with an N=263 and α=0.05. The lowest level of total R^2 change (0.15) resulted in a statistical power of over 0.99. The average total R^2 change in three-way interactions in Chinese sample was 0.29, resulting in a statistical power of over 0.99 with an N=173 and α=0.05. The lowest level of total R^2 change (0.23) in Chinese sample resulted in a statistical power of over 0.99.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

This chapter reports the results of data analyses for the current study.

Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations, and correlations of all the variables in both samples were shown in Tables B2 & B3 respectively. Cronbach's alphas were shown in the diagonal line. Most of the variables in the U.S. sample had acceptable reliabilities (above 0.75) except power distance and long-term orientation, which had reliabilities of 0.67. Reliabilities in Chinese sample were a little lower and there were more variables with reliabilities below 0.70 (e.g., individualism, collectivism, power distance, masculinity, long-term orientation, and trust in the supervisor). The low reliabilities might be due to the information loss during translation of survey instruments, which were discussed in more detail in the limitation section (see Appendix A).

Measurement Equivalence

A major measurement issue in cross-cultural studies is the applicability of instruments across different cultural groups, i.e., measurement/construct equivalence (Adler, 1983). In other words, the instruments designed to measure the relevant constructs should be cross-nationally invariant (Hui & Triandis, 1985). Lack of equivalence indicates that the test scores do not have the same meaning across cultures. Before analyzing cross-cultural data, it is necessary to demonstrate that members of

different cultures share a common understanding of the scale indicators (Rensvold, 2002). Any substantive cross-group comparisons are appropriate only when construct equivalence is established (Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994).

Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998) proposed procedure to examine measurement equivalence. This procedure involves a number of increasingly restrictive hypothesis tests. It starts with a test of the equality of covariance matrices across groups; that is, a test of the null hypothesis of invariant covariance matrices (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998; Jöreskog, 1971). Measurement equivalence is established if covariance matrices do not differ across groups, and further tests are not necessary. However, in practice, this initial test will probably show lack of invariance (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998) and may lead to contradictory findings. As a consequence, the test of the equality of covariance matrices is *no longer* regarded as a necessary prerequisite of measurement equivalence test (Byrne, 2001) and was therefore not tested in the current study. An important invariance that needs to be established for measurement equivalence is configural invariance. This concept is based on Thurstone's principle of simple structure (see Horn, McArdle, & Mason, 1983) where the matrix of factor loadings in the different populations has the same pattern of zero and non-zero factor loadings. When the null hypothesis of configural invariance is rejected, the constructs differ across groups because they do not have same factor patterns. In such cases, the data cannot be pooled together and tests of group differences do not make sense (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). On the other hand, failure to reject the null hypothesis of configural invariance means that the same pattern of factor loadings is specified for each

group and participants from different populations were employing the same conceptual frame of reference. Therefore, additional tests of measurement equivalence could proceed. Next step is to test metric invariance. This concept provides a stronger test of invariance (Rock, Werts, & Flaugher, 1978) and assumes that the matrix of factor loadings is invariant across groups. When metric invariance is established, it is also important to examine scalar invariance (Meredith, 1993; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998), which tests the null hypothesis that intercepts of like items' regressions on the latent variables are invariant across groups. Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998) also proposed other invariance tests beyond scalar invariance test. But in the current study, I focused on configural, metric, and scalar invariance tests to examine the issue of measurement equivalence. Based on the above analyses, if results show configural, metric, and scalar invariance, the conclusion of measurement equivalence can be drawn and the data from these two samples can be pooled together in following analysis. However, if measurement equivalence cannot be established, the two samples should not be pooled together and comparative analyses would not be meaningful. Instead, the two samples should be analyzed separately.

Goodness of Fit Statistics

Kline (1998) recommends use of at least four fit tests to assess the overall fit of the model. In the current study, a number of standard fit indices were used. First, the model Chi-square (χ^2) is actually a "badness-of-fit" index because the higher the ratio of its values to the degree of freedom (d.f.), the worse the model corresponds to the data. Second, the comparative fit index (CFI) compares the existing model fit with a null

model which assumes zero population covariance among the observed variables (i.e., independence model) (Byrne, 1998). A rule of thumb for the CFI is that values greater than 0.90 may indicate reasonably good fit of the model (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Third, the goodness-of-fit index (GFI) was the very first standardized fit index (Jörkeskg & Sörbom, 1981). The cut-off value of GFI is usually 0.90 and values above 0.90 indicate good fit (Kline, 2005). Fourth, Bentler-Bonett normed fit index (NFI; Bentle & Bonett, 1980) was used. A value of NFI greater than 0.90 indicates an acceptable fit to the data (Bentle, 1992). Finally, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) indicates model misfit (discrepancy) per degree of freedom (Byrne, 1998). Values less than 0.05 indicate good fit, and values between 0.05 and 0.08 are indicative of fair fit. MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara (1996) also noted that RMSEA values ranging from 0.08 to 0.10 indicate mediocre fit, and those greater than 0.10 suggest poor fit.

Analyzing Technique

In the current study, AMOS 4.01 (Arbuckle, 1999) was used to conduct measurement equivalence tests discussed above. Maximum-likelihood estimation was used, and missing values were replaced by the mean on the particular item across all participants. In the current study, a total of 116 items were used to measure 19 constructs in both Chinese and the U.S. sample. These 19 constructs measured key variables, including 4 types of organizational justice, 6 cultural values (individualism and collectivism were measured separately), 3 indicators of supervisor-subordinate relationships, and 6 outcome variables. These variables were measuring quite different constructs and the focus was to examine their relative measurement models. In addition,

the size of the covariance matrix of all 116 items would be overwhelmingly large compared to my sample size (n=263 in the U.S. sample; n=173 in Chinese sample). Therefore I categorized items measuring related constructs when examining measurement equivalence, instead of putting in 116 items all at once. In other words, I examined measurement equivalence on the categories of organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, cultural values, and outcome variables, respectively. By separately conducting CFAs on these subgroups, the extraneous covariances would be reduced and the analyses could focus on those covariances that might be problematic and of interest. Below, as a prerequisite to testing for factorial invariance, baseline models were first estimated for each sample on the 4 categories of variables.

One-Factor Models

I first conducted 1-factor models on organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, cultural values, and outcomes for the U.S. and Chinese samples separately to examine the potential of common method variance problem (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Results were reported in Table B4. It showed that 1-factor models of organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, cultural values, and outcomes did not report acceptable fit indices in both samples. The 1-factor model for organizational justice reported CFI=0.49, GFI=0.46, NFI=0.47, and RMSEA=0.20 in the U.S. sample; and CFI=0.67, GFI=0.56, NFI=0.63, and RMSEA=0.17 in Chinese sample. For supervisor-subordinate relationship, both 1-factor and 2-factor models were conducted (LMX and ingroup identification were combined as one factor in the 2-factor

model). The 1-factor model reported CFI=0.72, GFI=0.59, NFI=0.69, and RMSEA=0.15 in the U.S. sample; and CFI=0.87, GFI=0.79, NFI=0.78, and RMSEA=0.09 in Chinese sample. The 2-factor model reported CFI=0.88, GFI=0.78, NFI=0.84, and RMSEA=0.10 in the U.S. sample; and CFI=0.90, GFI=0.83, NFI=0.82, and RMSEA=0.07 in Chinese sample. The 2-factor model was better than 1-factor model in both the U.S. and Chinese samples, which might suggest that LMX and ingroup identification were closely related to each other. One-factor models for cultural values and outcomes reported poor fit indices in both the U.S. and Chinese samples. In the U.S. sample, CFI=0.39, GFI=0.55, NFI=0.34, and RMSEA=0.11. In Chinese sample, CFI=0.50, GFI=0.69, NFI=0.36, and RMSEA=0.08. For the 1-factor outcome model, in the U.S. sample, CFI=0.46, GFI=0.44, NFI=0.41, and RMSEA=0.12. In Chinese sample, CFI=0.54, GFI=0.60, NFI=0.42, and RMSEA=0.09. These results indicated that common method variance was not a serious problem in the current study.

Baseline Models in Each Sample

The CFA models in both samples hypothesized *a priori* that organizational justice could be explained by 4 factors (e.g., distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice); cultural values could be explained by 6 factors (e.g., individualism, collectivism, power distance, masculinity/femininity, long-term orientation, and uncertainty avoidance); supervisor-subordinate relationships could be explained by 3 factors (e.g., LMX, *guanxi*, and ingroup identification); and outcomes variables consisted of 6 factors (e.g., job satisfaction, affective commitment, normative commitment, continuance commitment, trust in the organization, and trust in the

supervisor). CFAs were conducted separately for Chinese and the U.S. sample using AMOS 4.01 (Arbuckle, 1999). Table B4 shows the results. The U.S. sample generally had a better fit on each model than Chinese sample. The hypothesized 4-factor model on organizational justice showed a fair model fit in both samples (U.S. sample: χ^2/d.f. = 2.26, p>0.05; CFI=0.94; GFI=0.88; NFI=0.90; RMSEA=0.07. Chinese sample: χ^2/d.f. = 2.38, p>0.05; CFI=0.91; GFI=0.81; NFI=0.86; RMSEA=0.09). The hypothesized 3-factor model on supervisor-subordinate relationship also reported a fair model fit in both samples (U.S. sample: χ^2/d.f. = 2.72, p>0.05; CFI=0.92; GFI=0.86; NFI=0.88; RMSEA=0.08. Chinese sample: χ^2/d.f. = 1.82, p>0.05; CFI=0.91; GFI=0.84; NFI=0.82; RMSEA=0.07). The hypothesized 6-factor model on cultural values did not show a fair model fit in both samples (U.S. sample: χ^2/d.f. = 2.18, p>0.05; CFI=0.80; GFI=0.78; NFI=0.68; RMSEA=0.07. Chinese sample: χ^2/d.f. = 1.86, p>0.05; CFI=0.63; GFI=0.74; NFI=0.46; RMSEA=0.07). The values of CFI, GFI, and NFI in both samples were lower than commonly used cut-off value of 0.90 and might indicate that the 6-factor cultural model did not fit the data well in both samples. In addition, for the outcome model, both samples reported CFI, GFI, and NFI values far lower than commonly used cut-off value of 0.90 and indicated that the hypothesized 6-factor model of outcome variables did not fit very well in both samples (U.S. sample: χ^2/d.f. = 2.41, p>0.05; CFI=0.81; GFI=0.72; NFI=0.71; RMSEA=0.07. Chinese sample: χ^2/d.f. = 2.01, p>0.05; CFI=0.69; GFI=0.68; NFI=0.53; RMSEA=0.08). Because common method variance was not a serious problem, the poor fit of 6-factor models on cultural values and outcomes was more likely

due to the problematic scales of some constructs (e.g., power distance, long-term orientation, and trust in the supervisor).

Tests of Configural, Metric, and Scalar Invariance

Construct equivalence was tested following the procedures outlined above. First, configural invariance was tested, which imposed the same factor pattern across samples. If the null hypothesis of configural invariance was rejected, the constructs probably were not equivalent in the two samples because they did not have the same factor pattern. Otherwise, the test of metric invariance was conducted by constraining factor loadings across samples. The constructs might not demonstrate measurement equivalence if the null hypothesis of metric invariance was rejected. If they did show metric invariance, scalar invariance could be tested by constraining both factor loadings and item intercepts across samples. Measurement equivalence would be established if the null hypothesis of scalar invariance was accepted.

Table B5 reports the results of the above tests on the four categories of variables in the current study. Organizational justice reached measurement equivalence across Chinese and the U.S. samples. For configural, metric, and scalar invariance tests, CFI values were above the cut-off value of 0.90, and RMSEA indices were 0.06 for all, which were indicative of a fair model fit. Although GFI and NFI values were not all greater than 0.90 (all GFI and NFI values were greater than 0.84), they were near to it and together with other fit indices, the model might provide an acceptable fit.

Configural, metric, and scalar invariance tests for the three measures of supervisor-subordinate relationships (e.g., LMX, *guanxi*, and ingroup identification)

showed that there was configural and metric invariance across the two samples (configural invariance: CFI=0.92, GFI=0.85, NFI=0.86, RMSEA=0.05; metric invariance: CFI=0.92, GFI=0.84, NFI=0.86, RMSEA=0.05). For scalar invariance test, results showed better CFI (0.96) and NFI (0.95), but RMSEA was a little worse (0.08). Because scalar model was nested within metric model, the fit indices should contain the results of the less constrained model (metric model). But given the better absolute fit indices of CFI and NFI, the results might suggest scalar invariance. Thus, the 3-factor model of supervisor-subordinate relationship could be regarded as reaching measurement equivalence across the two samples.

The 6-factor model of cultural values did not show configural invariance. Although it reported a RMSEA value of 0.05, CFI, GFI, and NFI values were only 0.75, 0.77, and 0.57, far below the cut-off value of 0.90. Metric invariance, scalar invariance, and a fully constrained model (factor loadings, variances, and covariances were constrained equal across samples) were also examined. Results showed acceptable RMSEA values (between 0.05 and 0.06). However, metric invariance model and fully constrained model reported CFI, GFI, and NFI values far below the cut-off point of 0.90. Although scalar invariance test demonstrated acceptable model fit (CFI=0.96, NFI=0.93, RMSEA=0.06), it failed configural and metric invariance tests and the fairly good model fit in scalar invariance model did not provide enough evidence to draw the conclusion that cultural values achieved measurement equivalence across samples. To further investigate the possibility of measurement equivalence of cultural values, an alternative model was also examined. In the current study, individualism and collectivism were

measured separately. But it is possible that they measured one same factor. So, an alternative model that combined individualism and collectivism was tested for configural invariance. Results in Table B5 demonstrated that this alternative model failed configural invariance as well (CFI=0.64; GFI=0.69; NFI=0.48; RMSEA=0.06). As a result, cultural values did not show measurement equivalence in the current study.

The configural invariance test for the 6-factor model of outcome variables reported CFI, GFI, and NFI values far below the cut-off value of 0.90 (0.77, 0.70, 0.65 respectively), despite a RMSEA value of 0.05. This suggests that the 6-factor model of outcome variables did not show similar factor patterns across samples. Further examination of metric invariance and fully constrained models showed CFI, GFI, and NFI values far below the cut-off point of 0.90, with only RMSEA reporting acceptable values (between 0.05 and 0.07). Scalar invariance test demonstrated acceptable fit indices (CFI=0.94, NFI=0.91, RMSEA=0.07). But because configural and metric invariance tests failed, scalar invariance test alone could not provide enough evidence of measurement invariance. Alternative models were examined to further explore the possibility of measurement invariance. Four alternative models were suggested as shown in Table B5. In alternative model 1, affective, normative, and continuance commitment were combined together as one factor of organizational commitment. In alternative model 2, organizational commitment had two dimensions, one as affective commitment, and the other the combination of normative and continuance commitment. In alternative model 3, trust in the organization and trust in the supervisor were combined as one trust factor. Finally, in alternative model 4, both organizational commitment and trust were

treated as one factor. Configural invariance was tested for these alternative models. Results in Table B5 showed that RMSEA values were acceptable in these models (from 0.06 to 0.07). However, CFI, GFI, and NFI values were far below the cut-off value of 0.90 in all four alternative models. Taking together, these four alternative models all failed to achieve similar factor patterns across samples. Therefore, outcome variables did not show measurement equivalence in the current study.

Overall, among all 19 variables in the current study, organizational justice and supervisor-subordinate relationships demonstrated measurement equivalence across Chinese and the U.S. sample. However, cultural values and outcome variables did not show measurement equivalence across these two samples. This is not surprising given that the 6-factor models of cultural values and outcomes did not report reasonable fit in each sample separately. A possible reason was that the scales used to measure cultural values and outcomes were not good. Because cultural values and outcome variables were key constructs in the current study and were not equivalent across samples, all the following analyses were conducted in Chinese and the U.S. sample separately.

Overview of Hypotheses Testing

All the hypotheses (except H5) were tested using hierarchical linear regressions in SPSS 14.0 (SPSS.com, 2005). This was done in several steps. In step 1, control variables (e.g., negative affectivity) were entered into the regression. In step 2, independent variables (e.g., distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice) were entered to test the main effect of organizational justice on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust to the supervisor, and trust to the organization (H1).

When testing the moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship (H2) or cultural values (H3a-H3e), the three indicators of supervisor-subordinate relationship (e.g., ingroup identification, LMX, *guanxi*) and six cultural values (e.g., individualism, collectivism, power distance, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation) were also entered into step 2. In step 3, the interactions between organizational justice and supervisor-subordinate relationships (or cultural values) were entered into the regression to examine their moderating effects on the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables (H2 and H3a-3e). Post-hoc tests of simple slopes (Aiken & West, 1991) were conducted to examine the effects of organizational justice on outcome variables on each level of the moderating factor. In step 4, three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and cultural values were entered into the regression to test the joined moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationships and cultural values (H4a-H4b and the discussion on masculinity/femininity, long-term orientation, and uncertainty avoidance). Slope difference tests (Dawson & Richter, 2006) were also conducted to explore slope differences of any pair of lines in 3-way interactions.

In addition, to minimize the potential for multicollinearity, all variables were standardized in regression analyses. Because cultural values and outcome variables did not show measurement equivalence across samples, the hierarchical regressions discussed above were conducted in the U.S. and Chinese samples separately. All significant results were discussed below. In addition, any patterns of findings for each hypothesis were summarized if there were any.

Hypotheses Testing—Main Effects of Organizational Justice

Hypothesis 1 predicted that all four types of organizational justice would be positively related to employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust in the organization, and trust in the supervisor. Tables B6 – B17 show linear regression results on the outcome variables (the U.S. sample: Tables B6-B11; Chinese sample: Tables B12-B17).

The U.S. Sample

In the U.S. sample, distributive justice only showed significant positive effect on job satisfaction (Table B6: $b=0.15$, s.e.$=0.07$, $p<0.05$). Procedural justice demonstrated significant positive effects on normative commitment (Table B8: $b=0.25$, s.e.$=0.07$, $p<0.001$), trust in the organization (Table B10: $b=0.16$, s.e.$=0.07$, $p<0.05$), and trust in the supervisor (Table B11: $b=0.20$, s.e.$=0.06$, $p<0.001$). Interpersonal justice demonstrated significant positive effects on affective commitment (Table B7: $b=0.15$, s.e.$=0.08$, $p<0.05$), trust in the organization (Table B10: $b=0.25$, s.e.$=0.07$, $p<0.001$), and trust in the supervisor (Table B11: $b=0.31$, s.e.$=0.07$, $p<0.001$). Finally, informational justice exhibited significant positive effects on job satisfaction (Table B6: $b=0.16$, s.e.$=0.08$, $p<0.05$), affective commitment (Table B7: $b=0.16$, s.e.$=0.08$, $p<0.05$), and trust in the supervisor (Table B11: $b=0.19$, s.e.$=0.07$, $p<0.01$).

Chinese Sample

In Chinese sample, distributive justice showed significant positive effects on job satisfaction (Table B12: $b=0.30$, s.e.$=0.09$, $p<0.001$), normative commitment (Table B14: $b=0.26$, s.e.$=0.09$, $p<0.01$), continuance commitment (Table B15: $b=0.33$,

s.e.=0.10, p<0.001), and trust in the organization (Table B16: b=0.18, s.e.=0.08, p<0.05). Informational justice demonstrated significant positive effects on job satisfaction (Table B12: b=0.29, s.e.=0.11, p<0.01), affective commitment (Table B13: b=0.38, s.e.=0.10, p<0.001), normative commitment (Table B14: b=0.28, s.e.=0.10, p<0.01), and trust in the organization (Table B16: b=0.36, s.e.=0.10, p<0.001). Procedural and interpersonal justice did not show any significant positive influence on these outcomes.

Overall, H1 received partial support in the U.S. and Chinese samples. However, organizational justice did not show any significant positive effects on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample; or on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample. In addition, in Chinese sample, procedural and interpersonal justice did not demonstrate any significant positive influence on outcome variables.

Hypotheses Testing—Moderating Effects of Supervisor-Subordinate Relationships

The discussion below reviews the two-way interaction effects found in this study. For the sake of brevity, the discussion below details only the statistically significant two-way interaction effects. To view two-way interaction results that failed to reach significance and to view all other effects (including main effects for controls and independent variables in these analyses) please view Tables B18 to B41.

Hypothesis 2 predicted the moderating role of supervisor-subordinate relationship. Specifically, the positive effects of organizational justice on the outcome variables would be stronger when the subordinate perceives that he/she has a high level of relationship with the supervisor (e.g., high level of *guanxi*, LMX, or ingroup

identification) than when there is a low level of relationship. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes were reported under each figure.

The U.S. Sample

Tables B18-B23 report the results of hierarchical linear regressions with *guanxi*, LMX, and ingroup identification as the moderators on outcome variables in the U.S. sample. Table B18 shows the result on job satisfaction. Distributive justice and *guanxi* positively interacted to influence job satisfaction ($b=0.25$, s.e.$=0.09$, $p<0.01$). Figure C1 demonstrates the interaction effect. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that distributive justice had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction when employees perceived that they had high level of *guanxi* with the supervisor ($b=0.46$, s.e.$=0.13$, $p<0.001$), but had a non-significant association among those perceiving a low level of *guanxi* with the supervisor ($b=-0.05$, s.e.$=0.09$, $p>0.05$). Thus, the positive relationship between distributive justice and job satisfaction was stronger for employees having a high rather than low level of *guanxi* with supervisors. Figure C1 shows that for employees with high *guanxi*, they had much lower job satisfaction than those with low *guanxi* when distributive justice was low. But those with high *guanxi* reported much higher job satisfaction than their low *guanxi* counterparts when distributive justice was high. This confirms H2.

Results in Table B20 showed contrary to the hypothesis, distributive justice had a significant negative interaction with LMX on normative commitment ($b=-0.31$, s.e.$=0.13$, $p<0.05$). Figure C2 reveals the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that distributive justice had a significant negative effect on normative

commitment for people who perceived to have a high level of LMX with supervisors (b=-0.31, s.e.=0.16, p<0.05), and a significant positive effect for those perceiving a low level of LMX (b=0.31, s.e.=0.14, p<0.05). Thus, the positive relationship between distributive justice and normative commitment was stronger for employees with low rather than high LMX, which was contrary to the prediction. Figure C2 shows that when distributive justice was low, people with high LMX reported higher normative commitment than those with low LMX; but when distributive justice was high, people with high LMX reported lower normative commitment than those with low LMX. People with high LMX, low distributive justice reported equally high normative commitment as those with low LMX, high distributive justice; and people with high LMX, high distributive justice reported equally low normative commitment as those with low LMX, low distributive justice.

Table B20 shows that consistent with the hypothesis, procedural justice demonstrated a significant positive interaction with LMX on normative commitment (b=0.30, s.e.=0.14, p<0.05). Figure C3 reveals the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that procedural justice had a significant positive influence on normative commitment for those perceiving a high level of LMX (b=0.47, s.e.=0.15, p<0.01), and a non-significant association for those perceiving a low level of LMX (b=-0.12, s.e.=0.16, p>0.05).Thus, consistent with the prediction, the positive effect of procedural justice on normative commitment was stronger for employees having high rather than low LMX. Figure C3 shows that when procedural justice was low, people with high LMX reported lower normative commitment than those with low LMX; and when procedural justice

was high, people with high LMX reported higher normative commitment than those with low LMX.

Table B21 shows that procedural justice had a significant positive interaction with LMX on continuance commitment (b=0.31, s.e.=0.15, p<0.05). Figure C4 reveals the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that procedural justice had a significant positive effect on continuance commitment for those perceiving a high level of LMX (b=0.33, s.e.=0.17, p<0.05), and a non-significant effect for those perceiving a low level of LMX (b=-0.30, s.e.=0.18, p<0.10). Thus, consistent with the prediction, the positive effect of procedural justice on continuance commitment was stronger for employees with high rather than low LMX. Figure C4 shows that when procedural justice was low, people with high LMX reported lower continuance commitment than those with low LMX; and when procedural justice was high, people with high LMX reported higher continuance commitment than those with low LMX. In addition, equally high continuance commitment was reported for people with high LMX and procedural justice was high, and for people with low LMX and procedural justice was low. Equally low continuance commitment was reported for people with high LMX and procedural justice was low, and for people with low LMX and procedural justice was high.

Table B22 shows that informational justice had a significant positive interaction with ingroup identification on trust in the organization (b=0.34, s.e.=0.12, p<0.01). The interaction is revealed in Figure C5. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes demonstrated that informational justice had a significant positive effect on trust in the organization for people who perceived a high level of ingroup identification with supervisors (b=0.31,

s.e.=0.14, p<0.05), and a significant negative effect for those perceiving a low level of ingroup identification (b=-0.36, s.e.=0.16, p<0.05). Thus, consistent with the prediction, the positive effect of informational justice on trust in the organization was stronger for people with high rather than low ingroup identification. Figure C5 shows that when informational justice was low, people with high ingroup identification reported lower trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification; and when informational justice was high, people with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification.

Finally, results in Table B19 and B23 revealed that organizational justice did not interact with supervisor-subordinate relationship to influence affective commitment and trust in the supervisor.

Chinese Sample

Tables B24-B29 report the results of hierarchical linear regressions with *guanxi*, LMX, and ingroup identification as moderators between organizational justice and outcome variables in Chinese sample.

Table B24 shows that interpersonal justice had a significant positive interaction with LMX on job satisfaction (b=0.37, s.e.=0.18, p<0.05). The interaction is depicted in Figure C6. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes demonstrated that interpersonal justice had a non-significant but positive effect on job satisfaction for people perceiving high LMX (b=0.41, s.e.=0.24, p<0.10); and a non-significant but negative effect on job satisfaction for people perceiving low LMX (b=-0.33, s.e.=0.20, p<0.10).Thus, the prediction that the positive effect of interpersonal justice on job satisfaction is stronger for people with

high rather than low LMX was partially supported. Figure C6 shows that when interpersonal justice was low, people with high LMX reported lower job satisfaction than those with low LMX; and when interpersonal justice was high, people with high LMX reported higher job satisfaction than those with low LMX.

Results in Table B26 showed that procedural justice had a significant positive interaction with ingroup identification on normative commitment (b=0.37, s.e.=0.17, $p<0.05$). The interaction is depicted in Figure C7. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes demonstrated that procedural justice had a significant positive effect on normative commitment for people who perceived to have a high level of ingroup identification with supervisors (b=0.39, s.e.=0.20, $p<0.05$), and a non-significant effect for those perceiving a low level of ingroup identification (b=-0.36, s.e.=0.20, $p<0.10$). Thus, consistent with the prediction, the positive effect of procedural justice on normative commitment was stronger for people with high rather than low ingroup identification. Figure C7 shows that when procedural justice was low, people with high ingroup identification reported lower normative commitment than those with low ingroup identification; and when procedural justice was high, people with high ingroup identification reported higher normative commitment than those with low ingroup identification.

Table B27 demonstrates a significant positive interaction between distributive justice and *guanxi* on continuance commitment (b=0.33, s.e.=0.15, $p<0.05$). The interaction is depicted in Figure C8. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes demonstrated that distributive justice had a significant positive effect on continuance commitment for people who perceive to have a high level of *guanxi* with supervisors (b=0.65, s.e.=0.18,

$p<0.001$) and a non-significant effect for those perceiving a low level of *guanxi* (b=-0.02, s.e.=0.18, $p>0.10$). Thus, consistent with the prediction, the positive effect of distributive justice on continuance commitment was stronger for employees with high rather than low *guanxi*. Figure C8 shows that when distributive justice was low, people with high *guanxi* reported lower continuance commitment than those with low *guanxi*; and when distributive justice was high, people with high *guanxi* reported higher continuance commitment than those with low *guanxi*. In addition, for employees with low *guanxi*, there was not much difference on their continuance commitment whether distributive justice was high or low.

Table B28 reports a significant positive interaction between procedural justice and ingroup identification on trust in the organization (b=0.35, s.e.=0.17, $p<0.05$). Figure C9 reveals the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes demonstrated that procedural justice showed a non-significant but positive effect on trust in the organization for people perceiving high ingroup identification with supervisors (b=0.34, s.e.=0.20, $p<0.10$), and a non-significant but negative effect for those perceiving low ingroup identification (b=-0.36, s.e.=0.20, $p<0.10$). Thus, the prediction that the positive effect of procedural justice on trust in the organization is stronger for people with high rather than low ingroup identification was partially supported. Figure C9 shows that when procedural justice was low, people with high ingroup identification reported lower trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification; and when procedural justice was high, people with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification.

Table B29 reports a significant negative interaction between interpersonal justice and LMX on trust in the supervisor (b=-0.41, s.e.=0.19, p<0.05). Figure C10 depicts the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes demonstrated that contrary to the hypothesis, interpersonal justice had a significant negative effect on trust in the supervisor for people perceiving a high level of LMX (b=-0.52, s.e.=0.25, p<0.05) and a non-significant effect for those perceiving a low level of LMX (b=0.29, s.e.=0.20, p>0.05). Thus, inconsistent with the prediction, interpersonal justice did not show a stronger positive effect on trust in the supervisor for people with high rather than low LMX. Figure C10 also shows that when interpersonal justice was low, people with high LMX reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with low LMX; and when interpersonal justice was high, people with high LMX reported lower trust in the supervisor than those with low LMX.

Finally, results in Table B25 revealed that organizational justice did not interact with supervisor-subordinate relationship to influence affective commitment.

In summary, in the U.S. sample and consistent with H2 , distributive justice showed a significant positive interaction with *guanxi* on job satisfaction; procedural justice had significant positive interactions with LMX on normative and continuance commitment; and informational justice had a significant positive interaction with ingroup identification on trust in the organization. In Chinese sample, distributive justice had a significant positive interaction with *guanxi* to influence continuance commitment; procedural justice showed significant positive interactions with ingroup identification on normative commitment and trust in the organization (partially supported for trust in the organization); interpersonal justice also showed a significant positive interaction with

LMX on job satisfaction (partially supported). Based on these results, it can be seen that LMX, *guanxi*, and ingroup identification all showed some moderating effects on the influence of organizational justice. However, given the small percentage of significant and supportive interactions (4 out of 72 expected effects in each sample), H2 was not supported.

Hypotheses Testing—Moderating Effects of Cultural Values

Hypotheses 3a-3e predicted the moderating effects of cultural values on the influence of organizational justice on outcome variables. Again, linear regressions were conducted on each outcome variable in the U.S. and Chinese samples separately.

Moderating Effects of Individualism/Collectivism

Hypothesis 3a predicted that organizational justice would have stronger positive effects on outcome variables among employees with (1) high rather than low individualist values; (2) low rather than high collectivist values.

The U.S. Sample

Results in Table B30 showed that contrary to the hypothesis, interpersonal justice had a significant negative interaction with individualism on job satisfaction (b=-0.37, s.e.=0.11, $p<0.001$). Figure C11 depicts the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes demonstrated that interpersonal justice had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction for people with low individualist values (b=0.48, s.e.=0.14, $p<0.001$) and had a non-significant influence for those with high individualist values (b=-0.25, s.e.=0.14, $p<0.10$). Thus, contrary to the prediction, the positive effect of interpersonal justice on job satisfaction was stronger for people with low rather than high individualist

values. Figure C11 shows that when interpersonal justice was low, people high on individualist values reported higher job satisfaction than those with low individualist values; and when interpersonal justice was high, people high on individualist values reported lower job satisfaction than those with low individualist values.

Table B30 also shows that both interpersonal and informational justice interacted with collectivism to influence job satisfaction ($b=-0.29$, s.e.$=0.10$, $p<0.01$ for interpersonal justice; $b=0.19$, s.e.$=0.09$, $p<0.05$ for informational justice). The interactions were depicted in Figures C12 and C13. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes demonstrated that consistent with the hypothesis in Figure C12, interpersonal justice had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction for people with low collectivist values ($b=0.40$, s.e.$=0.12$, $p<0.001$) and a non-significant effect for those with high collectivist values ($b=-0.18$, s.e.$=0.13$, $p>0.05$). Thus, consistent with the prediction, the positive effect of interpersonal justice on job satisfaction was stronger for people with low rather than high collectivist values. Figure C12 shows that when interpersonal justice was low, people with high collectivist values reported higher job satisfaction than those with low collectivist values; when interpersonal justice was high, people with high collectivist values reported lower job satisfaction than those with low collectivist values.

However, post-hoc tests of simple slopes for Figure C13 demonstrated that informational justice had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction for those with high collectivist values ($b=0.38$, s.e.$=0.13$, $p<0.01$) and a non-significant effect for those with low collectivist values ($b=-0.01$, s.e.$=0.12$, $p>0.05$). Thus, inconsistent with the prediction, the positive effect of informational justice on job satisfaction was stronger for

people with high rather than low collectivist values. Figure C13 shows that when informational justice was low, people with high collectivist values reported lower job satisfaction than those with low collectivist values; and when informational justice was high, people with high collectivist values reported higher job satisfaction than those with low collectivist values. People with low collectivist values did not show much difference on their job satisfaction whether informational justice was low or high.

Table B31 reports that distributive justice showed a significant positive interaction with individualism on affective commitment, which was consistent with the hypothesis (Table B31: $b=0.15$, s.e.$=0.08$, $p<0.05$). Figure C14 depicts the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes demonstrated that distributive justice showed a non-significant but positive effect on job satisfaction for people with high individualist values ($b=0.16$, s.e.$=0.09$, $p<0.10$) and a non-significant but negative effect for high individualism ($b=-0.15$, s.e.$=0.13$, $p>0.05$). Thus, the prediction that the positive effect of distributive justice on affective commitment is stronger for people with high rather than low individualist values was only partially supported. Figure C14 shows that when distributive justice was low, people with high individualist values reported lower affective commitment than those with low individualist values; and when distributive justice was high, people with high individualist values reported higher affective commitment than those with low individualist values.

Table B32 shows that procedural justice had a significant positive interaction with individualism on normative commitment ($b=0.24$, s.e.$=0.09$, $p<0.01$). Figure C15 depicts the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes demonstrated that consistent with

the hypothesis, procedural justice had a significant positive effect on normative commitment for people with high individualist values ($b=0.40$, s.e.$=0.12$, $p<0.001$) and a non-significant effect for those with low individualist values ($b=-0.09$, s.e.$=0.13$, $p>0.10$). Thus, consistent with the prediction, the positive effect of procedural justice on normative commitment was stronger for people with high rather than low individualist values. Figure C15 shows that when procedural justice was low, people with high individualist values reported lower normative commitment than those with low individualist values; and when procedural justice was high, people with high individualist values reported higher normative commitment than those with low individualist values. People with high individualist values under high procedural justice reported equally high normative commitment as those with low individualist values under low procedural justice. But the lowest normative commitment was reported by people with high individualist values and when procedural justice was low.

Table B35 reports that interpersonal justice had a significant negative interaction with individualism on trust in the supervisor ($b=-0.20$, s.e.$=0.10$, $p<0.05$). Figure C16 depicts the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes demonstrated that contrary to the hypothesis, interpersonal justice demonstrated a significant positive effect on trust in the supervisor for people with low individualist values ($b=0.53$, s.e.$=0.12$, $p<0.001$) and a non-significant effect for those with high individualist values ($b=0.12$, s.e.$=0.13$, $p>0.05$). Thus, contrary to the prediction, the positive effect of interpersonal justice on trust in the supervisor was stronger for people with low rather than high individualist values. Figure C16 also shows that when interpersonal justice was low, people with high

individualist values reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with low individualist values; and when interpersonal justice was high, people with high individualist values reported lower trust in the supervisor than those with low individualist values. People with either high or low individualist values reported higher trust in the supervisor when interpersonal justice was high compared with when it was low.

Results in Tables B33 and B34 show that organizational justice did not have significant interactions with individualism/collectivism to influence continuance commitment or trust in the organization.

Chinese Sample

Table B36 reports that procedural justice had a significant positive interaction with individualism to influence job satisfaction in Chinese sample ($b=0.23$, s.e.$=0.12$, $p<0.05$). Figure C17 depicts the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes demonstrated that procedural justice had a non-significant but positive effect on job satisfaction for people with high individualist values ($b=0.33$, s.e.$=0.20$, $p<0.10$) and a non-significant but negative effect for those with low individualist values ($b=-0.13$, s.e.$=0.18$, $p>0.05$). Thus, the prediction that the positive effect of procedural justice on job satisfaction is stronger for people with high rather than low individualist values was partially supported. Figure C17 shows that when procedural justice was low, people with high individualist values reported lower job satisfaction than those with low individualist values; and when procedural justice was high, people with high individualist values reported higher job satisfaction than those with low individualist values. People with

high individualist values under high procedural justice reported equally high job satisfaction as those with low individualist values under low procedural justice. But the lowest job satisfaction was reported by people with high individualist values and when procedural justice was low.

Results in Tables B37-B41 show that in Chinese sample, there were no significant interactions between organizational justice and individualism/collectivism on the rest outcome variables.

In summary, consistent with H3a and in the U.S. sample, distributive justice had a significant positive interaction with individualism on affective commitment. Procedural justice had a significant positive interaction with individualism on normative commitment. Interpersonal justice had a significant negative interaction with collectivism on job satisfaction. In Chinese sample, only procedural justice had a significant positive interaction with individualism on job satisfaction (partially supported). Given the small percentage of significant and supportive interactions (3 out of 48 expected interactions were significant and consistent with H3a in the U.S. sample and 1 out of 48 in Chinese sample), H3a was not supported.

Moderating Effects of Power Distance

Hypothesis 3b suggested that organizational justice would have stronger positive effects on outcome variables for employees with low rather than high power distance values.

The U.S. Sample

Table B32 reports that consistent with the hypothesis, distributive justice had a significant negative interaction with power distance on normative commitment (b=-0.23, s.e.=.012, $p<0.05$). Figure C18 shows the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes demonstrated that distributive justice had a significant negative effect on normative commitment for people with high power distance values (b=-0.21, s.e.=0.10, $p<0.05$) and a non-significant effect for those with low power distance values (b=0.26, s.e.=0.19, $p>0.05$). Thus, consistent with the prediction, the positive effect of distributive justice on normative commitment was stronger for people with low rather than high power distance values. Figure C18 shows that when distributive justice was low, people with high power distance reported higher normative commitment than those with low power distance values; and when distributive justice was high, people with high power distance reported lower normative commitment than those with low power distance values.

Results in Tables B30, B31, B33-B35 show that organizational justice did not demonstrate significant interactions with power distance to influence the rest of the outcome variables (i.e., job satisfaction, affective commitment, continuance commitment, trust in the organization, and trust in the supervisor) in the U.S. sample.

Chinese Sample

Table B37 reports that interpersonal justice had a significant negative interaction with power distance to influence affective commitment (b=-0.30, s.e.=0.15, p<0.05). The interaction is demonstrated in Figure C19. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that interpersonal justice had a non-significant but negative impact on affective commitment for people with high power distance values (b=-0.45, s.e.=0.29, p>0.05) and a non-significant but positive effect for those with low power distance values (b=0.15, s.e.=0.13, p>0.05) power distance values. Thus, the prediction that the positive effect of interpersonal justice on affective commitment is stronger for people with low rather than high power distance values was partially supported. Figure C19 shows that when interpersonal justice was low, people with high power distance reported higher affective commitment than those with low power distance values; and when interpersonal justice was high, people with high power distance reported lower affective commitment than those with low power distance values.

Results in Table B36, B38-B41 show that organizational justice did not have significant interactions with power distance to influence the rest of the outcome variables in Chinese sample.

In summary, regarding H3b, only distributive justice showed hypothesized interaction with power distance on normative commitment in the U.S. sample. Interpersonal justice showed hypothesized interaction with power distance on affective commitment in Chinese sample (partially supported). Therefore, H3b was not supported

because of the small percentage of significant interactions that were consistent with H3b (only 1 out of 24 in the U.S. sample and 1 out of 24 in Chinese sample).

Moderating Effects of Masculinity

Hypothesis 3c proposed that the positive effects of procedural and distributive justice on outcome variables would be stronger among employees with masculine than feminine values; and the positive effects of interpersonal and informational justice would be stronger among employees with feminine than masculine values.

The U.S. Sample

Table B34 reports that distributive justice had a significant negative interaction with masculinity on trust in the organization (b=-0.30, s.e.=0.09, $p<0.001$). Figure C20 depicts the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that contrary to the hypothesis, distributive justice had a significant negative effect on trust in the organization for individuals with masculine values (b=-0.27, s.e.=0.14, $p<0.05$) and a significant positive effect for those with feminine values (b=0.33, s.e.=0.11, $p<0.01$). Thus, inconsistent with the prediction, the positive effect of distributive justice on trust in the organization was stronger for people with feminine rather than masculine values. Figure C20 also shows that when distributive justice was low, people with masculine values reported higher trust in the organization than those with feminine values; and when distributive justice was high, people with masculine values reported lower trust in the organization than those with feminine values. In addition, people with masculine values under low distributive justice reported equally high trust in the organization as those with feminine values under high distributive justice; also people with masculine

values under high distributive justice reported equally low trust in the organization as those with feminine values under low distributive justice.

Results in Table B30-B33 and B35 demonstrate that organizational justice did not have significant interactions with masculinity on the rest of the outcome variables in the U.S. sample.

Chinese Sample

Table B41 reports that procedural justice had a significant negative interaction with masculinity on trust in the supervisor ($b=-0.40$, s.e.$=0.15$, $p<0.01$). The interaction is shown in Figure C21. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that contrary to the hypothesis, procedural justice had a significant positive effect on trust in the supervisor for individuals with feminine values ($b=0.64$, s.e.$=0.22$, $p<0.01$) and a non-significant effect for those with masculine values ($b=-0.15$, s.e.$=0.21$, $p>0.05$). Thus, inconsistent with the prediction, the positive effect of procedural justice on trust in the supervisor was stronger for people with feminine rather than masculine values. Figure C21 also shows that when procedural justice was low, people with masculine values reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with feminine values; and when procedural justice was high, people with masculine values reported lower trust in the supervisor than those with feminine values.

Table B41 reports that interpersonal justice had a significant positive interaction with masculinity on trust in the supervisor ($b=0.25$, s.e.$=0.13$, $p<0.05$). Figure C22 shows the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that contrary to the hypothesis, interpersonal justice had a significant positive effect on trust in the

supervisor for people with masculine values (b=0.53, s.e.=0.21, $p<0.05$) and a non-significant effect for those with feminine values (b=0.03, s.e.=0.21, $p>0.05$). Thus, inconsistent with the prediction, the positive effect of interpersonal justice on trust in the supervisor was stronger for people with masculine rather than feminine values. Figure C22 shows that when interpersonal justice was low, people with masculine values reported lower trust in the supervisor than those with feminine values; and when interpersonal justice was high, people with masculine values reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with feminine values. People with feminine values reported similar level of trust in the supervisor whether interpersonal justice was high or low.

Results in Table B36-B40 demonstrate that organizational justice did not have significant interactions with masculinity on the rest of the outcome variables in the U.S. sample.

In summary, although distributive justice had a significant interaction with masculinity on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample, and procedural and interpersonal justice had significant interactions with masculinity on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample, these interactions were not consistent with Hypothesis 3c. Therefore, no supportive results were found for Hypothesis 3c.

Moderating Effects of Uncertainty Avoidance

Hypothesis 3d predicted that organizational justice would have stronger positive effects on outcome variables among employees with high rather than low uncertainty avoidance values.

The U.S. Sample

Table B32 reports that distributive justice had a significant positive interaction with uncertainty avoidance to influence normative commitment (b=0.19, s.e.=0.09, $p<0.05$). Figures C23 depicts the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that distributive justice demonstrated a non-significant but positive effect on normative commitment for people with high uncertainty avoidance values (b=0.21, s.e.=0.14, $p>0.05$) and a non-significant but negative effect for those with low uncertainty avoidance values (b=-0.16, s.e.=0.12, $p>0.05$). Thus, the prediction that the positive effect of distributive justice on normative commitment is stronger for people with high rather than low uncertainty avoidance values was partially supported. Figure C23 shows that when distributive justice was low, people with high uncertainty avoidance values reported lower normative commitment than those with low uncertainty avoidance values; and when distributive justice was high, people with high uncertainty avoidance values reported higher normative commitment than those with low uncertainty avoidance values.

Table B32 reports that contrary to the hypothesis, procedural justice had a significant negative interaction with uncertainty avoidance on normative commitment (b=-0.18, s.e.=0.09, $p<0.05$). The interaction is shown in Figure C24. Post-hoc tests of

simple slopes showed that procedural justice did not demonstrate significant effects on normative commitment for people with high ($b=-0.11$, s.e.$=0.14$, $p>0.05$) or low ($b=0.26$, s.e.$=0.13$, $p<0.10$) uncertainty avoidance values. Thus, inconsistent with the hypothesis, the positive effect of procedural justice on normative commitment was stronger for people with low rather than high uncertainty avoidance values. Figure C24 also shows that when procedural justice was low, people with high uncertainty avoidance values reported higher normative commitment than those with low uncertainty avoidance values; and when procedural justice was high, people with high uncertainty avoidance values reported lower normative commitment than those with low uncertainty avoidance values. In addition, people with high uncertainty avoidance values under low procedural justice reported equally high normative commitment as those with low uncertainty avoidance values under high procedural justice. But the lowest normative commitment was reported by people with low uncertainty avoidance values under low procedural justice.

Table B33 shows that interpersonal justice had a significant positive interaction with uncertainty avoidance on continuance commitment ($b=0.21$, s.e.$=0.10$, $p<0.05$). Figure C25 depicts the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that consistent with the hypothesis, interpersonal justice had a significant positive effect on continuance commitment for people with high uncertainty avoidance values ($b=0.39$, s.e.$=0.16$, $p<0.05$) and a non-significant effect for those with low uncertainty avoidance values ($b=-0.04$, s.e.$=0.15$, $p>0.05$). Thus, consistent with the prediction, the positive effect of interpersonal justice on continuance commitment was stronger for people with high

rather than low uncertainty avoidance values. Figure C25 shows that when interpersonal justice was low, people with high uncertainty avoidance values reported lower continuance commitment than those with low uncertainty avoidance values; and when interpersonal justice was high, people with high uncertainty avoidance values reported higher continuance commitment than those with low uncertainty avoidance values. People with low uncertainty avoidance values reported roughly equal continuance commitment whether interpersonal justice was low or high.

Table B34 shows that distributive justice had a significant positive interaction with uncertainty avoidance on trust in the organization ($b=0.18$, s.e.$=0.08$, $p<0.05$). Figure C26 depicts the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that distributive justice had a non-significant but positive effect on trust in the organization for people with high uncertainty avoidance values ($b=0.21$, s.e.$=0.13$, $p<0.10$) and a non-significant but negative effect for those with low uncertainty avoidance values ($b=-0.15$, s.e.$=0.11$, $p>0.05$). Thus, the prediction that the positive effect of distributive justice on trust in the organization is stronger for people with high rather than low uncertainty avoidance values was partially supported. Figure C26 shows that when distributive justice was low, people with high uncertainty avoidance values reported lower trust in the organization than those with low uncertainty avoidance values; and when distributive justice was high, people with high uncertainty avoidance values reported higher trust in the organization than those with low uncertainty avoidance values. People with high uncertainty avoidance values under high distributive justice reported equally high trust in the organization as those with low uncertainty avoidance values under low distributive

justice. The lowest trust in the organization was reported by people with high uncertainty avoidance values and when distributive justice was low.

Results in Tables B30, B31, and B35 show that organizational justice did not have significant interactions with uncertainty avoidance to influence job satisfaction, affective commitment, and trust in the supervisor.

Chinese Sample

Table B37 reports that procedural justice had a significant positive interaction with uncertainty avoidance on affective commitment ($b=0.31$, s.e.$=0.15$, $p<0.05$). Figure C27 depicts the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that procedural justice had a significant positive effect on affective commitment for people with high uncertainty avoidance values ($b=0.42$, s.e.$=0.21$, $p<0.05$) and a non-significant effect for those with low uncertainty avoidance values ($b=-0.21$, s.e.$=0.22$, $p>0.05$). Thus, consistent with the prediction, the positive effect of procedural justice on affective commitment was stronger for people with high rather than low uncertainty avoidance values. Figure C27 also shows that when procedural justice was low, people with high uncertainty avoidance values reported lower affective commitment than those with low uncertainty avoidance values; and when procedural justice was high, people with high uncertainty avoidance values reported higher affective commitment than those with low uncertainty avoidance values.

Table B38 shows that procedural justice had a significant positive interaction with uncertainty avoidance on normative commitment ($b=0.35$, s.e.$=0.15$, $p<0.05$). Figure C28 depicts the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that

procedural justice had a significant positive effect on normative commitment for people with high uncertainty avoidance values (b=0.45, s.e.=0.21, p<0.05) and a non-significant effect for those with low uncertainty avoidance values (b=-0.24, s.e.=0.22, p>0.05). Thus, consistent with the prediction, the positive effect of procedural justice on normative commitment was stronger for people with high rather than low uncertainty avoidance values. Figure C28 shows that when procedural justice was low, people with high uncertainty avoidance values reported lower normative commitment than those with low uncertainty avoidance values; and when procedural justice was high, people with high uncertainty avoidance values reported higher normative commitment than those with low uncertainty avoidance values.

Results in Tables B36 and B39-B41 show that organizational justice did not have significant interactions with job satisfaction, continuance commitment, trust in the organization, and trust in the supervisor.

In summary and consistent with H3d, in the U.S. sample, distributive justice had significant positive interactions with uncertainty avoidance on normative commitment (partially supported) and trust in the organization (partially supported). Interpersonal justice had significant positive interaction with uncertainty avoidance on continuance commitment. In Chinese sample, procedural justice had significant positive interactions with uncertainty avoidance on affective and normative commitment. However, because of the small percentage of significant interactions that were consistent with the prediction (3 out of 24 expected effects in the U.S. sample and 2 out of 24 in Chinese sample), H3d was not supported.

Moderating Effects of Long-Term Orientation

Hypothesis 3e predicted that organizational justice would have a stronger positive effect on outcome variables for employees with long-term oriented values than for those with short-term oriented values.

The U.S. Sample

Table B31 reports that informational justice had a significant positive interaction with long-term orientation on affective commitment (b=0.21, s.e.=0.10, p<0.05). The interaction is shown in Figure C29. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that informational justice had a significant positive effect on affective commitment for people with long-term orientated values (b=0.38, s.e.=0.13, p<0.01) and a non-significant effect for those with short-term oriented values (b=-0.04, s.e.=0.13, p>0.05). Thus, consistent with the prediction, the positive effect of informational justice on affective commitment was stronger for people with long- rather than short-term oriented values. Figure C29 shows that when informational justice was low, people with long-term oriented values reported lower affective commitment than those with short-term oriented values; and when informational justice was high, people with long-term oriented values reported higher affective commitment than those with short-term oriented values.

Table B33 reports that distributive justice had a significant negative interaction with long-term orientation on continuance commitment (b=-0.20, s.e.=0.08, p<0.05). Figure C30 depicts the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that distributive justice had a significant negative effect on continuance commitment for

people with long-term oriented values (b=-0.34, s.e.=0.12, p<0.01) and a non-significant effect for those with short-term oriented values (b=0.06, s.e.=0.12, p>0.05). Thus, inconsistent with the prediction, distributive justice did not show a stronger positive effect on continuance commitment for people with long- rather than short-term oriented values. Figure C30 also shows that when distributive justice was low, people with long-term oriented values reported higher continuance commitment than those with short-term oriented values; and when distributive justice was high, people with long-term oriented values reported lower continuance commitment than those with short-term oriented values. In addition, people with short-term oriented values reported similar continuance commitment whether distributive justice was high or low.

Table B33 also reports that procedural justice had a significant positive interaction with long-term orientation on continuance commitment (b=0.18, s.e.=0.09, p<0.05). Figure C31 depicts the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that procedural justice had a non-significant but positive effect on continuance commitment for people with long-term oriented values (b=0.22, s.e.=0.12, p<0.10) and a non-significant but negative effect for those with short-term oriented values (b=-0.13, s.e.=0.13, p>0.05). Thus, the prediction that the positive effect of procedural justice on continuance commitment is stronger for people with long- rather than short-term oriented values was partially supported. Figure C31 also shows that when procedural justice was low, people with long-term oriented values reported lower continuance commitment than those with short-term oriented values; and when procedural justice

was high, people with long-term oriented values reported higher continuance commitment than those with short-term oriented values.

Results in Tables B30, B32, B34, and B35 show that organizational justice did not have significant interactions with long-term orientation to influence job satisfaction, normative commitment, trust in the organization, and trust in the supervisor.

Chinese Sample

Table B39 reports that distributive justice had a significant negative interaction with long-term orientation on continuance commitment ($b=-0.34$, s.e.$=0.14$, $p<0.05$). Figure C32 depicts the interaction. Post-hoc tests of simple slopes showed that distributive justice had a significant positive effect on continuance commitment for people with short-term oriented values ($b=0.84$, s.e.$=0.21$, $p<0.001$) and a non-significant effect for those with long-term oriented values ($b=0.16$, s.e.$=0.21$, $p>0.05$). Thus, inconsistent with the prediction, the positive effect of distributive justice on continuance commitment was stronger for people with short- rather than long-term oriented values. Figure C32 also shows that when distributive justice was low, people with long-term oriented values reported higher continuance commitment than those with short-term oriented values; and when distributive justice was high, people with long-term oriented values reported lower continuance commitment than those with short-term oriented values.

Results in Tables B36-B38, B40 and B41 show that organizational justice did not have significant interaction effects with long-term orientation on the rest of the outcome variables.

In summary and consistent with the H3e, procedural justice had a significant positive interaction with long-term orientation on continuance commitment (partially supported), and informational justice had a significant positive interaction with long-term orientation on affective commitment in the U.S. sample. No supportive evidence was found in Chinese sample. H3e was not supported given the small percentage of significant and consistent interactions (2 out of 24 expected effects in the U.S. sample and none in Chinese sample).

Results on the moderating effects of cultural values showed that distributive justice showed some significant interactions with most cultural values as predicted (e.g., individualism, collectivism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance). In addition, the majority of moderating effects of these cultural values were exhibited on outcome variables of affective commitment, normative commitment, and trust in the organization. In addition, the majority of moderating effects of cultural values on the influence of procedural justice were shown on affective and normative commitment. However, cultural values showed fewer moderating effects on interpersonal and informational justice.

Hypotheses Testing—Three-Way Interactions of Organizational Justice, Supervisor-Subordinate Relationship, and Cultural Values

Hypotheses 4a and 4b proposed the three way interaction between organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and (H4a) individualism/collectivism, (H4b) power distance. Following hierarchical linear regressions above, three-way interaction terms among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and

cultural values were entered into the regression in model 4. Significant 3-way interactions were shown in figures and slope difference tests were also reported under each figure.

Organizational Justice, Supervisor-Subordinate Relationships, and Individualism

Hypothesis 4a predicted that the positive interaction effect of organizational justice and supervisor-subordinate relationship on outcome variables will be stronger for employees with (1) low rather than high individualist values; (2) high rather than low collectivist values.

The U.S. Sample

There was a significant 3-way interaction among informational justice, *guanxi*, and collectivism on job satisfaction (Table B42, b=0.39, s.e.=0.20, $p<0.05$). Figure C33 depicts the 3-way interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that informational justice did not report significant interactions with *guanxi* for people with either high or low collectivist values ($t=1.64$, $p>0.05$ for high collectivism; and $t=-0.97$, $p>0.05$ for low collectivism). Figure C33 shows that for people with high collectivist values, informational justice had a positive effect on job satisfaction for those with high *guanxi*; but for people with low collectivist values, informational justice had a negative effect on job satisfaction for those with high *guanxi*. Informational justice did not have significantly different effects on job satisfaction for any other pair of slopes. In addition, for people with high collectivist values, under low informational justice, those with high *guanxi* reported lower job satisfaction than those with low *guanxi*; and under high informational justice, those with high *guanxi* reported

higher job satisfaction than those with low *guanxi*. On the other hand, for people with low collectivist values, under low informational justice, people with high *guanxi* reported higher job satisfaction than those with low *guanxi*; and under high informational justice, those with high *guanxi* reported lower job satisfaction than those with low *guanxi*. Overall, Figure C33 reports that people with high *guanxi*, high collectivist values and under high informational justice reported the highest job satisfaction; and people with high *guanxi*, high collectivist values and under low informational justice reported the lowest job satisfaction. Therefore, the significant 3-way interaction among informational justice, *guanxi*, and collectivism was not consistent with Hypothesis 4a.

Table B43 reports that there was a significant 3-way interaction among informational justice, *guanxi*, and individualism on affective commitment ($b=0.38$, $s.e.=0.17$, $p<0.05$). Figure C34 depicts the 3-way interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that contrary to the hypothesis, informational justice and *guanxi* had a significant positive interaction effect on affective commitment for people with high ($t=2.72$, $p<0.01$) rather than low individualist values ($t=0.16$, $p>0.05$). Figure C34 shows that for people with high individualist values, informational justice had a positive effect on affective commitment for people with high *guanxi*, but a negative effect for those with low *guanxi*. More specifically, when informational justice was low, people with high *guanxi* reported lower affective commitment than those with low *guanxi*; but when informational justice was high, people with high *guanxi* reported higher affective commitment than those with low

guanxi. The negative effect of informational justice on affective commitment for people with high individualist values and low *guanxi* is also significantly different from the effects for people with low individualist values and with high or low *guanxi*. For people with low individualist values, people usually reported similar level of affective commitment whether informational justice was high or low. In addition, people with high *guanxi* usually reported higher affective commitment than those with low *guanxi*. Overall, the highest affective commitment was reported by people with high individualist values, low *guanxi*, and under low informational justice; and the lowest affective commitment was reported by those with high individualist values, low *guanxi*, and under high informational justice. Thus, contrary to the prediction, the positive interaction between informational justice and *guanxi* on affective commitment was stronger for people with high rather than low individualist values.

In addition, interpersonal justice significantly interacted with *guanxi* and collectivism to influence affective commitment (Table B43: $b=-0.36$, s.e.$=0.18$, $p<0.05$). Figure C35 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that contrary to the hypothesis, interpersonal justice had a significant negative interaction with *guanxi* on affective commitment for people with high collectivist values ($t=-2.40$, $p<0.05$) and there was no significant interaction for those with low collectivist values ($t=0.19$, $p>0.05$). Figure C35 shows that for people with high collectivist values, interpersonal justice had a negative effect on affective commitment for people with high *guanxi* and a positive effect for those with low *guanxi*. More specifically, under low interpersonal justice, people with high *guanxi* reported

higher affective commitment than those with low *guanxi*; and under high interpersonal justice, people with high *guanxi* reported lower affective commitment than those with low *guanxi*. No other pairs of slopes were significantly different in Figure C35. For people with low collectivist values, interpersonal justice had a positive effect on affective commitment for people with both high and low *guanxi*. People with high *guanxi* reported a slightly higher affective commitment than those with low *guanxi* whether interpersonal justice was high or low. Overall, the highest affective commitment was reported by people with high collectivist values, low *guanxi*, and under high interpersonal justice. Thus, inconsistent with the hypothesis, interpersonal justice and *guanxi* did not show a stronger positive interaction for people with high rather than low collectivist values.

Table B43 also reports that distributive justice significantly interacted with ingroup identification and collectivism to influence affective commitment ($b=-0.50$, $s.e.=0.20$, $p<0.05$). Figure C36 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that inconsistent with the hypothesis, distributive justice did not show significant positive interactions with ingroup identification for employees with either high ($t=-1.62$, $p>0.05$) or low collectivist values ($t=1.50$, $p>0.05$). Figure C36 shows that distributive justice had a negative effect on affective commitment for people with high ingroup identification and high collectivist values, but a positive effect for people with high ingroup identification and low collectivist values. In addition, distributive justice had a positive effect on affective commitment for people with low ingroup identification and high collectivist values, and

a negative effect for people with low ingroup identification and low collectivist values. For people with high collectivist values, under high distributive justice, people with high or low ingroup identification reported similar level of affective commitment; and under low distributive justice, people with high ingroup identification reported higher affective commitment than those with low ingroup identification. For people with low collectivist values, under high distributive justice, people with high ingroup identification reported higher affective commitment than those with low ingroup identification; and under low distributive justice, people with high or low ingroup identification reported similar level of affective commitment. Thus, inconsistent with the prediction, the positive interaction between distributive justice and ingroup identification on affective commitment was not stronger in high rather than low collectivist values.

Table B44 reports a significant 3-way interaction among interpersonal justice, LMX, and individualism on normative commitment ($b=0.70$, s.e.$=0.33$, $p<0.05$). Figure C37 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that contrary to the hypothesis, interpersonal justice had a significant positive interaction with LMX on normative commitment for people with high ($t=2.29$, $p<0.05$) rather than low individualist values ($t=-0.43$, $p>0.05$). Figure C37 shows that for people with high individualist values, interpersonal justice had a positive effect on normative commitment for those with high LMX, and a negative effect for those with low LMX. For people with low LMX, interpersonal justice had a negative effect on normative commitment for those with high individualist values, but a slightly positive effect for those with low individualist values. In addition, people with high

individualist values, high LMX, and under low interpersonal justice reported equally low normative commitment as those with high individualist values, low LMX, and under high interpersonal justice. For people with low individualist values, similar level of normative commitment was reported under low interpersonal justice for people with high or low LMX; and under high interpersonal justice, people with high LMX reported lower normative commitment than those with low LMX. Overall, the highest normative commitment was reported by people with high individualist values, low LMX, and under low interpersonal justice; and the lowest normative commitment was reported by those with high individualist values, high LMX, and under low interpersonal justice. Thus, inconsistent with the prediction, the positive interaction between interpersonal justice and LMX was stronger for people with high rather than low individualist values.

Table B47 reports a significant 3-way interaction among procedural justice, LMX, and individualism on trust in the supervisor ($b=0.57$, s.e.$=0.27$, $p<0.05$). Figure 38 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that contrary to the hypothesis, procedural justice had a significant positive interaction on trust in the supervisor for people with high ($t=2.09$, $p<0.05$) rather than low individualist values ($t=-1.02$, $p>0.05$). Figure C38 shows that for people with high individualist values, procedural justice had a positive effect on trust in the supervisor for those with high LMX and a negative effect for those with low LMX. Specifically, under low procedural justice, people with high LMX reported lower trust in the supervisor than those with low LMX; and under high procedural justice, people with high LMX reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with low LMX. Contrary to the negative effect

of procedural justice on trust in the supervisor for people with high individualist values and low LMX, procedural justice had a positive effect on trust in the supervisor for people with low individualist values and low LMX. In addition, for people with low individualist values, those with high LMX reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with low LMX under low procedural justice; and those with high LMX reported lower trust in the supervisor than those with low LMX under high procedural justice. Thus, inconsistent with the prediction, the positive interaction between procedural justice and LMX was stronger for people with high rather than low individualist values.

Results in Table B45 and B46 do not show any significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and individualism/collectivism on continuance commitment and trust in the organization.

Chinese Sample

Table B48 reports a significant 3-way interaction among procedural justice, LMX, and collectivism on job satisfaction ($b=1.50$, s.e.$=0.74$, $p<0.05$). Figure C39 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that inconsistent with the hypothesis, procedural justice did not show significant positive interactions with LMX on job satisfaction for people with either high ($t=1.46$, $p>0.05$) or low collectivist values ($t=-1.25$, $p>0.05$). Figure C39 shows that procedural justice had a positive effect on job satisfaction for people with high collectivist values and high LMX, but a negative effect for those with low collectivist values and high LMX. No other pairs of slopes were significantly different. Moreover, for people with high collectivist values, under low procedural justice, those with high

LMX reported lower job satisfaction than those with low LMX; and under high procedural justice, those with high LMX reported higher job satisfaction than those with low LMX. For people with low collectivist values, under low procedural justice, those with high LMX reported higher job satisfaction than those with low LMX; and under high procedural justice, those with high LMX reported lower job satisfaction than those with low LMX. Thus, inconsistent with the prediction, the positive interaction between procedural justice and LMX was not stronger for people with high rather than low collectivist values.

Table B49 shows a significant 3-way interaction among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and collectivism on affective commitment ($b=1.02$, s.e.$=0.48$, $p<0.05$). Figure C40 shows the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that inconsistent with the hypothesis, distributive justice did not show significant interactions with ingroup identification on affective commitment for people with either high ($t=1.07$, $p>0.05$) or low collectivist values ($t=-1.79$, $p<0.10$). Figure C40 shows that for people with high collectivist values, under low distributive justice, people with high ingroup identification reported lower affective commitment than those with low ingroup identification; and under high distributive justice, people with high ingroup identification reported higher affective commitment than those with low ingroup identification. For people with low collectivist values, under low distributive justice, people with high ingroup identification reported higher affective commitment than those with low ingroup identification; and under high distributive justice, people with high ingroup identification reported lower affective commitment

than those with low ingroup identification. Thus, inconsistent with the prediction, the positive interaction between distributive justice and ingroup identification was not stronger for people with high rather than low collectivist values.

Results in Table B50, B51, B52, and B53 do not show any significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and individualism/collectivism on normative commitment, continuance commitment, trust in the organization, and trust in the supervisor.

In summary, although there were several significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and individualism/ collectivism, they were all inconsistent with the hypothesis and therefore, Hypothesis 4a was not supported.

Organizational Justice, Supervisor-Subordinate Relationships, and Power Distance

Hypothesis 4b predicted that the positive interaction effects between organizational justice and supervisor-subordinate relationship on outcome variables will be stronger for employees with low rather than high power distance values.

The U.S. Sample

Table B42 reports a significant interaction among distributive justice, *guanxi*, and power distance on job satisfaction ($b=0.54$, s.e.$=0.23$, $p<0.05$). Figure C41 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that contrary to the hypothesis, distributive justice had a significant positive interaction with *guanxi* on job satisfaction for people with high ($t=3.11$, $p<0.01$) rather than low power distance values ($t=-1.87$, $p<0.10$). Figure C41 shows that distributive

justice had a positive effect on job satisfaction for people with high *guanxi* and high power distance values; and had a negative effect for those with low *guanxi* and high power distance values. For people with high *guanxi*, distributive justice had a positive effect on job satisfaction for those with high power distance values, but a negative effect for those with low power distance values. In addition, for people with high power distance values, under low distributive justice, people with high *guanxi* reported lower job satisfaction than those with low *guanxi*; and under high distributive justice, people with high *guanxi* reported higher job satisfaction than those with low *guanxi*. For people with low power distance values, under low distributive justice, people with high *guanxi* reported higher job satisfaction than those with low *guanxi*; and under high distributive justice, people with high *guanxi* reported lower job satisfaction than those with low *guanxi*. Thus, inconsistent with the prediction, the positive interaction between distributive justice and *guanxi* was not stronger for people with low rather than high power distance values.

Table B47 reports a significant 3-way interaction among procedural justice, ingroup identification, and power distance on trust in the supervisor (b=0.56, s.e.=0.28, $p<0.05$). Figure C42 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that contrary to the hypothesis, procedural justice had a significant negative interaction with ingroup identification on trust in the supervisor for people with low power distance values (t=-2.34, $p<0.05$) and there was no significant interaction for those with high power distance values (t=0.66, $p>0.05$). Figure C42 shows that for people with low power distance values, procedural justice had a

negative effect on trust in the supervisor for people with high ingroup identification and a positive effect for those with low ingroup identification. For people with low ingroup identification, procedural justice had a negative effect on trust in the supervisor for those with high power distance values, and a positive effect for those with low power distance values. In addition, for people with high power distance values, similar level of trust in the supervisor was reported under low procedural justice by people with high or low ingroup identification; and under high procedural justice, people with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with low ingroup identification. For people with low power distance values, under low procedural justice, people with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with low ingroup identification; and under high procedural justice, people with high ingroup identification reported lower trust in the supervisor than those with low ingroup identification. Overall, the highest trust in the supervisor was reported by people with low power distance values, high ingroup identification, and under low procedural justice; and the lowest trust in the supervisor was reported by those with low power distance values, low ingroup identification, and under low procedural justice. Thus, inconsistent with the prediction, the positive interaction between procedural justice and ingroup identification was not stronger for people with low rather than high power distance values.

Results in Table B43-B46 do not show any significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and power distance on

affective commitment, normative commitment, continuance commitment, and trust in the organization.

Chinese Sample

Table B53 reports a significant 3-way interaction among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and power distance on trust in the supervisor (b=1.00, s.e.=0.43, $p<0.05$). Figure C43 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that inconsistent with the hypothesis, distributive justice did not show significant positive interactions with ingroup identification for people with high ($t=1.47$, $p>0.05$) or low power distance values ($t=-1.93$, $p<0.10$). Figure C43 shows that distributive justice had a negative effect on trust in the supervisor for people with high power distance values and low ingroup identification; and a positive effect for those with low power distance values and low ingroup identification. No other pairs of slopes were significantly different from each other. In addition, for people with high power distance values, under low distributive justice, people with high ingroup identification reported lower trust in the supervisor than those with low ingroup identification; and under high distributive justice, people with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with low ingroup identification. People with high power distance, high ingroup identification, and under low distributive justice reported equally low trust in the supervisor as those with high power distance, low ingroup identification, and under high distributive justice. For people with low power distance values, under low distributive justice, people with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with low ingroup identification; and

under high distributive justice, people with high ingroup identification reported lower trust in the supervisor than those with low ingroup identification. Thus, inconsistent with the prediction, the positive interaction between distributive justice and ingroup identification was not stronger for people with low rather than high power distance values.

Results in Table B48-B52 do not show any significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and power distance on the rest of the outcome variables.

In summary, although there were several significant interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and power distance, they were all inconsistent with the hypothesis and therefore, Hypothesis 4b was not supported.

Organizational Justice, Supervisor-Subordinate Relationships, and Other Cultural Values

Though not hypothesized, I also discussed potential 3-way interactions between organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and remaining cultural values (i.e., masculinity/femininity, long-term orientation, and uncertainty avoidance). Regression results regarding these 3-way interactions are reported below.

Masculinity/Femininity

As discussed in Chapter III, the interaction between distributive/procedural justice and supervisor-subordinate relationships might be stronger for employees with masculine values; whereas the interaction between informational/interpersonal justice

and supervisor-subordinate relationships might be stronger for those with feminine values.

The U.S. Sample

Table B44 reports a significant 3-way interaction among procedural justice, ingroup identification, and masculinity on normative commitment (b=-0.44, s.e.=0.22, $p<0.05$). Figure C44 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that procedural justice did not have any significant interactions with ingroup identification on normative commitment for employees with either masculine (t=-1.11, $p>0.05$) or feminine values (t=1.26, $p>0.05$). Figure C44 shows that for people with masculine values, under low procedural justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher normative commitment than those with low ingroup identification; and under high procedural justice, those with high ingroup identification reported slightly lower normative commitment than those with low ingroup identification. For people with feminine values, under low procedural justice, those with high ingroup identification reported slightly lower normative commitment than those with low ingroup identification; and under high procedural justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher normative commitment than those with low ingroup identification.

Table B45 reports a significant 3-way interaction among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and masculinity on continuance commitment (b=0.59, s.e.=0.29, $p<0.05$). Figure C45 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that distributive justice had a significant positive

interaction with ingroup identification on continuance commitment for people with masculine values ($t=2.26$, $p<0.05$) and there was no significant interaction for those with feminine values ($t=-0.18$, $p>0.05$). Figure C45 shows that for people with masculine values, distributive justice had a positive effect on continuance commitment for those with high ingroup identification and a negative effect for those with low ingroup identification. In addition, for people with high ingroup identification, distributive justice had a positive effect on continuance commitment for those with masculine values and a negative effect for those with feminine values. The figure also demonstrates that for people with masculine values, under low distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower continuance commitment than those with low ingroup identification; and under high distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher continuance commitment than those with low ingroup identification. For people with feminine values, under low distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported similar level of continuance commitment as those with low ingroup identification; and under high distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported slightly lower continuance commitment than those with low ingroup identification. Overall, the highest trust in the organization was reported by people with masculine values, low LMX, and under low distributive justice; and the highest trust in the organization was reported by those with masculine values, low LMX, and under high distributive justice.

Table B46 reports a significant 3-way interaction among distributive justice, LMX, and masculinity on trust in the organization ($b=0.63$, $s.e.=0.27$, $p<0.05$). Figure

C46 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that distributive justice had a significant positive interaction with LMX on trust in the organization for people with masculine values ($t=2.10$, $p<0.05$) and there was no significant interaction for those with feminine values ($t=-1.39$, $p>0.05$). Figure C46 shows that for people with masculine values, distributive justice had a positive effect on trust in the organization for those with high LMX and a negative effect for those with low LMX. Also, for people with low LMX, distributive justice showed a negative effect on trust in the organization for those with masculine values, and a positive effect for those with feminine values. In addition, for people with masculine values, under low distributive justice, those with high LMX reported lower trust in the organization than those with low LMX; and under high distributive justice, those with high LMX reported higher trust in the organization than those with low LMX. For people with feminine values, under low distributive justice, those with high LMX reported higher trust in the organization than those with low LMX; and under high distributive justice, those with high LMX reported lower trust in the organization than those with low LMX. Overall, the highest trust in the organization was reported by people with masculine values, high ingroup identification, and under low distributive justice.

Table B46 also reports a significant 3-way interaction among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and masculinity on trust in the organization ($b=-0.55$, s.e.$=0.22$, $p<0.05$). Figure C47 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that distributive justice had a significant negative

interaction with ingroup identification on trust in the organization for people with masculine values ($t=-2.46$, $p<0.05$) and there was no significant interaction for those with feminine values ($t=0.67$, $p>0.05$). Figure C47 shows that distributive justice had a negative effect on trust in the organization for people with masculine values and high ingroup identification. This effect was different from the positive effect of distributive justice for those with masculine values and low ingroup identification; the positive effect of distributive justice for those with feminine values and high ingroup identification; or the effect of distributive justice for those with feminine values and low ingroup identification. In addition, for people with masculine values, under low distributive justice, people with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification; and under high distributive justice, people with high ingroup identification reported lower trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification. For people with feminine values, under low distributive justice, people with high ingroup identification reported similar level of trust in the organization as those with low ingroup identification; and under high distributive justice, people with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification.

Table B47 reports a significant 3-way interaction among interpersonal justice, ingroup identification, and masculinity on trust in the supervisor ($b=0.51$, $s.e.=0.24$, $p<0.05$). Figure C48 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that interpersonal justice did not have any significant interactions with ingroup identification on trust in the supervisor for people

with either masculine ($t=1.69$, $p<0.10$) or feminine values ($t=-1.32$, $p>0.10$). Figure C48 shows that for people with high ingroup identification, interpersonal justice had a positive effect on trust in the supervisor for those with masculine values and a negative effect for those with feminine values. No other pair of slopes was significantly different. But for people with masculine values, under low interpersonal justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower trust in the supervisor than those with low ingroup identification; and under high interpersonal justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with low ingroup identification. For people with feminine values, under low interpersonal justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with low ingroup identification; and under high interpersonal justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower trust in the supervisor than those with low ingroup identification.

Results in Tables B42 and B43 do not show any significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and masculinity on job satisfaction and affective commitment.

Chinese Sample

Table B49 reports a significant 3-way interaction among procedural justice, ingroup identification, and masculinity on affective commitment ($b=1.72$, $s.e.=0.73$, $p<0.05$). Figure C49 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that procedural justice had a significant positive interaction with ingroup identification on affective commitment for people with

masculine values ($t=2.11$, $p<0.05$) and there was no significant interaction for those with feminine values ($t=-1.55$, $p>0.05$). Figure C49 shows that for people with high ingroup identification, procedural justice had a positive effect on affective commitment for those with masculine values and a negative effect for those with feminine values. For people with masculine values, procedural justice had a positive effect for those with high ingroup identification and a negative effect for those with low ingroup identification. For people with low ingroup identification, procedural justice had a negative effect on affective commitment for those with masculine values and a positive effect for those with feminine values. In addition, for people with masculine values, under low procedural justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower affective commitment than those with low ingroup identification; and under high procedural justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher affective commitment than those with low ingroup identification. For people with feminine values, under low procedural justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher affective commitment than those with low ingroup identification; and under high procedural justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower affective commitment than those with low ingroup identification.

Results in Tables B48 and B50-B53 do not show any significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and masculinity on the rest of the outcome variables.

In summary, in the U.S. sample, significant 3-way interactions were found among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and masculinity on continuance

commitment and trust in the organization; distributive justice, LMX, and masculinity on trust in the organization; procedural justice, ingroup identification, and masculinity on normative commitment; and interpersonal justice, ingroup identification, and masculinity on trust in the supervisor. In Chinese sample, significant 3-way interaction was found among procedural justice, ingroup identification, and masculinity on affective commitment.

These results showed that among the three constructs measuring supervisor-subordinate relationships, ingroup identification showed more interaction with organizational justice and masculinity on the outcomes. In addition, informational justice did not show significant 3-way interactions with supervisor-subordinate relationships and masculinity on the outcome variables.

Long-Term Orientation

Previous discussion suggested that the interactions between procedural/informational justice and supervisor-subordinate relationships would be stronger for employees with long- rather than short-term oriented values; whereas the interaction between distributive/interpersonal justice and supervisor-subordinate relationships would be stronger among employees with short- rather than long-term oriented values.

The U.S. Sample

Table B42 reports a significant 3-way interaction among distributive justice, LMX, and long-term orientation on job satisfaction ($b=-0.47$, s.e.$=0.22$, $p<0.05$). Figure C50 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope

difference tests showed that distributive justice did not have significant interactions with long-term orientation on job satisfaction for people with long- ($t=-1.40$, $p>0.05$) or short-term oriented values ($t=1.53$, $p>0.05$). Figure C50 shows that for people with low LMX, distributive justice had a positive effect on job satisfaction for those with long-term oriented values and a negative effect for those with short-term oriented values. No other pair of slopes was significantly different from each other. But for people with long-term oriented values, under low distributive justice, people with high LMX reported higher job satisfaction than those with low LMX, and under high distributive justice, people high LMX reported lower job satisfaction than those with low LMX. For people with short-term oriented values, under low distributive justice, people with high LMX reported lower job satisfaction than those with low LMX, and under high distributive justice, people high LMX reported higher job satisfaction than those with low LMX.

Table B45 reports a significant 3-way interaction among interpersonal justice, ingroup identification, and long-term orientation on continuance commitment ($b=-0.88$, $s.e.=0.27$, $p<0.001$). Figure C51 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that interpersonal justice had a significant negative interaction with ingroup identification on continuance commitment for people with long-term oriented values ($t=-2.33$, $p<0.05$) and there was no significant interactions for those with short-term oriented values ($t=1.77$, $p<0.10$). Figure C51 shows that for people with high ingroup identification, interpersonal justice had a negative effect on continuance commitment for those with long-term oriented values and a positive effect for those with short-term oriented values. For people with long-term

oriented values, interpersonal justice had a negative effect on continuance commitment for those with high ingroup identification and a positive effect for those with low ingroup identification. For people with low ingroup identification, interpersonal justice had a positive effect on continuance commitment for those with long-term oriented values and a negative effect for those with short-term oriented values. In addition, for people with long-term oriented values, under low interpersonal justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher continuance commitment than those with low ingroup identification; and under high interpersonal justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower continuance commitment than those with low ingroup identification. For people with short-term oriented values, under low interpersonal justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower continuance commitment than those with low ingroup identification; and under high interpersonal justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher continuance commitment than those with low ingroup identification. Overall, the highest continuance commitment was reported by people with long-term oriented values, high ingroup identification, and under low interpersonal justice; and the lowest continuance commitment was reported by those with long-term oriented values, high ingroup identification, and under high interpersonal justice.

Table B46 reports a significant 3-way interaction among distributive justice, LMX, and long-term orientation on trust in the organization (b=-0.42, s.e.=0.21, $p<0.05$). Figure C52 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that distributive justice had a significant positive

interaction with LMX on trust in the organization for people with short-term oriented values ($t=2.28$, $p<0.05$) and there was no significant interaction for those with long-term oriented values ($t=-0.63$, $p>0.05$). Figure C52 shows that for people with high LMX, distributive justice had a negative effect on trust in the organization for those with long-term oriented values, and a positive effect for those with short-term oriented values. For people with short-term oriented values, distributive justice had a positive effect on trust in the organization for those with high LMX and a negative effect for those with low LMX. In addition, for people with long-term oriented values, under low distributive justice, those with high LMX reported higher trust in the organization than those with low LMX; and under high distributive justice, those with high LMX reported lower trust in the organization than those with low LMX. For people with short-term oriented values, under low distributive justice, those with high LMX reported lower trust in the organization than those with low LMX; and under high distributive justice, those with high LMX reported higher trust in the organization than those with low LMX.

Table B46 also reports a significant 3-way interaction among procedural justice, ingroup identification, and long-term orientation on trust in the organization ($b=-0.38$, $s.e.=0.16$, $p<0.05$). Figure C53 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that procedural justice had a significant positive interaction with ingroup identification on trust in the organization for people with short-term oriented values ($t=2.33$, $p<0.05$) and there was no significant interaction for those with long-term oriented values ($t=-0.32$, $p>0.05$). Figure C53 shows that for people with short-term oriented values, procedural justice had a positive effect on trust

in the organization for those with high ingroup identification and a negative effect for those with low ingroup identification. For people with low ingroup identification, procedural justice had a positive effect on trust in the organization for those with long-term oriented values and a negative effect for those with short-term oriented values. In addition, for people with long-term oriented values, those with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification whether procedural justice was low or high. For people with short-term oriented values, under low procedural justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification; and under high procedural justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification. Overall, the highest trust in the organization was reported by people with short-term oriented values, high ingroup identification, and under high procedural justice; and the lowest trust in the organization was reported by those with short-term oriented values, low ingroup identification, and under high procedural justice.

Results in Tables B43, B44 and B47 do not show any significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and long-term orientation on affective commitment, normative commitment, and trust in the supervisor.

Chinese Sample

Table B49 reports a significant 3-way interaction among informational justice, LMX, and long-term orientation on affective commitment ($b=1.70$, s.e.$=0.64$, $p<0.05$).

Figure C54 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that informational justice did not have any significant interactions with LMX for people with either long- ($t=1.46$, $p>0.05$) or short-term oriented values ($t=-1.85$, $p<0.10$). Figure C54 shows that for people with high LMX, informational justice had a positive effect on affective commitment for those with long-term oriented values and a negative effect for those with short-term oriented values. For people with low LMX, informational justice had a negative effect on affective commitment for those with long-term oriented values and a positive effect for those with short-term oriented values. In addition, for people with long-term oriented values, under low informational justice, those with high LMX reported lower affective commitment than those with low LMX; and under high informational justice, those with high LMX reported higher affective commitment than those with low LMX. For people with short-term oriented values, under low informational justice, those with high LMX reported higher affective commitment than those with low LMX; and under high informational justice, those with high LMX reported lower affective commitment than those with low LMX

Table B52 reports a significant 3-way interaction among procedural justice, LMX, and long-term orientation on trust in the organization ($b=-1.15$, $s.e.=0.57$, $p<0.05$). Figure C55 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that procedural justice did not have any significant interactions with LMX for people with either long- ($t=-0.60$, $p>0.05$) or short-term oriented values ($t=1.72$, $p<0.10$). Figure C55 shows that for people with long-term

oriented values, under low procedural justice, those with high LMX reported higher trust in the organization than those with low LMX; and under high procedural justice, those with high LMX reported slightly lower trust in the organization than those with low LMX. For people with short-term oriented values, under low procedural justice, those with high LMX reported lower trust in the organization than those with low LMX; and under high procedural justice, those with high LMX reported higher trust in the organization than those with low LMX. Overall, the highest trust in the organization was reported by people with short-term oriented values, high LMX, and under high procedural justice.

Table B52 also reports that informational justice significantly interacted with LMX and long-term orientation to impact trust in the organization ($b=2.01$, s.e.$=0.63$, $p<0.01$). Figure C56 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that informational justice had a significant negative interaction with LMX on trust in the organization for people with short-term oriented values ($t=-3.13$, $p<0.01$), and there was no significant interaction for those with long-term oriented values ($t=0.42$, $p>0.05$). Figure C56 shows that for people with high LMX, informational justice had a positive effect on trust in the organization for those with long-term oriented values and a negative effect for those with short-term oriented values. For people with short-term oriented values, informational justice had a negative effect on trust in the organization for those with high LMX and a positive effect for those with low LMX. For people with low LMX, informational justice had a positive effect on trust in the organization for those with short-term oriented values and had a

zero effect for those on long-term oriented values. In addition, for people with long-term oriented values, under low informational justice, people with high or low LMX reported similar level of trust in the organization; and under high informational justice, people high LMX reported higher trust in the organization than those with low LMX. For people with short-term oriented values, under low informational justice, those with high LMX reported higher trust in the organization than those with low LMX; and under high informational justice, those with high LMX reported lower trust in the organization than those with low LMX.

Table B52 also reports a significant 3-way interaction among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and long-term orientation on trust in the organization ($b=1.17$, $s.e.=0.47$, $p<0.05$). Figure C57 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that distributive justice had a significant negative interaction with LMX on trust in the organization for people with short-term oriented values ($t=-2.15$, $p<0.01$), and there was no significant interaction for those with long-term oriented values ($t=1.16$, $p>0.05$). Figure C57 shows that for people with high ingroup identification, distributive justice had a positive effect on trust in the organization for those with long-term oriented values and a negative effect for those with short-term oriented values. For people with short-term oriented values, distributive justice had a negative effect on trust in the organization for those with high ingroup identification and a positive effect for those with low ingroup identification. For people with low ingroup identification, distributive justice had a negative effect on trust in the organization for those with long-term oriented values and a positive effect for those with

short-term oriented values. In addition, for people with long-term oriented values, under low distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification; and under high distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification. For people with short-term oriented values, under low distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification; and under high distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification. Overall, the highest trust in the organization was reported by people with short-term oriented values, low ingroup identification, and under high distributive justice; and the lowest trust in the organization was reported by those with short-term oriented values, low ingroup identification, and under low distributive justice.

Results in Tables B48, B50, B51, and B53 do not show any significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and long-term orientation on job satisfaction, normative commitment, continuance commitment, and trust in the supervisor.

In summary, in the U.S. sample, distributive justice significantly interacted with LMX and long-term orientation to influence job satisfaction and trust in the organization; procedural justice significantly interacted with ingroup identification and long-term orientation on trust in the organization; and interpersonal justice significantly interacted with ingroup identification and long-term orientation to impact continuance

commitment. In Chinese sample, distributive justice significantly interacted with ingroup identification and long-term orientation to influence trust in the organization; procedural justice significantly interacted with LMX and long-term orientation on trust in the organization; and informational justice significantly interacted with LMX and long-term orientation to influence affective commitment and trust in the organization.

Results showed that only LMX and ingroup identification showed 3-way interactions with organizational justice and long-term orientation. In addition, more significant 3-way interactions were found to influence trust in the organization.

Uncertainty Avoidance

Previous discussion also suggested that organizational justice would have stronger positive interaction effects with supervisor-subordinate relationships on outcome variables among employees with high rather than low uncertainty avoidance values.

The U.S. Sample

Table B43 reports that there was a significant 3-way interaction among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and uncertainty avoidance on affective commitment ($b=-0.47$, s.e.$=0.22$, $p<0.05$). Figure C58 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that distributive justice did not have any significant interactions with ingroup identification on affective commitment for people with either high ($t=-1.33$, $p>0.05$) or low uncertainty avoidance values ($t=1.60$, $p>0.05$). Figure C58 showed that for people with low ingroup identification, distributive justice had a positive effect on affective commitment for those

with high uncertainty avoidance values and a negative effect for those with low uncertainty avoidance values. No other pair of slopes had significant difference. But for people with high uncertainty avoidance values, under low distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher affective commitment than those with low ingroup identification; and under high distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported similar level of affective commitment as those with low ingroup identification. For people with low uncertainty avoidance values, under low distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported similar level of affective commitment as those with low ingroup identification; and under high distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher affective commitment than those with low ingroup identification.

Table B46 reports that there was a significant 3-way interaction among procedural justice, *guanxi*, and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the organization ($b=0.36$, s.e.$=0.14$, $p<0.05$). Figure C59 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that procedural justice had a significant positive interaction with *guanxi* on trust in the organization for people with high uncertainty avoidance values ($t=3.27$, $p<0.001$) and there was no significant interaction for those with low uncertainty avoidance values ($t=0.40$, $p>0.05$). Figure C59 shows that for people with high *guanxi*, procedural justice had positive effects on trust in the organization for those with high or low uncertainty avoidance values, but the effect was stronger for those with high rather than low uncertainty avoidance values. For people with high uncertainty avoidance values, procedural justice had a positive effect

on trust in the organization for those with high *guanxi* and a negative effect for those with low *guanxi*. Moreover, the positive effect of procedural justice on trust in the organization for those with high uncertainty avoidance values and high *guanxi* was significantly different from the slightly negative effect for those with low uncertainty avoidance values and low *guanxi*. In addition, for people with high uncertainty avoidance values, under low procedural justice, those with high *guanxi* reported lower trust in the organization than those with low *guanxi*; and under high procedural justice, those with high *guanxi* reported higher trust in the organization than those with low *guanxi*. For people with low uncertainty avoidance values, under low procedural justice, those with high *guanxi* reported slightly lower trust in the organization than those with low *guanxi*; and under high procedural justice, those with high *guanxi* reported slightly higher trust in the organization than those with low *guanxi*. Overall, the highest trust in the organization was reported by people with high uncertainty avoidance values, high *guanxi*, and under high procedural justice; and the lowest trust in the organization was reported by people with high uncertainty avoidance values, high *guanxi*, and under low procedural justice.

Table B46 also shows a significant 3-way interaction among interpersonal justice, LMX, and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the organization ($b=-0.57$, s.e.$=0.24$, $p<0.05$). Figure C60 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that interpersonal justice had a significant positive interaction with LMX on trust in the organization for people with low uncertainty avoidance values ($t=3.91$, $p<0.001$) and there was no significant interaction for those

with high uncertainty avoidance values (t=0.59, p>0.05). Figure C60 shows that for people with low uncertainty avoidance values, interpersonal justice had a positive effect on trust in the organization for those with high LMX; and a negative effect for those with low LMX. For people with low LMX, interpersonal justice had a positive effect on trust in the organization for those with high uncertainty avoidance values, and a negative effect for those with low uncertainty avoidance values. In addition, for people with high uncertainty avoidance values, under low interpersonal justice, those with high LMX reported lower trust in the organization than those with low LMX; and under high interpersonal justice, those with high LMX reported higher trust in the organization than those with low LMX. Similarly, for people with low uncertainty avoidance values, under low interpersonal justice, those with high LMX reported lower trust in the organization than those with low LMX; and under high interpersonal justice, those with high LMX reported higher trust in the organization than those with low LMX. Overall, the highest trust in the organization was reported by people with low uncertainty avoidance values, high LMX, and under high interpersonal justice; and the lowest trust in the organization was reported by people with low uncertainty avoidance values, high LMX, and under low interpersonal justice.

Table B47 reports that there was a significant 3-way interaction among distributive justice, LMX, and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the supervisor (b=0.54, s.e.=0.24, p<0.05). Figure C61 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that distributive justice had a significant negative interaction with LMX on trust in the supervisor for people with low

uncertainty avoidance values (t=-2.46, p<0.05) and there was no significant interaction for those with high uncertainty avoidance values (t=1.07, p>0.05). Figure C61 shows that for people with low uncertainty avoidance values, distributive justice had a negative effect on trust in the supervisor for those with high LMX and a positive effect for those with low LMX. For people with low LMX, distributive justice had a negative effect for those with high uncertainty avoidance values and a positive effect for those with low uncertainty avoidance values. In addition, for people with high uncertainty avoidance values, under low distributive justice, those with high LMX reported lower trust in the supervisor than those with low LMX; and under high distributive justice, those with high LMX reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with low LMX. For people with low uncertainty avoidance values, under low distributive justice, those with high LMX reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with low LMX; and under high distributive justice, those with high LMX reported lower trust in the supervisor than those with low LMX.

Table B47 also reports that there was a significant 3-way interaction among procedural justice, LMX, and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the supervisor (b=-0.46, s.e.=0.19, p<0.05). Figure C62 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that procedural justice had a significant positive interaction with LMX on trust in the supervisor for people with low uncertainty avoidance values (t=2.50, p<0.05) and there was no significant interaction for those with high uncertainty avoidance values (t=-0.71, p>0.05). Figure C62 shows that for people with high LMX, procedural justice had a negative effect on trust in the supervisor for

those with high uncertainty avoidance values and a positive effect for those with low uncertainty avoidance values. For people with low uncertainty avoidance values, procedural justice had a positive effect for those with high LMX, and a negative effect for those with low LMX. In addition, for people with high uncertainty avoidance values, under low procedural justice, those with high LMX reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with low LMX; and under high procedural justice, those with high LMX reported lower trust in the supervisor than those with low LMX. For people with low uncertainty avoidance values, under low procedural justice, those with high LMX reported lower trust in the supervisor than those with low LMX; and under high procedural justice, those with high LMX reported higher trust in the supervisor than those with low LMX. Overall, the highest trust in the supervisor was reported by people with low uncertainty avoidance values, high LMX, and under high procedural justice.

Results in Tables B42, B44, and B45 do not show any significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and uncertainty avoidance on job satisfaction, normative commitment, and continuance commitment.

Chinese Sample

Table B48 reports that there was a significant 3-way interaction among procedural justice, ingroup identification, and uncertainty avoidance on job satisfaction ($b=1.25$, s.e.$=0.55$, $p<0.05$). Figure C63 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that procedural justice did not have any significant interaction effects with ingroup identification on job satisfaction for

people with either high ($t=1.48$, $p>0.05$) or low uncertainty avoidance values ($t=-1.25$, $p>0.05$). Figure C63 shows that for people with low ingroup identification, procedural justice had a negative effect on job satisfaction for those with high uncertainty avoidance values and a positive effect for those with low uncertainty avoidance values. No other pair of slopes showed significant difference. In addition, for people with high uncertainty avoidance values, under low procedural justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower job satisfaction than those with low ingroup identification; and under high procedural justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher job satisfaction than those with low ingroup identification. For people with low uncertainty avoidance values, under low procedural justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher job satisfaction than those with low ingroup identification; and under high procedural justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower job satisfaction than those with low ingroup identification. Overall, the highest job satisfaction was reported by people with high uncertainty avoidance values, low ingroup identification, and under low procedural justice; and the lowest job satisfaction was reported by people with high uncertainty avoidance values, low ingroup identification, and under high procedural justice.

Table B51 reports that there was a significant 3-way interaction among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and uncertainty avoidance on continuance commitment ($b=-1.05$, $s.e.=0.49$, $p<0.05$). Figure C64 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that distributive justice had a significant negative interaction with ingroup identification on continuance

commitment for people with high uncertainty avoidance values ($t=-2.19$, $p<0.05$) and there was no significant interaction for those with low uncertainty avoidance values ($t=0.44$, $p>0.05$). Figure C64 shows that for people with high uncertainty avoidance values, distributive justice had a negative effect on continuance commitment for those with high ingroup identification and a positive effect for those with low ingroup identification. No other pair of slopes showed significant difference. In addition, for people with high uncertainty avoidance values, under low distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher continuance commitment than those with low ingroup identification; and under high distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower continuance commitment than those with low ingroup identification. For people with low uncertainty avoidance, people with high ingroup identification reported lower continuance commitment than those with low ingroup identification whether distributive justice was low or high. Overall, the highest continuance commitment was reported by people with high uncertainty avoidance values, low ingroup identification, and under high distributive justice.

Table B52 reports that there was a significant 3-way interaction among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the organization ($b=0.87$, $s.e.=0.42$, $p<0.05$). Figure C65 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that distributive justice did not have significant interaction effects with ingroup identification on trust in the organization for people with either high ($t=0.76$, $p>0.05$) or low uncertainty avoidance values ($t=-1.85$, $p<0.10$). Figure C65 shows that for people with low ingroup

identification, distributive justice had a negative effect on trust in the organization for those with high uncertainty avoidance values, and a positive effect for those with low uncertainty avoidance values. No other pair of slopes showed significant difference. In addition, for people with high uncertainty avoidance values, under low distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification; and under high distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification. For people with low uncertainty avoidance values, under low distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification; and under high distributive justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification. Overall, the highest trust in the organization was reported by people with low uncertainty avoidance values, low ingroup identification, and under high distributive justice; and the lowest trust in the organization was reported by people with low uncertainty avoidance values, low ingroup identification, and under low distributive justice.

Table B52 also reports that there was a significant 3-way interaction among informational justice, ingroup identification, and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the organization ($b=-1.32$, s.e.$=0.60$, $p<0.05$). Figure C66 depicts the interaction. Further probing of the 3-way interaction through slope difference tests showed that informational justice had a significant positive interaction with ingroup identification on trust in the organization for people with low uncertainty avoidance values ($t=2.00$,

$p<0.05$) and there was no significant interaction for those with high uncertainty avoidance values ($t=-0.93$, $p>0.05$). Figure C66 shows that for people with low uncertainty avoidance values, informational justice had a positive effect on trust in the organization for those with high ingroup identification and a negative effect for those with low ingroup identification. For people with low ingroup identification, informational justice had a positive effect for those with high uncertainty avoidance values and a negative effect for those with low uncertainty avoidance values. In addition, for people with high uncertainty avoidance values, under low informational justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification; and under high informational justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification. For people with low uncertainty avoidance values, under low informational justice, those with high ingroup identification reported lower trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification; and under high informational justice, those with high ingroup identification reported higher trust in the organization than those with low ingroup identification.

Results in Tables B49, B50, and B53 do not show any significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and uncertainty avoidance on affective commitment, normative commitment, and trust in the supervisor.

In summary, in the U.S. sample, distributive justice had a significant interaction with ingroup identification and uncertainty avoidance on affective commitment; and had

a significant interaction with LMX and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the supervisor. Procedural justice had a significant interaction with *guanxi* and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the organization; and had a significant interaction with LMX and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the supervisor. Interpersonal justice significantly interacted with LMX and uncertainty avoidance to influence trust in the organization. In Chinese sample, distributive justice significantly interacted with ingroup identification and uncertainty avoidance to influence continuance commitment and trust in the organization; procedural justice significantly interacted with ingroup identification and uncertainty avoidance to influence job satisfaction; and informational justice significantly interacted with ingroup identification and uncertainty avoidance to impact trust in the organization.

In addition, results showed that although LMX, *guanxi*, and ingroup identification all showed some 3-way interactions with organizational justice and uncertainty avoidance, only ingroup identification had such significant interactions in Chinese sample. Also, distributive and procedural justice exhibited more significant 3-way interactions than interpersonal and informational justice.

Hypothesis Testing—Cultural Values and Nationality

Based on previous culture research by Hofstede (1980, 1990), Hypothesis 5 proposed that employees in China will have stronger collectivist, high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, and long-term oriented values, while U.S. employees, on the other hand, will have stronger individualist, low power distance, low uncertainty avoidance, and short-term oriented values. In addition, employees of these two cultures should have similar level of masculine values.

However, based on the results of measurement equivalence tests, cultural values were not equivalence across the two samples and therefore could not be compared with each other. Hypothesis 5 was not able to be tested in the current study.

Summary of Results

The supportive results of hierarchical linear regressions for the current study could be summarized as the following:

H1: Organizational justice (i.e., procedural justice, distributive justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice) is positively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust in the supervisor, and trust in the organization.

Table 1. Summary of the results consistent with H1 in both samples

U.S. sample		
Distributive Justice	(+)→	Job Satisfaction
Procedural Justice	(+)→	Normative Commitment
Procedural Justice	(+)→	Trust in the Organization
Procedural Justice	(+)→	Trust in the Supervisor
Interpersonal Justice	(+)→	Affective Commitment
Interpersonal Justice	(+)→	Trust in the Organization
Interpersonal Justice	(+)→	Trust in the Supervisor
Informational Justice	(+)→	Affective Commitment
Informational Justice	(+)→	Trust in the Supervisor

Table 1. Summary of the results consistent with H1 in both samples (continued)

Chinese Sample		
Distributive Justice	(+)→	Job Satisfaction
Distributive Justice	(+)→	Normative Commitment
Distributive Justice	(+)→	Continuance Commitment
Distributive Justice	(+)→	Trust in the Organization
Informational Justice	(+)→	Job Satisfaction
Informational Justice	(+)→	Affective Commitment
Informational Justice	(+)→	Normative Commitment
Informational Justice	(+)→	Trust in the Organization

H2: Relationships with the supervisor will moderate the effects of organizational justice on outcome variables such that the positive relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables will be stronger when employees perceive that they have a strong relationship (e.g., ingroup relations; high quality LMX; or strong guanxi) with their supervisors than when there is a weak relationship.

Table 2. Summary of the results consistent with H2 in both samples

U.S. sample			
Distributive Justice	*Guanxi*	(+)→	Job Satisfaction
Procedural Justice	LMX	(+)→	Normative Commitment
Procedural Justice	LMX	(+)→	Continuance Commitment
Informational Justice	Ingroup identification	(+)→	Trust in the Organization
Chinese sample			
Distributive Justice	*Guanxi*	(+)→	Continuance Commitment
Procedural Justice	Ingroup identification	(+)→	Normative Commitment
Procedural Justice	Ingroup identification	(+)→	Trust in the Organization
Interpersonal Justice	LMX	(+)→	Job Satisfaction

H3a: Individualism/collectivism will moderate the relationship between organizational justice and outcomes such that the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables will be stronger among employees with (1) high rather than low individualist values; (2) low rather than high collectivist values.

Table 3. Summary of the results consistent with H3a in both samples

U.S. sample			
Distributive Justice	Individualism	(+)→	Affective Commitment
Procedural Justice	Individualism	(+)→	Normative Commitment
Interpersonal Justice	Collectivism	(-)→	Job Satisfaction
Chinese sample			
Distributive Justice	Collectivism	(-)→	Trust in the Organization

H3b: Power distance will moderate the relationship between organizational justice and outcomes such that the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables will be stronger among employees with low power distance values than with high power distance values.

Table 4. Summary of the results consistent with H3b in both samples

U.S. sample			
Distributive Justice	Power Distance	(-)→	Normative Commitment
Chinese sample			
Interpersonal Justice	Power Distance	(-)→	Affective Commitment

H3c: Masculinity/femininity will moderate the relationship between organizational justice and outcomes such that (a) the relationship between procedural and distributive justice and outcome variables will be stronger among employees with masculine than feminine values; and (b) the relationship between interpersonal and informational justice and outcome variables will be stronger among employees with feminine than masculine values.

No supportive results were found for this hypothesis in either the U.S. or Chinese sample.

H3d: Uncertainty avoidance will moderate the relationship between organizational justice and outcomes such that the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables will be stronger among employees with high uncertainty avoidance values than with low uncertainty avoidance values.

Table 5. Summary of the results consistent with H3d in both samples

U.S. sample			
Distributive Justice	Uncertainty Avoidance	(+)→	Normative Commitment
Distributive Justice	Uncertainty Avoidance	(+)→	Trust in the Organization
Interpersonal Justice	Uncertainty Avoidance	(+)→	Continuance Commitment
Chinese sample			
Procedural Justice	Uncertainty Avoidance	(+)→	Affective Commitment
Procedural Justice	Uncertainty Avoidance	(+)→	Normative Commitment

H3e: Long-term orientation will moderate the relationship between organizational justice and outcomes such that the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables will be stronger with long-term than with short-term oriented values.

Table 6. Summary of the results consistent with H3e in both samples

U.S. sample			
Procedural Justice	Long-Term Orientation	(+)→	Affective Commitment
Informational Justice	Long-Term Orientation	(+)→	Continuance Commitment
Chinese sample			
No supportive results			

H4a: There will be a 3-way interaction between organizational justice, relationships, and cultural values such that the moderating effect of relationship on organizational justice and outcomes will be stronger among employees with (1) high rather than low collectivist values; (2) low rather than high individualist values.

No supportive results were found for this hypothesis in either the U.S. or Chinese sample.

H4b: There will be a 3-way interaction between organizational justice, relationships, and culture such that the moderating effect of relationship on organizational justice and outcomes will be stronger among employees with low power distance values than with high power distance values.

No supportive results were found for this hypothesis in either the U.S. or Chinese sample.

There will be a 3-way interaction between organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and remaining cultural values (e.g., masculinity/femininity, long-term orientation, and uncertainty avoidance). Since no hypotheses were predicted, I summarized significant interactions below. But the specific relationship in the 3-way interactions should be interpreted with caution.

Table 7. Summary of the significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and masculinity/femininity in both samples

U.S. sample				
Distributive Justice	LMX	Masculinity/Femininity	→	Trust in the Organization
Distributive Justice	Ingroup Identification	Masculinity/Femininity	→	Continuance Commitment
Distributive Justice	Ingroup Identification	Masculinity/Femininity	→	Trust in the Organization
Procedural Justice	Ingroup Identification	Masculinity/Femininity	→	Normative Commitment
Interpersonal Justice	Ingroup Identification	Masculinity/Femininity	→	Trust in the Supervisor
Chinese sample				
Procedural Justice	Ingroup Identification	Masculinity/Femininity	→	Affective Commitment

Table 8. Summary of the significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and long-term orientation in both samples

U.S. sample				
Distributive Justice	LMX	Long-Term Orientation	→	Job Satisfaction
Distributive Justice	LMX	Long-Term Orientation	→	Trust in the Organization
Procedural Justice	Ingroup Identification	Long-Term Orientation	→	Trust in the Organization
Interpersonal Justice	Ingroup Identification	Long-Term Orientation	→	Continuance Commitment
Chinese sample				
Distributive Justice	Ingroup Identification	Long-Term Orientation	→	Trust in the Organization
Procedural Justice	LMX	Long-Term Orientation	→	Trust in the Organization
Informational Justice	LMX	Long-Term Orientation	→	Affective Commitment
Informational Justice	LMX	Long-Term Orientation	→	Trust in the Organization

Table 9. Summary of the significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and uncertainty avoidance in both samples

U.S. sample				
Distributive Justice	LMX	Uncertainty Avoidance	→	Trust in the Supervisor
Distributive Justice	Ingroup Identification	Uncertainty Avoidance	→	Affective Commitment
Procedural Justice	LMX	Uncertainty Avoidance	→	Trust in the Supervisor
Procedural Justice	*Guanxi*	Uncertainty Avoidance	→	Trust in the Organization
Interpersonal Justice	LMX	Uncertainty Avoidance	→	Trust in the Organization
Chinese sample				
Distributive Justice	Ingroup Identification	Uncertainty Avoidance	→	Continuance Commitment
Distributive Justice	Ingroup Identification	Uncertainty Avoidance	→	Trust in the Organization
Procedural Justice	Ingroup Identification	Uncertainty Avoidance	→	Job Satisfaction
Informational Justice	Ingroup Identification	Uncertainty Avoidance	→	Trust in the Organization

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter highlights the main results, contributions, and implications of the current study. It also discusses some of the limitations and suggests several future research avenues.

Overview of Results

The present study explored how the relationship between employees and their supervisors, as well as employees' various cultural values can impact the effects of organizational justice on key individual and organizational outcomes. Based on social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and the group-value model of procedural justice (Tyler & Lind, 1992), I hypothesized that employees' relationship with supervisors will moderate the effects of organizational justice on outcome variables. Specifically, the positive effects of organizational justice will be stronger when employees perceive to have high rather than low levels of relationship with supervisors. In addition, Hofstede's (1980, 1992) cultural framework was used to investigate the moderating role of employees' various cultural values on the effects of organizational justice. Lastly, joint moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship and cultural values were discussed. Results showed little support of the hypotheses, and the analysis also yielded some unexpected results.

Main Effects of Organizational Justice

Six outcome variables were individually regressed on all 4 types of organizational justice in each sample. In the U.S. sample, out of the 24 expected significant relationships, 9 were significant. Results showed that procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice were positively related to various outcome variables, except for continuance commitment. Distributive justice was found to have a significant positive influence only on job satisfaction. In Chinese sample, 8 out of the 24 expected significant relationships were found. But only distributive and informational justice demonstrated significant positive associations with the outcome variables, and procedural and interpersonal justice did not show any significant associations. In sum, significant results are generally consistent with previous literature (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2001), confirming previous findings that organizational justice has positive associations with these outcome variables.

The fact that organizational justice exhibited little significant positive correlation with continuance commitment (except distributive justice in Chinese sample) is not surprising. Continuance commitment focuses on the cost associated with leaving the current organization, and those with high levels of continuance commitment stay with the organization because it would be quite costly to leave or because there is no better alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Therefore, the most important factor that influences their intention to stay is the cost to leave, but not how they are treated by the supervisor or the organization. Distributive justice determines the outcomes they receive and is directly related to their cost of leaving, and therefore, continuance commitment. Another

possible explanation is that there might be a more complex relationship between organizational justice and continuance commitment, which needs to be further examined through moderating analysis. For example, if the employee has close relationship with the supervisor, and therefore, receive fair treatment, the cost would be even more if he/she decides to leave the organization because this relationship with the supervisor is also a valuable human capital for the employee.

In addition, procedural and interpersonal justice did not show any significant positive associations with any outcome variables in Chinese sample. Measurement equivalence tests showed that participants in China perceived the concept of procedural and interpersonal justice in a similar manner to the U.S. participants. A possible explanation is that in China, many decisions relevant to the well-being of employees in the organizations are made without their participation and employees only get to know the results (i.e., distributive justice) and do not have much knowledge about the procedures used to influence their outcomes in the organizations. Therefore they may not feel the importance of procedural justice in their satisfaction, commitment, and trust. In addition, interpersonal justice had strong correlations with the rest types of organizational justice (greater than 0.5; the correlation between interpersonal and informational justice was 0.73) in Chinese sample. This may suggest that the effects of interpersonal justice could be overwhelmed by other types of justice. Although they perceived four types of organizational justice as the U.S. participants did, Chinese participants may not be able to utilize this framework in their cognitive process. This also suggests that even though the concept of justice might be universal, how people

apply it or its influence on people's attitudes and behaviors may still differ greatly across various cultures.

Moderating Effects of Supervisor-Subordinate Relationships

Hypothesis 2 predicted the moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship on the influence of organizational justice. Results showed that only 4 out of 72 expected relationships were significant in each sample. Among the three measures of supervisor-subordinate relationships, *guanxi*, LMX, and ingroup identification all exhibited some significant interaction effects with organizational justice. Although only a small percentage of the hypothesized moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationships reached significance and a solid conclusion cannot be drawn, some of these results still deserve further discussion.

The moderating effects of *guanxi*, LMX, and ingroup identification are consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the group-value model (Tyler & Lind, 1992). Based on social exchange theory, employees will treat others depending on how they are treated. When they perceive that they have a strong exchange relationship with the supervisor, they will expect fair treatment embedded in such strong relationships. However, if they feel that they are treated unfairly, the foundation of their strong relationship with the supervisor is broken. In such cases, employees will be more likely to pay back with decreased commitment and trust, compared with when they have weak relationships with the supervisor and therefore, have less such expectation. The group-value model also states that fair treatment from authorities indicates that employees are valued group members and gives them information about their self-worth (Tyler & Lind,

1992). One characteristic of strong relationship with the supervisor is the unbiased and dignified treatment to each other. Thus, for employees having strong relationship with the supervisor, they put more importance on the issue of justice since it helps them realize their values to the group. Unfair treatment may indicate their marginal status in the group and consequently has a stronger negative influence on employees' emotions, attitudes, and behaviors.

The moderating effects of *guanxi*, LMX, and ingroup identification also suggest that there are different aspects of supervisor-subordinate relationships. First, LMX focuses on the relationship between the supervisor and the subordinate fostered at the workplace. Such working relationship is a necessity for the development of LMX. This is different from *guanxi*, which is usually established before the two parties have working relationships, such as having a common friend or graduated from the same school. In addition, unlike LMX, *guanxi* is not work-oriented, but a good *guanxi* will certainly facilitate their work. Ingroup identification, unlike *guanxi* and LMX, refers to the extent to which employees cognitively perceive supervisors as their ingroup members. Though highly correlated, accepting the supervisor as an ingoup member does not necessarily mean that employees are going to have close relationship with him/her. For instance, the employee may perceive that he/she and the supervisor are from the same racial group, but may have a weak relationship. In other words, ingroup identification does not directly measure the closeness of the relationship between employees and their supervisors. The strong correlations among these three constructs in both the U.S. and Chinese samples suggest that they have some similarities. They are all

used to investigate the nature of the relationship between supervisors and subordinates. But measurement equivalence tests confirmed that they are distinct constructs and each has its own emphasis on supervisor-subordinate relationships.

Moderating Effects of Cultural Values

Individualism/Collectivism

Research has suggested that people with high collectivist/low individualist values care more about the group interest and harmony, and their self-interest is of less importance; whereas people with high individualist/low collectivist values are motivated to maximize their own personal outcomes and are self-centered (Hofstede, 1980), and therefore pay more attention to make sure that they are fairly treated because their outcomes are directly influenced by organizational justice. In the U.S. sample, out of the 48 expected significant interactions between individualism/collectivism and organizational justice on outcome variables, six reached significance. But only 3 of them were in the hypothesized direction. In Chinese sample, only 1 interaction was found to be significant and in the hypothesized direction, out of the 48 expected significant interactions. Despite of the small percentage of significant results, some findings need further discussion. Results found that the positive effect of procedural justice on normative commitment; and the positive effect of distributive justice on affective commitment in the U.S. sample were stronger for employees with high individualist values. In addition, the positive effects of interpersonal justice on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample and distributive justice on trust in the organization in Chinese sample were stronger for employees with low collectivist values. This is consistent with previous

discussion that employees with high individualist/low collectivist values care more about organizational justice, which is closely related to their own outcomes.

There were also some unexpected results. For instance, in the U.S. sample, interpersonal justice showed a strong positive effect on job satisfaction for employees with low rather than high individualist values. One potential explanation for this finding is that people with low individualist values are relatively less concerned with material interest and on the other hand care more about interpersonal relationship with others, including supervisors. For such employees, interpersonal relationship consists of a large part of their job satisfaction—a desired outcome for them, and they are therefore more sensitive to whether they are treated with respect and dignity. This can also explain the finding that interpersonal justice showed a strong positive effect on trust in the supervisor for employees with low rather than high individualist values in the U.S. sample.

Power Distance

It was argued that employees with low power distance values prefer to have equity in the organizational hierarchy and would like to have control over decisions regarding their own interests. Such employees would feel strong negative attitudes or emotions when they see that they are not treated fairly. In other words, organizational justice should have stronger positive effects on outcome variables for employees with low rather than high power distance. Only distributive justice showed such significant negative interaction with power distance on normative commitment in the U.S. sample (i.e., only one out of the 24 expected moderating effects of power distance reached

significance and were in the hypothesized direction). In Chinese sample, only interpersonal justice showed significant negative interaction with power distance on affective commitment (i.e., only one out of the 24 expected moderating effects of power distance reached significance and were in the hypothesized direction). Several reasons might explain the lack of significant moderating effects of power distance. First, the 7-item scale from CPQ8 was used to measure participants' power distance value. It received poor reliabilities in both samples (0.67 in the U.S. sample with all 7 items and 0.40 in Chinese sample with 4 items). The less reliable measure used in the study may result in power distance failing to exhibit its moderating role. Second, power distance had the smallest range among cultural values in both samples (3.98 compared to 6.82 in individualism in the U.S. sample and 4.57 compared to 6.70 in uncertainty avoidance in Chinese sample). The smaller range made it more difficult to find its influence, too. This may also reflect the change in current organizations. The transition from "managing work" to "managing people" makes organizations give more responsibilities and authority to their employees and reduce the hierarchy between top management and employees. The change in organizational environment also changes employees' perception and values. Employees are more likely to agree with the idea that there should be fewer layers in the organizational hierarchy and people should all be equal. Therefore, less variance in people's power distance value may be another reason why its moderating effects were not supported.

Masculinity/Femininity

It was discussed that people with masculine values focus more on achievement and success and therefore, distributive and procedural justice, which closely impact their material outcomes are more important for such employees. On the other hand, people with feminine values pay more attention to their relationship with others and consequently, interpersonal and informational justice should have stronger effects on outcomes for employees with feminine values. However, although 1 out of the 24 expected relationships in the U.S. sample and 2 out of the 24 expected relationships in Chinese sample reached significance, they were not in the hypothesized direction. Despite the small percentage of significant interactions and inconsistent moderating effects with the hypothesis, some of these findings are still worth some discussion. Distributive justice showed stronger positive effects on trust in the organization for employees with feminine rather than masculine values in the U.S. sample. Procedural justice showed stronger positive effects on trust in the supervisor for employees with feminine values in Chinese sample. This is actually consistent with the above discussion that employees with feminine values concerns about relationships and nurturing. When they are treated with distributive fairness, they show even stronger emotional attachment to their supervisors and organizations. These results revealed a potential limitation of the study. All six outcome variables are not material oriented or tangible and may not provide a good setting to test the above argument.

Uncertainty Avoidance

Based on fairness heuristic theory (Lind & van den Bos, 2002; van den Bos & Lind, 2002), it is argued that under uncertain situations, fairness information could be used as a critical heuristic in decision making. But the extent to which people will use such heuristics depends on how much they want to avoid the uncertainty. It was therefore predicted that people with high uncertainty avoidance values are more likely to use fairness information as a heuristic. Thus, organizational justice should have stronger effects on outcome variables for those with high uncertainty avoidance values. Results showed that in the U.S. sample, out of the 24 expected moderating effects of uncertainty avoidance, four reached significance, but only 3 were in the hypothesized direction. In Chinese sample, only 2 out of the 24 expected moderating effects were significant and in the expected direction. The small percentage of significant hypothesized relationships do not provide strong evidence for a solid conclusion. But consistent with the above discussion, procedural justice had stronger positive effects on affective and normative commitment for employees with high rather than low uncertainty avoidance values in Chinese sample. This suggests that under uncertain situations for those who always try to avoid uncertainty and predict future outcomes, procedures used in the organization provide rich information and can be used as heuristics to decide how much they want to commit to their organizations.

Long-Term Orientation

People with long-term oriented values have concerns for more permanent and sustainable outcomes in the long run. Based on fairness heuristic theory (Lind & van den

Bos, 2002; van den Bos & Lind, 2002), it is more important to receive fair treatment at present because it can be used as a heuristic and predict how people will be treated in the future and thus is related to outcomes in the long run. It was therefore hypothesized that organizational justice would have stronger positive effects on outcome variables for people with long-term oriented values. Results showed that in the U.S. sample, out of the 24 expected moderating effects of long-term orientation, three were significant. But only 2 were in the hypothesized direction. In Chinese sample, although there was one significant interaction, it was not as predicted. The small percentage of significant hypothesized relationships do not provide strong evidence for a solid conclusion. Consistent with the hypothesis, informational justice exhibited stronger positive effects on affective commitment for employees with long-term oriented values in the U.S. sample. This suggests the importance of informational justice as a heuristic to predict future uncertain outcomes. However, unexpectedly, distributive justice had stronger positive effects on continuance commitment for employees with short- rather than long-term oriented values in Chinese sample. One possible explanation is that people with short-term oriented values have a focus on the present and past, and care more about receiving quick results. When treated fairly, they will feel that they would lose a lot if leaving the organization now and thus would rather stay to keep their short-term outcomes. When they find that they did not receive a fair outcome compared to their inputs, they would feel no obligation to stay and the cost of leaving the current organization is not high either.

In summary, the interaction between organizational justice and cultural values on outcome variables showed some significant interactions, but only a few were in the hypothesized direction. Some unexpected results were also discovered for each cultural value. Because of the small percentage of supported interactions, hypotheses regarding the moderating effects of cultural values were not supported. Lack of supportive evidence and some unexpected results could be due to limitations associated with this study, such as low reliabilities of some measures, short time lag between two surveys from the same participants, and undergraduate sample in the U.S. These methodological issues are discussed in more detail in the "limitation" section below. Second, it is possible that the interaction between organizational justice and cultural values could be much more complex than hypothesized. In the present study, the moderating effects of each cultural value on the influence of organizational justice were predicted on all four types of justice (except for masculinity) and on all outcome variables. This might overlook specific and different interactions of a cultural value with a particular type of justice on one distinctive outcome. Future research should explore more in detail on the moderating effect of each cultural value on a specific influence of organizational justice.

Joint Moderating Effects of Supervisor-Subordinate Relationships and Cultural Values

Results for the three-way interactions between organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and cultural values were more complex. In the U.S. sample, out of the possible 432 significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and cultural values, only 22 reached significance;

and in Chinese sample, only 12 out of the possible 432 significant 3-way interactions were significant. In addition, the significant interactions were not in the same pattern. The small percentage of significant hypothesized relationships does not provide strong evidence for a solid conclusion. But some interesting results were discovered.

Individualism/Collectivism

It was hypothesized in H4a that the moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationships on the influence of organizational justice will be stronger for employees with (1) high rather than low collectivist values; (2) low rather than high individualist values. In the U.S. sample, out of 144 expected 3-way interactions among individualism/collectivism, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and organizational justice, only 6 reached significance. But these significant relationshps were all inconsistent with H4a. In Chinese sample, 2 reached significance, but were inconsistent with H4a. Therefore, H4a was not supported in either the U.S. or Chinese sample.

An interesting finding is worth noting here. It was argued that people with low individualist (i.e., high collectivist) values are more group-oriented than those with high individualist values, and expect to be treated with ingroup favoritism. Once they perceive that their ingroup supervisors do not follow this ingroup favoritism norm and do not treat them fairly, they will feel betrayed and their satisfaction and commitment will greatly decrease. So, the interaction between organizational justice and supervisor-subordinate relationship should be stronger for people with low rather than high individualist values (or high rather than low collectivist values). However, in the current study, the positive interaction between interpersonal justice and LMX on normative

commitment was stronger for people with high rather than low individualist values in the U.S. sample. A possible explanation is that people with high individualist values do not feel a strong obligation to tie their own fate with the organization. When they find that the supervisor with whom they have a high level of LMX fails to treat them with respect and dignity, they are more likely to detach from the organization and repay the unfairness with fewer obligations to the organization. In addition, people with low individualist (or high collectivist) values care more about the group harmony. Even they feel that they are treated unfairly, they may not have stronger negative reactions for the sake of harmony.

Results also showed that contrary to H4a, the positive moderating effect of LMX on procedural justice and trust in the supervisor was stronger for people with high rather than low individualist values in the U.S. sample. It is possible that people with high individualist values are more self-centered. When they are treated unfairly by supervisors with whom they have a strong relationship, they are less likely to bear with the unfair treatment because their own interest is severely hurt based on expectations on a strong relationship with the supervisor. Therefore, they will have even stronger negative reactions compared with those with low individualist values and more tolerant to unfair treatment.

In summary, results on the 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships and individualism/collectivism are contrary to the previous argument. It was argued that people with high collectivist values are more group-oriented and behaviors inconsistent with group norms (e.g., being treated unfairly

by an ingroup supervisor) would be seen as a violation of their values and arouse stronger negative reactions. However, results show that such employees with high collectivist values care so much about group harmony and they actually show more tolerance of others' violating behaviors. On the other hand, those with individualist values are self-centered and can more freely show their reactions to mistreatment that negatively influence their own interests.

Power Distance

Hypothesis 4b predicted that the positive moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationships on organizational justice and outcome variables will be stronger for employees with low rather than high power distance values. Out of the 72 potential significant 3-way interactions in the U.S. sample, only 2 reached significance. In Chinese sample, only 1 out of the 72 expected interactions was significant. However, all these 3 significant 3-way interactions were not consistent with H4b.

Some conflicting but interesting findings are worth noting here. For instance, the positive interaction between distributive justice and *guanxi* on job satisfaction was stronger for employees with high rather than low power distance values in the U.S. sample, which was contrary to H4b. A possible explanation is that individuals with high power distance values not only show obedience to the authority, but also feel that the authority should support and protect them, especially when they have strong relationships with the authority. Getting the outcomes they deserve (i.e., distributive fairness) is one way that they are protected. When they are instead treated unfairly, especially by the authority with whom they have strong relationships, they may feel that

their high power distance values are violated because they are not protected. They would therefore feel no need to abide by high power distance values and have stronger negative reactions to the unfairness they receive.

Masculinity/Femininity, Long-Term Orientation, and Uncertainty Avoidance

Chapter III also discussed potential 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and the remaining cultural values. In the U.S. sample, 5 out of 72 potential 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and masculinity/femininity were discovered and in Chinese sample, only one out of 72 potential 3-way interactions was significant. In the U.S. sample, distributive justice demonstrated stronger positive interaction effects with ingroup identification on continuance commitment; and with LMX on trust in the organization for employees with masculine values than for those with feminine values. Procedural justice exhibited stronger positive interaction effect with ingroup identification on affective commitment in Chinese sample. These results are consistent with previous discussion that people with masculine values pay more attention to their material success. Such people are more likely to value distributive and procedural justice which strongly influence their outcomes, especially when they have a high level of relationship with the supervisor. When their material outcomes are guaranteed, they would like to commit to and trust their organizations, and feel an increase on the cost to leave the organization.

Results also showed several significant 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and long-term orientation. Four out of 72

potential 3-way interactions were significant in the U.S. sample and 4 out of 72 were significant in Chinese sample. In the U.S. sample, the positive interactions between distributive justice and LMX and between procedural justice and ingroup identification on trust in the organization were stronger for employees with short- rather than long-term oriented values. Employees with short-term oriented values are more concerned about how they are treated right now. When employees having strong relationships with the supervisor are treated fairly, they will respond quickly and positively based on current treatment (e.g., showing greater trust in the organization). While those with long-term oriented values may not react positively until they see a heuristic that they might also be treated fairly in the future.

Employees with high uncertainty avoidance values prefer the structure of policies and procedures and expect their supervisors to act in a predictable way. Stronger relationships with supervisors help these employees to know their supervisors well and can expect fair treatment from supervisors, and thus, reduce employees' uncertainty. When the supervisor does not treat these employees fairly as they expect, uncertainty of their interest increases and this is not valued by these employees who want to avoid uncertainty. Consequently, they will exhibit stronger negative reactions when treated unfairly by supervisors with whom they have strong relationships. Though 5 out of 72 potential 3-way interactions were significant in the U.S. sample, only procedural justice had a stronger positive interaction with *guanxi* on trust in the organization for employees with high rather than low uncertainty avoidance values. Procedural and interpersonal justice had stronger positive interactions with LMX on trust in the supervisor for

employees with low rather than high uncertainty avoidance values in the U.S. sample. A possible explanation is that for people with low uncertainty avoidance values, they are more tolerant of uncertainty and open to new ideas. When they have a high level of LMX with the supervisor, but are treated unfairly, they will not stand it but will exhibit less trust to the organization without worrying about the uncertainty of how they will be treated in the future.

Overall, more significant effects were found in the U.S. sample than in Chinese sample. This may suggest that the relationships among these key constructs might be driven by a different mechanism other than those discussed in the current study. A possible explanation could be the special social norm in Chinese culture—*renqing*, which refers to "affection," "human sentiment," or "human emotion" (Zhang, 2006). It can also refer to a relational norm, and requires people to perform appropriate behaviors in various interpersonal situations, and to show positive feelings in front of others. *Renqing* functions in every aspect of Chinese people's social life, including helping others, caring for others and showing sympathy to others so as to maintain interpersonal harmony (Zhang & Yang, 2001). The practice of *renqing* is closely influenced by *guanxi* (interpersonal connection) with others. The emphasis on *renqing* does not mean that Chinese people are ignorant of fairness. However, in their fairness decision makings, people always face two conflicting demands from both *renqing* and fairness concerns (Zhang & Yang, 1998). The consideration of *renqing* could reduce the significance of fairness. In their studies on allocation decisions of Chinese participants, Zhang and Yang (1998) found that Chinese allocators make a compromise by taking into account both the

rational (i.e., fairness) and affective (i.e., *renqing*) concerns, which means that the allocation decision is not solely determined by fairness norm. In addition, the perception on job satisfaction, commitment, and trust for Chinese people is also related to *renqing*. As they expect to maintain interpersonal harmony with others, they tend to express *renqing* for others by fulfilling relational obligations, and responding positively. Therefore, in Chinese sample for the current study, organizational justice may not be a significant determinant on participants' job satisfaction, commitment, and trust as in the U.S. sample. Instead, *renqing* may strongly influence people's response and may also have a moderating effect on the influence of organizational justice in Chinese sample. Another related phenomenon in Chinese society is "face-saving practice." The concept of face is defined as "the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact. Face is an image of self delineated in terms of approved social attributes" (Goffman, 1955, p. 213). Both losing face and gaining face indicate important changes in the status of one's face. The possibility of losing face can arise not only from the individual's failure to meet his/her obligations, but also from the failure of others to act in accordance with his/her expectations of them (Ho, 1976). Not only an individual concerns his/her own face, they also need to consider whether they should give the other face (i.e., by meeting their obligation to the other party) so that the other party will gain face. When they act according to *renqing* norm, they are also practicing giving face to others and expect that the other party will return their favor by giving face to them sometime in the future, and they will therefore gain face in return.

Contributions to the Literature

The current study contributes to the existing research in several ways. First, it investigates the effects of organizational justice on key individual and organizational outcomes from a new angle—supervisor-subordinate relationship. Researchers have investigated the effects of organizational justice in fostering a high quality of relationship between supervisors and subordinates. It has been found that interactional, procedural, and distributive justice are all positively related with LMX (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). In such research, a high quality of relationship with supervisors is regarded as a consequence of leaders' fair behaviors. There are also studies suggesting that the relationship with supervisors is significantly related to employees' perception of organizational justice. For example, Vecchio, Griffeth, and Hom (1986) showed that employees who had high quality of LMX with their immediate supervisors viewed the workplace as being fairer than those with low quality LMX. However, less attention has been paid to the question of how employees react to the fair/unfair treatment from supervisors of different relationships. In other words, the moderating role of the relationship with supervisors is less studied in the current literature. Therefore, in the current study, instead of taking it as a consequence or antecedent of organizational justice, I looked at the potential influence supervisor-subordinate relationship has on the effects of organizational justice. Such investigation examines an important contextual factor of organizational justice in organizational settings and gives us more understanding about issues of justice.

Second, three different constructs were used to represent supervisor-subordinate relationship. LMX, *guanxi*, and ingroup identification all showed some influence on the effects of organizational justice in similar ways. Although only a small percentage of expected effects reached significant and were in the hypothesized direction, I hope it can draw attentions from researchers and open a new research avenue. It is inspiring in that although LMX is a popular theory to explain supervisor-subordinate relationships; there are other aspects of this relationship that are not captured by LMX. For instance, LMX mainly focuses on job related issues, such as leaders' resource allocation decision and information sharing, and members' trust in leaders' work decisions. However, employees may also have close relationships with supervisors outside the work setting. Research has demonstrated that leaders may show ingroup favoritism to members who are their alumni or who play golf with them after work hours in their work-related decisions (e.g., Chen et al., 1998; Tsui, et al., 1992). I used *guanxi* to describe this aspect of supervisor-subordinate relationship. Although originated in Chinese, this *guanxi* phenomenon also exists outside China. In addition, people tend to categorize themselves and others around them into different social groups. They tend to show ingroup favoritism to their ingroup members and expect to be treated so as well. It does not directly measure the relationship with the supervisor, but whether or not they treat their supervisors as ingroup members also reflects employees' relationship with their supervisors and should not be ignored. Confirmatory factor analysis in both samples showed that LMX, *guanxi*, and ingroup identification are distinct constructs, which confirms that they measure different aspects of the relationship between supervisors and

subordinates. The results with all three constructs are expected to draw more attention from researchers who are interested in the exchange relationship between employees and supervisors and go beyond LMX to investigate other aspects of this relationship and their influence on important individual and organizational outcomes.

Third, the current study also extends cross-cultural investigation of organizational justice. Justice is a universally desirable value in organizations across countries. However, the actual emphasis placed on justice perceptions may differ. In a study of three countries, Mueller and Wynn (2000) found that comparatively, justice had less importance in Kenya and South Korea than in the U.S. Given that organizational justice may carry less/more importance in different cultures, the relationship between justice and outcomes may vary depending on individuals' cultural values. Researchers have been enthusiastic in examining organizational justice cross-culturally. But such research mainly focuses on individualism/collectivism and power distance (e.g., Lam et al., 2002; Leung & Bond, 1984), with other cultural characteristics largely remaining to be explored. The current study endeavors to investigate the effects of different cultural values on organizational justice, including those less studied ones. In addition, though largely similar, individuals from the same country may have different levels of a specific cultural value that is not consistent with national cultures. Thus, in the current study, cultural values were measured directly at the individual level instead of inferring the level of cultural characteristics by using Hofstede's (1980) scores from country-level studies. By measuring individual level scores, it is more likely to reveal the variance among individuals within the same country. Besides, though country-level cultures have

important impact on individuals' attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors, it is not as proximate as the individual level characteristics to influence relevant individual outcomes.

The current study also suggests that people with different cultural values place different importance not only on organizational justice, but also on their relationship with supervisors. The moderating role of supervisor-subordinate relationship could therefore be more complex than it is expected. This has importance practical implications and will be discussed in more detail in the section of "practical implications."

Limitations

The present study suffered from a set of limitations. The most important issue is the lack of measurement equivalence. Cultural values and outcome variables were not equivalence across the U.S. and Chinese samples. There are several reasons for this result. First, some of the measures were not ideal. For instance, the measures for individualism, collectivism, power distance, masculinity, long-term orientation, and trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample showed reliabilities below 0.70. The first four measures were from the Chinese version of CPQ8 (Cultural Profile Questionnaire 8). The low reliabilities give some doubt about the validity of the Chinese version of CPQ8, which needs future investigations. The low reliabilities of the above measures may also reveal problems in the translation process. The regression results reported here might be influenced by these measures of low reliabilities. In addition and not surprisingly, the confirmatory factor analyses of 6-factor model on cultural values and outcome variables

did not reported acceptable fit indices. This also indicated that the scales used may not measure the expected 6 factors in cultural values or outcome variables. The poor fit of the 6-factor model could potentially influence the lack of measurement equivalence across two samples and may also account for the lack of significant findings in the study. Future investigations with more reliable measured should be conducted to partial out effects of unreliable measures and provide more faith in the relationship discovered in the present study.

Second, data for the U.S. and China were collected from undergraduate and MBA students respectively. This raises the question of whether the two samples were comparable and could be used jointly in the data analysis. Chinese sample had a significantly older average age (29.29 years old) and longer average full-time working experience (6.6 years) than the U.S. sample (average age of 21.6 years old and average full-time work experience of 1.45 years). However, both age and full-time working experience did not show much significant impact on the outcome variables in the current study. All the participants in the U.S. sample reported some part-time working experience, ranging from a couple of months to over 5 years. Such experience at the workplace helped the U.S. participants to form their perceptions and attitudes that were of interests in the present study. However, future investigations using data from similar source (e.g., branches of the same company in different countries) are still needed to verify the relationships among different constructs in the current study. Another possible reason is that participants from these two samples did not perceive the items reflecting the same construct. For instance, one of the items measuring individualism was “people

who only rely on themselves will usually be successful." In the U.S. sample, this item loaded on the construct of individualism. However, in Chinese sample, the loading of this item was quite low. In the U.S. culture, people believe that individualism means independent and the person him/herself is the only key factor for success. But in Chinese cultural, although people also agree that individualism means independent, they do not think a person can be successful only on his/her own. The prevalent *guanxi* norm makes people believe that one's success is based on not only their hardworking, but also their *guanxi* with others. This may suggest that even though people from different cultures or social backgrounds understand the construct in similar ways, differences may still exist in people's actual perception. Such differences should be ruled out from the scale when trying to make cross-group comparisons. This means more careful effort should be put to develop universal scales. The lack of measurement equivalence made cross-sample/country comparison inappropriate in the current study. Though within-sample analysis still gave useful information regarding the complex relationship among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values, cross-sample comparisons would provide us any similarities or differences of these relationships and the generalizability of key constructs of the study.

Another issue on the sample is that MBA participants in China may not be representative of Chinese population, and undergraduate participants in the U.S. may not be representative of the U.S. population. This may lead to the possibility that these participants might not hold traditional Chinese or American cultural values as discussed

by Hofstede (1980, 1990). It might also explain why there were no supportive results found in the current study.

Three related, but distinct constructs were used to measure supervisor-subordinate relationship (i.e., LMX, *guanxi*, and ingroup identification). Confirmatory factor analyses showed that 3-factor model was better than 1- or 2-factor models in both samples. However, 2-factor model was also better than 1-factor model. In 2-factor model, LMX and ingroup identification were combined into one factor in both samples. In addition, LMX and ingroup identification showed quite high correlation in both samples. This may suggest that LMX and ingroup identification might not be distinct constructs as it was supposed to.

In the current study, paper-and-pencil survey and online web survey were used to collect data in the U.S. and China separately. The use of Internet-based assessment has increased dramatically in recent years due to its administrative efficiency (McBride, 1998). Researchers have examined and compared the data collected through paper-and-pencil survey and online survey. Cronk and West (2002) found that the web-based version of morality scale showed a larger mean than the paper-and-pencil version. However, Bartram and Brown (2004) found few differences in observed scores between an unproctored online version and a proctored paper-and-pencil version of the Occupational Personality Questionnaire (OPQ-32; SHL, 2000). In the current study, however, variables were standardized before being entered into the analysis, which may reduce the potential influence of different versions of surveys. But reliabilities of most measures in Chinese sample were lower than those in the U.S. sample. Though it might

be due to the translation, there is also the possibility that differences between paper-and-pencil version and online survey might exist. Future investigation using the same data collection method should be conducted to validate results from the current study.

The present study did not distinguish various types of organizational justice in the hypotheses (except for H3c on the moderating effect of masculinity/femininity). But the results showed that supervisor-subordinate relationships and cultural values differently influenced the effects of the different types of organizational justice. For instance, informational and interpersonal justice focus more on how individuals are interpersonally treated and may be more likely to influence such outcomes as trust in the supervisor, who is the direct person in the organization that individuals are going to receive interpersonal and informational treatment. Future research that separate different influences of various types of justice and outcomes should be encouraged.

Implications for Practice

Researchers generally encourage high levels of LMX in the organization because it is related to desirable individual and organizational outcomes, including job satisfaction and performance ratings (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982) and turnover (Ferris, 1985). But there are other aspects of the exchange relationship between leaders and members (e.g., *guanxi*) that deserve careful consideration as well. Managers should realize that their relationship with subordinates outside the current working context is quite likely to influence subordinates' expectation and perception of the fairness of their behaviors. For instance, during the interview, the applicant finds out that the interviewer is his/her alumni. When this applicant is hired and works under this

supervisor, he/she may feel closer with the supervisor and expect to receive high performance ratings, quick promotions, and more information, otherwise, he/she may feel cheated and unfair. Recognition of the important role that supervisor-subordinate relationship plays in the effect of organizational justice can help explain why sometimes, organizational justice does not exhibit expected effects.

Furthermore, managers should realize that employees place different importance on the fairness of treatment they receive, and this is influenced by their relationship with supervisors and their cultural values. This is not to say that managers can treat those employees who care less about organizational justice less fairly. However, managers should know that employees who are more sensitive to issues of organizational justice may exhibit stronger negative reactions when they feel that they are treated unfairly. Managers can prevent this by paying more attention to their own behaviors and making sure that all their subordinates are treated fairly.

In today's world, globalization in diverse domains has dramatically increased cross-cultural contact, and increased mobility of labor markets has formed a more diverse workforce. It is not surprising that there may be workers with various cultural values working in the same office. Intercultural contact is difficult due to misunderstanding, miscommunication, and misattribution that are caused by cultural differences. Such conflict is destructive since it may lead to a strong sense of injustice. This makes it even more important to maintain justice in a culturally diverse workforce. One key to avoid such conflict is a better understanding of cross-cultural differences (Leung, 2005) and how such differences may influence issues of organizational justice.

Future Research

Cross-cultural research on organizational justice has been driven by the desire to create a more generalized notion of justice. Many studies have come to the conclusion that cultural differences exist (e.g., Bond et al., 1982; Lam et al., 2002). However, these studies may have used very different samples, including undergraduates, MBA students, employees, and managers, and different methodologies (e.g., paper-and-pencil survey, web survey, etc.). Before it can be concluded that general cultural differences do exist, we need to rule out possible influences of such contextual factors. More effort is needed in this direction.

Most cross-cultural research has been guided by individualism/collectivism and power distance (for a review, see Leung, 2005), probably because these two cultural values have demonstrated more fruitful theories and provided more interpretable results. However, other cultural values such as masculinity/femininity, long-term orientation, and uncertainty avoidance also reflect important information about cultural differences. Their influence on organizational justice remains to be further explored. The present study hypothesized the moderating effects of these cultural values, and found some unexpected results (including those of individualism/collectivism, and power distance). This suggests that future investigation on the interaction between each cultural value on a specific type of justice on a particular outcome variable should be conducted to examine these different moderating effects.

A key requirement for the development of high quality LMX is that "…each party must see the exchange as reasonably equitable or fair" (Graen & Scandura, 1987,

p.182). This suggests that high quality LMX is developed over time and is heavily influenced by leaders' fair behaviors. This notion raises the question about the causality of organizational justice and LMX. Scandura (1999) proposed a time-based model of organizational justice and LMX and suggested that issues of organizational justice may emerge early in the initial exchange process, which helps form an initial perception of LMX. But over time, LMX may also have an impact on the perception of organizational justice. For instance, employees who have high quality LMX with supervisors are more likely to perceive better procedural justice issues because they have more communication and information about these procedures. This, in turn, influences employees' perception of leaders' fair behaviors and future LMX. Because of this dynamic nature of LMX (as well as *guanxi*), longitudinal investigation is needed in order to have a more complete understanding of the relationship between organizational justice and supervisor-subordinate relationship.

The complexity of 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values deserves further investigation, too. In the current study, all four types of organizational justice were discussed together regarding the influence by the other two constructs. The results showed that even with the same supervisor-subordinate relationship and cultural value, various types of organizational justice may have totally different effect on the same outcome variable. Therefore, it is possible that distinct mechanisms may underlie these different relationships, and separate investigations on each particular type of organizational justice should be conducted. For instance, for employees with feminine values, interpersonal justice had a

significant and positive interaction effect with LMX on trust in the organization; but informational justice did not show such an interaction with LMX. Why this difference exists could provide another fruitful future research avenue.

Conclusions

Based on data collected from both the U.S. and China, the current study explored the moderating roles of supervisor-subordinate relationships and cultural values on the effects of organizational justice, and the potential 3-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationships, and cultural values. Though the hierarchical linear regressions did not reveal strong evidence to support the hypotheses, there were some interesting results showing some support for the notion that one's relationship with the supervisor and different cultural values impact the effects of organizational justice on outcome variables. In particular, LMX, *guanxi*, and ingroup identification all exhibited some moderating roles on the effects of organizational justice, showing multi-dimensions of supervisor-subordinate relationships. Despite numerous findings that failed to reach significance in this study, the present study is the first attempt to understand how the relationship with one's supervisor and cultural values impact the effects of organizational justice on outcome variables. Further investigation of these effects could provide a rich avenue for future theoretical and empirical development in organizational justice research.

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APPENDIX A

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1976)

1. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job.
2. I am generally satisfied with the feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get from doing this job.
3. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.

Organizational Commitment (Meyer et al., 1993. Meyer et al., 1996).

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)
4. I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization. (R)
5. I do not feel like part of the family at my organization. (R)
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
7. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)
8. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
9. I would feel guilty if I left this organization now.
10. This organization deserves my loyalty.
11. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
12. I owe a great deal to my organization.
13. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
14. One of the few negative consequences of leaving my organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
15. What keeps me working at this company is the lack of opportunities elsewhere.
16. I have invested too much time in this organization to consider working elsewhere.
17. Leaving this organization now would require considerable personal sacrifice.
18. For me personally, the costs of leaving this organization would be far greater than the benefits.
19. I would not leave this organization because of what I would stand to lose.
20. If I decided to leave this organization, too much of my life would be disrupted.
21. I continue to work for this organization because I don't believe another organization could offer the benefits I have here.

Trust in Organization (Robinson, 1996)

1. I believe my organization has high integrity.
2. I can expect my organization to treat me in a consistent and predictable fashion.
3. My organization is not always honest and truthful. R
4. In general, I believe my organization's motives and intentions are good.
5. My organization is open and upfront with me.
6. I am not sure I fully trust my organization. R

Trust in Supervisor (Mayer & Gavin, 2005)

1. If I had my way, I wouldn't let my supervisor have any influence over issues that are important to me. R
2. I would be willing to let my supervisor have complete control over my future in this company.
3. I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on my supervisor. R
4. I would be comfortable giving my supervisor a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor his/her actions.
5. I would tell my supervisor about mistakes I've made on the job, even if they could damage my reputation.
6. I would share my opinion about sensitive issues with my supervisor even if my opinion were unpopular.
7. I am afraid of what my supervisor might do to me at work. R
8. If my supervisor asked why a problem happened, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame.
9. If someone questioned my supervisor 's motives, I would give my supervisor the benefit of the doubt.
10. If my supervisor asked me for something, I respond without thinking about whether it might be held against me.

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Organizational Justice (Colquitt, 2001)

Procedural Justice

The following items refer to the procedures used to arrive at your (outcome). To what extent:

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

Distributive justice

The following items refer to your (outcome). To what extent:

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

Interpersonal justice

The following items refer to (the authority figure who enacted the procedure). To what extent:

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

Informational justice

The following items refer to (the authority figure who enacted the procedure). To what extent:

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

Ingroup Identification (self composed)

1. I feel my supervisor is similar to me in terms of general attitudes and beliefs.
2. I feel that I get along well with my supervisor.
3. I have a very positive attitude to my supervisor.
4. I enjoy working with my supervisor.
5. I find it difficult to form a bond with my supervisor. R
6. I would prefer to have a different supervisor. R
7. I often feel regret to have this supervisor. R

LMX (Scandura & Graen, 1984)

1. I always know how satisfied my supervisor is with what I do.
2. My supervisor understands my problems and needs well enough.
3. My supervisor recognizes my potential.
4. My supervisor would personally use his/her power to help me solve my work problem.
5. I can count on my supervisor to "bail me out" at his/her expense when I really need it.
6. I have enough confidence in my supervisor to defend and justify his/her decisions when he/she is not present to do so.

7. My working relationship with my supervisor is extremely effective.

Guanxi (Law, Wong, Wang, & Wang. 2000)

1. During holidays or after office hours, I would call my supervisor or visit him/her.
2. My supervisor invites me to his/her home for lunch or dinner.
3. On special occasions such as my supervisor's birthday, I would definitely visit my supervisor and send him/her gifts.
4. I always actively share with my supervisor about my thoughts, problems, needs and feelings.
5. I care about and have a good understanding of my supervisor's family and work conditions.
6. When there are conflicting opinions, I will definitely stand on my supervisor's side.

Cultural Values

Individualism (CPQ8, Maznevski et al., 2002)

1. People should satisfy their own needs before they think about others' needs.
2. People should expect to look after themselves.
3. People who rely only on themselves will usually be successful.
4. Young people should be taught to be independent.
5. People's first responsibility is to themselves, not to others.
6. It is important not to depend on other people.
7. One should not expect others to look out for one's own interests.
8. People are expected to give priority to their own needs over those of others.

Collectivism (CPQ8, Maznevski et al., 2002)

1. The interests of the family as a whole are more important than the interests of any individual within the family.
2. All members of the group should be mutually responsible for each other.
3. Everyone's responsibility is to do what is best for society as a whole.
4. Society as a whole should be responsible for helping anyone who needs help.
5. People's responsibility for family members should go beyond their parents and children.
6. One's primary responsibility should be to family and close friends, including one's extended family.
7. People should take care of others before taking care of themselves.
8. The interests of the group take priority over the interests of any individual within the group.

Power distance (CPQ8, Maznevski et al., 2002)

1. People at higher levels should make significant decisions for people below them.
2. People at higher levels of an organization must look after those below them.

3. People at lower levels in a group or organization should carry out the decisions of people at higher levels.
4. The hierarchy of groups in a society should remain consistent over time.
5. People at higher levels should expect to have more privileges than those at lower levels.
6. People at lower levels in an organization should not expect to have much power.
7. Organizations work best with clear and formal hierarchies.

Masculinity/Femininity (Vitell, Paolillo, & Thomas, 2003)

1. It is important for me to have a job that provides and opportunity for advancement.
2. It is important for me to work in a prestigious and successful company or organization.
3. It is important for me to have a job which ahs an opportunity for high earnings.
4. It is important for me that I outperform others in my company.

Uncertainty avoidance (Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000)

1. It is important to have job requirements and instructions spelled out in detail so that employees always know what they are expected to do.
2. Managers expect employees to closely follow instructions and procedures.
3. Rules and regulations are important because they inform employees what the organization expects of them.
4. Standard operating procedures are helpful to employees on the job.
5. Instructions for operations are important for employees on the job.

Long-term orientation (Hofstede & Bond, 1988)

1. Managers must be persistent to accomplish objectives.
2. There is hierarchy to on-the-job relationships and it should be observed.
3. A good manager knows how to economize.
4. It is important to have a conscience in business.

CONTROL VARIABLES

Negative Affectivity

(PANAS; Watson, Clark, & TEllegen, 1998)

1. Interested *
2. Distressed
3. Excited*
4. Upset
5. Strong*
6. Guilty
7. Scared
8. Hostile
9. Enthusiastic*
10. Proud*

11. Irritable
12. Alert*
13. Ashamed
14. Inspired*
15. Nervous
16. Determined*
17. Attentive*
18. Jittery
19. Active*
20. Afraid

* reverse coded

Background Information

1. What is your age? _____
2. What is your gender? _____
   A. Female
   B. Male
3. What is your ethic origin? _____
   A. American Indian
   B. African-American/Black
   C. Asian
   D. Hispanic
   E. White
   F. Other (please specify_____)
4. Which country were you born? _____
5. Which country did you grow up in? _____
6. How many countries have you been too? (Excluding the country you were born in) _____; what are these countries, how long you stayed there, and for what purpose (e.g., living, study, vocation, business, etc.)? Please answer this question use the blanks below.

Country	Months and Years you stayed there	Your purpose there
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

_____ _____ _____

7. In which country do you live now? _____
8. Most people feel closest to the culture of the country in which they were born. Some people feel closer to the country in which they have lived longest or in which they live now. Still other people feel closer to a culture that is associated with a region, a religion, or some other group. Which country's culture do you feel closest to? _____
9. What is your education level? _____
    A. Below Bachelor
    B. Bachelor
    C. Master
    D. Doctor
    E. Post Doctor
    F. Others (Please specify _____)
10. What is the major of your highest degree?_____
11. What's your marriage status?
    G. Single
    H. Married
    I. Separate
    J. Divorced
    K. Widowed
    L. Others (Please specify _____)
12. Do you have children? _____
    M. Yes
    N. No
13. How many years of full-time work experience do you have? _____
14. How many industries have you worked for? _____
15. How many organizations have you worked for? _____
16. How long have you been working in the current organization? _____

17. What's your current position in this organization? _____

18. How long have you been in the current position? _____

19. Select the category below that best reflects your current position:

____Finance/Accounting

____Marketing

____Sales

____Administration

____Engineering

____Technical/Scientific

____General Management

____Operations

____Human Resources

____Information Systems

____Manufacturing

____Quality management

____Nonprofit/Service

____Healthcare

____Other _____

APPENDIX B

TABLES

Table B1. Exploratory factor analysis of ingroup identification in the U.S. and Chinese sample

Component Matrix (a)

U.S. sample	Component
	1
Ingroup identification 1	.782
Ingroup identification 2	.828
Ingroup identification 3	.804
Ingroup identification 4	.885
Ingroup identification 5	.765
Ingroup identification 6	.857
Ingroup identification 7	.811

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a 1 components extracted.

Component Matrix (a)

Chinese Sample	Component
	1
Ingroup identification 1	.685
Ingroup identification 2	.836
Ingroup identification 3	.730
Ingroup identification 4	.841
Ingroup identification 5	.684
Ingroup identification 6	.735
Ingroup identification 7	.774

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a 1 components extracted.

Table B2. Means, standard deviations, and correlations of study variables in the U.S. sample

Variables	Mean	SD	NA	GX	LMX	IG	IND	COL	PD	MAS	LTO
NA	2.18	0.49	**0.85**								
GX	3.58	1.51	-0.18**	**0.92**							
LMX[a]	3.62	0.72	-0.34**	0.55**	**0.89**						
IG	5.29	1.17	-0.37**	0.52**	0.79**	**0.92**					
IND	4.56	0.88	0.22**	-0.03	0.01	0.00	**0.80**				
COL	4.94	0.83	-0.20**	0.17**	0.25**	0.13*	-0.25**	**0.81**			
PD	4.52	0.72	-0.05	-0.01	0.07	0.04	0.18**	0.19**	**0.67**		
MAS	5.70	0.94	-0.08	-0.05	0.15*	0.14*	0.22**	0.17**	0.33**	**0.76**	
LTO	4.78	0.91	-0.02	0.07	0.10†	0.12*	0.17**	0.17**	0.22**	0.20**	**0.67**
UA	5.71	0.83	-0.20**	0.01	0.20**	0.23**	0.06	0.26**	0.27**	0.46**	0.19**
PJ[a]	3.39	0.59	-0.27**	0.25**	0.42**	0.34**	-0.09	0.23**	0.07	0.18**	0.13*
DJ[a]	3.67	0.87	-0.18**	0.13*	0.24**	0.23**	-0.13*	0.07	0.07	0.10†	0.15*
IPJ[a]	3.94	0.80	-0.32**	0.31**	0.62**	0.67**	0.07	0.16*	0.10	0.22**	0.19**
IFJ[a]	3.71	0.73	-0.33**	0.37**	0.69**	0.62**	0.02	0.16**	0.15*	0.17**	0.14*
JS	5.23	1.12	-0.31**	0.27**	0.42**	0.48**	-0.05	0.09	0.09	0.18**	0.11†
ACS	4.01	1.13	-0.32**	0.43**	0.47**	0.51**	-0.09	0.13*	0.04	0.10	0.01
NCS	3.98	1.15	-0.19**	0.34**	0.33**	0.34**	-0.15*	0.18**	-0.02	0.03	0.01
CCS	3.42	1.07	0.16*	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.02	-0.02	0.04	0.02	0.03
TO[a]	3.65	0.74	-0.40**	0.28**	0.48**	0.49**	-0.05	0.11†	0.07	0.12†	0.11†
TS[a]	3.39	0.53	-0.37**	0.47**	0.63**	0.64**	-0.10	0.21**	0.06	0.06	0.14*

Table B2. Means, standard deviations, and correlations of study variables in the U.S. sample (Continued)

Variables	UA	PJ	DJ	IPJ	IFJ	JS	ACS	NCS	CCS	TO	TS
NA											
GX											
LMX											
IG											
IND											
COL											
PD											
MAS											
LTO											
UA	**0.89**										
PJ	0.16**	**0.85**									
DJ	0.09	0.55**	**0.95**								
IPJ	0.29**	0.37**	0.27**	**0.90**							
IFJ	0.24**	0.37**	0.30**	0.69**	**0.86**						
JS	0.23**	0.37**	0.33**	0.39**	0.40**	**0.89**					
ACS	0.10†	0.34**	0.28**	0.39**	0.40**	0.60**	**0.83**				
NCS	0.11†	0.32**	0.17**	0.28**	0.28**	0.48**	0.64**	**0.85**			
CCS	0.02	0.02	-0.03	0.07	0.03	0.14*	0.16**	0.38**	**0.88**		
TO	0.11†	0.37**	0.25**	0.48**	0.44**	0.52**	0.53**	0.39**	-0.07	**0.89**	
TS	0.18**	0.41**	0.23**	0.56**	0.52**	0.49**	0.49**	0.37**	0.00	0.57**	**0.79**

N=263.
†p<0.10; *p<0.05; **p<0.001.
Reliabilities are listed at the diagonal line.
NA=Negative Affectivity; GX=Guanxi; LMX=Leader-Member-Exchange; IG=Ingroup Identification; IND=Individualism; COL=Colectivism; PD=Power Distance; MAS=Masculinity; LTO=Long-term Orientation; UA=Uncertainty Avoidance; PJ=Procedural Justice; DJ=Distributive Justice; IPJ=Interpersonal Justice; IFJ=Informational Justice; JS=Job Satisfaction; ACS=Affective Commitment; NCS=Normative Commitment; CCS=Continuance Commitment; TO=Trust in the Organization; and TS=Trust in the supervisor.
[a] These scales were measured on 5-point Likert scale. The rest scales were measured on 7-point Likert scale.

Table B3. Means, standard deviations, and correlations of study variables in Chinese sample

Variables	Mean	SD	NA	GX	LMX	IG	IND	COL	PD	MAS	LTO
NA	3.17	0.55	**0.75**								
GX	3.72	1.14	-0.11	**0.73**							
LMX	4.46	1.07	-0.32**	0.65**	**0.82**						
IG	4.42	1.21	-0.28**	0.62**	0.82**	**0.87**					
IND	4.49	0.82	0.17*	-0.08	-0.08	-0.14†	**0.67**				
COL	5.14	0.79	-0.11	-0.04	-0.07	-0.05	0.07	**0.65**			
PD[a]	4.13	0.64	0.01	0.05	-0.01	0.02	0.23**	0.28**	**0.40**		
MAS	5.26	0.88	0.03	-0.06	0.00	-0.07	0.27**	0.34**	0.33**	**0.58**	
LTO	5.66	0.89	0.01	-0.13†	-0.08	-0.09	0.25**	0.42**	0.27**	0.38**	**0.59**
UA	5.42	0.90	0.01	-0.06	-0.05	-0.01	0.23**	0.37**	0.29**	0.37**	0.52**
PJ	4.10	1.22	-0.10	0.35**	0.43**	0.35**	-0.01	0.12	0.01	-0.01	0.03
DJ	4.14	1.47	-0.05	0.21**	0.29**	0.24**	0.05	0.13†	0.08	0.01	0.07
IPJ	4.88	1.05	-0.16*	0.34**	0.49**	0.52**	0.06	0.06	0.08	0.07	0.06
IFJ	4.28	1.29	-0.05	0.45**	0.53**	0.54**	-0.02	0.07	0.11	0.06	0.03
JS	4.62	1.00	-0.33**	0.24**	0.47**	0.43**	-0.02	0.22**	0.11	0.05	0.19*
ACS	3.89	0.97	-0.33**	0.39**	0.48**	0.48**	-0.11	0.03	0.01	-0.05	-0.06
NCS	4.20	1.04	-0.20*	0.41**	0.49**	0.48**	-0.04	0.19*	0.18*	0.04	0.09
CCS	3.28	0.93	0.15*	0.11	0.05	-0.02	0.15†	0.09	0.17*	0.13†	0.13†
TO	4.44	0.97	-0.22**	0.40**	0.54**	0.52**	-0.07	0.04	-0.03	-0.07	-0.02
TS	4.33	0.67	-0.20**	0.45**	0.53**	0.49**	-0.04	0.02	-0.13†	0.01	-0.07

Table B3. Means, standard deviations, and correlations of study variables in Chinese sample (Continued)

Variables	UA	PJ	DJ	IPJ	IFJ	JS	ACS	NCS	CCS	TO	TS
NA											
GX											
LMX											
IG											
IND											
COL											
PD											
MAS											
LTO											
UA	**0.75**										
PJ	0.08	**0.88**									
DJ	0.10	0.65**	**0.95**								
IPJ	0.17*	0.58**	0.51**	**0.82**							
IFJ	0.15†	0.66**	0.54**	0.73**	**0.89**						
JS	0.18*	0.33**	0.39**	0.28**	0.36**	**0.73**					
ACS	-0.01	0.38**	0.31**	0.42**	0.49**	0.51**	**0.72**				
NCS	0.17*	0.46**	0.49**	0.45**	0.50**	0.62**	0.69**	**0.78**			
CCS	0.17*	0.06	0.24**	0.05	0.14†	0.15*	0.17*	0.35**	**0.79**		
TO	0.03	0.46**	0.45**	0.50**	0.56**	0.58**	0.66**	0.68**	0.13†	**0.80**	
TS	-0.01	0.34**	0.35**	0.30**	0.33**	0.34**	0.34**	0.45**	0.00	0.41**	**0.63**

N=173.
†p<0.10; *p<0.05; **p<0.001.
Reliabilities are listed at the diagonal line.
NA=Negative Affectivity; GX=Guanxi; LMX=Leader-Member-Exchange; IG=Ingroup Identification; IND=Individualism; COL=Colectivism; PD=Power Distance; MAS=Masculinity; LTO=Long-term Orientation; UA=Uncertainty Avoidance; PJ=Procedural Justice; DJ=Distributive Justice; IPJ=Interpersonal Justice; IFJ=Informational Justice; JS=Job Satisfaction; ACS=Affective Commitment; NCS=Normative Commitment; CCS=Continuance Commitment; TO=Trust in the Organization; and TS=Trust in the supervisor.
All the scales were measured on 7-point Likert scale.
[a] Four items were selected to compose power distance in Chinese sample.

Table B4. Baseline models of study variables in Chinese and the U.S. sample

	χ^2	d.f.	CFI	GFI	NFI	RMSEA
U.S. Sample						
1-Factor organizational justice	2014.19	170	0.49	0.46	0.47	0.20
4-Factor organizational justice	371.19	164	0.94	0.88	0.90	0.07
1-factor supervisor-subordinate relationship	1359.11	189	0.72	0.59	0.69	0.15
2-factor supervisor-subordinate relationship	712.33	188	0.88	0.78	0.84	0.10
3-Factor supervisor-subordinate relationship	454.16	167	0.92	0.86	0.88	0.08
1-Factor cultural values	2476.47	560	0.39	0.55	0.34	0.11
6-Factor cultural values	1187.20	545	0.80	0.78	0.68	0.07
1-Factor outcomes	3764.39	779	0.46	0.44	0.41	0.12
6-Factor outcomes	1838.97	764	0.81	0.72	0.71	0.07
Chinese Sample						
1-Factor organizational justice	995.99	170	0.67	0.56	0.63	0.17
4-Factor organizational justice	389.86	164	0.91	0.81	0.86	0.09
1-factor supervisor-subordinate relationship	422.69	189	0.87	0.79	0.78	0.09
2-factor supervisor-subordinate relationship	359.38	188	0.90	0.83	0.82	0.07
3-Factor supervisor-subordinate relationship	303.99	167	0.91	0.84	0.82	0.07
1-Factor cultural values	1198.32	560	0.50	0.69	0.36	0.08
6-Factor cultural values	1014.71	545	0.63	0.74	0.46	0.07
1-Factor outcomes	1903.60	779	0.54	0.60	0.42	0.09
6-Factor outcomes	1536.49	764	0.69	0.68	0.53	0.08

Table B5. Fit indices for tests of measurement equivalence

	χ^2	d.f.	CFI	GFI	NFI	RMSEA
Organizational justice						
Configural invariance	761.23	328	0.93	0.85	0.88	0.06
Metric invariance	798.62	345	0.93	0.84	0.88	0.06
Scalar invariance	973.11	365	0.98	-	0.97	0.06
Supervisor-subordinate relationship						
Configural invariance	758.16	334	0.92	0.85	0.86	0.05
Metric invariance	791.82	351	0.92	0.84	0.86	0.05
Scalar invariance	1296.09	371	0.96	-	0.95	0.08
Cultural values						
Configural invariance	2202.18	1090	0.75	0.77	0.57	0.05
metric invariance	2308.37	1119	0.75	0.73	0.56	0.05
scalar invariance	3167.45	1154	0.96	-	0.93	0.06
Fully constrained (factor loadings, variances, and covariances constrained equal)	2393.95	1140	0.72	0.75	0.57	0.05
Alternative model (individualism and collectivism as one factor) Configural invariance	2697.67	1100	0.64	0.69	0.48	0.06
Outcomes						
Configural invariance	3375.86	1528	0.77	0.70	0.65	0.05
metric invariance	3516.76	1563	0.76	0.69	0.63	0.05
scalar invariance	4541.58	1604	0.94	-	0.91	0.07
Fully constrained (factor loadings, variances, and covariances constrained equal)	3649.97	1584	0.74	0.69	0.62	0.06
Alternative model 1(organizational commitment as one factor) Configural invariance	4435.42	1546	0.64	0.58	0.54	0.07
Alternative model 2 (organizational commitment as two factor-ACS and NCS/CCS) Configural invariance	4023.89	1538	0.69	0.58	0.58	0.06
Alternative model 3 (trust in the organization/supervisor as one factor) configural invariance	3700.21	1538	0.73	0.68	0.62	0.06
Alternative model 4 (organizational commitment as one factor & trust as one factor) Configural invariance	4754.03	1552	0.60	0.56	0.51	0.07

Table B6. The main effects of organizational justice on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample

	Model 1		Model 2	
Job Satisfaction	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.05
Negative Affectivity	-0.31***	0.06	-0.14*	0.06
Distributive justice			0.15*	0.07
Procedural justice			0.13†	0.07
Interpersonal justice			0.15†	0.08
Informational justice			0.16*	0.08
R^2	0.09		0.26	
ΔR^2	0.09		0.17	
ΔF	26.77***		14.66***	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B7. The main effects of organizational justice on affective commitment in the U.S. sample

Affective	**Model 1**		**Model 2**	
Commitment	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.05
Negative Affectivity	-0.32***	0.06	-0.17**	0.06
Distributive justice			0.09	0.07
Procedural justice			0.13†	0.07
Interpersonal justice			0.15*	0.08
Informational justice			0.16*	0.08
R^2	0.10		0.25	
ΔR^2	0.10		0.14	
ΔF	29.92***		12.13***	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B8. The main effects of organizational justice on normative commitment in the U.S. sample

Normative Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.06
Negative Affectivity	-0.19**	0.06	-0.06	0.06
Distributive justice			-0.03	0.07
Procedural justice			0.25***	0.07
Interpersonal justice			0.11	0.08
Informational justice			0.10	0.08
R^2	0.04		0.14	
ΔR^2	0.04		0.10	
ΔF	10.06**		7.89***	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B9. The main effects of organizational justice on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample

Continuance Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.06
Negative Affectivity	0.16	0.06*	0.21**	0.07
Distributive justice			-0.06	0.07
Procedural justice			0.07	0.08
Interpersonal justice			0.13	0.09
Informational justice			0.00	0.09
R^2	0.03		0.04	
ΔR^2	0.03		0.02	
ΔF	6.54*		1.32	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B10. The main effects of organizational justice on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample

Trust in the Organization	**Model 1**		**Model 2**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.05
Negative Affectivity	-0.40***	0.06	-0.23***	0.06
Distributive justice			0.01	0.06
Procedural justice			0.16*	0.07
Interpersonal justice			0.25***	0.07
Informational justice			0.13†	0.07
R^2	0.16		0.33	
ΔR^2	0.16		0.17	
ΔF	48.32***		16.32***	

N=263; †p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Table B11. The main effects of organizational justice on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample

Trust in the Supervisor	**Model 1**		**Model 2**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.05
Negative Affectivity	-0.37***	0.06	-0.16**	0.05
Distributive justice			-0.06	0.06
Procedural justice			0.20***	0.06
Interpersonal justice			0.31***	0.07
Informational justice			0.19**	0.07
R^2	0.14		0.40	
ΔR^2	0.14		0.26	
ΔF	42.09***		28.04***	

N=263; †p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Table B12. The main effects of organizational justice on job satisfaction in Chinese sample

Job Satisfaction	Model 1 B	Std. Error	Model 2 B	Std. Error
Constant	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.07
Negative Affectivity	-0.33***	0.07	-0.32***	0.07
Distributive justice			0.30***	0.09
Procedural justice			-0.05	0.10
Interpersonal justice			-0.11	0.10
Informational justice			0.29**	0.11
R^2	0.11		0.29	
ΔR^2	0.11		0.18	
ΔF	20.32***		10.23***	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B13. The main effects of organizational justice on affective commitment in Chinese sample

Affective Commitment	Model 1 B	Std. Error	Model 2 B	Std. Error
Constant	-0.02	0.07	-0.02	0.06
Negative Affectivity	-0.33***	0.07	-0.29***	0.07
Distributive justice			0.03	0.09
Procedural justice			0.06	0.10
Interpersonal justice			0.05	0.10
Informational justice			0.38***	0.10
R^2	0.11		0.34	
ΔR^2	0.11		0.23	
ΔF	19.85***		14.03***	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B14. The main effects of organizational justice on normative commitment in Chinese sample

Normative Commitment	Model 1 B	Std. Error	Model 2 B	Std. Error
Constant	0.00	0.08	0.00	0.06
Negative Affectivity	-0.20*	0.08	-0.15*	0.07
Distributive justice			0.26**	0.09
Procedural justice			0.05	0.10
Interpersonal justice			0.06	0.10
Informational justice			0.28**	0.10
R^2	0.04		0.35	
ΔR^2	0.04		0.31	
ΔF	6.52*		19.39***	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B15. The main effects of organizational justice on continuance commitment in Chinese sample

Continuance Commitment	Model 1 B	Std. Error	Model 2 B	Std. Error
Constant	-0.12	0.08	-0.12	0.07
Negative Affectivity	0.16*	0.08	0.15†	0.08
Distributive justice			0.33***	0.10
Procedural justice			-0.20†	0.11
Interpersonal justice			-0.11	0.11
Informational justice			0.18	0.12
R^2	0.03		0.11	
ΔR^2	0.03		0.08	
ΔF	4.46*		3.78**	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B16. The main effects of organizational justice on trust in the organization in Chinese sample

Trust in the Organization	**Model 1**		**Model 2**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.08	0.00	0.06
Negative Affectivity	-0.22**	0.08	-0.17**	0.06
Distributive justice			0.18*	0.08
Procedural justice			0.02	0.10
Interpersonal justice			0.11	0.09
Informational justice			0.36***	0.10
R^2	0.05		0.39	
ΔR^2	0.05		0.34	
ΔF	8.31**		22.41***	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B17. The main effects of organizational justice on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample

Trust in the Supervisor	**Model 1**		**Model 2**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.08	0.00	0.07
Negative Affectivity	-0.20*	0.08	-0.17*	0.07
Distributive justice			0.19†	0.10
Procedural justice			0.08	0.11
Interpersonal justice			0.02	0.11
Informational justice			0.15	0.12
R^2	0.04		0.18	
ΔR^2	0.04		0.14	
ΔF	6.58*		7.14***	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B18. The moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample

Job Satisfaction	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Constant	0.01	0.06	0.01	0.05	-0.06	0.06
Negative affectivity	-0.31***	0.06	-0.11†	0.06	-0.08	0.06
Distributive justice			0.16*	0.06	0.20**	0.07
Procedural justice			0.10	0.07	0.09	0.07
Interpersonal justice			0.02	0.08	0.00	0.09
Informational justice			0.09	0.08	0.13	0.09
Guanxi			0.01	0.06	0.01	0.07
LMX			-0.01	0.10	0.02	0.10
Ingroup identification			0.29**	0.10	0.31**	0.10
Distributive justice x Guanxi					0.25**	0.09
Procedural justice x Guanxi					-0.01	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Guanxi					-0.12	0.11
Informational justice x Guanxi					-0.03	0.10
Distributive justice x LMX					-0.15	0.12
Procedural justice x LMX					0.08	0.13
Interpersonal justice x LMX					-0.11	0.15
Informational justice x LMX					0.05	0.13
Distributive justice x Ingroup identification					0.00	0.10
Procedural justice x Ingroup identification					-0.09	0.11
Interpersonal justice x Ingroup identification					0.13	0.12
Informational justice x Ingroup identification					0.10	0.12
R^2	0.10		0.31		0.36	
ΔR^2	0.10		0.21		0.06	
ΔF	27.96***		10.82***		1.71†	

N=263; †p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Table B19. The moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship on affective commitment in the U.S. sample

Affective Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Constant	0.01	0.06	0.01	0.05	-0.06	0.06
Negative affectivity	-0.33***	0.06	-0.13*	0.06	-0.09	0.06
Distributive justice			0.11†	0.06	0.12†	0.07
Procedural justice			0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07
Interpersonal justice			0.02	0.08	0.09	0.09
Informational justice			0.04	0.08	0.04	0.09
Guanxi			0.20**	0.06	0.17**	0.06
LMX			0.01	0.10	0.01	0.10
Ingroup identification			0.25**	0.09	0.30**	0.10
Distributive justice x Guanxi					0.12	0.08
Procedural justice x Guanxi					-0.02	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Guanxi					0.01	0.10
Informational justice x Guanxi					-0.02	0.10
Distributive justice x LMX					-0.12	0.11
Procedural justice x LMX					0.02	0.12
Interpersonal justice x LMX					0.03	0.15
Informational justice x LMX					0.02	0.12
Distributive justice x Ingroup identification					0.07	0.10
Procedural justice x Ingroup identification					0.07	0.10
Interpersonal justice x Ingroup identification					0.01	0.12
Informational justice x Ingroup identification					0.01	0.12
R^2	0.11		0.34		0.38	
ΔR^2	0.11		0.23		0.04	
ΔF	32.14***		12.70***		1.20	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B20. The moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship on normative commitment in the U.S. sample

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
Normative Commitment	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.01	0.06	0.00	0.06	-0.06	0.07
Negative affectivity	-0.20***	0.06	-0.05	0.06	-0.04	0.06
Distributive justice			-0.02	0.07	0.00	0.08
Procedural justice			0.20**	0.07	0.18*	0.08
Interpersonal justice			0.03	0.09	0.02	0.10
Informational justice			0.03	0.09	0.07	0.09
Guanxi			0.19**	0.07	0.16*	0.07
LMX			-0.03	0.11	0.01	0.11
Ingroup identification			0.14	0.10	0.13	0.11
Distributive justice x Guanxi					0.17†	0.09
Procedural justice x Guanxi					0.01	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Guanxi					0.12	0.11
Informational justice x Guanxi					-0.12	0.10
Distributive justice x LMX					-0.31*	0.13
Procedural justice x LMX					0.30*	0.14
Interpersonal justice x LMX					-0.23	0.16
Informational justice x LMX					0.07	0.14
Distributive justice x Ingroup identification					0.18†	0.11
Procedural justice x Ingroup identification					-0.20†	0.11
Interpersonal justice x Ingroup identification					0.03	0.13
Informational justice x Ingroup identification					0.16	0.13
R^2	0.04		0.19		0.26	
ΔR^2	0.04		0.15		0.06	
ΔF	11.17***		6.63***		1.71†	

N=263; †p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Table B21. The moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
Continuance Commitment	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.06	0.05	0.07
Negative affectivity	0.16*	0.06	0.21**	0.07	0.17*	0.07
Distributive justice			-0.06	0.08	-0.06	0.09
Procedural justice			0.06	0.08	0.01	0.09
Interpersonal justice			0.13	0.10	0.06	0.11
Informational justice			-0.02	0.10	0.03	0.10
Guanxi			0.05	0.08	0.07	0.08
LMX			0.03	0.12	0.02	0.12
Ingroup identification			-0.03	0.11	-0.07	0.12
Distributive justice x Guanxi					0.14	0.10
Procedural justice x Guanxi					-0.11	0.10
Interpersonal justice x Guanxi					0.11	0.13
Informational justice x Guanxi					-0.11	0.12
Distributive justice x LMX					-0.23†	0.14
Procedural justice x LMX					0.31*	0.15
Interpersonal justice x LMX					0.00	0.18
Informational justice x LMX					0.03	0.15
Distributive justice x Ingroup identification					0.07	0.12
Procedural justice x Ingroup identification					-0.18	0.13
Interpersonal justice x Ingroup identification					-0.15	0.15
Informational justice x Ingroup identification					0.01	0.15
R^2	0.03		0.05		0.10	
ΔR^2	0.03		0.02		0.05	
ΔF	6.52*		0.87		1.05	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B22. The moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample

Trust in the Organization	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.05	-0.04	0.06
Negative affectivity	-0.40***	0.06	-0.20***	0.06	-0.19***	0.06
Distributive justice			0.02	0.06	-0.03	0.07
Procedural justice			0.13*	0.07	0.15*	0.07
Interpersonal justice			0.16*	0.08	0.25**	0.09
Informational justice			0.05	0.08	-0.02	0.09
Guanxi			0.01	0.06	-0.03	0.06
LMX			0.09	0.10	0.06	0.10
Ingroup identification			0.15†	0.09	0.23*	0.10
Distributive justice x Guanxi					0.00	0.08
Procedural justice x Guanxi					0.06	0.08
Interpersonal justice x Guanxi					0.09	0.10
Informational justice x Guanxi					-0.08	0.09
Distributive justice x LMX					-0.09	0.11
Procedural justice x LMX					-0.01	0.12
Interpersonal justice x LMX					0.24†	0.14
Informational justice x LMX					-0.21†	0.12
Distributive justice x Ingroup identification					0.03	0.10
Procedural justice x Ingroup identification					-0.02	0.10
Interpersonal justice x Ingroup identification					-0.23†	0.12
Informational justice x Ingroup identification					0.34**	0.12
R^2	0.16		0.35		0.40	
ΔR^2	0.16		0.20		0.05	
ΔF	48.59***		10.79***		1.57†	

N=263; †p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Table B23. The moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample

Trust in the Supervisor	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Constant	0.01	0.06	0.00	0.04	-0.01	0.05
Negative affectivity	-0.38***	0.06	-0.11*	0.05	-0.12*	0.05
Distributive justice			-0.03	0.05	-0.03	0.06
Procedural justice			0.14*	0.06	0.13*	0.06
Interpersonal justice			0.17*	0.07	0.12	0.08
Informational justice			0.02	0.07	0.06	0.08
Guanxi			0.15**	0.05	0.14*	0.06
LMX			0.15†	0.08	0.19*	0.09
Ingroup identification			0.23**	0.08	0.21*	0.08
Distributive justice x Guanxi					0.02	0.07
Procedural justice x Guanxi					-0.06	0.08
Interpersonal justice x Guanxi					0.03	0.09
Informational justice x Guanxi					0.05	0.08
Distributive justice x LMX					-0.06	0.10
Procedural justice x LMX					0.01	0.11
Interpersonal justice x LMX					-0.08	0.13
Informational justice x LMX					0.12	0.11
Distributive justice x Ingroup identification					-0.02	0.09
Procedural justice x Ingroup identification					0.03	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Ingroup identification					0.00	0.11
Informational justice x Ingroup identification					-0.05	0.11
R^2	0.14		0.51		0.53	
ΔR^2	0.14		0.37		0.02	
ΔF	42.92***		26.68***		0.72	

N=263; †p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Table B24. The moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship on job satisfaction in Chinese sample

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
Job Satisfaction	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.06	-0.10	0.07
Negative affectivity	-0.33***	0.07	-0.22**	0.07	-0.15*	0.07
Distributive justice			0.32***	0.09	0.33***	0.09
Procedural justice			-0.06	0.10	-0.06	0.10
Interpersonal justice			-0.18†	0.10	0.04	0.12
Informational justice			0.17	0.11	0.05	0.12
Guanxi			-0.10	0.09	-0.14	0.10
LMX			0.25*	0.12	0.29*	0.12
Ingroup identification			0.17	0.12	0.17	0.12
Distributive justice x Guanxi					-0.07	0.13
Procedural justice x Guanxi					0.01	0.14
Interpersonal justice x Guanxi					0.02	0.15
Informational justice x Guanxi					0.13	0.16
Distributive justice x LMX					0.09	0.16
Procedural justice x LMX					-0.05	0.18
Interpersonal justice x LMX					0.37*	0.18
Informational justice x LMX					-0.28	0.19
Distributive justice x Ingroup identification					-0.02	0.16
Procedural justice x Ingroup identification					-0.04	0.18
Interpersonal justice x Ingroup identification					-0.06	0.19
Informational justice x Ingroup identification					0.12	0.22
R^2	0.11		0.36		0.44	
ΔR^2	0.11		0.25		0.09	
ΔF	20.32***		8.84***		1.88*	

N=173; †p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Table B25. The moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship on affective commitment in Chinese sample

Affective Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Constant	-0.02	0.07	-0.01	0.06	-0.05	0.07
Negative affectivity	-0.33***	0.07	-0.24***	0.07	-0.22**	0.07
Distributive justice			0.06	0.09	0.06	0.09
Procedural justice			0.04	0.10	0.05	0.10
Interpersonal justice			0.01	0.10	0.10	0.13
Informational justice			0.26*	0.11	0.23†	0.12
Guanxi			0.10	0.09	0.04	0.10
LMX			0.05	0.12	0.00	0.13
Ingroup identification			0.14	0.12	0.18	0.13
Distributive justice x Guanxi					0.05	0.13
Procedural justice x Guanxi					0.12	0.14
Interpersonal justice x Guanxi					-0.08	0.15
Informational justice x Guanxi					0.03	0.16
Distributive justice x LMX					-0.21	0.16
Procedural justice x LMX					-0.11	0.19
Interpersonal justice x LMX					0.08	0.19
Informational justice x LMX					0.19	0.20
Distributive justice x Ingroup identification					0.15	0.17
Procedural justice x Ingroup identification					0.13	0.18
Interpersonal justice x Ingroup identification					0.10	0.20
Informational justice x Ingroup identification					-0.32	0.22
R^2	0.11		0.38		0.41	
ΔR^2	0.11		0.27		0.04	
ΔF	19.85***		9.82***		0.74	

N=173; †p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Table B26. The moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship on normative commitment in Chinese sample

Normative Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Constant	0.00	0.08	0.00	0.06	-0.10	0.07
Negative affectivity	-0.20*	0.08	-0.08	0.07	-0.01	0.07
Distributive justice			0.29***	0.08	0.27***	0.08
Procedural justice			0.03	0.10	0.01	0.10
Interpersonal justice			0.01	0.10	0.15	0.12
Informational justice			0.14	0.11	0.10	0.11
Guanxi			0.10	0.09	0.05	0.10
LMX			0.11	0.12	0.08	0.12
Ingroup identification			0.15	0.11	0.23*	0.12
Distributive justice x Guanxi					0.10	0.12
Procedural justice x Guanxi					-0.13	0.13
Interpersonal justice x Guanxi					-0.06	0.14
Informational justice x Guanxi					0.14	0.15
Distributive justice x LMX					-0.18	0.15
Procedural justice x LMX					-0.17	0.17
Interpersonal justice x LMX					0.26	0.17
Informational justice x LMX					0.16	0.19
Distributive justice x Ingroup identification					0.00	0.16
Procedural justice x Ingroup identification					0.37*	0.17
Interpersonal justice x Ingroup identification					-0.02	0.18
Informational justice x Ingroup identification					-0.22	0.21
R^2	0.04		0.41		0.50	
ΔR^2	0.04		0.37		0.09	
ΔF	6.52*		14.26***		2.17*	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Table B27. The moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship on continuance commitment in Chinese sample

Continuance Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	-0.12	0.08	-0.12	0.07	-0.10	0.08
Negative affectivity	0.16*	0.08	0.15†	0.08	0.20*	0.09
Distributive justice			0.33***	0.10	0.31**	0.10
Procedural justice			-0.25*	0.12	-0.23†	0.12
Interpersonal justice			-0.07	0.11	-0.12	0.14
Informational justice			0.17	0.13	0.17	0.14
Guanxi			0.15	0.10	0.18	0.12
LMX			0.15	0.14	0.21	0.15
Ingroup identification			-0.25†	0.14	-0.26†	0.14
Distributive justice x Guanxi					0.33*	0.15
Procedural justice x Guanxi					-0.15	0.16
Interpersonal justice x Guanxi					0.26	0.17
Informational justice x Guanxi					-0.32†	0.18
Distributive justice x LMX					-0.19	0.18
Procedural justice x LMX					-0.19	0.21
Interpersonal justice x LMX					0.05	0.21
Informational justice x LMX					0.00	0.23
Distributive justice x Ingroup identification					-0.01	0.19
Procedural justice x Ingroup identification					0.15	0.21
Interpersonal justice x Ingroup identification					-0.20	0.22
Informational justice x Ingroup identification					0.35	0.25
R^2	0.03		0.14		0.24	
ΔR^2	0.03		0.11		0.10	
ΔF	4.46*		2.90**		1.62†	

N=173; †p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Table B28. The moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship on trust in the organization in Chinese sample

Trust in the Organization	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.08	0.01	0.06	0.01	0.07
Negative affectivity	-0.22**	0.08	-0.09	0.06	-0.04	0.07
Distributive justice			0.21**	0.08	0.20*	0.08
Procedural justice			-0.01	0.09	-0.01	0.10
Interpersonal justice			0.06	0.09	0.15	0.12
Informational justice			0.22*	0.10	0.17	0.11
Guanxi			0.05	0.08	0.04	0.10
LMX			0.18	0.11	0.18	0.12
Ingroup identification			0.12	0.11	0.14	0.12
Distributive justice x Guanxi					0.11	0.12
Procedural justice x Guanxi					-0.09	0.13
Interpersonal justice x Guanxi					0.14	0.14
Informational justice x Guanxi					-0.12	0.15
Distributive justice x LMX					-0.07	0.15
Procedural justice x LMX					-0.20	0.17
Interpersonal justice x LMX					0.23	0.17
Informational justice x LMX					0.13	0.19
Distributive justice x Ingroup identification					0.00	0.16
Procedural justice x Ingroup identification					0.35*	0.17
Interpersonal justice x Ingroup identification					-0.21	0.18
Informational justice x Ingroup identification					-0.16	0.21
R^2	0.05		0.45		0.50	
ΔR^2	0.05		0.40		0.05	
ΔF	8.31**		16.46***		1.18	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Table B29. The moderating effects of supervisor-subordinate relationship on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample

Trust in the Supervisor	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Constant	0.00	0.08	0.00	0.06	-0.02	0.07
Negative affectivity	-0.20*	0.08	-0.05	0.07	-0.05	0.08
Distributive justice			0.25**	0.09	0.21*	0.09
Procedural justice			0.03	0.10	0.09	0.11
Interpersonal justice			-0.06	0.10	-0.11	0.13
Informational justice			-0.08	0.11	-0.07	0.12
Guanxi			0.16†	0.09	0.06	0.10
LMX			0.26*	0.12	0.27*	0.13
Ingroup identification			0.17	0.12	0.24†	0.13
Distributive justice x Guanxi					0.15	0.13
Procedural justice x Guanxi					-0.10	0.14
Interpersonal justice x Guanxi					0.10	0.15
Informational justice x Guanxi					0.07	0.16
Distributive justice x LMX					0.11	0.16
Procedural justice x LMX					-0.12	0.19
Interpersonal justice x LMX					-0.41*	0.19
Informational justice x LMX					0.26	0.20
Distributive justice x Ingroup identification					-0.18	0.17
Procedural justice x Ingroup identification					0.03	0.19
Interpersonal justice x Ingroup identification					0.37	0.20†
Informational justice x Ingroup identification					-0.22	0.23
R^2	0.04		0.35		0.40	
ΔR^2	0.04		0.31		0.05	
ΔF	6.58*		10.99***		1.03	

N=173; †p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Table B30. The moderating effects of cultural values on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
Job Satisfaction	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.01	0.06	0.00	0.07	-0.01	0.07
Negative affectivity	-0.30***	0.06	-0.13*	0.06	-0.13*	0.06
Distributive justice			0.14*	0.07	0.12	0.09
Procedural justice			0.13†	0.07	0.20*	0.10
Interpersonal justice			0.12	0.08	0.16	0.10
Informational justice			0.16*	0.08	0.22*	0.10
Individualism			-0.03	0.06	0.01	0.07
Collectivism			-0.07	0.06	-0.06	0.06
Power distance			0.01	0.09	0.05	0.09
Masculinity			0.05	0.06	-0.01	0.07
Long-term orientation			0.01	0.06	0.01	0.06
Uncertainty avoidance			0.07	0.06	0.08	0.07
Distributive justice x Individualism					0.01	0.08
Procedural justice x Individualism					0.15†	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Individualism					-0.37***	0.11
Informational justice x Individualism					0.12	0.11
Distributive justice x Collectivism					-0.13†	0.08
Procedural justice x Collectivism					0.17†	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Collectivism					-0.29**	0.10
Informational justice x Collectivism					0.19*	0.09
Distributive justice x Power distance					-0.06	0.11
Procedural justice x Power distance					-0.15	0.11
Interpersonal justice x Power distance					-0.08	0.12
Informational justice x Power distance					-0.08	0.12
Distributive justice x Masculinity					-0.04	0.10

Table B30. The moderating effects of cultural values on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample (continued)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
Job Satisfaction	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Procedural justice x Masculinity					0.02	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Masculinity					0.02	0.11
Informational justice x Masculinity					0.08	0.10
Distributive justice x Long-term orientation					0.00	0.07
Procedural justice x Long-term orientation					0.02	0.07
Interpersonal justice x Long-term orientation					-0.03	0.08
Informational justice x Long-term orientation					0.04	0.10
Distributive justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.02	0.09
Procedural justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.11	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.11	0.09
Informational justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.03	0.09
R^2	0.09		0.27		0.37	
ΔR^2	0.09		0.18		0.10	
ΔF	25.07***		6.14***		$1.50^{\dagger}$	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B31. The moderating effects of cultural values on affective commitment in the U.S. sample

Affective Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.01	0.06	0.02	0.07	0.00	0.07
Negative affectivity	-0.31***	0.06	-0.15*	0.06	-0.16*	0.06
Distributive justice			0.10	0.07	0.07	0.09
Procedural justice			0.13†	0.07	0.13	0.10
Interpersonal justice			0.17*	0.08	0.27*	0.10
Informational justice			0.16*	0.08	0.17†	0.10
Individualism			-0.01	0.06	-0.01	0.07
Collectivism			0.04	0.06	0.05	0.06
Power distance			-0.02	0.09	0.04	0.09
Masculinity			0.01	0.07	-0.04	0.07
Long-term orientation			-0.08	0.06	-0.08	0.06
Uncertainty avoidance			-0.07	0.07	-0.03	0.07
Distributive justice x Individualism					0.15*	0.08
Procedural justice x Individualism					0.09	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Individualism					-0.17	0.11
Informational justice x Individualism					0.08	0.11
Distributive justice x Collectivism					0.03	0.08
Procedural justice x Collectivism					0.00	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Collectivism					-0.14	0.10
Informational justice x Collectivism					0.12	0.09
Distributive justice x Power distance					-0.14	0.11
Procedural justice x Power distance					-0.08	0.11
Interpersonal justice x Power distance					-0.13	0.13
Informational justice x Power distance					-0.01	0.12
Distributive justice x Masculinity					-0.06	0.10

Table B31. The moderating effects of cultural values on affective commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	Model 1 B	Std. Error	Model 2 B	Std. Error	Model 3 B	Std. Error
Procedural justice x Masculinity					0.14	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Masculinity					0.05	0.11
Informational justice x Masculinity					0.01	0.10
Distributive justice x Long-term orientation					-0.11	0.07
Procedural justice x Long-term orientation					0.03	0.08
Interpersonal justice x Long-term orientation					-0.14	0.08
Informational justice x Long-term orientation					0.21*	0.10
Distributive justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.06	0.09
Procedural justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.04	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.14	0.09
Informational justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.03	0.09
R^2	0.10		0.25		0.35	
ΔR^2	0.10		0.16		0.10	
ΔF	27.36***		5.22***		1.46†	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B32. The moderating effects of cultural values on normative commitment in the U.S. sample

Normative Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.01	0.06	0.04	0.07	0.06	0.08
Negative affectivity	-0.18**	0.06	-0.01	0.06	-0.03	0.07
Distributive justice			-0.03	0.07	0.03	0.10
Procedural justice			0.24**	0.07	0.07	0.10
Interpersonal justice			0.13	0.08	0.12	0.11
Informational justice			0.10	0.08	0.22*	0.10
Individualism			-0.09	0.07	-0.09	0.07
Collectivism			0.09	0.07	0.09	0.07
Power distance			-0.08	0.09	-0.08	0.10
Masculinity			-0.05	0.07	-0.05	0.07
Long-term orientation			-0.05	0.06	-0.05	0.07
Uncertainty avoidance			0.01	0.07	0.07	0.07
Distributive justice x Individualism					0.03	0.08
Procedural justice x Individualism					0.24**	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Individualism					-0.12	0.12
Informational justice x Individualism					-0.03	0.11
Distributive justice x Collectivism					0.02	0.08
Procedural justice x Collectivism					0.13	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Collectivism					-0.04	0.10
Informational justice x Collectivism					-0.03	0.10
Distributive justice x Power distance					-0.23*	0.12
Procedural justice x Power distance					0.17	0.12
Interpersonal justice x Power distance					0.02	0.13
Informational justice x Power distance					-0.19	0.13
Distributive justice x Masculinity					-0.12	0.10

Table B32 The moderating effects of cultural values on normative commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	Model 1 B	Std. Error	Model 2 B	Std. Error	Model 3 B	Std. Error
Procedural justice x Masculinity					0.07	0.10
Interpersonal justice x Masculinity					-0.08	0.11
Informational justice x Masculinity					0.15	0.10
Distributive justice x Long-term orientation					-0.14†	0.07
Procedural justice x Long-term orientation					0.07	0.08
Interpersonal justice x Long-term orientation					-0.10	0.09
Informational justice x Long-term orientation					0.19†	0.10
Distributive justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.19*	0.09
Procedural justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.18*	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.18†	0.09
Informational justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.09	0.09
R^2	0.03		0.17		0.28	
ΔR^2	0.03		0.14		0.11	
ΔF	8.72**		4.03***		1.46†	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B33. The moderating effects of cultural values on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample

Continuance Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.01	0.06	-0.03	0.08	-0.01	0.09
Negative affectivity	0.17**	0.06	0.23***	0.07	0.22**	0.08
Distributive justice			-0.07	0.08	-0.17	0.10
Procedural justice			0.08	0.08	0.08	0.11
Interpersonal justice			0.13	0.09	0.18	0.12
Informational justice			0.00	0.09	0.06	0.11
Individualism			-0.06	0.07	-0.06	0.08
Collectivism			-0.03	0.07	-0.03	0.07
Power distance			0.07	0.10	0.09	0.11
Masculinity			-0.03	0.07	-0.02	0.08
Long-term orientation			0.01	0.07	0.03	0.07
Uncertainty avoidance			0.01	0.07	0.03	0.08
Distributive justice x Individualism					0.07	0.09
Procedural justice x Individualism					0.18†	0.10
Interpersonal justice x Individualism					0.06	0.13
Informational justice x Individualism					-0.23†	0.12
Distributive justice x Collectivism					0.01	0.09
Procedural justice x Collectivism					0.10	0.10
Interpersonal justice x Collectivism					0.01	0.11
Informational justice x Collectivism					-0.12	0.11
Distributive justice x Power distance					0.07	0.13
Procedural justice x Power distance					-0.08	0.13
Interpersonal justice x Power distance					-0.06	0.15
Informational justice x Power distance					-0.03	0.14
Distributive justice x Masculinity					0.03	0.11

Table B33. The moderating effects of cultural values on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Continuance Commitment	Model 1 B	Std. Error	Model 2 B	Std. Error	Model 3 B	Std. Error
Procedural justice x Masculinity					-0.08	0.11
Interpersonal justice x Masculinity					-0.04	0.13
Informational justice x Masculinity					0.14	0.11
Distributive justice x Long-term orientation					-0.20*	0.08
Procedural justice x Long-term orientation					0.18*	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Long-term orientation					-0.15	0.10
Informational justice x Long-term orientation					0.16	0.11
Distributive justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.06	0.10
Procedural justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.13	0.10
Interpersonal justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.21*	0.10
Informational justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.14	0.10
R^2	0.03		0.05		0.14	
ΔR^2	0.03		0.02		0.09	
ΔF	7.58**		0.60		0.94	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Table B34. The moderating effects of cultural values on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample

Trust in the Organization	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.06	-0.02	0.07	-0.02	0.07
Negative affectivity	-0.40***	0.06	-0.24***	0.06	-0.22***	0.06
Distributive justice			0.00	0.06	0.03	0.08
Procedural justice			0.17*	0.07	0.16†	0.09
Interpersonal justice			0.26***	0.07	0.25*	0.10
Informational justice			0.14†	0.07	0.21*	0.09
Individualism			-0.02	0.06	-0.01	0.07
Collectivism			-0.04	0.06	-0.01	0.06
Power distance			0.03	0.08	0.02	0.09
Masculinity			0.03	0.06	0.01	0.07
Long-term orientation			0.04	0.06	0.00	0.06
Uncertainty avoidance			-0.08	0.06	-0.04	0.07
Distributive justice x Individualism					0.13†	0.07
Procedural justice x Individualism					-0.09	0.08
Interpersonal justice x Individualism					-0.07	0.10
Informational justice x Individualism					0.06	0.10
Distributive justice x Collectivism					-0.10	0.07
Procedural justice x Collectivism					0.04	0.08
Interpersonal justice x Collectivism					-0.05	0.09
Informational justice x Collectivism					0.10	0.09
Distributive justice x Power distance					-0.18†	0.10
Procedural justice x Power distance					0.05	0.11
Interpersonal justice x Power distance					-0.07	0.12
Informational justice x Power distance					-0.13	0.11

Table B34. The moderating effects of cultural values on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Distributive justice x Masculinity					-0.30***	0.09
Procedural justice x Masculinity					0.09	0.09
Interpersonal justice x Masculinity					0.02	0.10
Informational justice x Masculinity					0.13	0.09
Distributive justice x Long-term orientation					-0.08	0.07
Procedural justice x Long-term orientation					0.03	0.07
Interpersonal justice x Long-term orientation					-0.02	0.08
Informational justice x Long-term orientation					0.14	0.09
Distributive justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.18*	0.08
Procedural justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.05	0.08
Interpersonal justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.01	0.08
Informational justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.02	0.08
R^2	0.16		0.34		0.45	
ΔR^2	0.16		0.18		0.11	
ΔF	48.29***		6.72***		1.91**	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p \leq 0.10$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

Table B35. The moderating effects of cultural values on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
Trust in the Supervisor	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.06	-0.02	0.07
Negative affectivity	-0.37***	0.06	-0.14**	0.05	-0.16**	0.06
Distributive justice			-0.06	0.06	-0.03	0.08
Procedural justice			0.20***	0.06	0.19*	0.09
Interpersonal justice			0.32***	0.07	0.41***	0.09
Informational justice			0.19**	0.07	0.07	0.09
Individualism			-0.06	0.06	-0.03	0.06
Collectivism			0.05	0.06	0.05	0.06
Power distance			0.00	0.08	0.01	0.08
Masculinity			-0.10†	0.06	-0.12†	0.06
Long-term orientation			0.06	0.05	0.05	0.06
Uncertainty avoidance			0.01	0.06	0.04	0.06
Distributive justice x Individualism					0.04	0.07
Procedural justice x Individualism					-0.03	0.08
Interpersonal justice x Individualism					-0.20*	0.10
Informational justice x Individualism					0.12	0.10
Distributive justice x Collectivism					0.02	0.07
Procedural justice x Collectivism					0.05	0.08
Interpersonal justice x Collectivism					-0.12	0.09
Informational justice x Collectivism					0.04	0.09
Distributive justice x Power distance					-0.12	0.10
Procedural justice x Power distance					-0.03	0.10
Interpersonal justice x Power distance					-0.17	0.11
Informational justice x Power distance					0.20†	0.11
Distributive justice x Masculinity					-0.04	0.09

Table B35. The moderating effects of cultural values on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample (continued)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
Trust in the Supervisor	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**		**B**
Procedural justice x Masculinity					0.03	0.08
Interpersonal justice x Masculinity					-0.03	0.10
Informational justice x Masculinity					-0.02	0.09
Distributive justice x Long-term orientation					-0.09	0.06
Procedural justice x Long-term orientation					0.01	0.07
Interpersonal justice x Long-term orientation					0.14†	0.08
Informational justice x Long-term orientation					-0.07	0.09
Distributive justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.09	0.08
Procedural justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.08	0.08
Interpersonal justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.06	0.08
Informational justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.04	0.08
R^2	0.14		0.42		0.49	
ΔR^2	0.14		0.28		0.07	
ΔF	40.73***		11.95***		1.27	

N=263; †p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Table B36. The moderating effects of cultural values on job satisfaction in Chinese sample

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
Job Satisfaction	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.07	0.01	0.09	0.03	0.10
Negative affectivity	-0.33***	0.07	-0.31***	0.07	-0.27***	0.07
Distributive justice			0.28**	0.09	0.33*	0.14
Procedural justice			-0.05	0.10	0.10	0.15
Interpersonal justice			-0.12	0.10	-0.02	0.16
Informational justice			0.30**	0.11	0.16	0.18
Individualism			-0.04	0.07	-0.08	0.08
Collectivism			0.08	0.08	0.04	0.09
Power distance			0.02	0.08	0.03	0.09
Masculinity			-0.05	0.08	0.00	0.08
Long-term orientation			0.14†	0.08	0.13	0.09
Uncertainty avoidance			0.07	0.08	0.03	0.09
Distributive justice x Individualism					-0.05	0.11
Procedural justice x Individualism					0.23*	0.12
Interpersonal justice x Individualism					0.01	0.16
Informational justice x Individualism					-0.08	0.15
Distributive justice x Collectivism					0.02	0.13
Procedural justice x Collectivism					-0.01	0.15
Interpersonal justice x Collectivism					0.09	0.16
Informational justice x Collectivism					-0.20	0.15
Distributive justice x Power distance					0.01	0.11
Procedural justice x Power distance					0.06	0.12
Interpersonal justice x Power distance					0.01	0.14
Informational justice x Power distance					0.00	0.14
Distributive justice x Masculinity					-0.15	0.12

Table B36. The moderating effects of cultural values on job satisfaction in Chinese sample (continued)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
Job Satisfaction	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Procedural justice x Masculinity					-0.21	0.14
Interpersonal justice x Masculinity					0.08	0.12
Informational justice x Masculinity					0.14	0.15
Distributive justice x Long-term orientation					-0.02	0.12
Procedural justice x Long-term orientation					-0.26†	0.14
Interpersonal justice x Long-term orientation					-0.13	0.17
Informational justice x Long-term orientation					0.25	0.17
Distributive justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.07	0.12
Procedural justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.13	0.15
Interpersonal justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.09	0.14
Informational justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.03	0.16
R^2	0.11		0.34		0.47	
ΔR^2	0.11		0.23		0.13	
ΔF	20.03***		5.23***		1.36	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B37. The moderating effects of cultural values on affective commitment in Chinese sample

Affective Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	-0.01	0.07	-0.04	0.09	0.00	0.10
Negative affectivity	-0.33***	0.07	-0.29***	0.07	-0.30***	0.07
Distributive justice			0.03	0.09	0.18	0.14
Procedural justice			0.05	0.10	0.10	0.15
Interpersonal justice			0.06	0.10	-0.15	0.17
Informational justice			0.39***	0.11	0.28	0.19
Individualism			-0.02	0.07	-0.07	0.08
Collectivism			-0.01	0.08	-0.05	0.09
Power distance			-0.04	0.07	-0.02	0.09
Masculinity			-0.04	0.08	-0.03	0.09
Long-term orientation			-0.02	0.08	0.03	0.09
Uncertainty avoidance			-0.05	0.08	0.00	0.09
Distributive justice x Individualism					-0.19	0.11
Procedural justice x Individualism					0.15	0.12
Interpersonal justice x Individualism					-0.04	0.16
Informational justice x Individualism					0.08	0.16
Distributive justice x Collectivism					0.01	0.14
Procedural justice x Collectivism					-0.09	0.16
Interpersonal justice x Collectivism					0.09	0.16
Informational justice x Collectivism					0.00	0.15
Distributive justice x Power distance					0.07	0.11
Procedural justice x Power distance					0.06	0.12
Interpersonal justice x Power distance					-0.30*	0.15
Informational justice x Power distance					0.01	0.15
Distributive justice x Masculinity					0.01	0.12

Table B37. The moderating effects of cultural values on affective commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	Model 1 B	Std. Error	Model 2 B	Std. Error	Model 3 B	Std. Error
Procedural justice * Masculinity					-0.10	0.15
Interpersonal justice * Masculinity					0.23†	0.12
Informational justice x Masculinity					-0.22	0.16
Distributive justice x Long-term orientation					-0.01	0.12
Procedural justice x Long-term orientation					-0.10	0.15
Interpersonal justice x Long-term orientation					-0.14	0.17
Informational justice x Long-term orientation					0.27	0.17
Distributive justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.08	0.13
Procedural justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.31*	0.15
Interpersonal justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.01	0.14
Informational justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.16	0.17
R^2	0.11		0.35		0.44	
ΔR^2	0.11		0.24		0.09	
ΔF	19.45***		5.69***		0.89	

N=173; †p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Table B38. The moderating effects of cultural values on normative commitment in Chinese sample

Normative Commitment	Model 1 B	Std. Error	Model 2 B	Std. Error	Model 3 B	Std. Error
Constant	0.00	0.08	0.06	0.08	0.01	0.10
Negative affectivity	-0.20*	0.08	-0.14*	0.07	-0.14†	0.07
Distributive justice			0.24**	0.09	0.31*	0.14
Procedural justice			0.06	0.10	0.10	0.15
Interpersonal justice			0.07	0.10	0.01	0.16
Informational justice			0.26*	0.11	0.22	0.19
Individualism			-0.05	0.07	-0.05	0.08
Collectivism			0.07	0.08	0.04	0.09
Power distance			0.09	0.07	0.04	0.09
Masculinity			-0.03	0.07	-0.01	0.08
Long-term orientation			0.02	0.08	0.02	0.09
Uncertainty avoidance			0.08	0.08	0.06	0.09
Distributive justice x Individualism					-0.05	0.11
Procedural justice x Individualism					-0.07	0.12
Interpersonal justice x Individualism					0.15	0.16
Informational justice x Individualism					0.01	0.15
Distributive justice x Collectivism					-0.08	0.13
Procedural justice x Collectivism					-0.06	0.15
Interpersonal justice x Collectivism					-0.13	0.16
Informational justice x Collectivism					0.22	0.15
Distributive justice x Power distance					-0.04	0.11
Procedural justice x Power distance					0.02	0.12
Interpersonal justice x Power distance					-0.06	0.15
Informational justice x Power distance					0.09	0.15
Distributive justice x Masculinity					-0.08	0.12

Table B38. The moderating effects of cultural values on normative commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	Model 1 B	Std. Error	Model 2 B	Std. Error	Model 3 B	Std. Error
Procedural justice x Masculinity					-0.18	0.15
Interpersonal justice x Masculinity					0.16	0.12
Informational justice x Masculinity					-0.03	0.15
Distributive justice x Long-term orientation					0.00	0.12
Procedural justice x Long-term orientation					-0.08	0.14
Interpersonal justice x Long-term orientation					-0.13	0.17
Informational justice x Long-term orientation					0.20	0.17
Distributive justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.01	0.12
Procedural justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.35*	0.15
Interpersonal justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.08	0.14
Informational justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.25	0.16
R^2	0.04		0.38		0.46	
ΔR^2	0.04		0.34		0.08	
ΔF	6.55*		8.44***		0.83	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B39. The moderating effects of cultural values on continuance commitment in Chinese sample

Continuance Commitment	Model 1 B	Std. Error	Model 2 B	Std. Error	Model 3 B	Std. Error
Constant	-0.11	0.08	-0.01	0.10	-0.07	0.12
Negative affectivity	0.17*	0.08	0.14†	0.08	0.21*	0.08
Distributive justice			0.32**	0.10	0.50**	0.16
Procedural justice			-0.17	0.11	-0.37*	0.17
Interpersonal justice			-0.10	0.12	-0.31†	0.19
Informational justice			0.11	0.12	0.42*	0.21
Individualism			0.06	0.08	0.10	0.09
Collectivism			0.04	0.09	-0.03	0.10
Power distance			0.14†	0.08	0.12	0.10
Masculinity			0.03	0.09	-0.03	0.10
Long-term orientation			0.04	0.09	0.05	0.10
Uncertainty avoidance			0.08	0.09	0.10	0.10
Distributive justice x Individualism					0.08	0.13
Procedural justice x Individualism					-0.01	0.14
Interpersonal justice x Individualism					0.34†	0.18
Informational justice x Individualism					-0.19	0.17
Distributive justice x Collectivism					0.23	0.15
Procedural justice x Collectivism					-0.19	0.17
Interpersonal justice x Collectivism					-0.20	0.18
Informational justice x Collectivism					0.07	0.17
Distributive justice x Power distance					0.17	0.13
Procedural justice x Power distance					-0.23†	0.13
Interpersonal justice x Power distance					-0.13	0.17
Informational justice x Power distance					0.20	0.17
Distributive justice x Masculinity					-0.05	0.13

Table B39. The moderating effects of cultural values on continuance commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Continuance Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Procedural justice x Masculinity					-0.07	0.16
Interpersonal justice x Masculinity					0.12	0.14
Informational justice x Masculinity					-0.11	0.17
Distributive justice x Long-term orientation					-0.34*	0.14
Procedural justice x Long-term orientation					0.13	0.16
Interpersonal justice x Long-term orientation					0.28	0.19
Informational justice x Long-term orientation					-0.07	0.19
Distributive justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.13	0.14
Procedural justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.06	0.17
Interpersonal justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.02	0.16
Informational justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.01	0.19
R^2	0.03		0.15		0.29	
ΔR^2	0.03		0.13		0.14	
ΔF	4.87*		2.29*		1.04	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B40. The moderating effects of cultural values on trust in the organization in Chinese sample

Trust in the Organization	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.08	-0.05	0.08	0.01	0.10
Negative affectivity	-0.22**	0.08	-0.17*	0.07	-0.15*	0.07
Distributive justice			0.18*	0.09	0.18	0.14
Procedural justice			0.00	0.10	0.10	0.15
Interpersonal justice			0.11	0.10	0.22	0.16
Informational justice			0.40***	0.11	0.21	0.18
Individualism			-0.03	0.07	-0.06	0.08
Collectivism			-0.02	0.07	-0.03	0.08
Power distance			-0.07	0.07	-0.03	0.09
Masculinity			-0.08	0.07	-0.10	0.08
Long-term orientation			-0.01	0.08	-0.02	0.09
Uncertainty avoidance			-0.01	0.08	-0.05	0.09
Distributive justice x Individualism					-0.05	0.11
Procedural justice x Individualism					0.12	0.12
Interpersonal justice x Individualism					-0.01	0.16
Informational justice x Individualism					-0.01	0.15
Distributive justice x Collectivism					-0.04	0.13
Procedural justice x Collectivism					0.09	0.15
Interpersonal justice x Collectivism					-0.11	0.15
Informational justice x Collectivism					-0.01	0.15
Distributive justice x Power distance					0.06	0.11
Procedural justice x Power distance					0.02	0.11
Interpersonal justice x Power distance					0.02	0.14
Informational justice x Power distance					-0.12	0.14
Distributive justice x Masculinity					0.18	0.11

Table B40. The moderating effects of cultural values on trust in the organization in Chinese sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Procedural justice * Masculinity					-0.23	0.14
Interpersonal justice * Masculinity					0.12	0.12
Informational justice x Masculinity					-0.07	0.15
Distributive justice x Long-term orientation					-0.05	0.12
Procedural justice x Long-term orientation					0.08	0.14
Interpersonal justice x Long-term orientation					-0.23	0.16
Informational justice x Long-term orientation					0.17	0.17
Distributive justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.02	0.12
Procedural justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.04	0.15
Interpersonal justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.08	0.14
Informational justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.07	0.16
R^2	0.05		0.41		0.49	
ΔR^2	0.05		0.36		0.08	
ΔF	8.28**		9.47***		0.84	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Table B41. The moderating effects of cultural values on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample

Trust in the Supervisor	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.01	0.08	-0.11	0.09	-0.14	0.10
Negative affectivity	-0.19*	0.08	-0.17*	0.07	-0.18*	0.08
Distributive justice			0.19†	0.10	0.05	0.14
Procedural justice			0.08	0.11	0.24	0.15
Interpersonal justice			0.02	0.11	0.28†	0.17
Informational justice			0.18	0.12	-0.03	0.19
Individualism			0.02	0.08	-0.01	0.08
Collectivism			-0.05	0.08	-0.03	0.09
Power distance			-0.16*	0.08	-0.20*	0.09
Masculinity			0.08	0.08	0.11	0.09
Long-term orientation			-0.09	0.09	-0.05	0.09
Uncertainty avoidance			-0.03	0.09	-0.09	0.09
Distributive justice x Individualism					0.06	0.11
Procedural justice x Individualism					-0.12	0.12
Interpersonal justice x Individualism					-0.28†	0.17
Informational justice x Individualism					0.23	0.16
Distributive justice x Collectivism					-0.18	0.14
Procedural justice x Collectivism					0.31†	0.16
Interpersonal justice x Collectivism					-0.24	0.16
Informational justice x Collectivism					0.16	0.15
Distributive justice x Power distance					-0.23†	0.12
Procedural justice x Power distance					0.18	0.12
Interpersonal justice x Power distance					0.16	0.15
Informational justice x Power distance					-0.01	0.15
Distributive justice x Masculinity					-0.12	0.12

Table B41. The moderating effects of cultural values on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample (continued)

Trust in the Supervisor	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Procedural justice x Masculinity					-0.40**	0.15
Interpersonal justice x Masculinity					0.25*	0.13
Informational justice x Masculinity					-0.11	0.16
Distributive justice x Long-term orientation					0.11	0.13
Procedural justice x Long-term orientation					-0.24	0.15
Interpersonal justice x Long-term orientation					0.02	0.17
Informational justice x Long-term orientation					0.16	0.18
Distributive justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.05	0.13
Procedural justice x Uncertainty avoidance					0.24	0.15
Interpersonal justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.09	0.14
Informational justice x Uncertainty avoidance					-0.12	0.17
R^2	0.04		0.22		0.41	
ΔR^2	0.04		0.18		0.19	
ΔF	6.51*		3.57***		1.79*	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Table B42. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
Job Satisfaction	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.01	0.06	0.00	0.07	-0.10	0.08	0.02	0.10
Negative affectivity	-0.30***	0.06	-0.10†	0.06	-0.07	0.06	-0.13†	0.07
Distributive justice			0.16*	0.07	0.21*	0.09	0.16	0.12
Procedural justice			0.10	0.07	0.15	0.10	0.12	0.13
Interpersonal justice			0.00	0.08	-0.02	0.11	0.21	0.16
Informational justice			0.08	0.08	0.21†	0.11	0.06	0.17
Guanxi			0.04	0.07	0.11	0.07	0.04	0.10
LMX			0.01	0.10	-0.01	0.11	-0.08	0.16
Ingroup identification			0.27**	0.10	0.30**	0.10	0.39**	0.13
Individualism			-0.03	0.06	-0.03	0.07	0.03	0.10
Collectivism			-0.07	0.06	-0.13*	0.06	0.03	0.10
Power distance			0.03	0.09	0.14	0.09	0.05	0.13
Masculinity			0.06	0.06	-0.01	0.07	-0.03	0.09
Long-term orientation			0.00	0.06	0.03	0.06	0.04	0.08
Uncertainty avoidance			0.08	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.11	0.09
Distributive justice * Guanxi					0.31***	0.09	-0.09	0.17
Procedural justice * Guanxi					-0.06	0.09	0.31	0.21
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi					0.04	0.12	-0.21	0.21
Informational justice * Guanxi					-0.21†	0.12	0.11	0.22
Distributive justice * LMX					-0.07	0.14	-0.04	0.24
Procedural justice * LMX					0.00	0.15	-0.08	0.26
Interpersonal justice * LMX					-0.09	0.16	0.75*	0.34
Informational justice * LMX					0.11	0.14	-0.35	0.24
Distributive justice * Ingroup identification					-0.16	0.12	-0.10	0.27
Procedural justice * Ingroup identification					0.00	0.12	-0.19	0.27

Table B42. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample (continued)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
Job Satisfaction	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup identification					0.03	0.13	-0.38	0.26
Informational justice * Ingroup identification					0.16	0.14	0.15	0.23
Distributive justice * Individualism					-0.01	0.08	0.04	0.12
Procedural justice * Individualism					0.11	0.09	0.09	0.14
Interpersonal justice * Individualism					-0.42***	0.11	-0.18	0.15
Informational justice * Individualism					0.20†	0.11	-0.07	0.16
Distributive justice * Collectivism					-0.15†	0.08	-0.04	0.13
Procedural justice * Collectivism					0.14	0.10	0.09	0.13
Interpersonal justice * Collectivism					-0.33**	0.10	-0.35*	0.15
Informational justice * Collectivism					0.25*	0.10	0.21	0.15
Distributive justice * Power distance					-0.10	0.11	0.06	0.17
Procedural justice * Power distance					-0.11	0.12	-0.14	0.16
Interpersonal justice * Power distance					0.01	0.13	-0.30	0.21
Informational justice * Power distance					-0.14	0.12	0.04	0.21
Distributive justice * Masculinity					0.01	0.10	0.04	0.14
Procedural justice * Masculinity					0.05	0.09	0.05	0.12
Interpersonal justice * Masculinity					0.14	0.12	-0.02	0.17
Informational justice * Masculinity					-0.03	0.10	0.12	0.14
Distributive justice * Long-term orientation					0.06	0.07	0.02	0.10
Procedural justice * Long-term orientation					0.00	0.07	0.02	0.10
Interpersonal justice * Long-term orientation					-0.03	0.09	-0.12	0.14
Informational justice * Long-term orientation					0.02	0.10	0.12	0.14
Distributive justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.02	0.09	-0.01	0.14
Procedural justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.14	0.09	-0.10	0.13
Interpersonal justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.09	0.09	0.37*	0.15

Table B42. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample (continued)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
Job Satisfaction	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Informational justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.03	0.09	-0.33*	0.16
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.04	0.15
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.04	0.17
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.03	0.19
Informational justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.21	0.18
Distributive justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.28	0.28
Procedural justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.15	0.30
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Individualism							0.38	0.30
Informational justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.35	0.26
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.06	0.25
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.18	0.22
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.11	0.35
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.18	0.31
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.02	0.12
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.07	0.16
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.32†	0.19
Informational justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.39*	0.20

Table B42. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample (continued)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
Job Satisfaction	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Distributive justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.16	0.19
Procedural justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.26	0.21
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.13	0.29
Informational justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.05	0.24
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.09	0.21
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.08	0.19
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.30	0.26
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.36	0.24
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.54*	0.23
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.48†	0.24
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.34	0.27
Informational justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.36	0.30
Distributive justice * LMX * Power distance							0.04	0.32
Procedural justice * LMX * Power distance							0.06	0.29
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.68	0.42
Informational justice * LMX * Power distance							0.54†	0.31
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.06	0.30

Table B42. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample (continued)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
Job Satisfaction	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.37	0.31
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.40	0.36
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.41	0.31
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.20	0.16
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.04	0.16
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.06	0.24
Informational justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.06	0.19
Distributive justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.45	0.29
Procedural justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.19	0.26
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.09	0.33
Informational justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.06	0.23
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.25	0.23
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.10	0.20
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.11	0.26
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.13	0.23
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.09	0.15
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.03	0.14
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.06	0.18

Table B42. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample (continued)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
Job Satisfaction	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Informational justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.11	0.21
Distributive justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.47*	0.22
Procedural justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.29	0.20
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.02	0.28
Informational justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.05	0.29
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.27	0.19
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.22	0.17
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.04	0.21
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.02	0.21
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.09	0.17
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.20	0.15
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.06	0.20
Informational justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.17	0.22
Distributive justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.27	0.26
Procedural justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.16	0.21

Table B42. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample (continued)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
Job Satisfaction	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.28	0.26
Informational justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.28	0.27
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.41†	0.24
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.18	0.21
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.24	0.28
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.12	0.23
R^2	0.09		0.32		0.48		0.69	
ΔR^2	0.09		0.22		0.16		0.21	
ΔF	26.21***		6.13***		1.77**		1.28	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B43. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in the U.S. sample

Affective Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.02	0.06	0.01	0.07	-0.09	0.08	0.03	0.09
Negative affectivity	-0.32***	0.06	-0.12*	0.06	-0.09	0.06	-0.11	0.07
Distributive justice			0.12†	0.06	0.14	0.09	0.05	0.11
Procedural justice			0.07	0.07	0.06	0.10	0.00	0.12
Interpersonal justice			0.03	0.08	0.13	0.11	0.42**	0.15
Informational justice			0.05	0.08	0.11	0.11	-0.18	0.16
Guanxi			0.20**	0.06	0.16*	0.07	0.14	0.09
LMX			0.00	0.10	-0.04	0.10	-0.18	0.15
Ingroup identification			0.26**	0.09	0.36***	0.10	0.52***	0.12
Individualism			-0.02	0.06	-0.03	0.07	0.09	0.10
Collectivism			0.00	0.06	-0.01	0.06	0.18†	0.09
Power distance			0.00	0.08	0.10	0.09	-0.06	0.12
Masculinity			0.04	0.06	-0.01	0.07	-0.13	0.09
Long-term orientation			-0.10†	0.05	-0.07	0.06	-0.07	0.08
Uncertainty avoidance			-0.05	0.06	-0.08	0.07	-0.02	0.09
Distributive justice * Guanxi					0.10	0.09	-0.10	0.16
Procedural justice * Guanxi					0.02	0.09	0.08	0.19
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi					0.11	0.12	-0.31	0.20
Informational justice * Guanxi					-0.11	0.12	0.42*	0.21
Distributive justice * LMX					-0.06	0.14	0.16	0.23
Procedural justice * LMX					-0.04	0.15	-0.44†	0.25
Interpersonal justice * LMX					-0.03	0.15	1.06***	0.32
Informational justice * LMX					0.05	0.14	-0.42†	0.23
Distributive justice * Ingroup identification					-0.04	0.12	-0.05	0.25

Table B43. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Procedural justice * Ingroup identification					0.13	0.12	0.40	0.26
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup identification					-0.03	0.13	-0.39	0.24
Informational justice * Ingroup identification					0.10	0.14	-0.16	0.22
Distributive justice * Individualism					0.13	0.08	0.09	0.11
Procedural justice * Individualism					0.06	0.09	-0.10	0.14
Interpersonal justice * Individualism					-0.21†	0.11	0.03	0.14
Informational justice * Individualism					0.11	0.11	-0.10	0.15
Distributive justice * Collectivism					0.01	0.08	0.08	0.12
Procedural justice * Collectivism					-0.04	0.10	-0.18	0.12
Interpersonal justice * Collectivism					-0.15	0.10	-0.02	0.14
Informational justice * Collectivism					0.13	0.10	0.01	0.14
Distributive justice * Power distance					-0.21†	0.11	-0.02	0.16
Procedural justice * Power distance					0.05	0.12	0.19	0.15
Interpersonal justice * Power distance					-0.02	0.13	-0.23	0.20
Informational justice * Power distance					-0.10	0.12	0.05	0.20
Distributive justice * Masculinity					-0.06	0.10	-0.04	0.13
Procedural justice * Masculinity					0.12	0.09	0.20†	0.11
Interpersonal justice * Masculinity					0.15	0.12	-0.01	0.16
Informational justice * Masculinity					-0.05	0.10	-0.02	0.13
Distributive justice * Long-term orientation					-0.06	0.07	-0.01	0.10
Procedural justice * Long-term orientation					0.03	0.07	0.06	0.09
Interpersonal justice * Long-term orientation					-0.17†	0.09	-0.12	0.13

Table B43. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Informational justice * Long-term orientation					0.17†	0.10	0.15	0.13
Distributive justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.14	0.09	0.11	0.13
Procedural justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.14	0.09	-0.07	0.12
Interpersonal justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.14†	0.08	0.31*	0.14
Informational justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.05	0.09	-0.24	0.15
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.19	0.15
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.25	0.16
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.25	0.17
Informational justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.38*	0.17
Distributive justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.45†	0.26
Procedural justice * LMX * Individualism							0.03	0.28
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Individualism							0.32	0.29
Informational justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.24	0.25
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.19	0.23
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.25	0.20

Table B43. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.02	0.33
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.09	0.29
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.06	0.11
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.02	0.15
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.36*	0.18
Informational justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.34†	0.19
Distributive justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.32†	0.18
Procedural justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.06	0.20
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.08	0.27
Informational justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.13	0.23
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.50*	0.20
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.22	0.18
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.15	0.24
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.37†	0.22
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.37†	0.22
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.08	0.23

Table B43. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.36	0.26
Informational justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.43	0.28
Distributive justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.27	0.30
Procedural justice * LMX * Power distance							0.29	0.27
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.70†	0.40
Informational justice * LMX * Power distance							0.24	0.29
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.30	0.28
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.22	0.29
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.25	0.34
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.09	0.29
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.21	0.15
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.01	0.15
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.05	0.22
Informational justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.13	0.18
Distributive justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.31	0.27
Procedural justice * LMX *Masculinity							-0.04	0.24

Table B43. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.41	0.31
Informational justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.18	0.21
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.09	0.22
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.06	0.19
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.33	0.25
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.03	0.22
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.11	0.14
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.08	0.13
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.04	0.17
Informational justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.18	0.20
Distributive justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.12	0.21
Procedural justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.33†	0.19
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.29	0.26
Informational justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.26	0.27
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.10	0.18

Table B43. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.16	0.16
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.26	0.20
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.07	0.20
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.12	0.16
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.03	0.14
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.13	0.19
Informational justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.09	0.21
Distributive justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.07	0.24
Procedural justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.29	0.20
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.10	0.24
Informational justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.25	0.26
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.47*	0.22
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.25	0.20

Table B43. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.24	0.26
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.16	0.22
R^2	0.10		0.35		0.47		0.72	
ΔR^2	0.10		0.25		0.12		0.25	
ΔF	29.48***		7.26***		1.26		1.67**	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Table B44. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in the U.S. sample

Normative Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.02	0.06	0.05	0.07	0.01	0.09	-0.01	0.11
Negative affectivity	-0.19**	0.06	0.01	0.06	-0.03	0.07	-0.02	0.08
Distributive justice			-0.01	0.07	0.12	0.10	0.07	0.13
Procedural justice			0.20**	0.07	-0.02	0.11	-0.06	0.14
Interpersonal justice			0.04	0.09	-0.05	0.12	0.00	0.18
Informational justice			0.04	0.09	0.25*	0.12	0.06	0.19
Guanxi			0.18*	0.07	0.15+	0.08	0.18+	0.11
LMX			-0.04	0.11	-0.05	0.11	-0.14	0.17
Ingroup identification			0.15	0.10	0.18	0.11	0.36*	0.14
Individualism			-0.09	0.06	-0.12	0.08	-0.07	0.11
Collectivism			0.06	0.07	0.00	0.07	0.12	0.11
Power distance			-0.07	0.09	-0.04	0.10	-0.02	0.15
Masculinity			-0.03	0.07	-0.02	0.08	-0.09	0.10
Long-term orientation			-0.06	0.06	-0.06	0.07	-0.11	0.09
Uncertainty avoidance			0.04	0.07	0.06	0.08	0.00	0.10
Distributive justice * Guanxi					0.11	0.10	-0.24	0.18
Procedural justice * Guanxi					0.07	0.10	0.17	0.23
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi					0.18	0.13	0.00	0.23
Informational justice * Guanxi					-0.15	0.13	-0.04	0.24
Distributive justice * LMX					-0.16	0.15	-0.19	0.27
Procedural justice * LMX					0.14	0.16	0.00	0.29
Interpersonal justice * LMX					-0.23	0.17	0.50	0.37
Informational justice * LMX					0.13	0.16	-0.22	0.27
Distributive justice * Ingroup identification					0.01	0.13	0.44	0.30
Procedural justice * Ingroup identification					-0.05	0.13	0.01	0.30

Table B44. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup identification					0.05	0.14	-0.17	0.29
Informational justice * Ingroup identification					0.05	0.15	-0.05	0.26
Distributive justice * Individualism					0.00	0.09	-0.11	0.13
Procedural justice * Individualism					0.20*	0.10	0.23	0.16
Interpersonal justice * Individualism					-0.16	0.12	-0.10	0.17
Informational justice * Individualism					0.01	0.11	-0.08	0.18
Distributive justice * Collectivism					0.02	0.09	0.02	0.14
Procedural justice * Collectivism					0.07	0.11	0.06	0.15
Interpersonal justice * Collectivism					0.01	0.11	-0.06	0.17
Informational justice * Collectivism					-0.08	0.11	-0.11	0.16
Distributive justice * Power distance					-0.34**	0.12	-0.20	0.19
Procedural justice * Power distance					0.31*	0.12	0.38*	0.17
Interpersonal justice * Power distance					0.16	0.14	0.11	0.23
Informational justice * Power distance					-0.31*	0.13	-0.16	0.23
Distributive justice * Masculinity					-0.10	0.10	0.00	0.15
Procedural justice * Masculinity					0.06	0.10	0.01	0.13
Interpersonal justice * Masculinity					0.01	0.13	-0.02	0.18
Informational justice * Masculinity					0.08	0.11	0.07	0.15
Distributive justice * Long-term orientation					-0.12	0.08	-0.01	0.11
Procedural justice * Long-term orientation					0.10	0.08	0.05	0.11
Interpersonal justice * Long-term orientation					-0.12	0.09	-0.23	0.15

Table B44. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Informational justice * Long-term orientation					0.18	0.11	0.17	0.15
Distributive justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.28**	0.10	0.15	0.15
Procedural justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.29**	0.10	-0.26+	0.14
Interpersonal justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.12	0.09	0.23	0.16
Informational justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.04	0.10	-0.11	0.17
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.21	0.17
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.08	0.18
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.16	0.20
Informational justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.13	0.19
Distributive justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.25	0.31
Procedural justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.16	0.33
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Individualism							0.70*	0.33
Informational justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.53+	0.29
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.14	0.27

Table B44. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.37	0.24
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.59	0.38
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.61+	0.34
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.18	0.13
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.23	0.18
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.09	0.21
Informational justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.26	0.22
Distributive justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.00	0.21
Procedural justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.19	0.23
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.06	0.32
Informational justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.16	0.27
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.07	0.23
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.00	0.21
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.03	0.28
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.09	0.26
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.35	0.26

Table B44. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.14	0.27
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.25	0.30
Informational justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.08	0.33
Distributive justice * LMX * Power distance							0.22	0.35
Procedural justice * LMX * Power distance							0.01	0.32
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.43	0.47
Informational justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.03	0.34
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.22	0.33
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.10	0.34
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.32	0.40
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.11	0.34
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.12	0.18
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.16	0.17
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.01	0.26
Informational justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.25	0.21
Distributive justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.27	0.32

Table B44. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Procedural justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.11	0.29
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.15	0.36
Informational justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.32	0.25
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.21	0.26
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.44*	0.22
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.26	0.29
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.17	0.25
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.10	0.16
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.02	0.16
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.04	0.20
Informational justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.06	0.23
Distributive justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.11	0.24
Procedural justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.10	0.22
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.40	0.31
Informational justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.21	0.31
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.25	0.21

Table B44. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.06	0.19
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.32	0.23
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.08	0.24
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.08	0.19
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.14	0.17
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.15	0.22
Informational justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.23	0.24
Distributive justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.19	0.28
Procedural justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.05	0.23
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.00	0.29
Informational justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.32	0.30
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.28	0.26

Table B44. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.16	0.23
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.06	0.31
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.05	0.25
R^2	0.04		0.21		0.38		0.62	
ΔR^2	0.04		0.18		0.17		0.24	
ΔF	9.76**		4.21***		1.54*		1.16	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Table B45. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample

Continuance Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.01	0.06	-0.04	0.08	0.03	0.10	0.07	0.13
Negative affectivity	0.17**	0.06	0.23***	0.07	0.20*	0.08	0.21*	0.09
Distributive justice			-0.07	0.08	-0.16	0.11	-0.11	0.15
Procedural justice			0.07	0.08	0.04	0.12	-0.02	0.17
Interpersonal justice			0.14	0.10	0.08	0.14	-0.19	0.21
Informational justice			-0.03	0.10	0.10	0.14	0.18	0.21
Guanxi			0.06	0.08	0.11	0.09	-0.02	0.12
LMX			0.05	0.12	0.02	0.13	0.12	0.20
Ingroup identification			-0.04	0.12	-0.10	0.13	-0.10	0.16
Individualism			-0.06	0.07	-0.10	0.09	0.11	0.13
Collectivism			-0.04	0.07	-0.07	0.08	0.14	0.12
Power distance			0.08	0.10	0.14	0.11	0.16	0.17
Masculinity			-0.02	0.08	0.01	0.09	-0.04	0.12
Long-term orientation			0.02	0.07	0.02	0.08	-0.07	0.10
Uncertainty avoidance			0.01	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.03	0.12
Distributive justice * Guanxi					0.15	0.11	-0.10	0.21
Procedural justice * Guanxi					-0.15	0.12	0.04	0.26
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi					0.20	0.15	0.42	0.27
Informational justice * Guanxi					-0.19	0.14	-0.63*	0.28
Distributive justice * LMX					-0.11	0.17	-0.34	0.31
Procedural justice * LMX					0.21	0.18	0.25	0.33
Interpersonal justice * LMX					-0.07	0.19	0.10	0.43
Informational justice * LMX					0.17	0.18	0.33	0.31
Distributive justice * Ingroup identification					-0.10	0.15	0.52	0.34

Table B45. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Continuance Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Procedural justice * Ingroup identification					-0.05	0.15	-0.21	0.34
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup identification					-0.13	0.17	-0.18	0.33
Informational justice * Ingroup identification					-0.11	0.17	-0.36	0.29
Distributive justice * Individualism					0.01	0.10	0.04	0.15
Procedural justice * Individualism					0.25*	0.12	0.41*	0.18
Interpersonal justice * Individualism					-0.01	0.14	-0.08	0.19
Informational justice * Individualism					-0.20	0.13	-0.47*	0.21
Distributive justice * Collectivism					-0.05	0.10	-0.06	0.16
Procedural justice * Collectivism					0.13	0.12	0.18	0.17
Interpersonal justice * Collectivism					-0.08	0.13	-0.31	0.19
Informational justice * Collectivism					-0.07	0.13	-0.05	0.19
Distributive justice * Power distance					0.12	0.14	0.19	0.21
Procedural justice * Power distance					-0.11	0.14	-0.09	0.20
Interpersonal justice * Power distance					-0.03	0.16	0.37	0.27
Informational justice * Power distance					-0.05	0.15	-0.11	0.26
Distributive justice * Masculinity					0.08	0.12	0.11	0.17
Procedural justice * Masculinity					-0.08	0.11	-0.07	0.15
Interpersonal justice * Masculinity					0.07	0.15	0.07	0.21
Informational justice * Masculinity					0.05	0.12	0.03	0.18
Distributive justice * Long-term orientation					-0.17^{+}	0.09	-0.14	0.13
Procedural justice * Long-term orientation					0.18^{+}	0.09	0.05	0.13
Interpersonal justice * Long-term orientation					-0.17	0.11	-0.21	0.18
Informational justice * Long-term orientation					0.23^{+}	0.12	0.38*	0.17
Distributive justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.06	0.11	-0.05	0.17
Procedural justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.12	0.11	-0.06	0.16

Table B45. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Continuance Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Interpersonal justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.18^{+}	0.11	0.20	0.19
Informational justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.11	0.12	-0.09	0.20
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.16	0.20
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.08	0.21
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.23	0.23
Informational justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.13	0.22
Distributive justice * LMX * Individualism							0.06	0.36
Procedural justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.35	0.37
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Individualism							0.71^{+}	0.38
Informational justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.37	0.33
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.31	0.31
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.16	0.27
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.38	0.44
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.49	0.39
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.16	0.15
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.26	0.21
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.01	0.24
Informational justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.03	0.25
Distributive justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.02	0.24
Procedural justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.18	0.27
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.03	0.36

Table B45. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Continuance Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Informational justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.16	0.31
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.06	0.26
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.20	0.25
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.03	0.33
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.06	0.30
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.33	0.29
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.27	0.31
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.32	0.35
Informational justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.53	0.38
Distributive justice * LMX * Power distance							0.37	0.41
Procedural justice * LMX * Power distance							0.04	0.36
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.29	0.54
Informational justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.22	0.39
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.52	0.38
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.03	0.39
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.42	0.45
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.06	0.39
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.06	0.20
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.02	0.20
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.07	0.30

Table B45. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Continuance Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Informational justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.28	0.24
Distributive justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.27	0.36
Procedural justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.03	0.33
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.20	0.41
Informational justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.22	0.29
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.59*	0.29
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.26	0.25
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.25	0.33
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.34	0.29
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.00	0.19
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.03	0.18
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.39^{+}	0.23
Informational justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.33	0.27
Distributive justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.48^{+}	0.28
Procedural justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.16	0.26

Table B45. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Continuance Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.60^{+}	0.36
Informational justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.18	0.36
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.42^{+}	0.24
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.03	0.21
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.88***	0.27
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.10	0.27
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.18	0.22
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.22	0.19
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.06	0.26
Informational justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.22	0.28
Distributive justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.40	0.33
Procedural justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.51^{+}	0.26
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.23	0.33

Table B45. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample (continued)

Continuance Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Informational justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.07	0.35
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.12	0.30
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.37	0.27
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.45	0.36
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.11	0.29
R^2	0.03		0.06		0.20		0.50	
ΔR^2	0.03		0.03		0.15		0.30	
ΔF	7.56**		0.54		1.08		1.14	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Table B46. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample

Trust in the Organization	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.06	-0.03	0.07	-0.10	0.08	-0.16^{+}	0.09
Negative affectivity	-0.40***	0.06	-0.21***	0.06	-0.20***	0.06	-0.26***	0.07
Distributive justice			0.01	0.06	0.00	0.09	-0.04	0.11
Procedural justice			0.14*	0.07	0.16^{+}	0.09	0.10	0.12
Interpersonal justice			0.17*	0.08	0.24*	0.10	0.46**	0.15
Informational justice			0.05	0.08	0.09	0.11	-0.17	0.16
Guanxi			0.01	0.06	-0.07	0.07	0.00	0.09
LMX			0.10	0.10	0.05	0.10	-0.02	0.15
Ingroup identification			0.15	0.10	0.27**	0.10	0.24*	0.12
Individualism			-0.02	0.06	-0.01	0.07	-0.03	0.10
Collectivism			-0.05	0.06	-0.03	0.06	0.00	0.09
Power distance			0.06	0.08	0.06	0.09	0.03	0.12
Masculinity			0.03	0.06	0.01	0.07	-0.04	0.09
Long-term orientation			0.04	0.06	0.03	0.06	0.03	0.08
Uncertainty avoidance			-0.08	0.06	-0.13^{+}	0.07	-0.14	0.09
Distributive justice * Guanxi					-0.06	0.09	-0.27^{+}	0.16
Procedural justice * Guanxi					0.14	0.09	0.45*	0.19
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi					0.20^{+}	0.12	0.04	0.20
Informational justice * Guanxi					-0.17	0.11	-0.07	0.21
Distributive justice * LMX					-0.05	0.13	0.20	0.23
Procedural justice * LMX					-0.08	0.14	-0.49*	0.24
Interpersonal justice * LMX					0.23	0.15	0.83**	0.32
Informational justice * LMX					-0.16	0.14	-0.36	0.23

Table B46. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Distributive justice * Ingroup identification					0.02	0.12	-0.35	0.25
Procedural justice * Ingroup identification					0.03	0.12	0.28	0.25
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup identification					-0.32*	0.13	-0.48*	0.24
Informational justice * Ingroup identification					0.43***	0.13	0.48*	0.22
Distributive justice * Individualism					0.15^{+}	0.08	0.23*	0.11
Procedural justice * Individualism					-0.15^{+}	0.09	-0.16	0.14
Interpersonal justice * Individualism					-0.11	0.10	0.05	0.14
Informational justice * Individualism					0.11	0.10	0.07	0.15
Distributive justice * Collectivism					-0.08	0.08	0.01	0.12
Procedural justice * Collectivism					-0.03	0.09	0.00	0.12
Interpersonal justice * Collectivism					-0.17^{+}	0.10	-0.20	0.14
Informational justice * Collectivism					0.21*	0.10	0.24^{+}	0.14
Distributive justice * Power distance					-0.22*	0.11	-0.11	0.16
Procedural justice * Power distance					0.14	0.11	0.17	0.15

Table B46. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Interpersonal justice * Power distance					-0.06	0.13	-0.28	0.20
Informational justice * Power distance					-0.16	0.12	0.19	0.19
Distributive justice * Masculinity					-0.35***	0.09	-0.24^{+}	0.13
Procedural justice * Masculinity					0.12	0.09	0.05	0.11
Interpersonal justice * Masculinity					0.20	0.12	0.09	0.16
Informational justice * Masculinity					0.02	0.10	-0.02	0.13
Distributive justice * Long-term orientation					-0.02	0.07	-0.08	0.10
Procedural justice * Long-term orientation					0.00	0.07	0.09	0.09
Interpersonal justice * Long-term orientation					-0.08	0.08	-0.18	0.13
Informational justice * Long-term orientation					0.10	0.09	0.02	0.13
Distributive justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.23**	0.08	0.02	0.13
Procedural justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.09	0.08	0.05	0.12
Interpersonal justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.00	0.08	0.20	0.14
Informational justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.00	0.09	-0.12	0.15

Table B46. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.22	0.15
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.02	0.15
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.22	0.17
Informational justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.00	0.16
Distributive justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.42	0.26
Procedural justice * LMX * Individualism							0.15	0.28
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Individualism							0.07	0.28
Informational justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.12	0.25
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.02	0.23
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.12	0.20
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.00	0.33
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.10	0.29
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.09	0.11
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.03	0.15

Table B46. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.32^{+}	0.18
Informational justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.27	0.18
Distributive justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.07	0.18
Procedural justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.08	0.20
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.05	0.27
Informational justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.09	0.23
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.10	0.20
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.05	0.18
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.29	0.24
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.23	0.22
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.08	0.22
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.25	0.23
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.18	0.26
Informational justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.04	0.28

Table B46. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Distributive justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.16	0.30
Procedural justice * LMX * Power distance							0.28	0.27
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.47	0.40
Informational justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.01	0.29
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.40	0.28
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.18	0.29
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.17	0.34
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.15	0.29
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.03	0.15
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.17	0.15
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.05	0.22
Informational justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.01	0.18
Distributive justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.63*	0.27
Procedural justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.06	0.24

Table B46. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.11	0.31
Informational justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.15	0.21
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.55*	0.22
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.12	0.19
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.18	0.25
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.38^{+}	0.22
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.24^{+}	0.14
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.13	0.13
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.00	0.17
Informational justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.07	0.20
Distributive justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.42*	0.21
Procedural justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.32	0.19
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.16	0.26
Informational justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.06	0.27

Table B46. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.15	0.18
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.38*	0.16
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.16	0.20
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.12	0.20
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.29^{+}	0.16
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.36*	0.14
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.16	0.19
Informational justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.00	0.21
Distributive justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.41^{+}	0.24
Procedural justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.09	0.20
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.57*	0.24
Informational justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.33	0.26

Table B46. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.35	0.22
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.13	0.20
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.44^{+}	0.26
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.13	0.22
R^2	0.16		0.36		0.53		0.73	
ΔR^2	0.16		0.20		0.17		0.20	
ΔF	48.56***		6.00***		2.05***		1.39*	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B47. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample

Trust in the Supervisor	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.01	0.06	-0.02	0.06	-0.05	0.07	0.01	0.09
Negative affectivity	-0.38***	0.06	-0.09^{+}	0.05	-0.12*	0.06	-0.08	0.07
Distributive justice			-0.05	0.06	0.03	0.08	-0.09	0.11
Procedural justice			0.14*	0.06	0.10	0.09	0.07	0.12
Interpersonal justice			0.18**	0.07	0.25*	0.10	0.21	0.15
Informational justice			0.01	0.07	-0.07	0.10	0.08	0.16
Guanxi			0.14*	0.06	0.14*	0.06	0.27**	0.09
LMX			0.15^{+}	0.09	0.19*	0.09	0.05	0.15
Ingroup identification			0.24**	0.08	0.20*	0.09	0.22^{+}	0.12
Individualism			-0.07	0.05	-0.04	0.06	-0.17^{+}	0.09
Collectivism			0.01	0.05	0.02	0.06	0.01	0.09
Power distance			0.05	0.07	0.05	0.08	0.10	0.12
Masculinity			-0.08	0.05	-0.12^{+}	0.06	-0.22**	0.08
Long-term orientation			0.06	0.05	0.03	0.05	0.02	0.08
Uncertainty avoidance			0.01	0.05	0.04	0.06	0.15^{+}	0.08
Distributive justice * Guanxi					0.05	0.08	-0.15	0.15
Procedural justice * Guanxi					-0.06	0.08	0.27	0.19
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi					-0.05	0.11	-0.19	0.19
Informational justice * Guanxi					0.11	0.10	0.22	0.20
Distributive justice * LMX					0.01	0.12	-0.15	0.22
Procedural justice * LMX					-0.01	0.13	0.22	0.24
Interpersonal justice * LMX					0.00	0.14	-0.20	0.31
Informational justice * LMX					0.01	0.13	0.12	0.22
Distributive justice * Ingroup identification					-0.11	0.11	0.04	0.25

Table B47. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Supervisor	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Procedural justice * Ingroup identification					0.05	0.11	-0.31	0.25
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup identification					-0.09	0.12	0.06	0.24
Informational justice * Ingroup identification					0.05	0.12	0.00	0.21
Distributive justice * Individualism					0.01	0.07	0.15	0.11
Procedural justice * Individualism					-0.05	0.08	-0.24^{+}	0.13
Interpersonal justice * Individualism					-0.24*	0.10	-0.25^{+}	0.14
Informational justice * Individualism					0.15	0.09	0.23	0.15
Distributive justice * Collectivism					-0.01	0.07	0.11	0.12
Procedural justice * Collectivism					-0.01	0.09	-0.23^{+}	0.12
Interpersonal justice * Collectivism					-0.13	0.09	-0.05	0.14
Informational justice * Collectivism					0.06	0.09	0.10	0.13
Distributive justice * Power distance					-0.11	0.10	-0.10	0.16
Procedural justice * Power distance					0.02	0.10	-0.05	0.14
Interpersonal justice * Power distance					-0.22^{+}	0.12	-0.20	0.19
Informational justice * Power distance					0.18	0.11	0.00	0.19
Distributive justice * Masculinity					0.01	0.09	0.02	0.12
Procedural justice * Masculinity					0.04	0.08	0.01	0.11
Interpersonal justice * Masculinity					0.09	0.11	0.17	0.15
Informational justice * Masculinity					-0.13	0.09	-0.06	0.13
Distributive justice * Long-term orientation					-0.04	0.07	-0.11	0.09
Procedural justice * Long-term orientation					0.05	0.07	0.23*	0.09

Table B47. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Supervisor	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Interpersonal justice * Long-term orientation					0.18*	0.08	0.19	0.13
Informational justice * Long-term orientation					-0.07	0.09	-0.11	0.13
Distributive justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.07	0.08	-0.10	0.13
Procedural justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.05	0.08	-0.01	0.12
Interpersonal justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.03	0.08	-0.08	0.13
Informational justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.06	0.08	0.16	0.14
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.15	0.14
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.14	0.15
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.10	0.17
Informational justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.07	0.16
Distributive justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.43^{+}	0.26
Procedural justice * LMX * Individualism							0.57*	0.27
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.46	0.28
Informational justice * LMX * Individualism							0.14	0.24

Table B47. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Supervisor	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.31	0.23
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.09	0.20
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.15	0.32
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.02	0.28
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.16	0.11
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.05	0.15
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.12	0.18
Informational justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.03	0.18
Distributive justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.06	0.18
Procedural justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.17	0.19
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.03	0.26
Informational justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.31	0.22
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.27	0.19
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.01	0.18
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.14	0.24

Table B47. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Supervisor	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.13	0.22
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.12	0.21
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.41^{+}	0.22
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.18	0.25
Informational justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.16	0.27
Distributive justice * LMX * Power distance							0.19	0.29
Procedural justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.32	0.26
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Power distance							0.11	0.39
Informational justice * LMX * Power distance							0.01	0.28
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.11	0.28
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.56*	0.28
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.30	0.33
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.12	0.28
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.07	0.15

Table B47. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Supervisor	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.28^{+}	0.14
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.08	0.22
Informational justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.10	0.17
Distributive justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.09	0.26
Procedural justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.16	0.24
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.41	0.30
Informational justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.02	0.21
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.08	0.21
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.06	0.18
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.51*	0.24
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.01	0.21
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.07	0.14
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.09	0.13
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.01	0.16

Table B47. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Supervisor	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Informational justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.14	0.20
Distributive justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.01	0.20
Procedural justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.14	0.19
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.31	0.26
Informational justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.25	0.26
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.15	0.18
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.09	0.15
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.15	0.19
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.01	0.20
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.18	0.16
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.14	0.14
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.10	0.19
Informational justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.09	0.20

Table B47. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample (continued)

Trust in the Supervisor	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Distributive justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.54*	0.24
Procedural justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.46*	0.19
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.09	0.24
Informational justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.05	0.25
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.26	0.22
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.18	0.19
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.11	0.26
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.11	0.21
R^2	0.14		0.52		0.59		0.74	
ΔR^2	0.14		0.38		0.07		0.15	
ΔF	41.54***		14.81***		1.02		1.09	

N=263; $^{\dagger}p \leq 0.10$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

Table B48. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in Chinese sample

Job Satisfaction	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.08	-0.07	0.11	0.05	0.21
Negative affectivity	-0.33***	0.07	-0.20**	0.07	-0.13^{+}	0.08	-0.09	0.13
Distributive justice			0.30***	0.08	0.49***	0.15	0.67*	0.31
Procedural justice			-0.07	0.10	-0.01	0.16	-0.52	0.39
Interpersonal justice			-0.20*	0.10	0.07	0.19	0.09	0.42
Informational justice			0.15	0.11	-0.09	0.19	0.31	0.52
Guanxi			-0.08	0.09	-0.07	0.11	-0.09	0.28
LMX			0.31*	0.12	0.26^{+}	0.14	0.47	0.34
Ingroup identification			0.15	0.12	0.18	0.14	-0.18	0.36
Individualism			-0.02	0.07	-0.08	0.08	-0.17	0.16
Collectivism			0.13^{+}	0.07	0.12	0.09	0.02	0.23
Power distance			0.00	0.07	0.02	0.09	0.14	0.20
Masculinity			-0.07	0.07	-0.02	0.09	-0.21	0.19
Long-term orientation			0.14^{+}	0.08	0.09	0.09	0.27	0.21
Uncertainty avoidance			0.10	0.08	0.00	0.09	-0.16	0.19
Distributive justice * Guanxi					-0.27	0.17	-0.26	0.49
Procedural justice * Guanxi					0.15	0.17	0.14	0.52
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi					-0.14	0.21	0.56	0.70
Informational justice * Guanxi					0.18	0.19	-0.23	0.71
Distributive justice * LMX					0.03	0.18	-0.23	0.62
Procedural justice * LMX					-0.12	0.23	0.25	0.82
Interpersonal justice * LMX					0.17	0.21	0.01	0.79
Informational justice * LMX					0.09	0.25	-0.11	0.90

Table B48. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in Chinese sample (continued)

Job Satisfaction	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Distributive justice * Ingroup identification					0.14	0.19	0.09	0.61
Procedural justice * Ingroup identification					-0.05	0.22	0.22	0.73
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup identification					0.23	0.23	-0.42	0.92
Informational justice * Ingroup identification					-0.33	0.27	-0.35	0.81
Distributive justice * Individualism					0.04	0.11	0.00	0.26
Procedural justice * Individualism					0.11	0.12	0.49	0.34
Interpersonal justice * Individualism					0.08	0.16	0.07	0.33
Informational justice * Individualism					-0.15	0.16	-0.53	0.42
Distributive justice * Collectivism					-0.04	0.13	-0.34	0.31
Procedural justice * Collectivism					0.00	0.15	0.19	0.36
Interpersonal justice * Collectivism					0.28^{+}	0.16	0.10	0.49
Informational justice * Collectivism					-0.26	0.16	0.03	0.54
Distributive justice * Power distance					0.19	0.13	0.21	0.26
Procedural justice * Power distance					-0.04	0.12	-0.49^{+}	0.26
Interpersonal justice * Power distance					0.02	0.17	0.26	0.38
Informational justice * Power distance					-0.04	0.16	0.17	0.43
Distributive justice * Masculinity					-0.16	0.12	-0.17	0.28
Procedural justice * Masculinity					-0.20	0.15	-0.19	0.33

Table B48. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in Chinese sample (continued)

Job Satisfaction	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Interpersonal justice * Masculinity					-0.02	0.13	-0.26	0.51
Informational justice * Masculinity					0.30^{+}	0.16	0.68	0.45
Distributive justice * Long-term orientation					-0.01	0.12	-0.04	0.26
Procedural justice * Long-term orientation					0.00	0.15	0.05	0.31
Interpersonal justice * Long-term orientation					-0.14	0.18	0.09	0.52
Informational justice * Long-term orientation					0.04	0.17	-0.05	0.42
Distributive justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.09	0.12	0.17	0.26
Procedural justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.00	0.15	-0.43	0.34
Interpersonal justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.13	0.15	0.11	0.36
Informational justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.07	0.17	0.01	0.35
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.23	0.43
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.74	0.57
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.40	0.69
Informational justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.01	0.68

Table B48. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in Chinese sample (continued)

Job Satisfaction	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Distributive justice * LMX * Individualism							0.46	0.63
Procedural justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.17	0.73
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.31	0.93
Informational justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.43	0.91
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.09	0.61
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.63	0.82
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.55	0.93
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.44	0.98
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.48	0.42
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.77	0.47
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-1.27	0.80
Informational justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.80	0.70
Distributive justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.65	0.55
Procedural justice * LMX * Collectivism							1.50*	0.74

Table B48. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in Chinese sample (continued)

Job Satisfaction	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.51	0.75
Informational justice * LMX * Collectivism							-1.02	0.89
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.43	0.54
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-1.02	0.81
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.00	0.61
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.91	0.94
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.18	0.43
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.34	0.53
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.54	0.75
Informational justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.16	0.70
Distributive justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.33	0.50
Procedural justice * LMX * Power distance							0.26	0.61
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.08	0.81
Informational justice * LMX * Power distance							0.01	0.64

Table B48. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in Chinese sample (continued)

Job Satisfaction	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.28	0.51
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.29	0.52
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.56	0.91
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.30	0.74
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.62	0.50
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.02	0.61
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.02	0.72
Informational justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.70	0.65
Distributive justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.08	0.62
Procedural justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.31	0.93
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.50	0.84
Informational justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.03	1.03
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.76	0.75
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.19	0.82

Table B48. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in Chinese sample (continued)

Job Satisfaction	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.02	0.66
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.41	1.05
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.20	0.54
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.21	0.69
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							1.43	0.91
Informational justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-1.36	0.86
Distributive justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.23	0.50
Procedural justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.65	0.65
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.65	0.74
Informational justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							1.30^{+}	0.72
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.13	0.54
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.28	0.76
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.06	0.71

Table B48. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in Chinese sample (continued)

Job Satisfaction	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.46	0.96
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.02	0.58
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.58	0.50
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.67	0.80
Informational justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							1.07	0.77
Distributive justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.37	0.45
Procedural justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.28	0.64
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.39	0.60
Informational justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.10	0.69
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.43	0.49
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							1.25*	0.55
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.41	0.59

Table B48. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on job satisfaction in Chinese sample (continued)

Job Satisfaction	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.79	0.68
R^2	0.11		0.43		0.58		0.81	
ΔR^2	0.11		0.32		0.15		0.23	
ΔF	20.03***		6.40***		1.15		0.71	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Table B49. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in Chinese sample

Affective Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	-0.01	0.07	-0.06	0.09	-0.14	0.11	-0.02	0.19
Negative affectivity	-0.33***	0.07	-0.24***	0.07	-0.20*	0.08	-0.21^{+}	0.12
Distributive justice			0.05	0.09	0.44**	0.15	0.33	0.28
Procedural justice			0.03	0.10	0.02	0.16	0.06	0.35
Interpersonal justice			0.01	0.10	-0.38^{+}	0.20	-0.45	0.38
Informational justice			0.29*	0.11	0.24	0.19	0.38	0.46
Guanxi			0.10	0.09	-0.07	0.12	-0.13	0.25
LMX			0.05	0.13	-0.02	0.15	-0.09	0.31
Ingroup identification			0.12	0.12	0.28*	0.14	0.25	0.32
Individualism			-0.01	0.07	-0.08	0.08	-0.23	0.15
Collectivism			0.01	0.08	-0.02	0.09	-0.11	0.20
Power distance			-0.07	0.07	-0.08	0.09	0.00	0.18
Masculinity			-0.03	0.08	0.04	0.09	-0.13	0.17
Long-term orientation			-0.01	0.08	-0.01	0.09	0.14	0.18
Uncertainty avoidance			-0.03	0.08	-0.10	0.09	-0.06	0.17
Distributive justice * Guanxi					-0.16	0.17	-0.30	0.44
Procedural justice * Guanxi					0.18	0.18	0.09	0.46
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi					0.12	0.22	-0.06	0.62
Informational justice * Guanxi					0.11	0.20	0.37	0.63
Distributive justice * LMX					-0.14	0.18	0.45	0.55
Procedural justice * LMX					-0.53*	0.24	-0.07	0.73
Interpersonal justice * LMX					-0.03	0.22	-0.46	0.70
Informational justice * LMX					0.59*	0.26	-0.50	0.80
Distributive justice * Ingroup identification					0.06	0.19	-0.22	0.54

Table B49. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Procedural justice * Ingroup identification					0.55*	0.23	-0.03	0.65
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup identification					0.06	0.24	-0.07	0.81
Informational justice * Ingroup identification					-0.57*	0.28	0.70	0.72
Distributive justice * Individualism					-0.16	0.12	-0.01	0.23
Procedural justice * Individualism					-0.02	0.13	0.20	0.30
Interpersonal justice * Individualism					0.05	0.17	0.17	0.29
Informational justice * Individualism					0.11	0.16	-0.20	0.37
Distributive justice * Collectivism					-0.04	0.14	0.04	0.28
Procedural justice * Collectivism					-0.18	0.16	-0.15	0.32
Interpersonal justice * Collectivism					0.23	0.17	-0.10	0.44
Informational justice * Collectivism					-0.08	0.17	0.02	0.48
Distributive justice * Power distance					0.35**	0.13	0.32	0.23
Procedural justice * Power distance					-0.08	0.13	-0.08	0.23
Interpersonal justice * Power distance					-0.52**	0.17	-0.58^{+}	0.33
Informational justice * Power distance					0.04	0.16	0.05	0.38
Distributive justice * Masculinity					-0.07	0.12	0.27	0.25
Procedural justice * Masculinity					0.03	0.15	-0.19	0.30
Interpersonal justice * Masculinity					0.27*	0.14	0.17	0.45
Informational justice * Masculinity					-0.25	0.16	-0.06	0.40
Distributive justice * Long-term orientation					0.09	0.13	-0.23	0.23
Procedural justice * Long-term orientation					0.02	0.16	0.16	0.28

Table B49. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Interpersonal justice * Long-term orientation					-0.26	0.19	0.12	0.46
Informational justice * Long-term orientation					0.21	0.18	-0.02	0.37
Distributive justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.10	0.13	-0.05	0.23
Procedural justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.34*	0.16	0.02	0.30
Interpersonal justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.02	0.15	-0.01	0.32
Informational justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.17	0.17	-0.03	0.31
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.24	0.38
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.36	0.50
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.34	0.62
Informational justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.09	0.61
Distributive justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.38	0.56
Procedural justice * LMX * Individualism							0.53	0.65
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Individualism							0.20	0.82

Table B49. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Informational justice * LMX * Individualism							-1.44^{+}	0.81
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.37	0.54
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.26	0.72
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.11	0.83
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							1.22	0.87
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.25	0.37
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.05	0.42
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.50	0.71
Informational justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.23	0.62
Distributive justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.66	0.49
Procedural justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.83	0.66
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.55	0.67
Informational justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.77	0.79
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							1.02*	0.48

Table B49. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-1.10	0.71
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.73	0.54
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.77	0.83
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.26	0.38
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.29	0.47
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.45	0.66
Informational justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.21	0.62
Distributive justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.01	0.44
Procedural justice * LMX * Power distance							0.01	0.54
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.60	0.72
Informational justice * LMX * Power distance							0.07	0.57
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.02	0.45
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.07	0.46
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.35	0.81

Table B49. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.51	0.65
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.58	0.44
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.48	0.54
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.13	0.64
Informational justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.47	0.57
Distributive justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.04	0.55
Procedural justice * LMX * Masculinity							-1.24	0.82
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.91	0.75
Informational justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.03	0.91
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.07	0.67
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							1.72*	0.73
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.68	0.59
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.33	0.93
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.43	0.48

Table B49. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.27	0.61
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.19	0.81
Informational justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.06	0.76
Distributive justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.60	0.44
Procedural justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.93	0.58
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.65	0.65
Informational justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							1.70*	0.64
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.14	0.48
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.36	0.68
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.41	0.63
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-1.31	0.85
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.59	0.52
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.36	0.44
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.08	0.71

Table B49. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on affective commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Affective Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Informational justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.06	0.68
Distributive justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.18	0.39
Procedural justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.46	0.57
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.19	0.53
Informational justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.41	0.61
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.17	0.43
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.94^{+}	0.48
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.66	0.52
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.93	0.60
R^2	0.11		0.38		0.55		0.85	
ΔR^2	0.11		0.28		0.17		0.30	
ΔF	19.45***		5.22***		1.20		1.18	

N=173; $^{+}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B50. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in Chinese sample

Normative Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.08	0.04	0.08	-0.12	0.10	-0.15	0.19
Negative affectivity	-0.20*	0.08	-0.06	0.07	0.01	0.08	0.02	0.12
Distributive justice			0.28***	0.08	0.54***	0.14	0.84**	0.29
Procedural justice			0.02	0.10	-0.06	0.15	0.00	0.36
Interpersonal justice			0.01	0.10	-0.11	0.19	-0.27	0.39
Informational justice			0.12	0.11	0.11	0.18	-0.03	0.48
Guanxi			0.11	0.09	0.02	0.11	-0.09	0.26
LMX			0.16	0.12	0.12	0.14	0.11	0.31
Ingroup identification			0.12	0.11	0.25^{+}	0.13	0.16	0.33
Individualism			-0.04	0.07	-0.07	0.08	-0.14	0.15
Collectivism			0.10	0.07	0.12	0.09	-0.02	0.21
Power distance			0.06	0.07	0.01	0.08	-0.12	0.19
Masculinity			-0.04	0.07	0.03	0.08	0.05	0.17
Long-term orientation			0.03	0.08	-0.01	0.08	0.08	0.19
Uncertainty avoidance			0.11	0.08	-0.04	0.09	-0.03	0.17
Distributive justice * Guanxi					-0.03	0.16	-0.20	0.45
Procedural justice * Guanxi					-0.08	0.17	0.08	0.47
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi					0.09	0.20	0.18	0.64
Informational justice * Guanxi					0.04	0.19	0.13	0.65
Distributive justice * LMX					-0.23	0.17	0.56	0.57
Procedural justice * LMX					-0.46*	0.22	-0.39	0.75
Interpersonal justice * LMX					0.19	0.20	-0.03	0.72
Informational justice * LMX					0.50*	0.25	-0.16	0.82

Table B50. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Distributive justice * Ingroup identification					0.03	0.18	-0.71	0.56
Procedural justice * Ingroup identification					0.63**	0.21	0.23	0.67
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup identification					0.00	0.23	-0.34	0.84
Informational justice * Ingroup identification					-0.45^{+}	0.27	0.50	0.74
Distributive justice * Individualism					-0.02	0.11	0.11	0.24
Procedural justice * Individualism					-0.24^{+}	0.12	-0.23	0.31
Interpersonal justice * Individualism					0.28^{+}	0.16	0.41	0.30
Informational justice * Individualism					-0.02	0.15	-0.25	0.38
Distributive justice * Collectivism					-0.17	0.13	-0.19	0.28
Procedural justice * Collectivism					-0.12	0.15	-0.15	0.33
Interpersonal justice * Collectivism					0.11	0.16	-0.06	0.45
Informational justice * Collectivism					0.13	0.16	0.18	0.49
Distributive justice * Power distance					0.19	0.12	0.43^{+}	0.23
Procedural justice * Power distance					-0.12	0.12	-0.18	0.24
Interpersonal justice * Power distance					-0.24	0.16	-0.27	0.34
Informational justice * Power distance					0.14	0.15	0.01	0.39
Distributive justice * Masculinity					-0.18	0.11	-0.04	0.26
Procedural justice * Masculinity					-0.09	0.14	-0.02	0.31
Interpersonal justice * Masculinity					0.14	0.13	-0.27	0.46
Informational justice * Masculinity					0.05	0.15	0.35	0.42

Table B50. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Distributive justice * Long-term orientation					0.14	0.12	0.10	0.24
Procedural justice * Long-term orientation					0.04	0.15	-0.09	0.28
Interpersonal justice * Long-term orientation					-0.21	0.18	0.42	0.48
Informational justice * Long-term orientation					0.08	0.17	-0.19	0.38
Distributive justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.04	0.12	0.09	0.24
Procedural justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.28^{+}	0.15	0.18	0.31
Interpersonal justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.10	0.14	0.44	0.33
Informational justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.24	0.16	-0.61^{+}	0.32
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.00	0.39
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.03	0.52
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.43	0.63
Informational justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.18	0.62
Distributive justice * LMX * Individualism							0.15	0.58

Table B50. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Procedural justice * LMX * Individualism							0.08	0.67
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.09	0.85
Informational justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.65	0.84
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.20	0.56
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.09	0.75
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.28	0.85
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.26	0.89
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.04	0.39
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.24	0.43
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.96	0.73
Informational justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.69	0.64
Distributive justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.11	0.50
Procedural justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.17	0.68
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.27	0.69

Table B50. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Informational justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.12	0.82
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.43	0.50
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.17	0.74
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.36	0.56
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.46	0.85
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.20	0.39
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.14	0.48
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.43	0.68
Informational justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.53	0.64
Distributive justice * LMX * Power distance							0.37	0.46
Procedural justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.34	0.56
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Power distance							0.35	0.74
Informational justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.26	0.58
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.25	0.47

Table B50. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.07	0.48
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.54	0.83
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.43	0.67
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.04	0.45
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.25	0.56
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.16	0.66
Informational justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.14	0.59
Distributive justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.45	0.56
Procedural justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.74	0.85
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.27	0.77
Informational justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.06	0.94
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.14	0.69
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.72	0.75
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.65	0.60

Table B50. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.41	0.96
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.27	0.49
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.27	0.63
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.23	0.83
Informational justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.08	0.79
Distributive justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.15	0.46
Procedural justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.57	0.60
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.05	0.68
Informational justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.87	0.66
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.05	0.50
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.46	0.70
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.02	0.65

Table B50. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.99	0.87
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.35	0.53
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.00	0.45
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.37	0.73
Informational justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.03	0.70
Distributive justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.49	0.41
Procedural justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.51	0.58
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.37	0.55
Informational justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.33	0.63
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.41	0.44
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.98^{+}	0.50
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.37	0.54

Table B50. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on normative commitment in Chinese sample (continued)

Normative Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.50	0.62
R^2	0.04		0.45		0.61		0.84	
ΔR^2	0.04		0.41		0.16		0.24	
ΔF	6.55*		8.62***		1.29		0.89	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Table B51. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on continuance commitment Chinese sample

Continuance Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	-0.11	0.08	-0.02	0.10	0.03	0.12	0.35	0.21
Negative affectivity	0.17*	0.08	0.16^{+}	0.08	0.19*	0.09	0.13	0.13
Distributive justice			0.33**	0.10	0.44*	0.17	0.81*	0.32
Procedural justice			-0.22^{+}	0.12	-0.50**	0.18	-0.83*	0.40
Interpersonal justice			-0.07	0.12	-0.36	0.23	-0.33	0.43
Informational justice			0.08	0.13	0.46*	0.22	0.50	0.53
Guanxi			0.13	0.10	0.19	0.13	0.38	0.29
LMX			0.18	0.14	0.25	0.17	-0.04	0.35
Ingroup identification			-0.22	0.14	-0.35*	0.16	-0.65^{+}	0.37
Individualism			0.05	0.08	0.07	0.09	-0.01	0.17
Collectivism			0.05	0.09	-0.03	0.11	-0.02	0.23
Power distance			0.13	0.09	0.20^{+}	0.10	0.31	0.20
Masculinity			0.01	0.09	-0.07	0.10	-0.22	0.19
Long-term orientation			0.05	0.09	0.05	0.10	0.15	0.21
Uncertainty avoidance			0.10	0.09	0.12	0.11	0.26	0.19
Distributive justice * Guanxi					0.36^{+}	0.20	-0.36	0.50
Procedural justice * Guanxi					-0.32	0.20	0.45	0.52
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi					0.27	0.25	1.09	0.70
Informational justice * Guanxi					-0.24	0.23	-0.93	0.71
Distributive justice * LMX					-0.09	0.21	0.82	0.63
Procedural justice * LMX					-0.33	0.27	-1.60^{+}	0.83
Interpersonal justice * LMX					0.00	0.25	-0.69	0.80
Informational justice * LMX					-0.01	0.30	0.57	0.90
Distributive justice * Ingroup identification					-0.17	0.22	-0.72	0.61

Table B51. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on continuance commitment Chinese sample (continued)

Continuance Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Procedural justice * Ingroup identification					0.39	0.26	1.17	0.73
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup identification					-0.12	0.27	-0.80	0.92
Informational justice * Ingroup identification					0.25	0.32	0.37	0.82
Distributive justice * Individualism					0.06	0.13	0.22	0.26
Procedural justice * Individualism					-0.01	0.15	0.44	0.34
Interpersonal justice * Individualism					0.40*	0.19	0.36	0.33
Informational justice * Individualism					-0.18	0.19	-0.65	0.42
Distributive justice * Collectivism					0.22	0.16	-0.06	0.31
Procedural justice * Collectivism					-0.27	0.18	0.00	0.36
Interpersonal justice * Collectivism					-0.25	0.19	0.24	0.50
Informational justice * Collectivism					0.24	0.19	-0.19	0.54
Distributive justice * Power distance					0.10	0.15	0.36	0.26
Procedural justice * Power distance					-0.29*	0.15	-0.46^{+}	0.26
Interpersonal justice * Power distance					-0.24	0.20	-0.30	0.38
Informational justice * Power distance					0.26	0.18	0.24	0.43
Distributive justice * Masculinity					-0.09	0.14	-0.26	0.28
Procedural justice * Masculinity					0.02	0.18	0.21	0.34
Interpersonal justice * Masculinity					0.15	0.16	-0.23	0.51
Informational justice * Masculinity					-0.09	0.19	0.43	0.46
Distributive justice * Long-term orientation					-0.29^{+}	0.15	-0.41	0.26
Procedural justice * Long-term orientation					0.01	0.18	-0.03	0.31
Interpersonal justice * Long-term orientation					0.25	0.22	-0.01	0.52
Informational justice * Long-term orientation					-0.04	0.21	0.28	0.42

Table B51. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on continuance commitment Chinese sample (continued)

Continuance Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Distributive justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.15	0.15	-0.02	0.26
Procedural justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.06	0.18	-0.17	0.34
Interpersonal justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.15	0.17	0.23	0.37
Informational justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.08	0.20	-0.20	0.35
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.03	0.43
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.33	0.57
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.53	0.70
Informational justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.03	0.69
Distributive justice * LMX * Individualism							0.73	0.64
Procedural justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.28	0.73
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.91	0.93
Informational justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.28	0.92
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.40	0.61
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.34	0.82
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							1.53	0.94
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.06	0.98

Table B51. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on continuance commitment Chinese sample (continued)

Continuance Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.25	0.42
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.55	0.47
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.57	0.80
Informational justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.72	0.70
Distributive justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.51	0.55
Procedural justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.41	0.75
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.47	0.75
Informational justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.77	0.90
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.12	0.55
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.10	0.81
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.04	0.61
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.41	0.94
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.68	0.43
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.62	0.53
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.08	0.75
Informational justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.03	0.70

Table B51. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on continuance commitment Chinese sample (continued)

Continuance Commitment	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Distributive justice * LMX * Power distance							0.84	0.50
Procedural justice * LMX * Power distance							-1.07^{+}	0.61
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.42	0.81
Informational justice * LMX * Power distance							0.47	0.64
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.41	0.51
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.54	0.53
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.35	0.91
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.11	0.74
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.15	0.50
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.16	0.61
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.57	0.72
Informational justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.02	0.65
Distributive justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.65	0.62
Procedural justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.88	0.93
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.35	0.85
Informational justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.16	1.03
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.38	0.76

Table B51. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on continuance commitment Chinese sample (continued)

Continuance Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.52	0.83
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.40	0.67
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.06	1.06
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.40	0.54
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.15	0.69
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.35	0.92
Informational justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.38	0.87
Distributive justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.65	0.50
Procedural justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.61	0.66
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.17	0.74
Informational justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.68	0.72
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.94^{+}	0.55
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.03	0.77
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.05	0.71

Table B51. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on continuance commitment Chinese sample (continued)

Continuance Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.38	0.96
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.99^{+}	0.59
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.62	0.50
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.01	0.80
Informational justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.19	0.77
Distributive justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.32	0.45
Procedural justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.16	0.64
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.31	0.60
Informational justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.39	0.69
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-1.05*	0.49
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.11	0.55

Table B51. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on continuance commitment Chinese sample (continued)

Continuance Commitment	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.10	0.59
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.90	0.69
R^2	0.03		0.18		0.41		0.80	
ΔR^2	0.03		0.15		0.23		0.40	
ΔF	4.87*		2.12*		1.23		1.21	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Table B52. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in Chinese sample

Trust in the Organization	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.00	0.08	-0.07	0.08	-0.09	0.10	-0.05	0.18
Negative affectivity	-0.22**	0.08	-0.09	0.07	0.01	0.08	0.02	0.12
Distributive justice			0.20*	0.08	0.40**	0.15	0.28	0.27
Procedural justice			-0.03	0.10	0.03	0.15	0.15	0.34
Interpersonal justice			0.05	0.10	0.04	0.19	0.12	0.37
Informational justice			0.27*	0.11	0.05	0.19	0.16	0.46
Guanxi			0.06	0.09	0.01	0.11	-0.16	0.25
LMX			0.20^{+}	0.12	0.30*	0.14	0.30	0.30
Ingroup identification			0.09	0.11	0.11	0.14	0.02	0.32
Individualism			-0.03	0.07	-0.07	0.08	-0.09	0.14
Collectivism			0.02	0.07	0.06	0.09	-0.14	0.20
Power distance			-0.10	0.07	-0.08	0.09	-0.16	0.18
Masculinity			-0.09	0.07	-0.10	0.08	-0.09	0.17
Long-term orientation			0.00	0.08	-0.06	0.09	0.23	0.18
Uncertainty avoidance			0.02	0.07	-0.12	0.09	-0.30^{+}	0.16
Distributive justice * Guanxi					-0.17	0.17	-0.03	0.43
Procedural justice * Guanxi					0.14	0.17	0.00	0.45
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi					0.23	0.21	-0.59	0.61
Informational justice * Guanxi					-0.11	0.19	1.01	0.62
Distributive justice * LMX					-0.01	0.18	0.23	0.54
Procedural justice * LMX					-0.33	0.23	0.73	0.72
Interpersonal justice * LMX					0.22	0.21	0.90	0.69
Informational justice * LMX					0.23	0.25	-1.67*	0.79
Distributive justice * Ingroup identification					0.11	0.19	-0.34	0.53

Table B52. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in Chinese sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Procedural justice * Ingroup identification					0.24	0.22	-0.47	0.64
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup identification					-0.32	0.23	-0.28	0.80
Informational justice * Ingroup identification					-0.04	0.27	0.39	0.71
Distributive justice * Individualism					0.03	0.11	0.08	0.23
Procedural justice * Individualism					-0.06	0.12	-0.01	0.29
Interpersonal justice * Individualism					0.09	0.16	0.40	0.28
Informational justice * Individualism					-0.04	0.16	-0.54	0.36
Distributive justice * Collectivism					-0.07	0.13	0.26	0.27
Procedural justice * Collectivism					0.09	0.15	-0.12	0.31
Interpersonal justice * Collectivism					-0.01	0.16	-0.41	0.43
Informational justice * Collectivism					-0.05	0.16	0.14	0.47
Distributive justice * Power distance					0.28*	0.13	0.00	0.22
Procedural justice * Power distance					-0.03	0.12	0.18	0.23
Interpersonal justice * Power distance					-0.08	0.16	0.19	0.33
Informational justice * Power distance					-0.18	0.15	-0.19	0.37
Distributive justice * Masculinity					0.12	0.12	0.47^{+}	0.25
Procedural justice * Masculinity					-0.14	0.15	-0.27	0.29
Interpersonal justice * Masculinity					0.11	0.13	-0.45	0.44
Informational justice * Masculinity					-0.06	0.16	0.25	0.40
Distributive justice * Long-term orientation					0.05	0.12	-0.07	0.23
Procedural justice * Long-term orientation					0.24	0.15	0.00	0.27

Table B52. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in Chinese sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Interpersonal justice * Long-term orientation					-0.28	0.18	0.37	0.46
Informational justice * Long-term orientation					0.07	0.17	0.07	0.36
Distributive justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.01	0.12	-0.22	0.23
Procedural justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.02	0.15	0.02	0.30
Interpersonal justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.08	0.15	0.04	0.32
Informational justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.07	0.16	0.11	0.30
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.27	0.38
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.16	0.50
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.57	0.61
Informational justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.66	0.60
Distributive justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.55	0.55
Procedural justice * LMX * Individualism							0.39	0.64
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.30	0.81
Informational justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.31	0.80

Table B52. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in Chinese sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.56	0.53
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.17	0.71
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.04	0.81
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.29	0.85
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.63^{+}	0.37
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.51	0.41
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.33	0.69
Informational justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.18	0.61
Distributive justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.22	0.48
Procedural justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.89	0.65
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.19	0.66
Informational justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.62	0.78
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.11	0.48
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.51	0.70
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.26	0.53

Table B52. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in Chinese sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.63	0.82
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.04	0.37
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.03	0.46
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-1.08	0.65
Informational justice * Guanxi * Power distance							1.03^{+}	0.61
Distributive justice * LMX * Power distance							0.09	0.44
Procedural justice * LMX * Power distance							0.37	0.53
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Power distance							0.64	0.70
Informational justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.99^{+}	0.56
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.05	0.45
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.39	0.46
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							0.36	0.79
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.18	0.64
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.51	0.43

Table B52. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in Chinese sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.00	0.53
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.40	0.63
Informational justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.18	0.57
Distributive justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.06	0.54
Procedural justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.88	0.81
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.15	0.74
Informational justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.33	0.90
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.53	0.66
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.85	0.72
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.51	0.58
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							0.52	0.92
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.93^{+}	0.47
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.11	0.60
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.14	0.80
Informational justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.17	0.75

Table B52. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in Chinese sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Distributive justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.09	0.44
Procedural justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-1.15*	0.57
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.83	0.64
Informational justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							2.01**	0.63
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							1.17*	0.47
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.38	0.67
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.32	0.62
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-1.65^{+}	0.83
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.56	0.51
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.26	0.43
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.30	0.69
Informational justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.95	0.67
Distributive justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.71^{+}	0.39
Procedural justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.41	0.56

Table B52. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the organization in Chinese sample (continued)

Trust in the Organization	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.07	0.52
Informational justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.37	0.60
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.87*	0.42
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.47	0.48
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.50	0.51
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-1.32*	0.60
R^2	0.05		0.47		0.59		0.86	
ΔR^2	0.05		0.42		0.12		0.26	
ΔF	8.28**		9.23***		0.98		1.09	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p \leq 0.10$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

Table B53. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample

Trust in the Supervisor	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Constant	0.01	0.08	-0.14^{+}	0.08	-0.21^{+}	0.11	-0.15	0.18
Negative affectivity	-0.19*	0.08	-0.05	0.07	-0.04	0.08	0.05	0.11
Distributive justice			0.24**	0.09	0.16	0.15	0.35	0.26
Procedural justice			0.02	0.10	0.22	0.16	0.23	0.33
Interpersonal justice			-0.08	0.10	0.13	0.20	-0.11	0.36
Informational justice			-0.05	0.11	-0.23	0.19	-0.10	0.44
Guanxi			0.18*	0.09	0.11	0.11	0.00	0.24
LMX			0.22^{+}	0.12	0.16	0.14	0.05	0.29
Ingroup identification			0.20^{+}	0.12	0.31*	0.14	0.22	0.31
Individualism			0.04	0.07	0.00	0.08	-0.20	0.14
Collectivism			-0.01	0.08	0.07	0.09	0.04	0.19
Power distance			-0.21**	0.07	-0.25**	0.09	-0.28	0.17
Masculinity			0.08	0.07	0.12	0.09	0.11	0.16
Long-term orientation			-0.07	0.08	-0.08	0.09	-0.04	0.18
Uncertainty avoidance			0.01	0.08	-0.08	0.09	-0.12	0.16
Distributive justice * Guanxi					0.09	0.17	0.05	0.42
Procedural justice * Guanxi					0.05	0.17	0.02	0.43
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi					-0.02	0.21	1.29*	0.59
Informational justice * Guanxi					0.05	0.19	-0.82	0.60
Distributive justice * LMX					0.06	0.18	-0.43	0.52
Procedural justice * LMX					0.11	0.23	-0.75	0.69
Interpersonal justice * LMX					-0.33	0.21	-0.49	0.67
Informational justice * LMX					0.18	0.25	1.08	0.76
Distributive justice * Ingroup identification					-0.07	0.19	0.27	0.51

Table B53. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample (continued)

Trust in the Supervisor	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Procedural justice * Ingroup identification					-0.16	0.22	0.13	0.61
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup identification					0.24	0.23	-0.43	0.77
Informational justice * Ingroup identification					-0.07	0.28	-0.05	0.68
Distributive justice * Individualism					0.09	0.11	-0.12	0.22
Procedural justice * Individualism					-0.18	0.13	-0.20	0.28
Interpersonal justice * Individualism					-0.25	0.16	-0.67*	0.27
Informational justice * Individualism					0.22	0.16	0.54	0.35
Distributive justice * Collectivism					-0.18	0.13	-0.12	0.26
Procedural justice * Collectivism					0.36*	0.15	-0.03	0.30
Interpersonal justice * Collectivism					-0.07	0.17	0.15	0.42
Informational justice * Collectivism					-0.04	0.16	0.15	0.45
Distributive justice * Power distance					-0.08	0.13	-0.10	0.22
Procedural justice * Power distance					0.13	0.12	0.07	0.22
Interpersonal justice * Power distance					0.30^{+}	0.17	-0.21	0.32
Informational justice * Power distance					-0.17	0.16	0.15	0.36
Distributive justice * Masculinity					-0.15	0.12	-0.20	0.24
Procedural justice * Masculinity					-0.17	0.15	0.17	0.28
Interpersonal justice * Masculinity					0.12	0.13	0.57	0.43
Informational justice * Masculinity					-0.09	0.16	-0.62	0.38
Distributive justice * Long-term orientation					0.18	0.13	0.26	0.22
Procedural justice * Long-term orientation					-0.14	0.15	-0.30	0.26
Interpersonal justice * Long-term orientation					-0.04	0.18	-0.29	0.44
Informational justice * Long-term orientation					0.12	0.18	0.60^{+}	0.35
Distributive justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.11	0.12	0.03	0.22
Procedural justice * Uncertainty avoidance					0.18	0.16	0.56^{+}	0.29

Table B53. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample (continued)

Trust in the Supervisor	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Interpersonal justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.07	0.15	-0.10	0.31
Informational justice * Uncertainty avoidance					-0.21	0.17	-0.61*	0.29
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.66^{+}	0.36
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.24	0.48
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Individualism							-0.23	0.58
Informational justice * Guanxi * Individualism							0.21	0.57
Distributive justice * LMX * Individualism							0.22	0.53
Procedural justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.17	0.61
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Individualism							0.12	0.78
Informational justice * LMX * Individualism							-0.17	0.77
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.90^{+}	0.51
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							-0.95	0.69
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.21	0.78
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Individualism							0.42	0.82
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.53	0.35
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.30	0.40
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							0.59	0.67
Informational justice * Guanxi * Collectivism							-0.77	0.59
Distributive justice * LMX * Collectivism							-0.59	0.46
Procedural justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.30	0.62
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.10	0.63

Table B53. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample (continued)

Trust in the Supervisor	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Informational justice * LMX * Collectivism							0.20	0.75
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.50	0.46
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.83	0.68
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							0.12	0.51
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Collectivism							-0.44	0.79
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.47	0.36
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.44	0.44
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Power distance							0.65	0.63
Informational justice * Guanxi * Power distance							-0.68	0.59
Distributive justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.80^{+}	0.42
Procedural justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.09	0.51
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Power distance							-0.12	0.68
Informational justice * LMX * Power distance							0.96^{+}	0.54
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							1.00*	0.43
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.33	0.44
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.31	0.76
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Power distance							-0.26	0.62
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.08	0.42
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.00	0.51

Table B53. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample (continued)

Trust in the Supervisor	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							0.40	0.60
Informational justice * Guanxi * Masculinity							-0.32	0.54
Distributive justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.68	0.52
Procedural justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.37	0.78
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Masculinity							0.29	0.71
Informational justice * LMX * Masculinity							-0.91	0.86
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.51	0.63
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.33	0.69
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							-0.60	0.56
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Masculinity							1.51^{+}	0.89
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.17	0.45
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-0.16	0.58
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							-1.20	0.77
Informational justice * Guanxi * Long-term orientation							0.80	0.72
Distributive justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.57	0.42
Procedural justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							0.14	0.55

Table B53. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample (continued)

Trust in the Supervisor	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error	B	Std. Error
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							1.14^{+}	0.62
Informational justice * LMX * Long-term orientation							-0.43	0.60
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.52	0.46
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							0.07	0.64
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.26	0.60
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Long-term orientation							-0.52	0.80
Distributive justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.23	0.49
Procedural justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.78^{+}	0.42
Interpersonal justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							0.14	0.67
Informational justice * Guanxi * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.55	0.65
Distributive justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.34	0.37
Procedural justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.09	0.54
Interpersonal justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.02	0.50
Informational justice * LMX * Uncertainty avoidance							0.63	0.58

Table B53. Three-way interactions among organizational justice, supervisor-subordinate relationship, and cultural values on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample (continued)

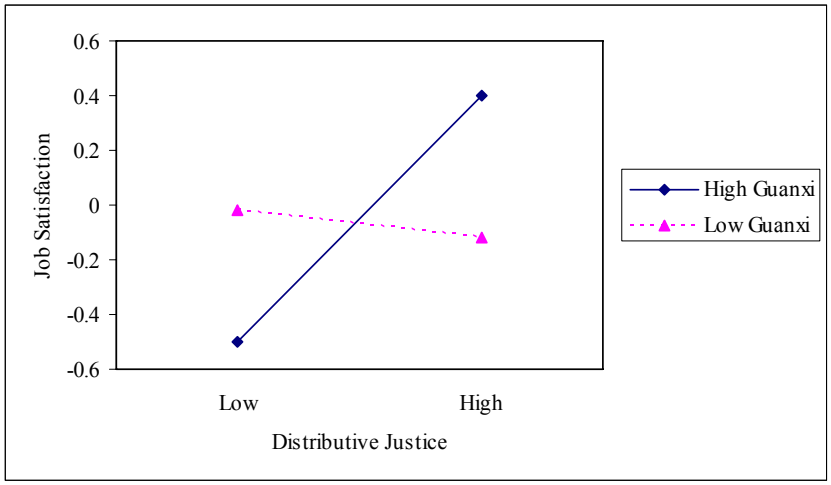
Trust in the Supervisor	**Model 1**		**Model 2**		**Model 3**		**Model 4**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**	**B**	**Std. Error**
Distributive justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.52	0.41
Procedural justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.29	0.46
Interpersonal justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							-0.79	0.49
Informational justice * Ingroup Identification * Uncertainty avoidance							0.64	0.57
R^2	0.04		0.39		0.56		0.86	
ΔR^2	0.04		0.36		0.17		0.30	
ΔF	6.51*		6.79***		1.25		1.28	

N=173; $^{\dagger}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

APPENDIX C

FIGURES

Figure C1. The interaction between distributive justice and *guanxi* on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample

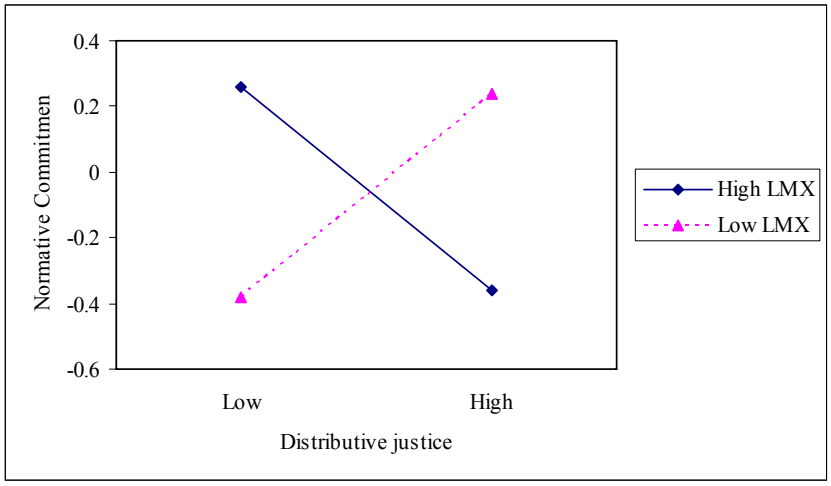


Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes[4]

	B	Std. Error	t
High Guanxi	0.46	0.13	3.56***
Low Guanxi	-0.05	0.09	-0.52

[4] For all post-hoc tests of simple slopes, $^{+}p<0.10$, $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$, $***p<0.001$.

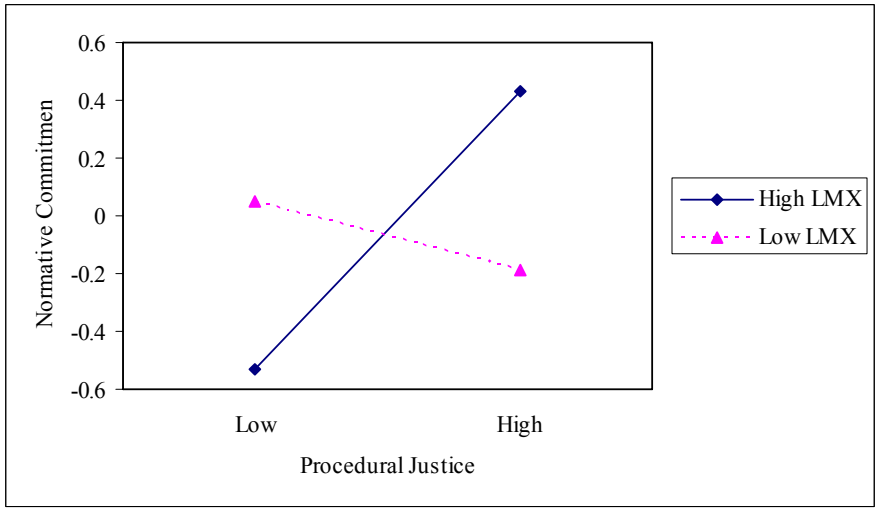
Figure C2. The interaction between distributive justice and LMX on normative commitment in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High LMX	-0.31	0.16	-2.01*
Low LMX	0.31	0.14	2.25*

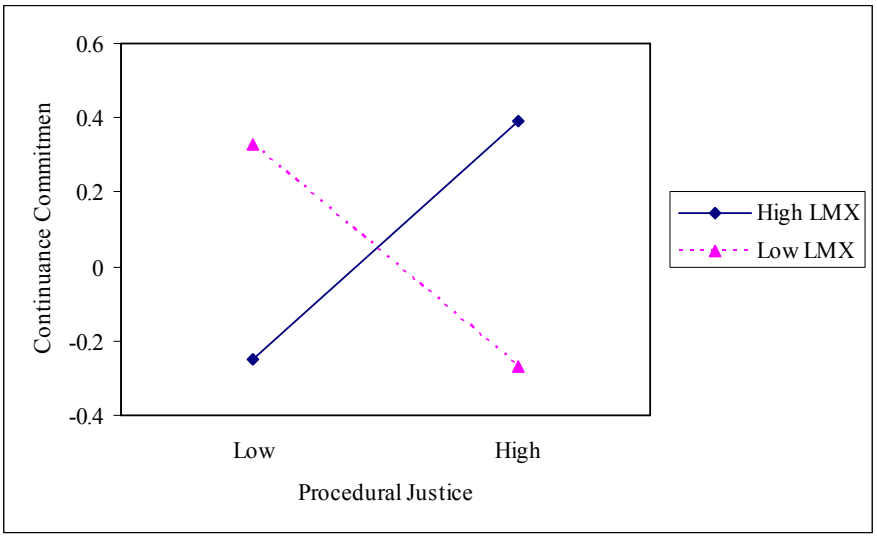
Figure C3. The interaction between procedural justice and LMX on normative commitment in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High LMX	0.47	0.15	3.16**
Low LMX	-0.12	0.16	-0.74

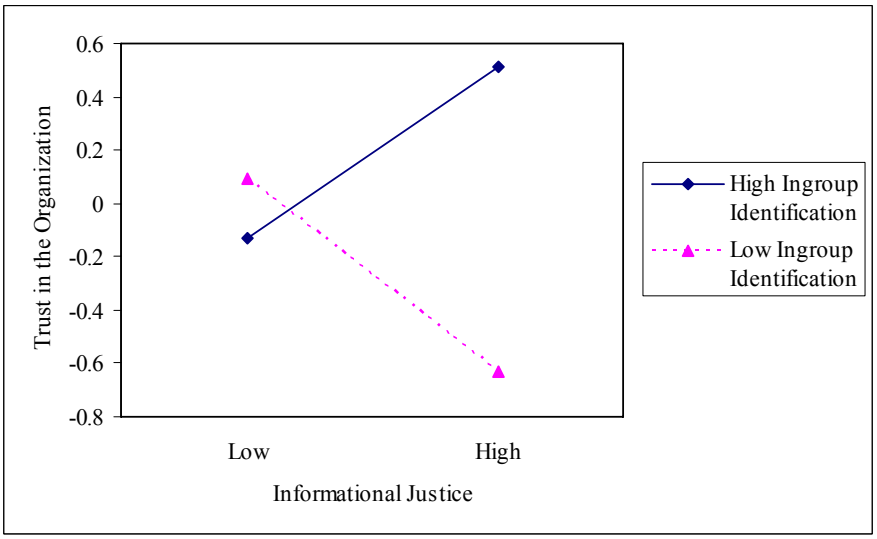
Figure C4. The interaction between procedural justice and LMX on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High LMX	0.33	0.17	1.96*
Low LMX	-0.30	0.18	-1.66†

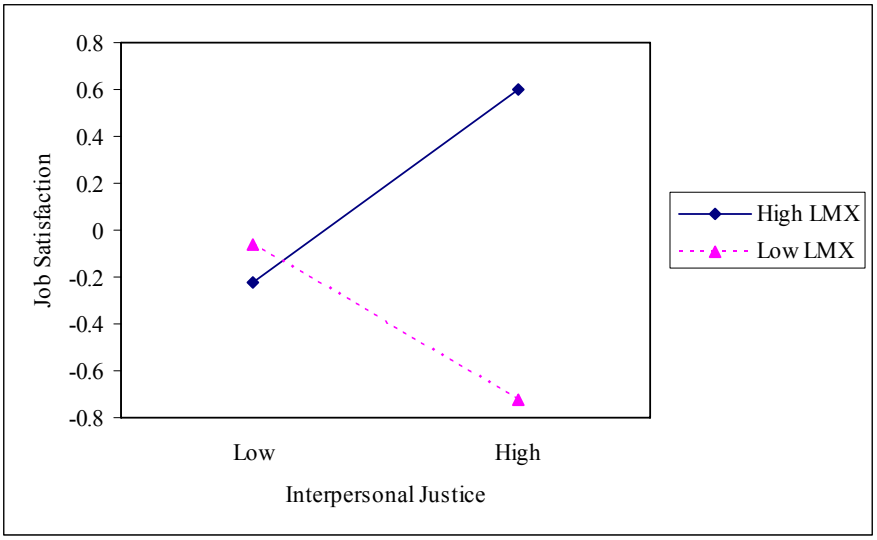
Figure C5. The interaction between informational justice and ingroup identification on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High ingroup identification	0.31	0.14	2.32*
Low ingroup identification	-0.36	0.16	-2.29*

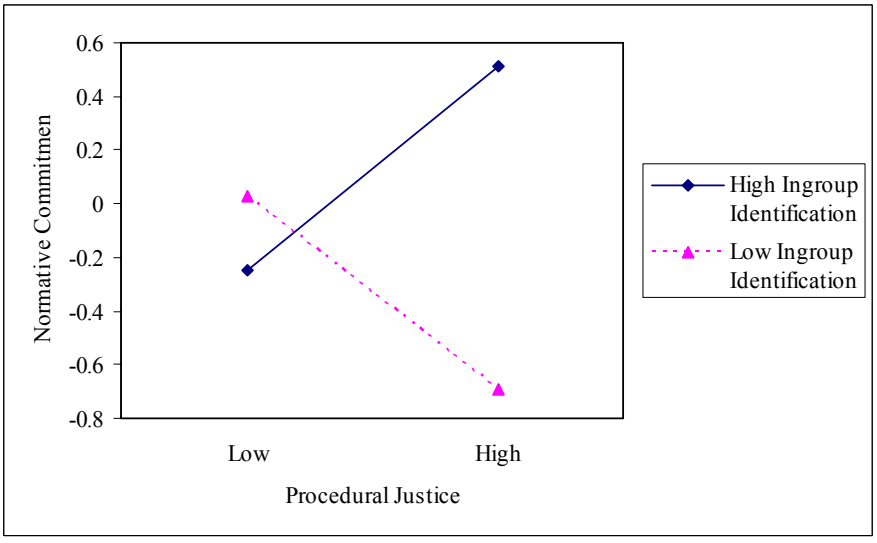
Figure C6. The interaction between interpersonal justice and LMX on job satisfaction in Chinese sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High LMX	0.41	0.24	1.72†
Low LMX	-0.33	0.20	-1.71†

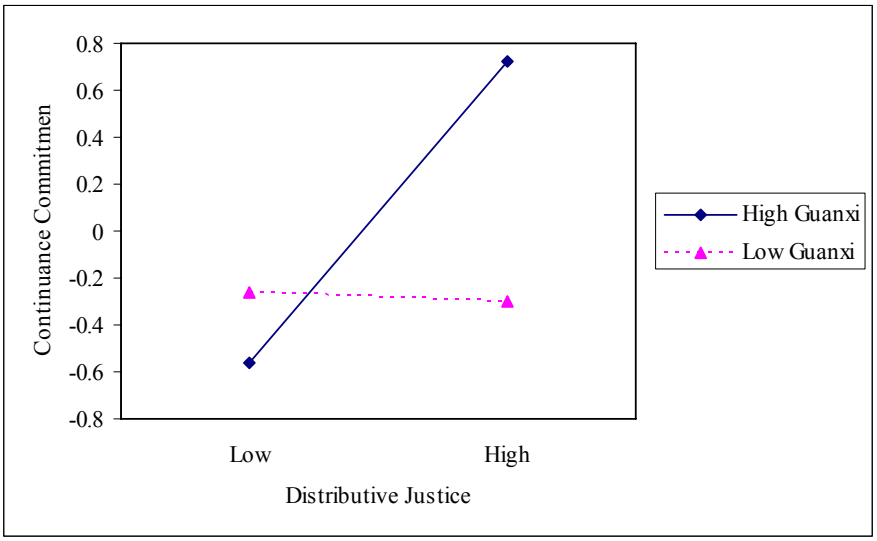
Figure C7. The interaction between procedural justice and ingroup identification on normative commitment in Chinese sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High ingroup identification	0.39	0.20	1.98*
Low ingroup identification	-0.36	0.20	-1.82†

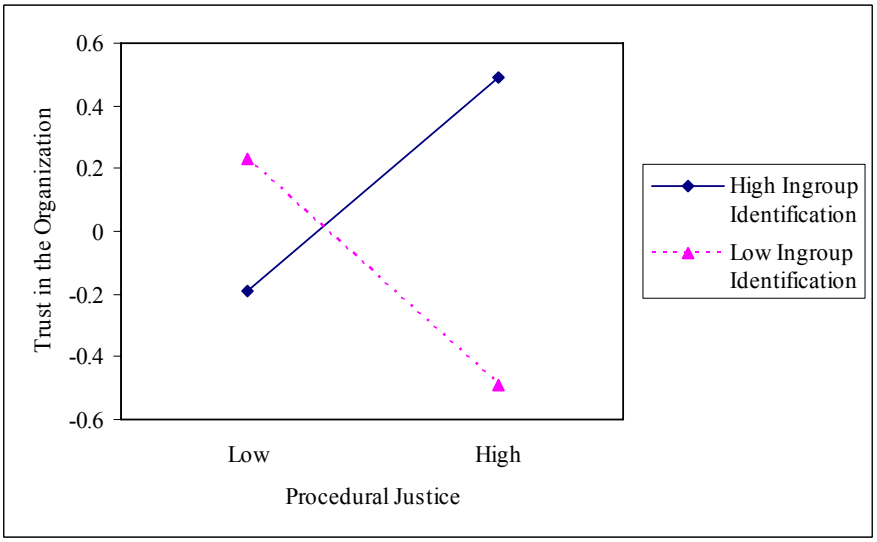
Figure C8. The interaction between distributive justice and *guanxi* on continuance commitment in Chinese sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Guanxi	0.65	0.18	3.60***
Low Guanxi	-0.02	0.18	-0.10

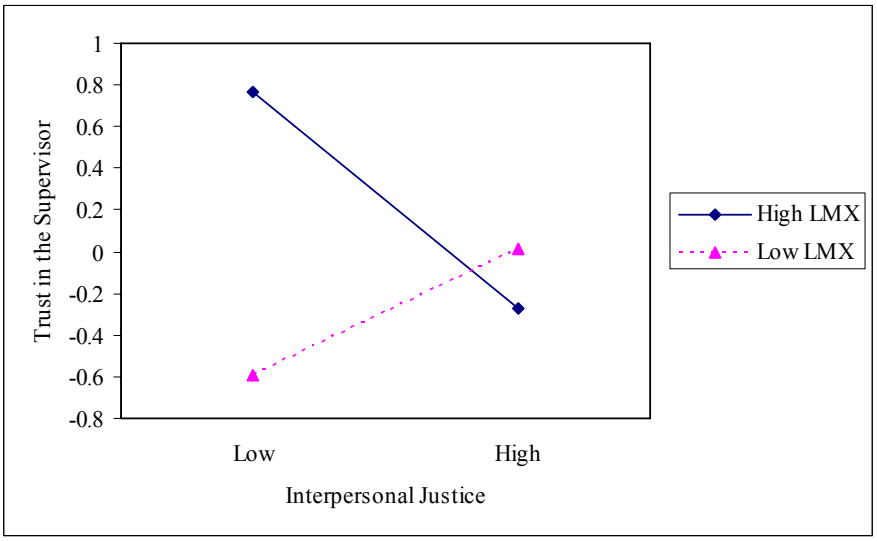
Figure C9. The interaction between procedural justice and ingroup identification on trust in the organization in Chinese sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High ingroup identification	0.34	0.20	1.74†
Low ingroup identification	-0.36	0.20	-1.82†

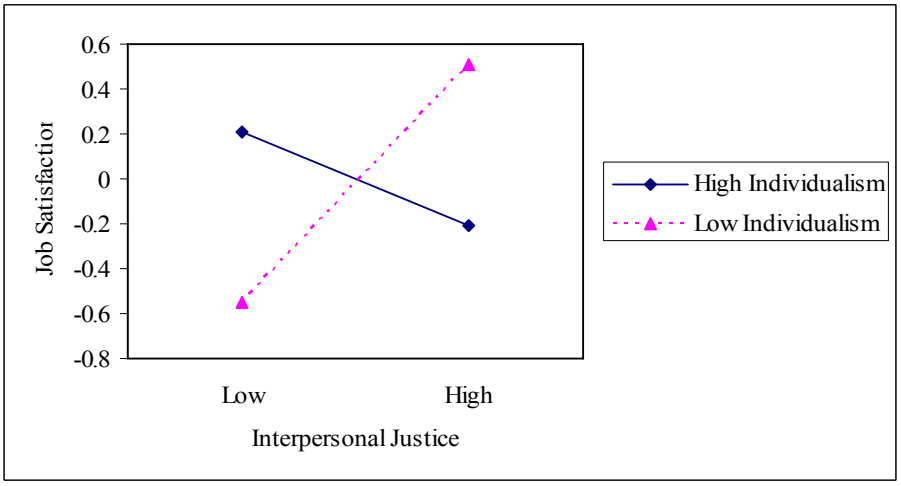
Figure C10. The interaction between interpersonal justice and LMX on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High LMX	-0.52	0.25	-2.11*
Low LMX	0.29	0.20	1.44

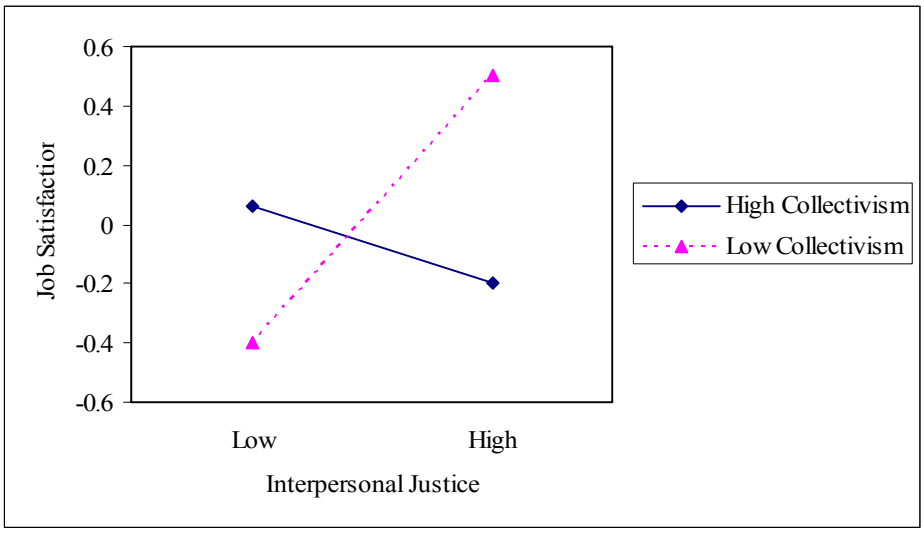
Figure C11. The interaction between interpersonal justice and individualism on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Individualism	-0.25	0.14	-1.81†
Low Individualism	0.48	0.14	3.56***

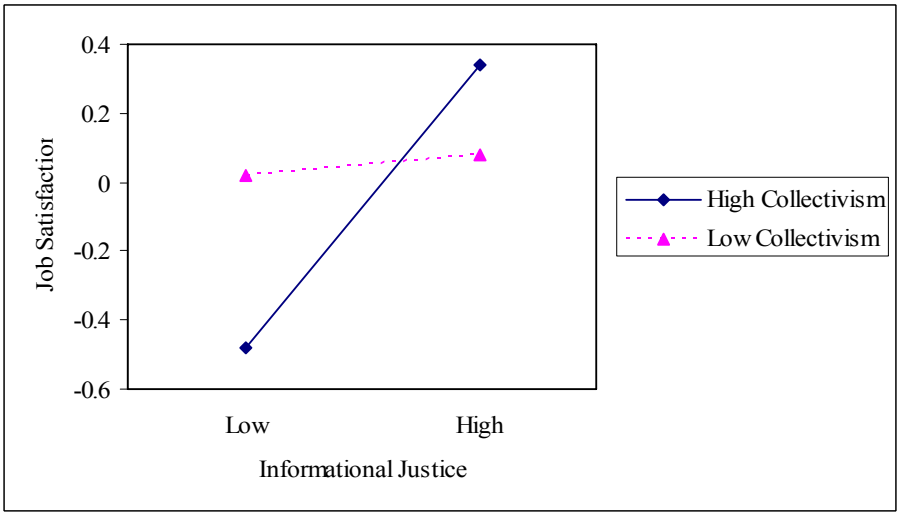
Figure C12. The interaction between interpersonal justice and collectivism on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Collectivism	-0.18	0.13	-1.38
Low Collectivism	0.40	0.12	3.28***

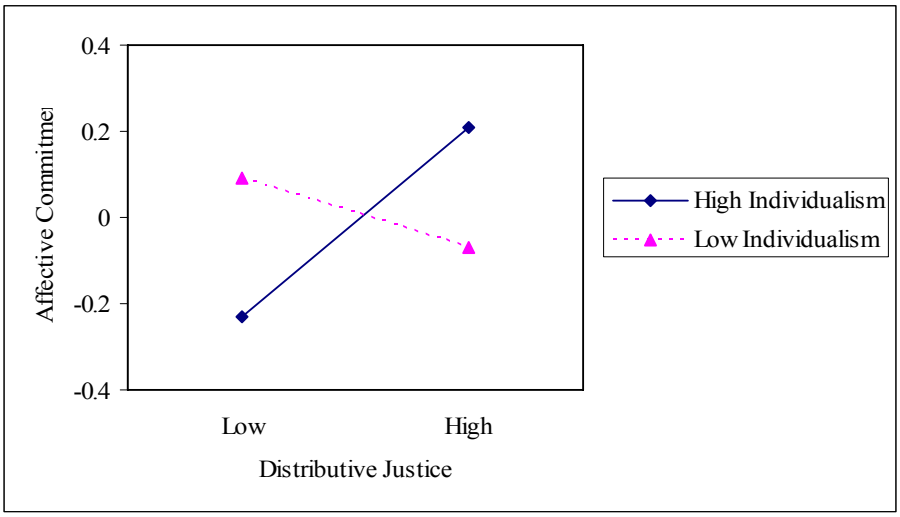
Figure C13. The interaction between informational justice and collectivism on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Collectivism	0.38	0.13	3.02**
Low Collectivism	-0.01	0.12	-0.05

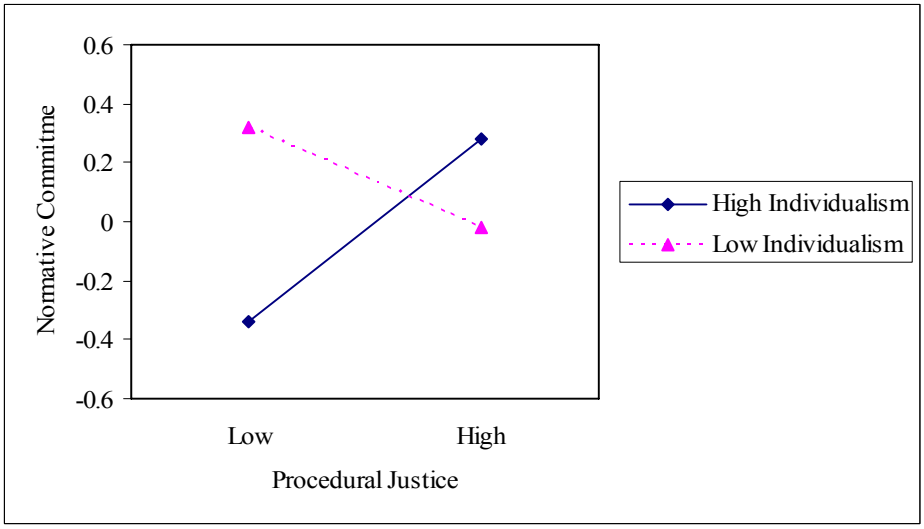
Figure C14. The interaction between distributive justice and individualism on affective commitment in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Individualism	0.16	0.09	1.79†
Low Individualism	-0.15	0.13	-1.19

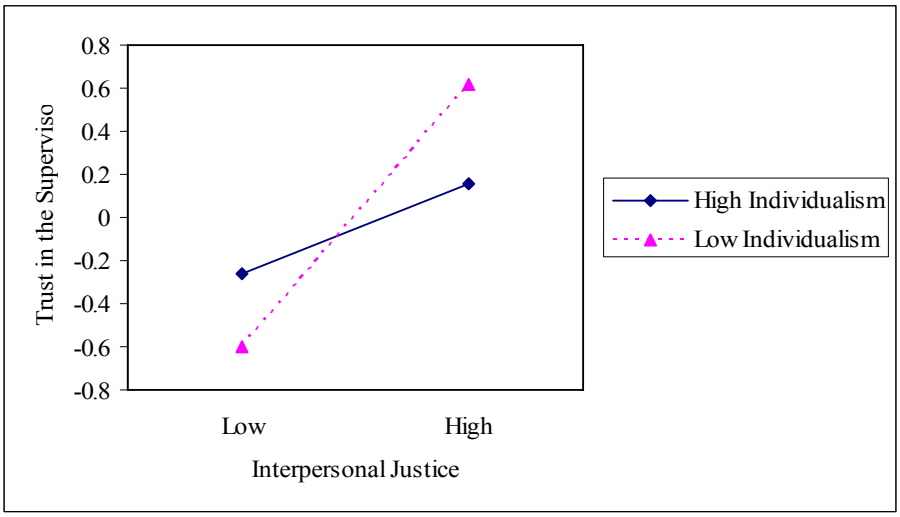
Figure C15. The interaction between procedural justice and individualism on normative commitment in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Individualism	0.40	0.12	3.38***
Low Individualism	-0.09	0.13	-0.70

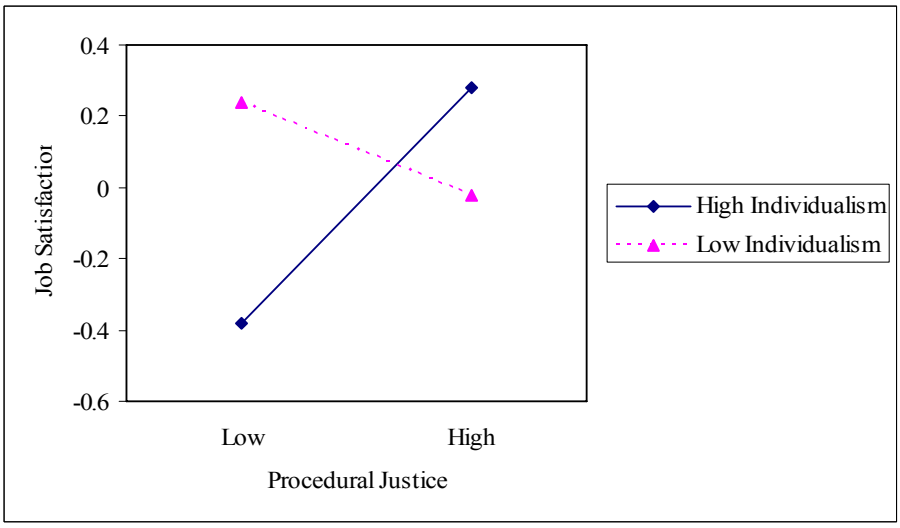
Figure C16. The interaction between interpersonal justice and individualism on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Individualism	0.12	0.13	0.96
Low Individualism	0.53	0.12	4.33***

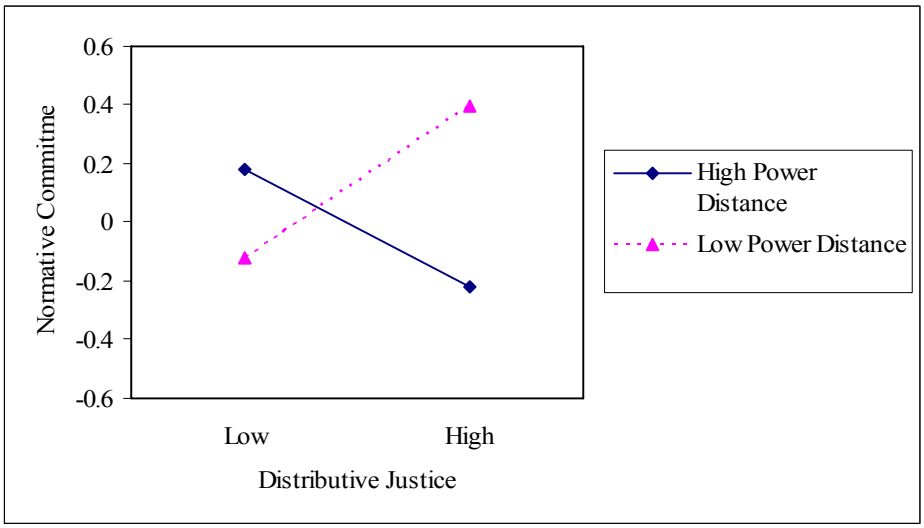
Figure C17. The interaction between procedural justice and individualism on job satisfaction in Chinese sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Individualism	0.33	0.20	1.69†
Low Individualism	-0.13	0.18	-0.73

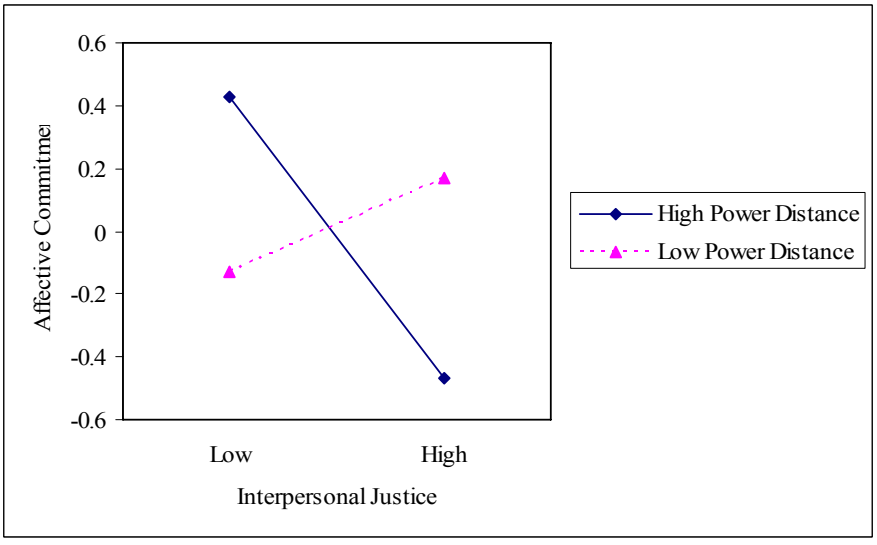
Figure C18. The interaction between distributive justice and power distance on normative commitment in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Power Distance	-0.21	0.10	-2.02*
Low Power Distance	0.26	0.19	1.39

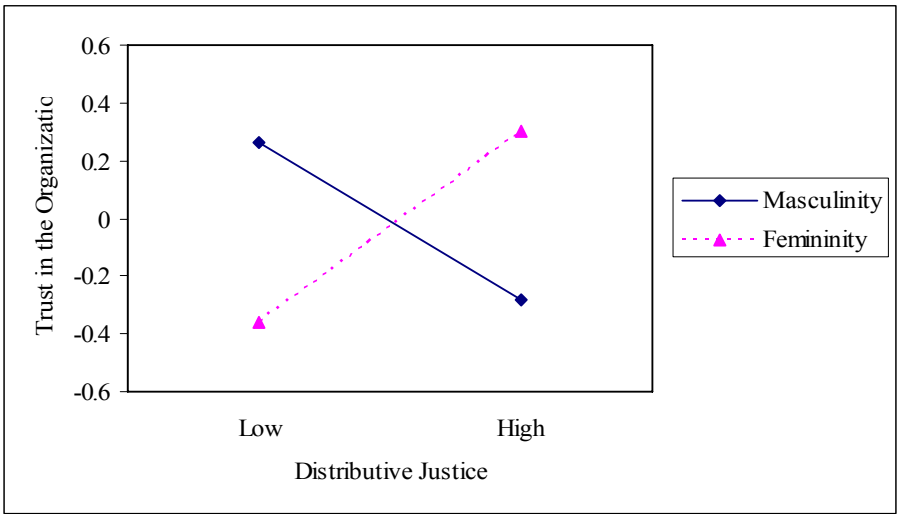
Figure C19. The interaction between interpersonal justice and power distance on affective commitment in Chinese sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Power Distance	-0.45	0.29	-1.56
Low Power Distance	0.15	0.13	1.17

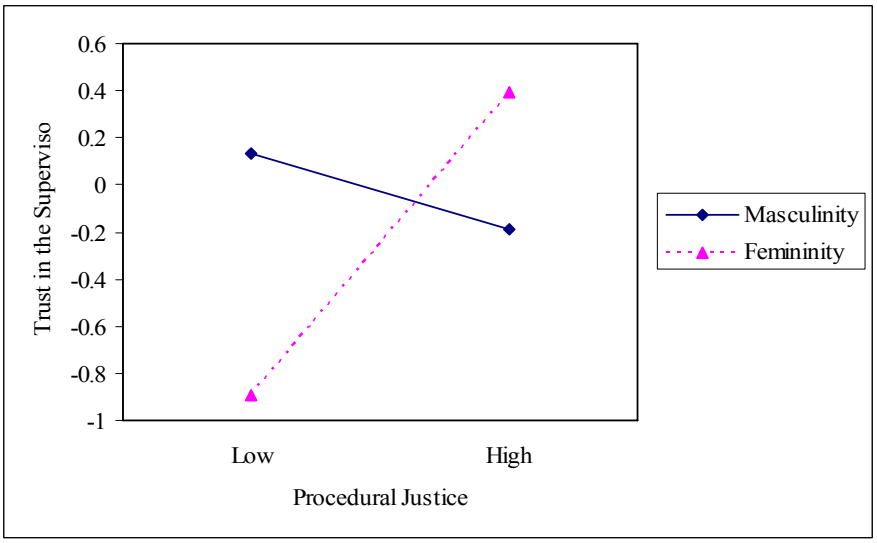
gure C20. The interaction between distributive justice and masculinity on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
Masculinity	-0.27	0.14	-1.97*
Femininity	0.33	0.11	3.03**

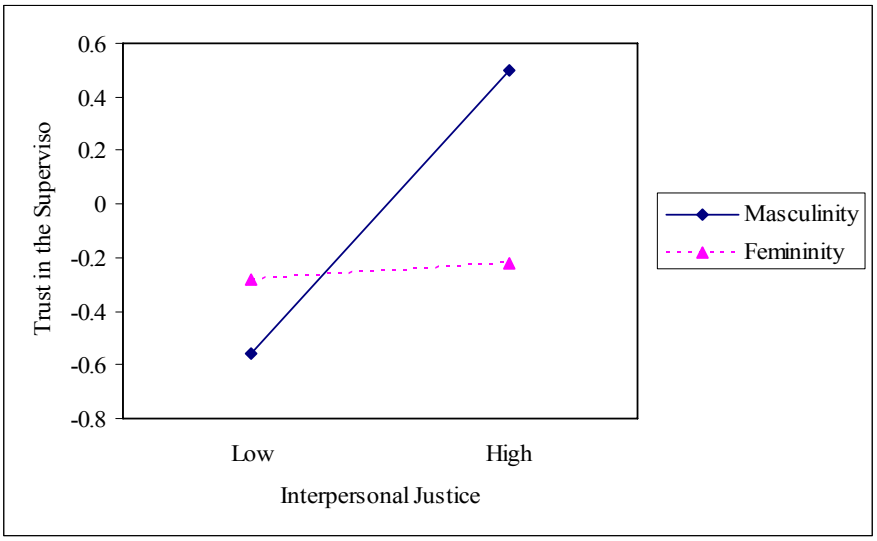
Figure C21. The interaction between procedural justice and masculinity on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
Masculinity	-0.15	0.21	-0.72
Femininity	0.64	0.22	2.92**

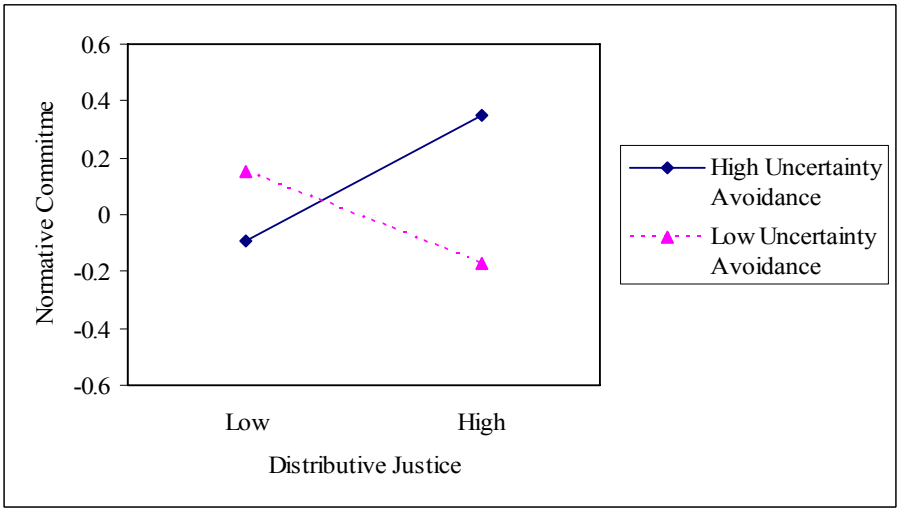
Figure C22. The interaction between interpersonal justice and masculinity on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
Masculinity	0.53	0.21	2.53*
Femininity	0.03	0.21	0.14

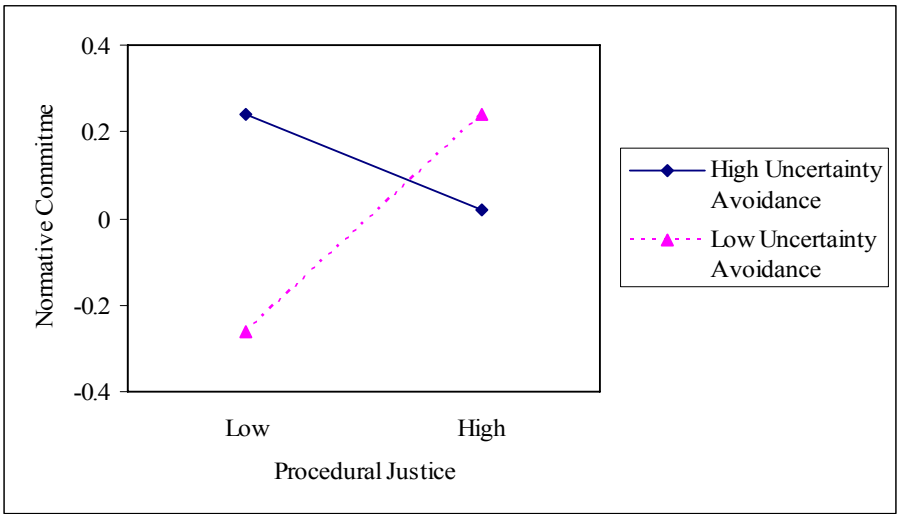
Figure C23. The interaction between distributive justice and uncertainty avoidance on normative commitment in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Uncertainty Avoidance	0.21	0.14	1.50
Low Uncertainty Avoidance	-0.16	0.12	-1.31

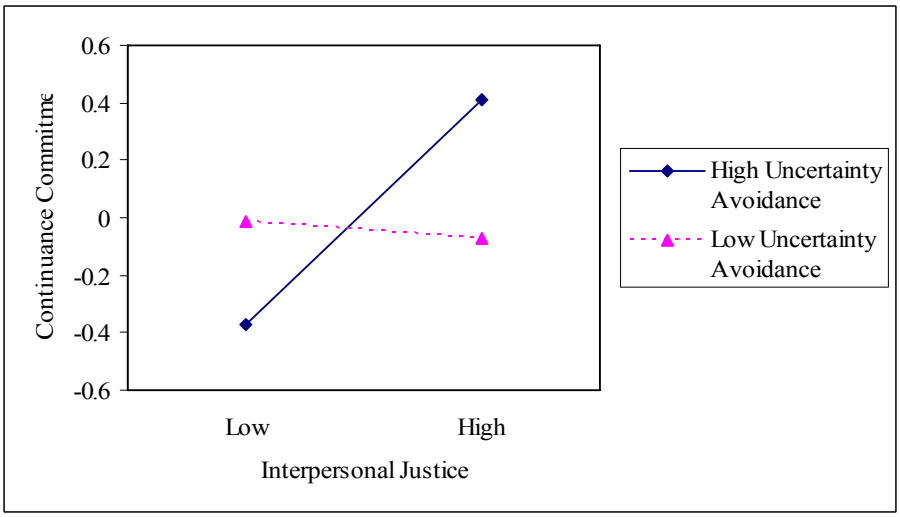
Figure C24. The interaction between procedural justice and uncertainty avoidance on normative commitment in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Uncertainty Avoidance	-0.11	0.14	-0.79
Low Uncertainty Avoidance	0.26	0.13	1.93†

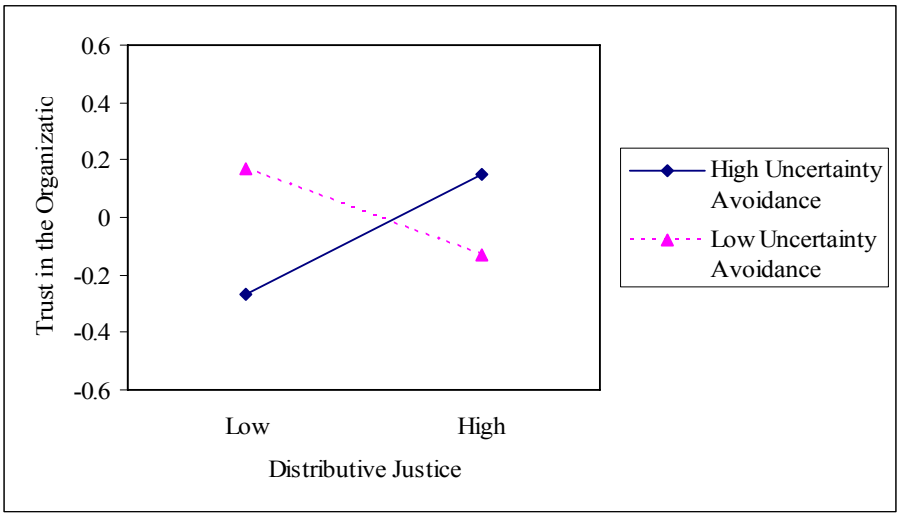
Figure C25. The interaction between interpersonal justice and uncertainty avoidance on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Uncertainty Avoidance	0.39	0.16	2.43*
Low Uncertainty Avoidance	-0.04	0.15	-0.25

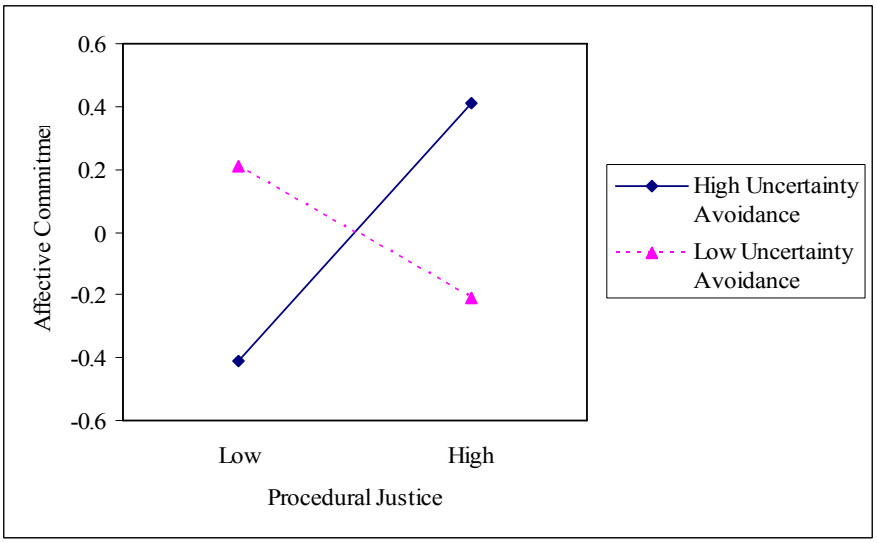
Figure C26. The interaction between distributive justice and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Uncertainty Avoidance	0.21	0.13	1.69†
Low Uncertainty Avoidance	-0.15	0.11	-1.37

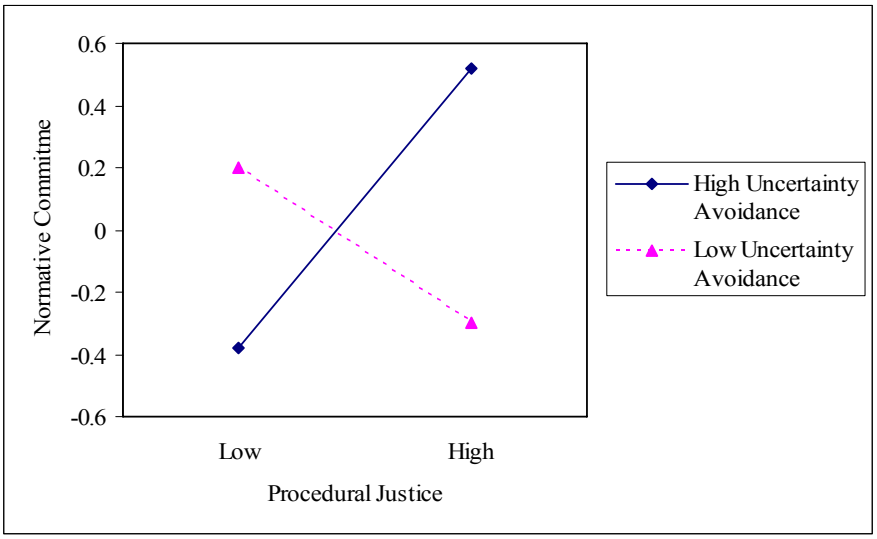
Figure C27. The interaction between procedural justice and uncertainty avoidance on affective commitment in Chinese sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Uncertainty Avoidance	0.42	0.21	1.97*
Low Uncertainty Avoidance	-0.21	0.22	-0.94

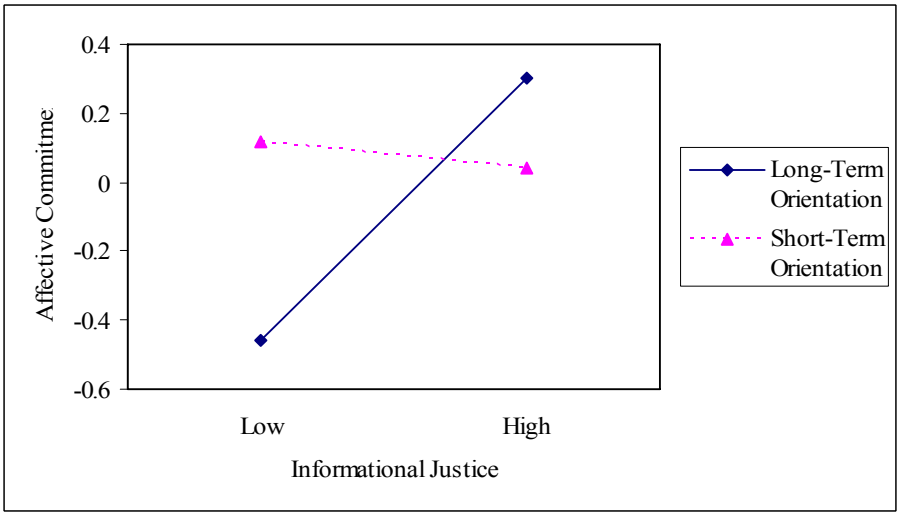
Figure C28. The interaction between procedural justice and uncertainty avoidance on normative commitment in Chinese sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
High Uncertainty Avoidance	0.45	0.21	2.18*
Low Uncertainty Avoidance	-0.24	0.22	-1.09

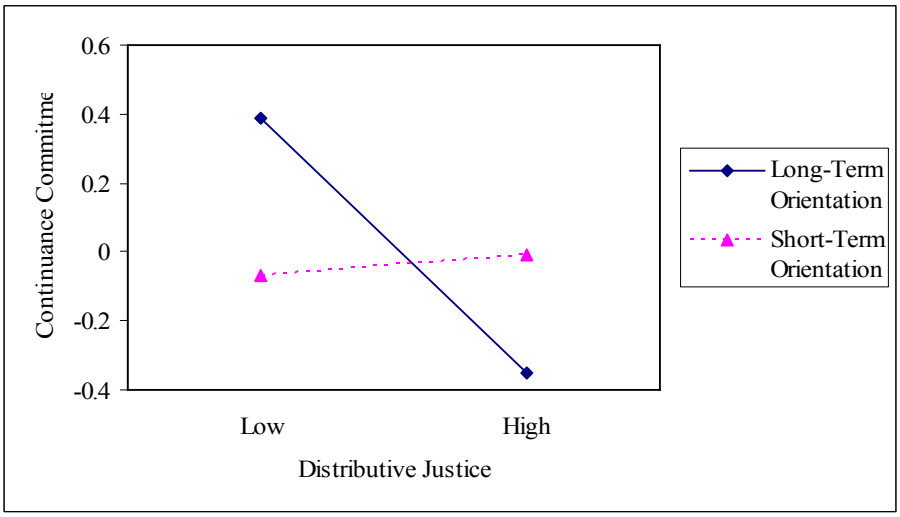
Figure C29. The interaction between informational justice and long-term orientation on affective commitment in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
Long-Term Orientation	0.38	0.13	2.95**
Short-Term Orientation	-0.04	0.13	-0.28

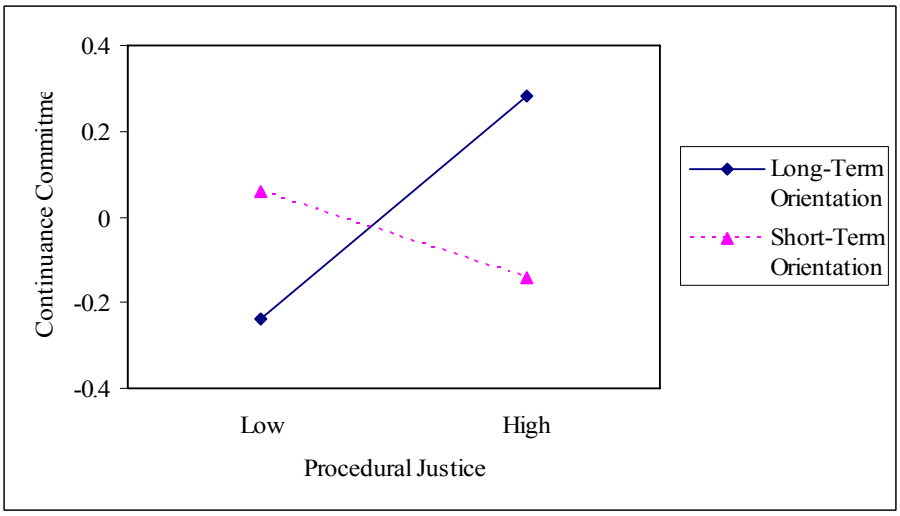
Figure C30. The interaction between distributive justice and long-term orientation on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
Long-Term Orientation	-0.34	0.12	-2.77**
Short-Term Orientation	0.06	0.12	0.53

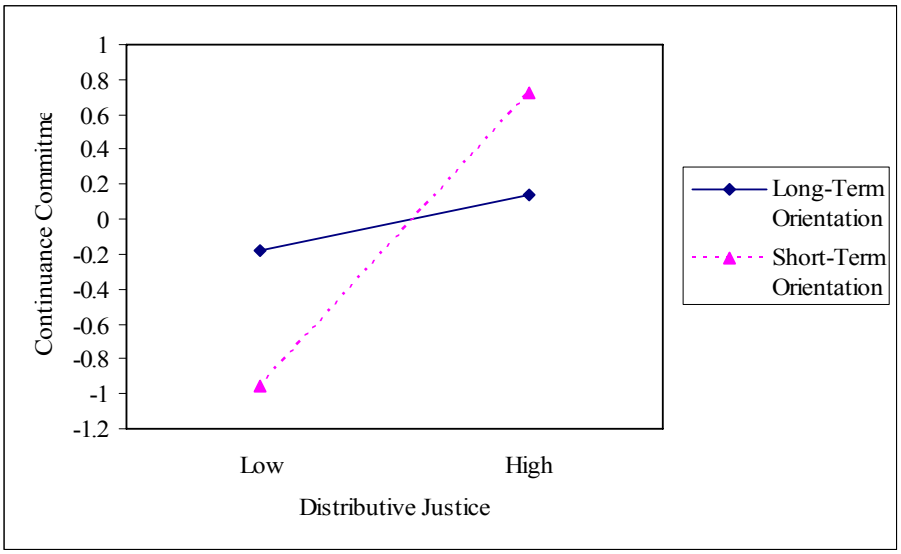
Figure C31. The interaction between procedural justice and long-term orientation on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
Long-Term Orientation	0.22	0.12	1.89†
Short-Term Orientation	-0.13	0.13	-1.01

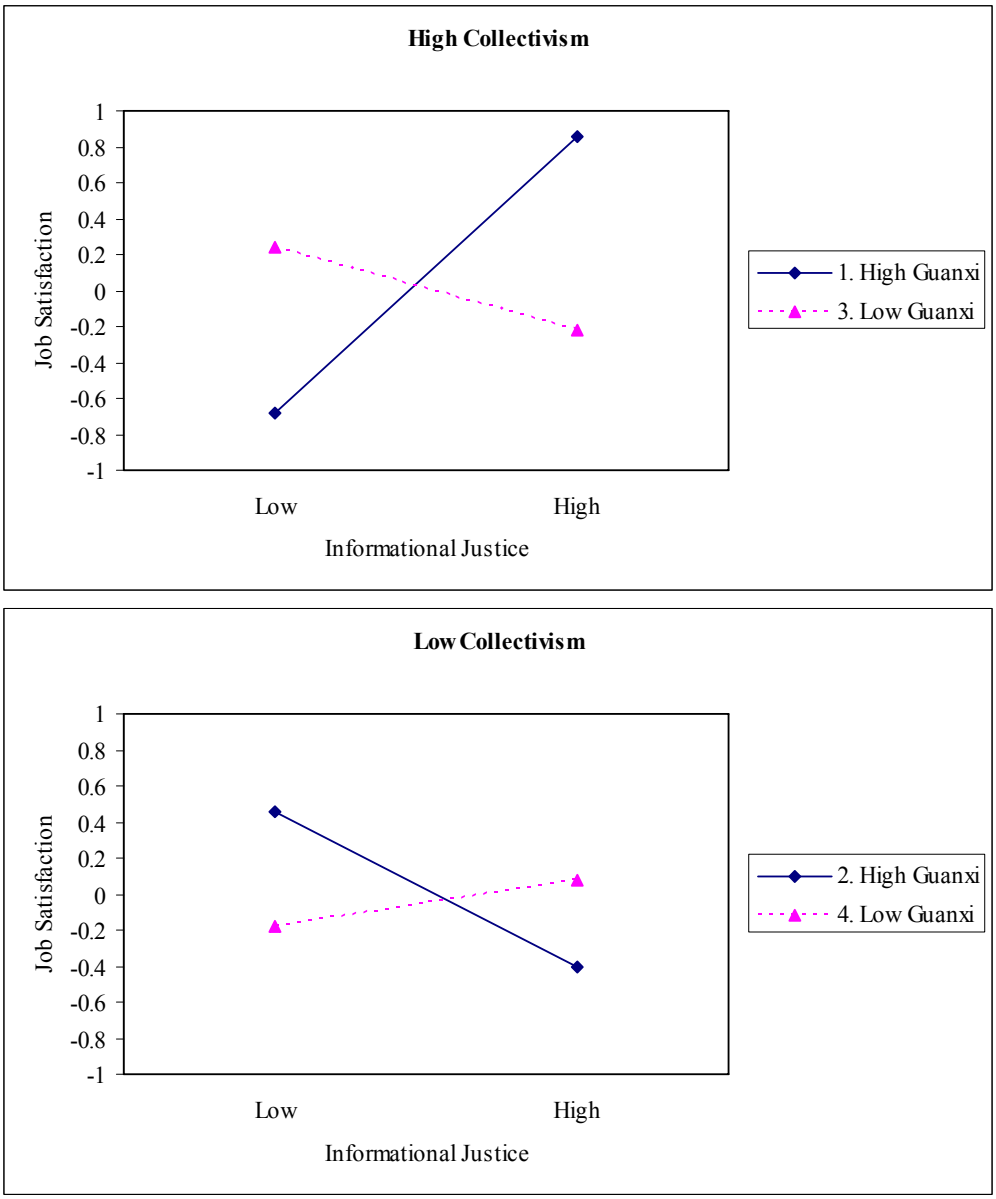
Figure C32. The interaction between distributive justice and long-term orientation on continuance commitment in Chinese sample



Post-hoc Tests of Simple Slopes

	B	Std. Error	t
Long-Term Orientation	0.16	0.21	0.75
Short-Term Orientation	0.84	0.21	3.99***

Figure C33. Three-way interactions among informational justice, *guanxi*, and collectivism on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample

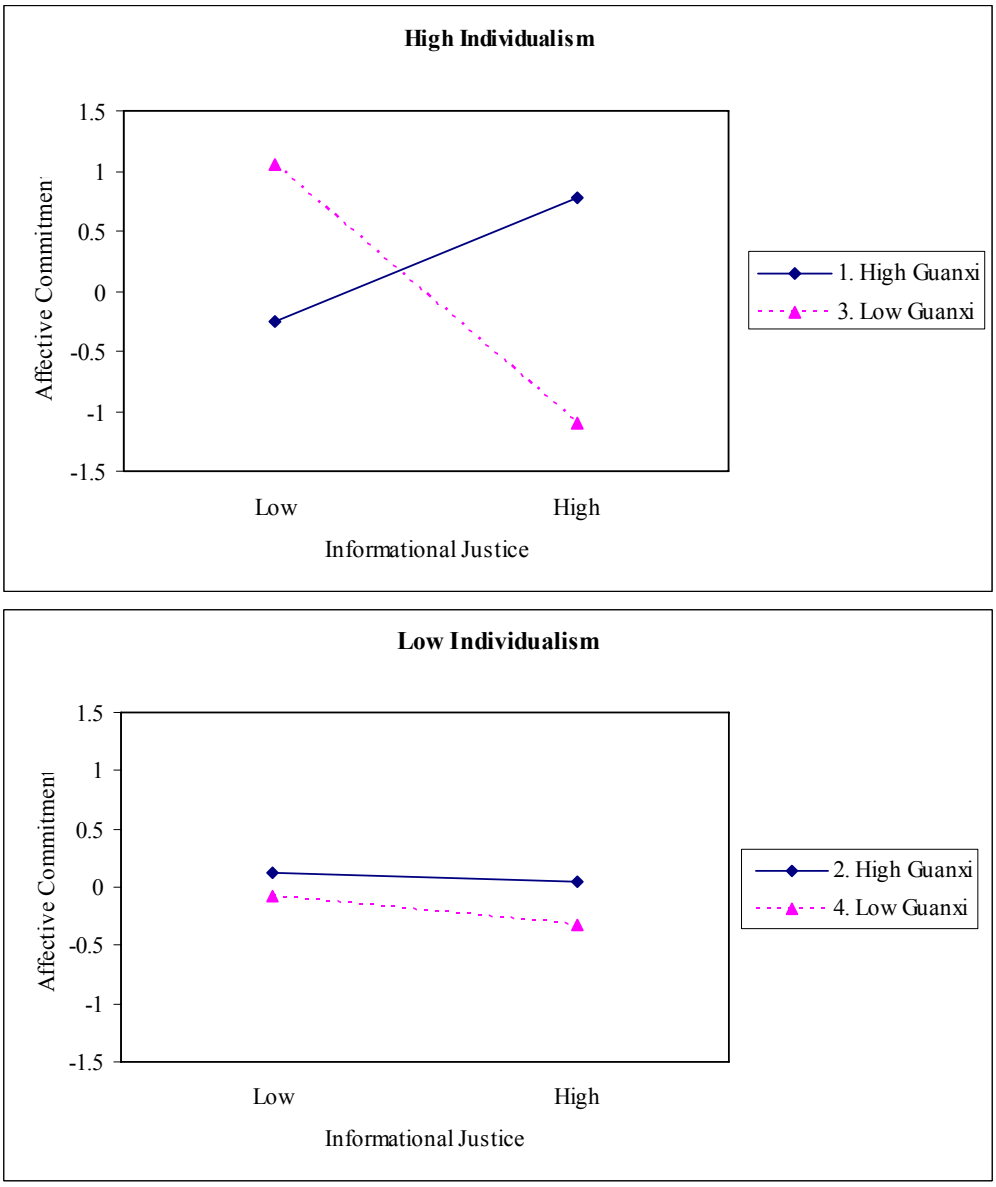


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	2.44*
(1) and (3)	1.64
(1) and (4)	1.30
(2) and (3)	-0.35
(2) and (4)	-0.97
(3) and (4)	-0.71

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C34. Three-way interactions among informational justice, *guanxi*, and individualism on affective commitment in the U.S. sample

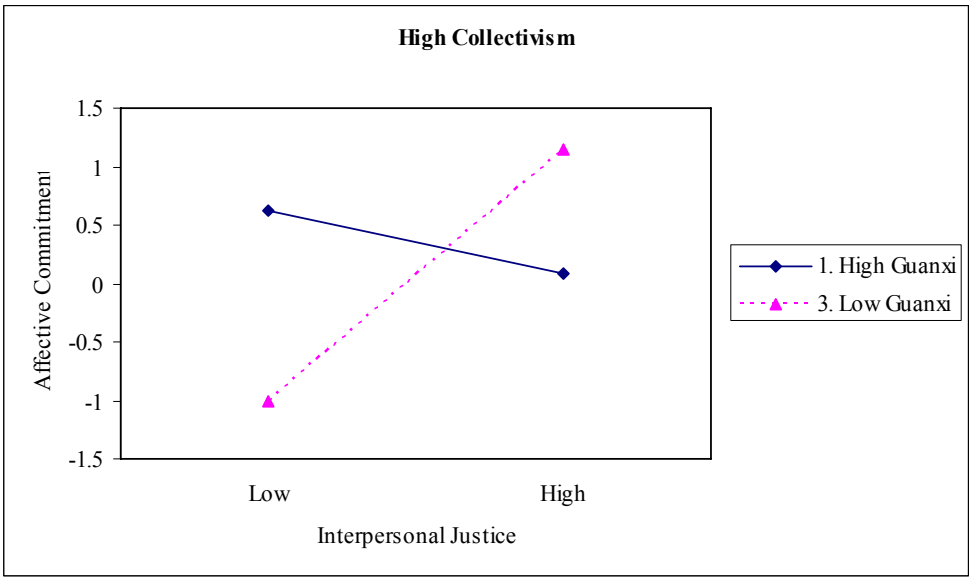


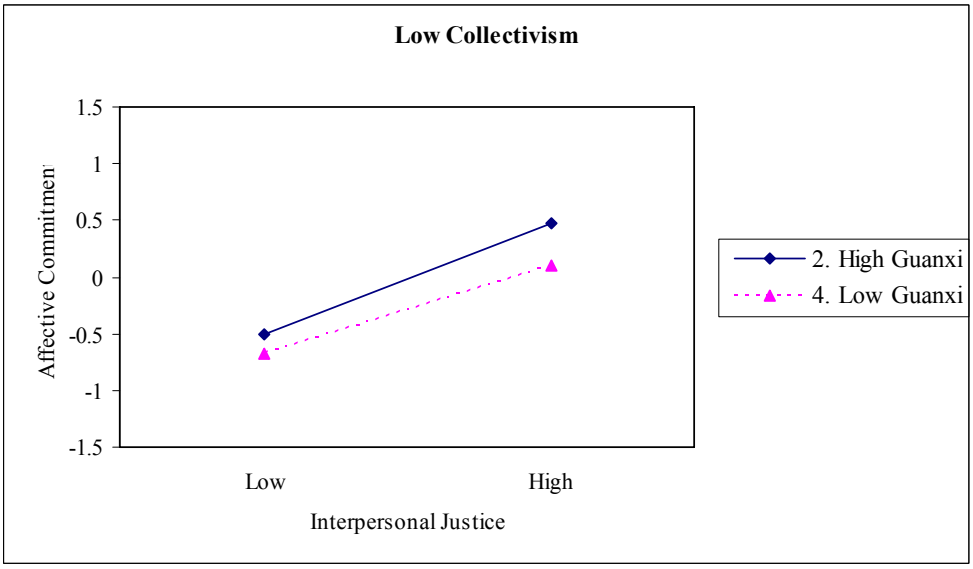
Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	1.14
(1) and (3)	2.72**
(1) and (4)	1.18
(2) and (3)	2.12*
(2) and (4)	0.16
(3) and (4)	-2.32*

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C35. Three-way interactions among interpersonal justice, *guanxi*, and collectivism on affective commitment in the U.S. sample



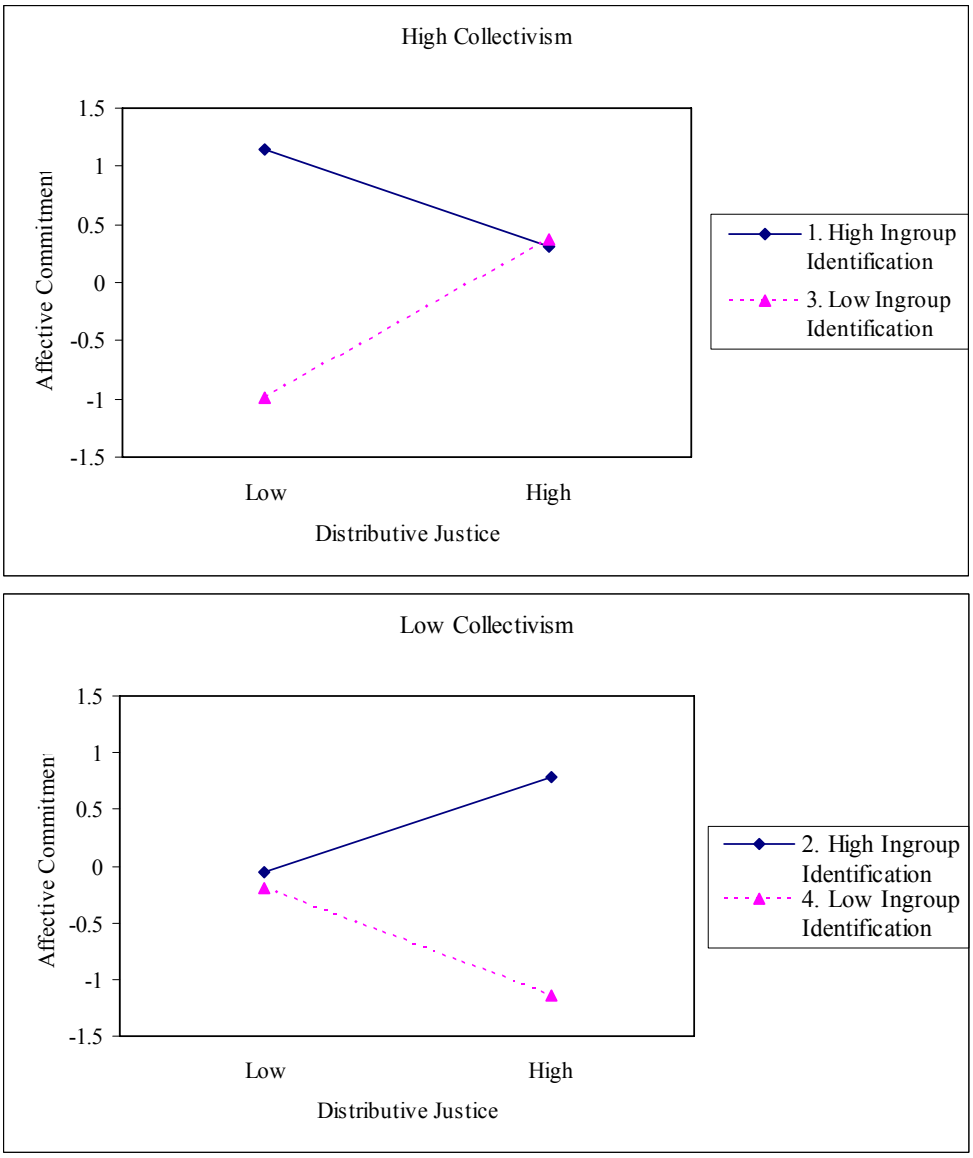


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	-1.67^{+}
(1) and (3)	-2.40*
(1) and (4)	-1.59
(2) and (3)	-1.05
(2) and (4)	0.19
(3) and (4)	1.49

$^{+}$p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Figure C36. Three-way interactions among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and collectivism on affective commitment in the U.S. sample

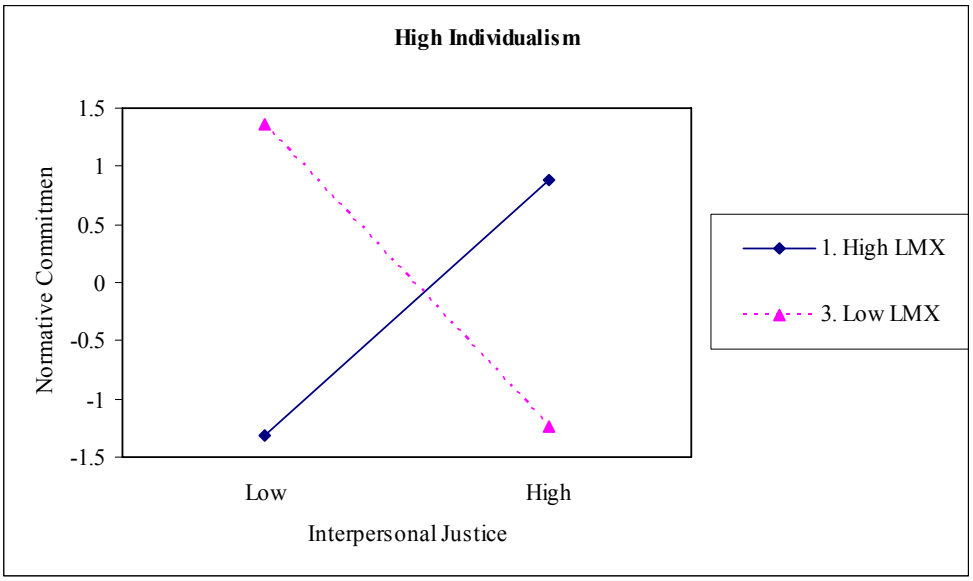


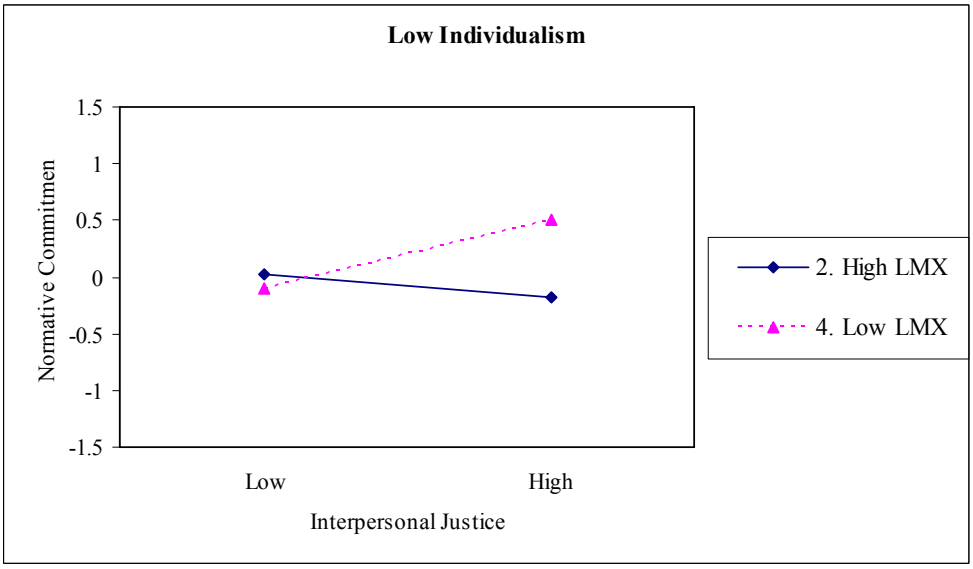
Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	-2.07*
(1) and (3)	-1.62
(1) and (4)	0.10
(2) and (3)	-0.51
(2) and (4)	1.50
(3) and (4)	2.23*

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C37. Three-way interactions among interpersonal justice, LMX, and individualism on normative commitment in the U.S. sample



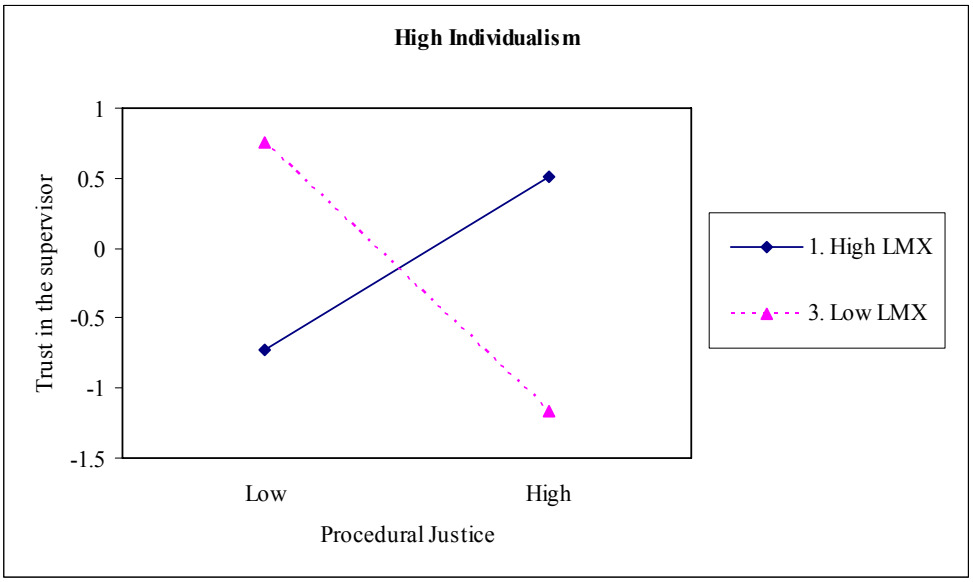


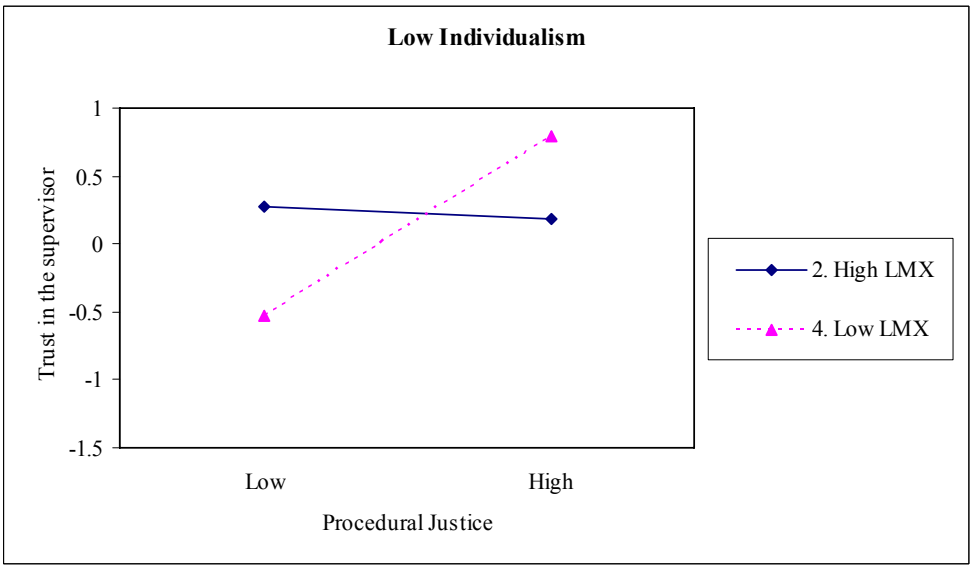
Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	1.64^{+}
(1) and (3)	2.29*
(1) and (4)	0.92
(2) and (3)	1.59
(2) and (4)	-0.43
(3) and (4)	-2.13*

$^{+}$p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Figure C38. Three-way interactions among procedural justice, LMX, and individualism on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample



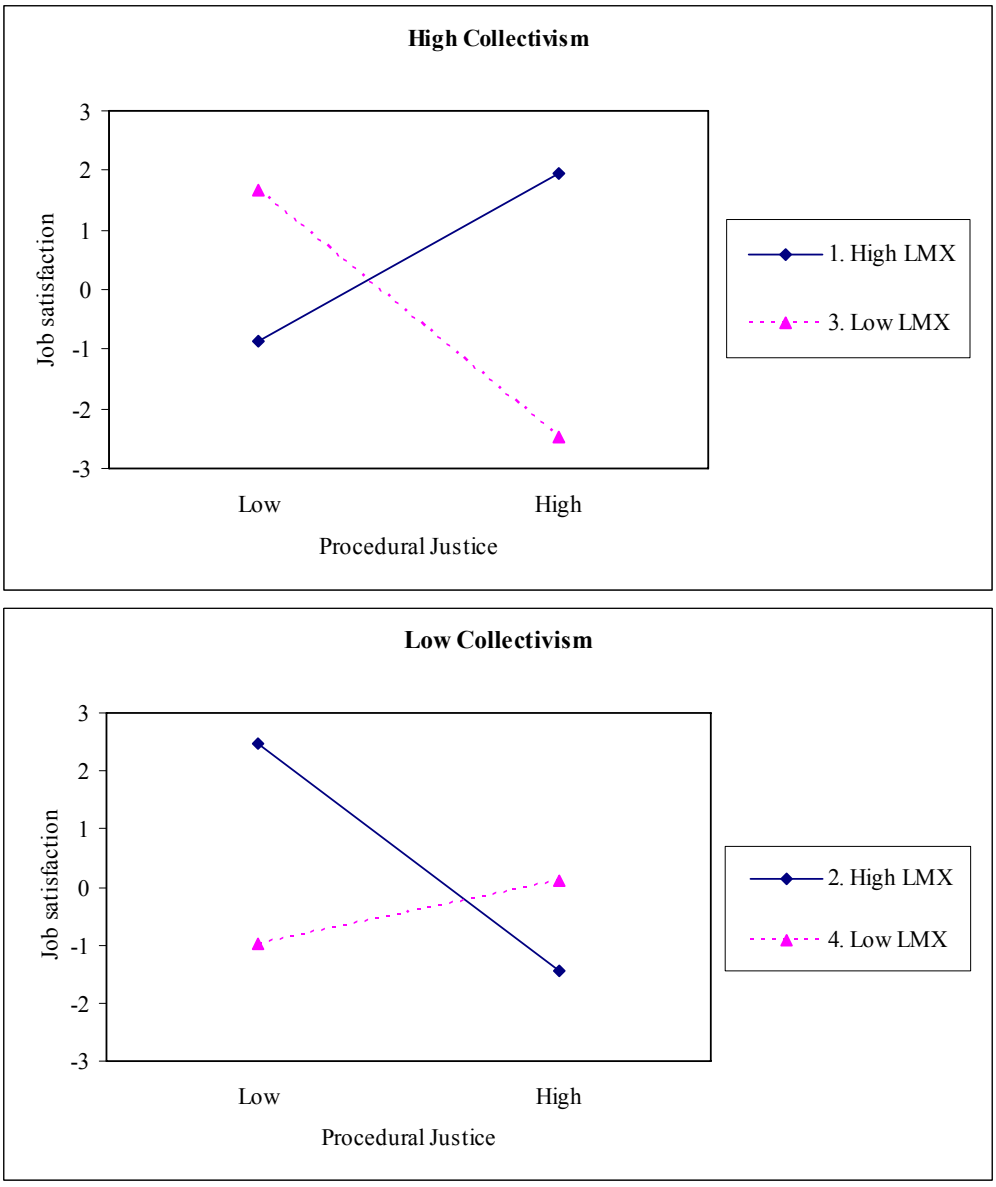


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	1.24
(1) and (3)	2.09*
(1) and (4)	-0.07
(2) and (3)	1.70^{+}
(2) and (4)	-1.02
(3) and (4)	-2.46*

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C39. Three-way interactions among procedural justice, LMX, and collectivism on job satisfaction in Chinese sample

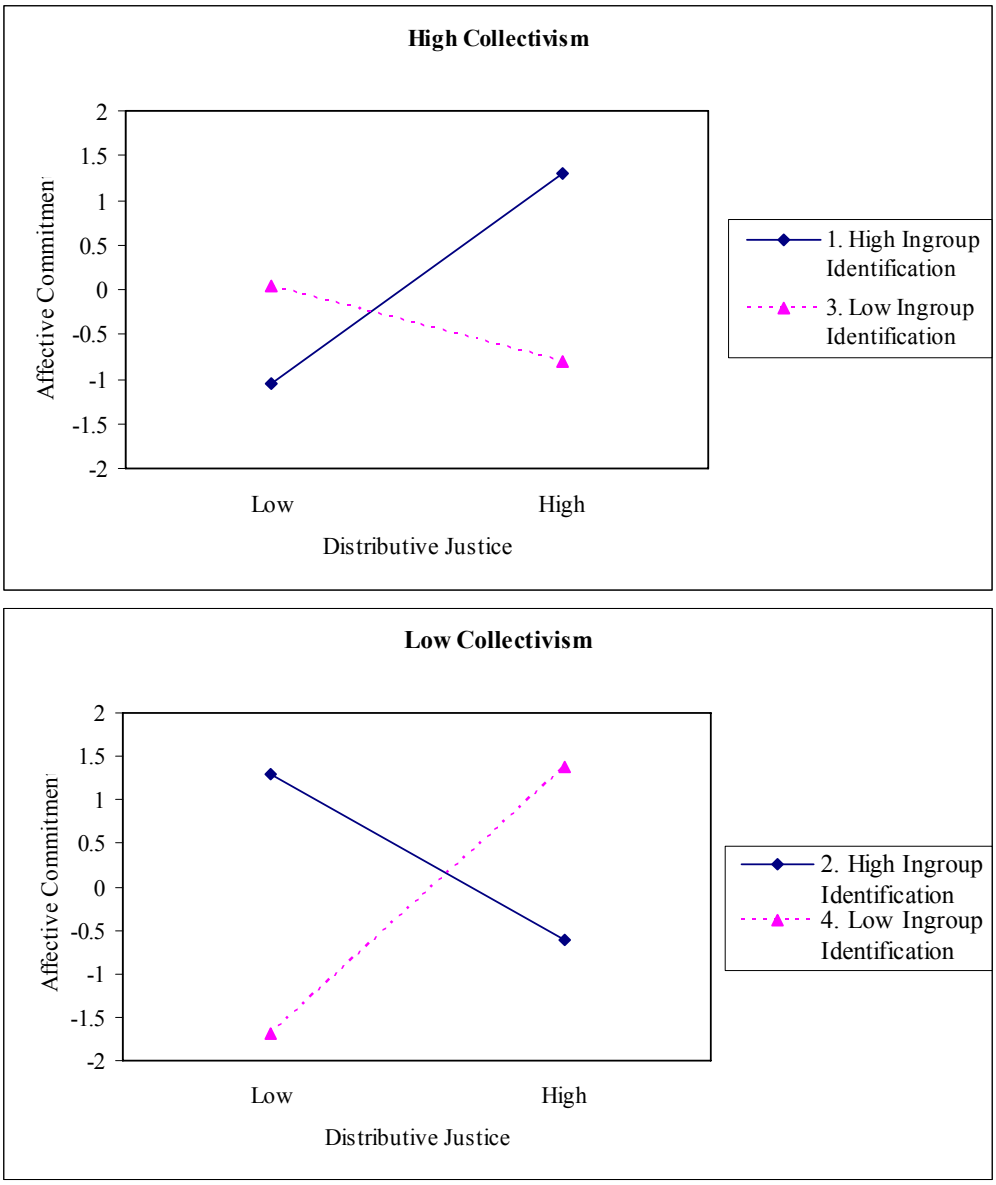


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	2.29*
(1) and (3)	1.46
(1) and (4)	0.50
(2) and (3)	0.07
(2) and (4)	-1.25
(3) and (4)	-1.46

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C40. Three-way interactions among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and collectivism on affective commitment in Chinese sample

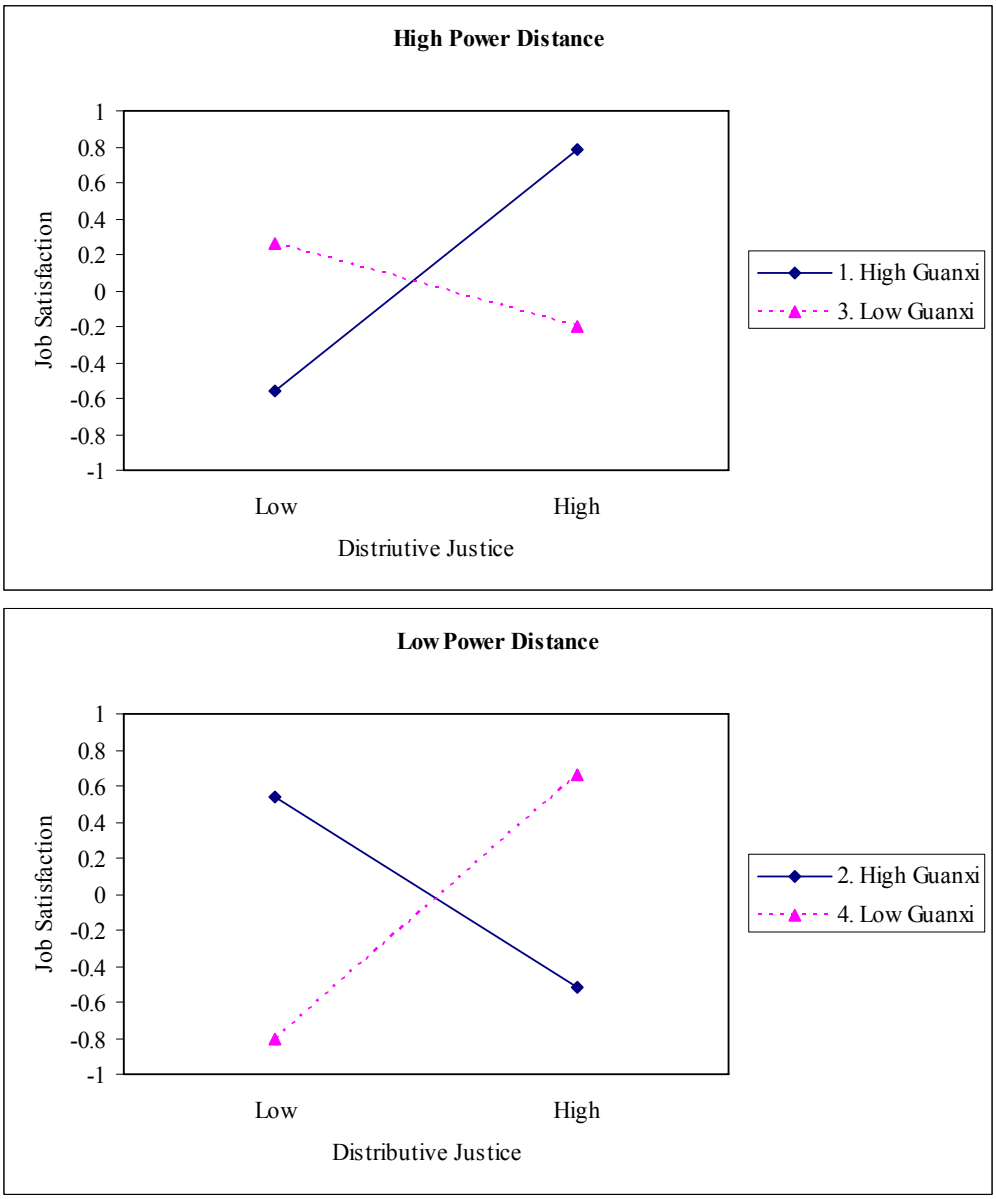


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	1.77^{+}
(1) and (3)	1.07
(1) and (4)	-0.31
(2) and (3)	-0.41
(2) and (4)	-1.79^{+}
(3) and (4)	-1.93^{+}

$^{+}p\leq0.10$; *$p\leq0.05$; **$p\leq0.01$; ***$p\leq0.001$.

Figure C41. Three-way interactions among distributive justice, *guanxi*, and power distance on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample

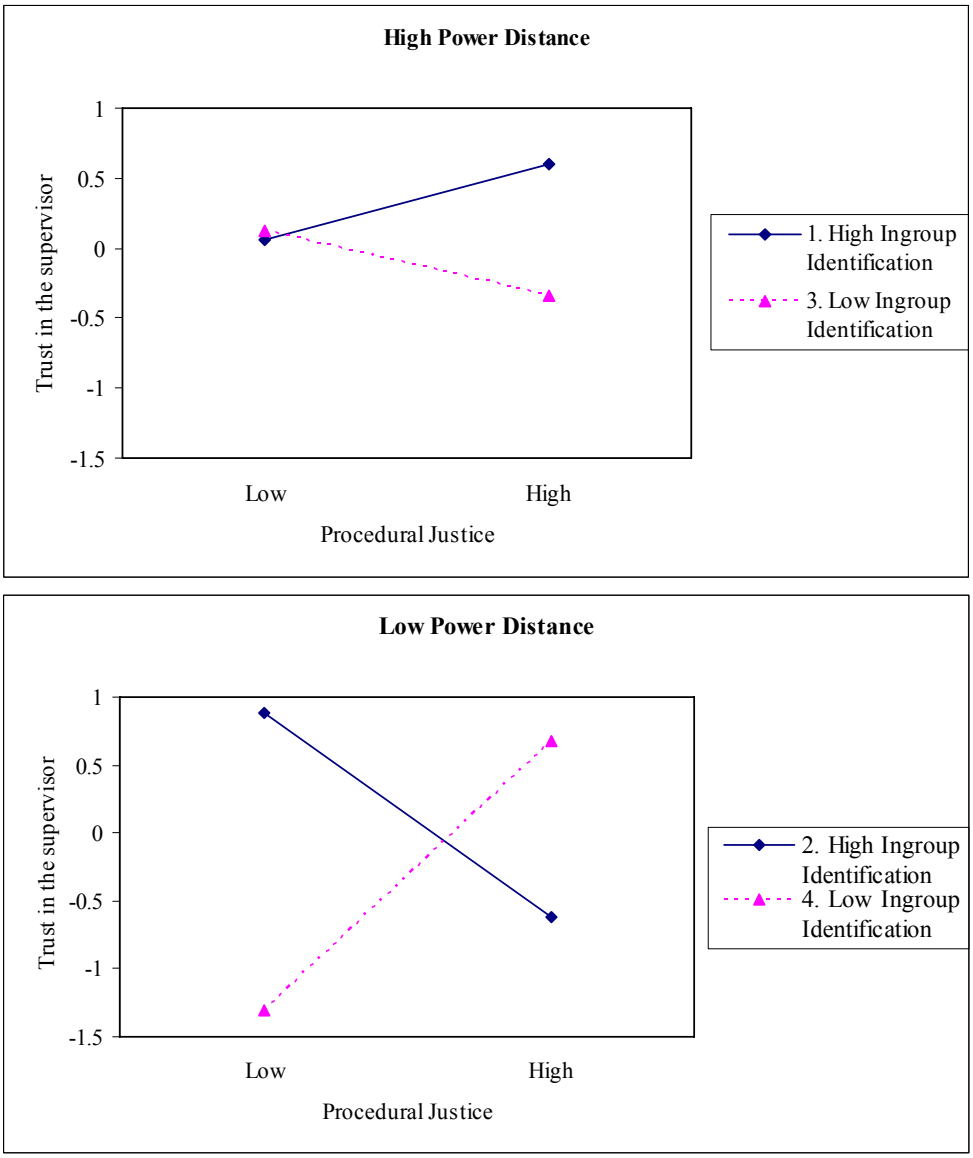


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	2.25*
(1) and (3)	3.11**
(1) and (4)	-0.16
(2) and (3)	-0.91
(2) and (4)	-1.87^{+}
(3) and (4)	-1.83^{+}

$^{+}$p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Figure C42. Three-way interactions among procedural justice, ingroup identification, and power distance on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample

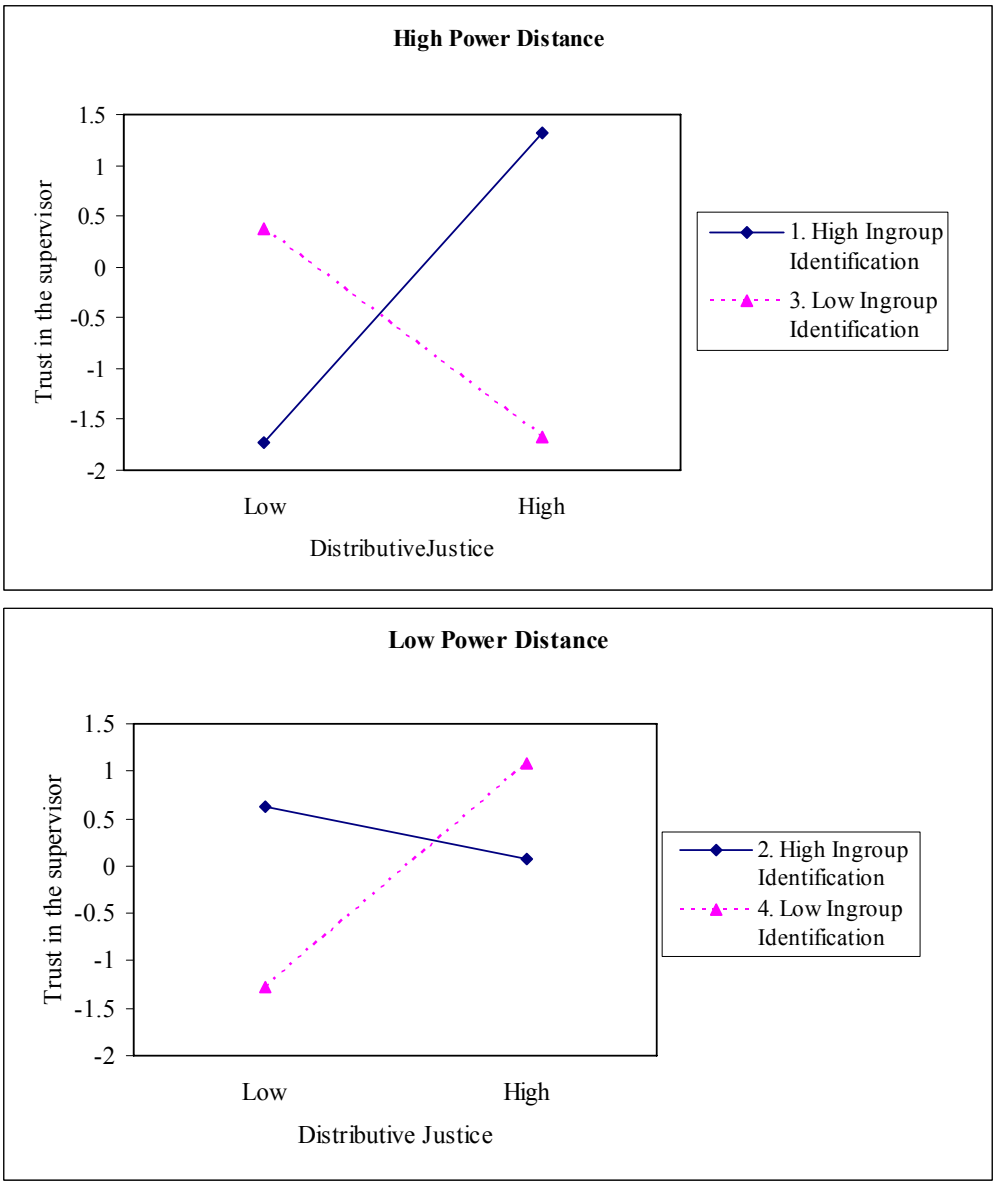


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	1.59
(1) and (3)	0.66
(1) and (4)	-1.17
(2) and (3)	-0.99
(2) and (4)	-2.34*
(3) and (4)	-1.99*

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C43. Three-way interactions among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and power distance on trust in the supervisor in Chinese sample

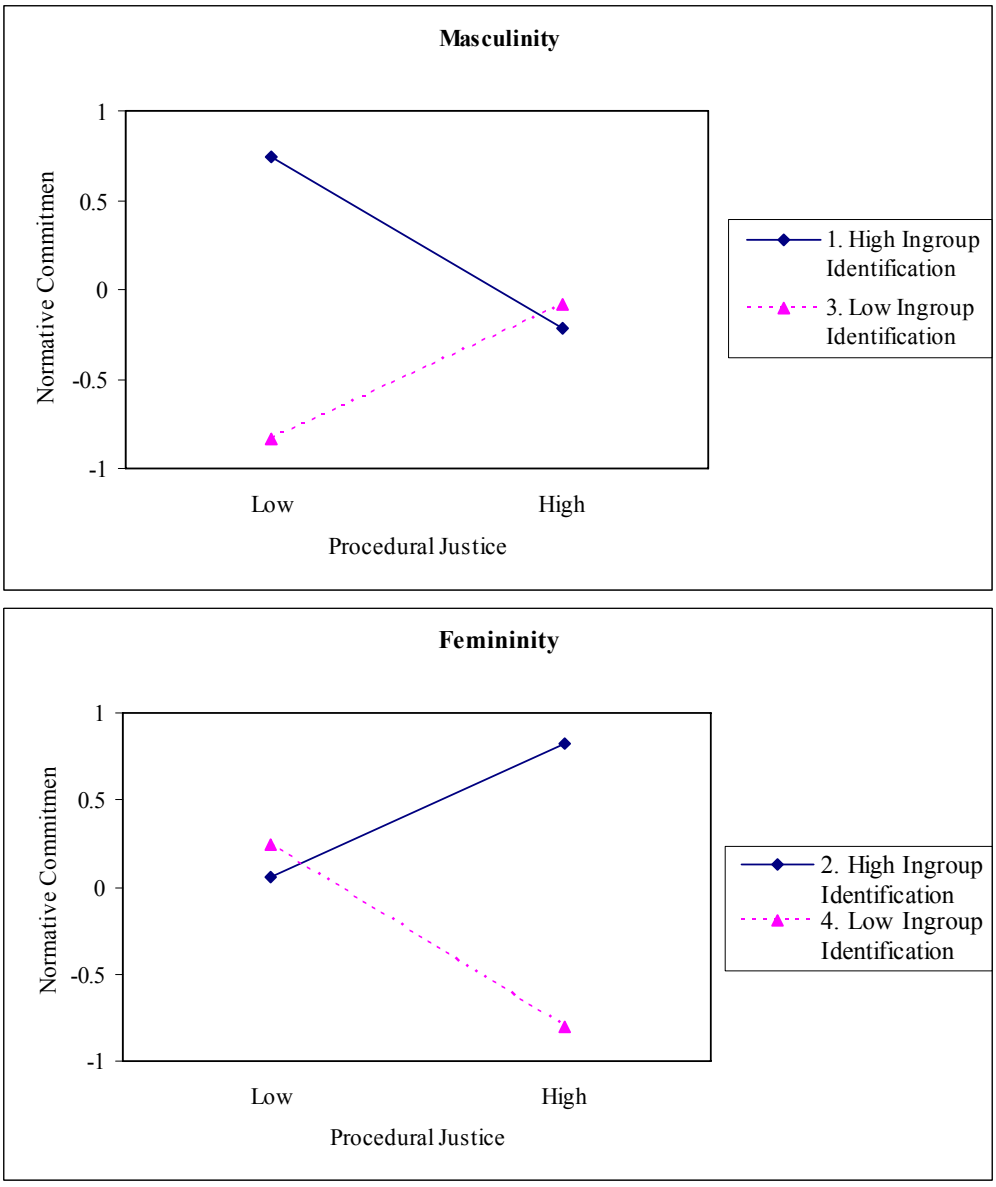


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	1.95^{+}
(1) and (3)	1.47
(1) and (4)	0.33
(2) and (3)	0.63
(2) and (4)	-1.93^{+}
(3) and (4)	-2.18*

$^{+}$p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Figure C44. Three-way interactions among procedural justice, ingroup identification, and masculinity on normative commitment in the U.S. sample

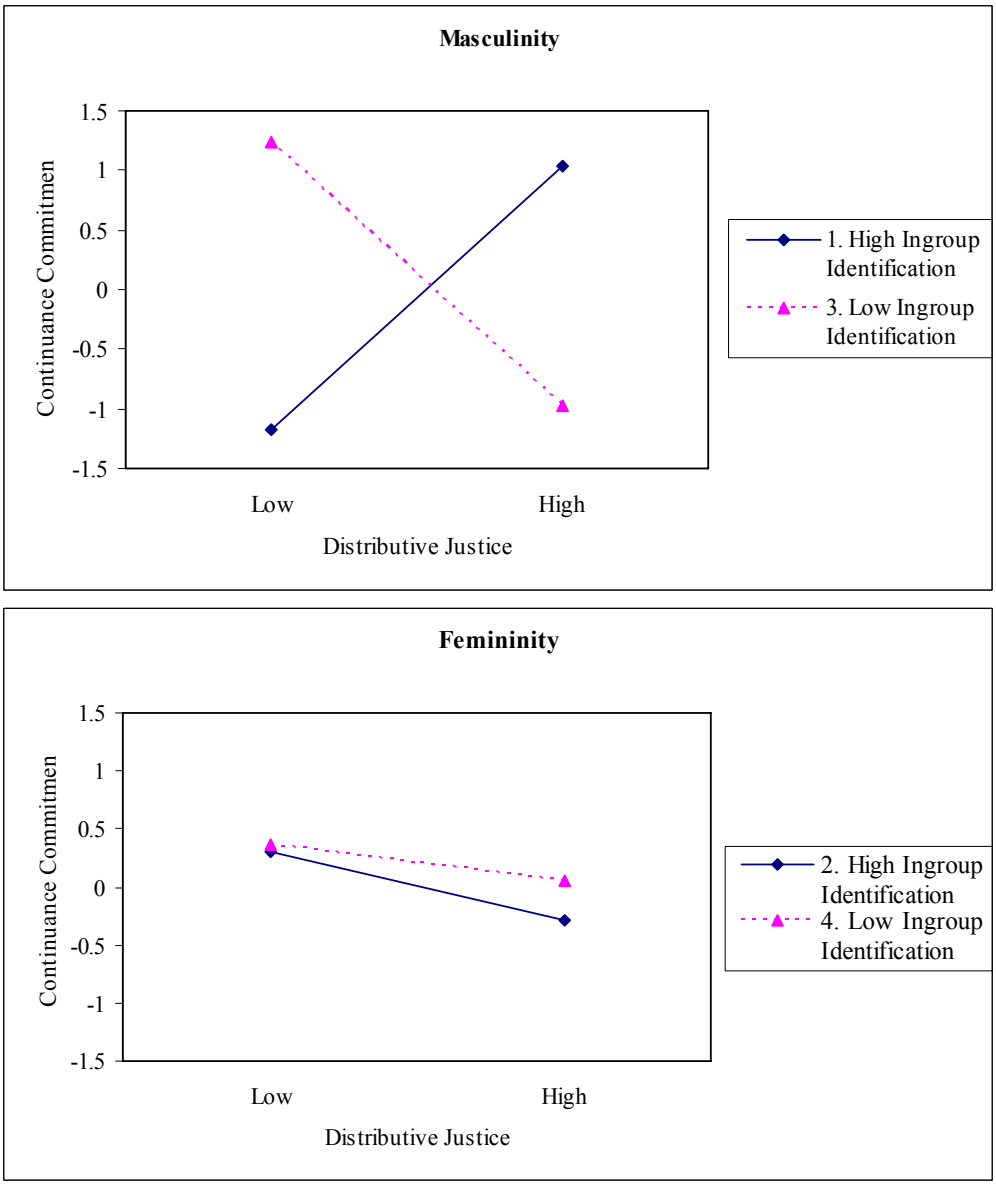


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	-1.69^{+}
(1) and (3)	-1.11
(1) and (4)	0.06
(2) and (3)	0.00
(2) and (4)	1.26
(3) and (4)	1.76^{+}

$^{+}$p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Figure C45. Three-way interactions among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and masculinity on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample

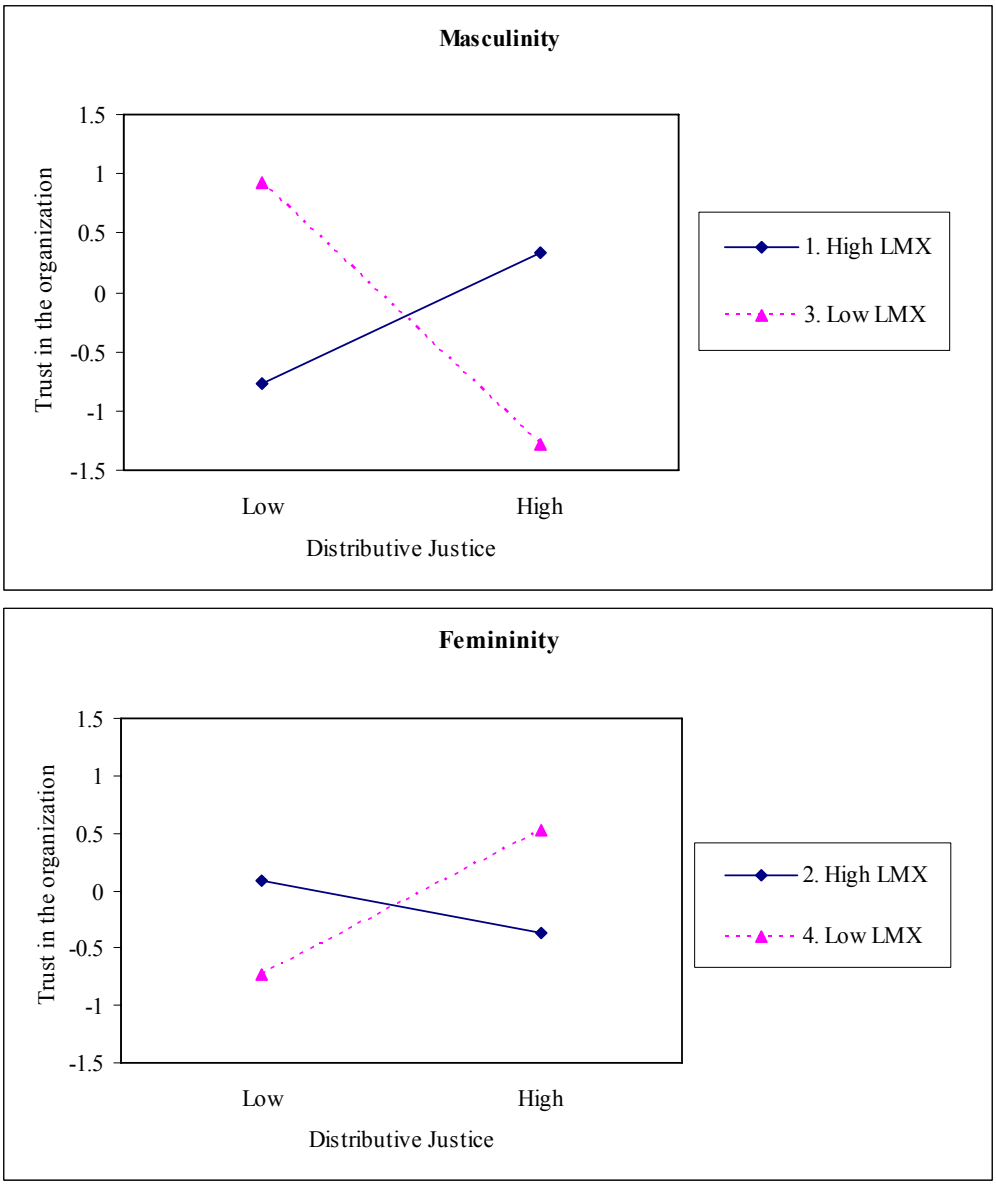


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	2.04*
(1) and (3)	2.26*
(1) and (4)	1.57
(2) and (3)	1.15
(2) and (4)	-0.18
(3) and (4)	-1.46

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C46. Three-way interactions among distributive justice, LMX, and masculinity on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample

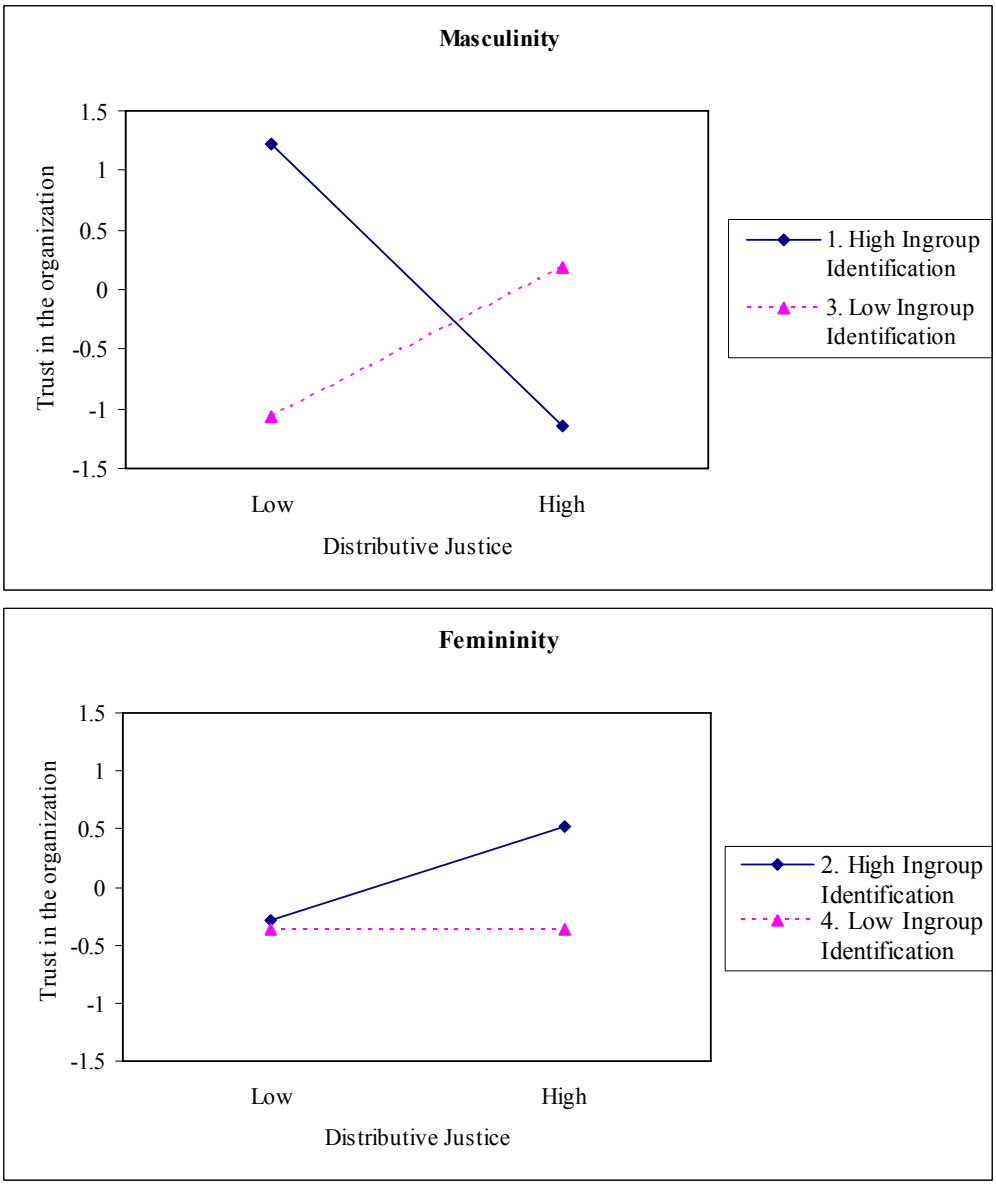


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	1.27
(1) and (3)	2.10*
(1) and (4)	-0.17
(2) and (3)	1.50
(2) and (4)	-1.39
(3) and (4)	-2.99**

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C47. Three-way interactions among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and masculinity on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample

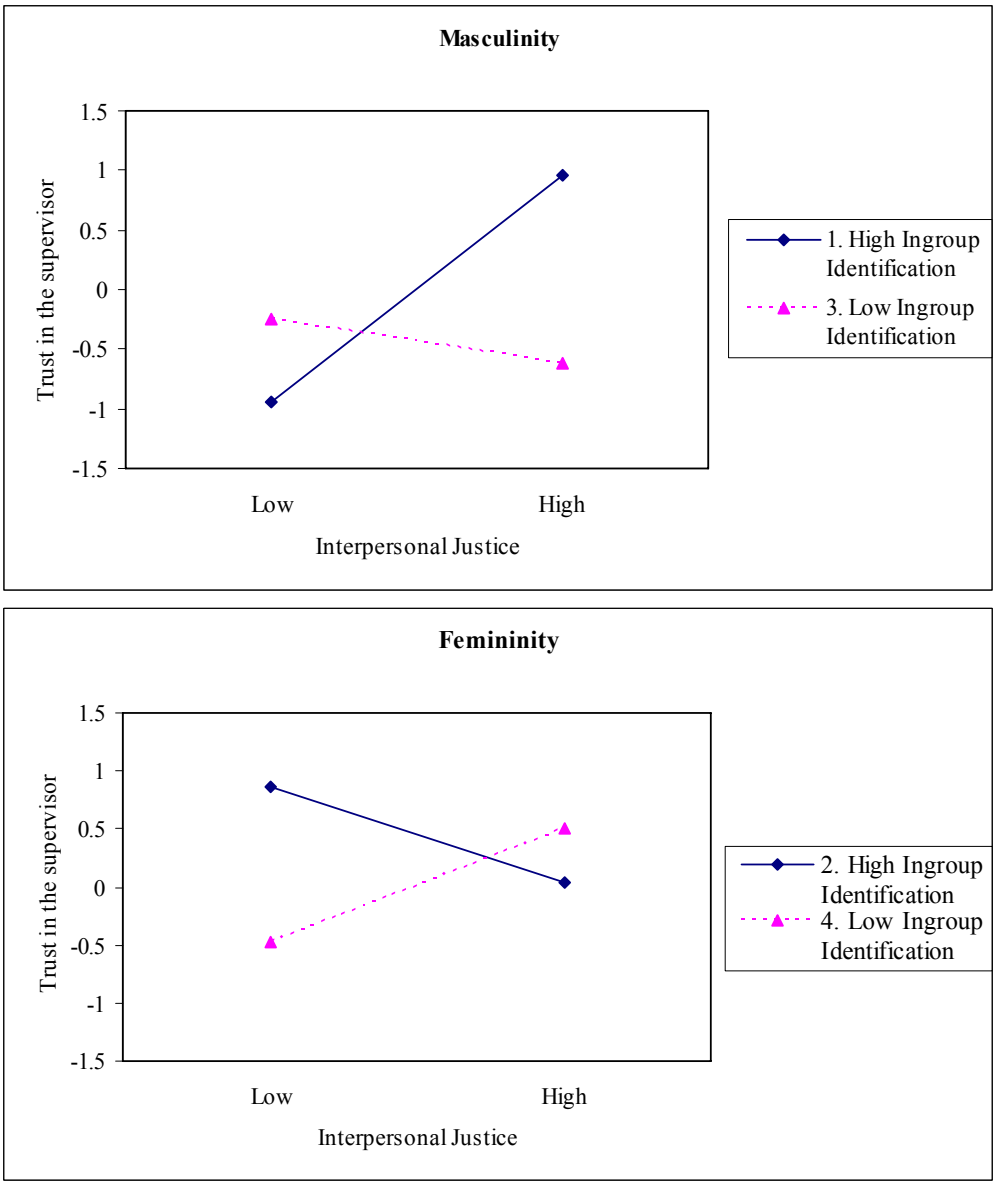


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	-3.04**
(1) and (3)	-2.46*
(1) and (4)	-1.98*
(2) and (3)	-0.42
(2) and (4)	0.67
(3) and (4)	1.24

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C48. Three-way interactions among interpersonal justice, ingroup identification, and masculinity on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample

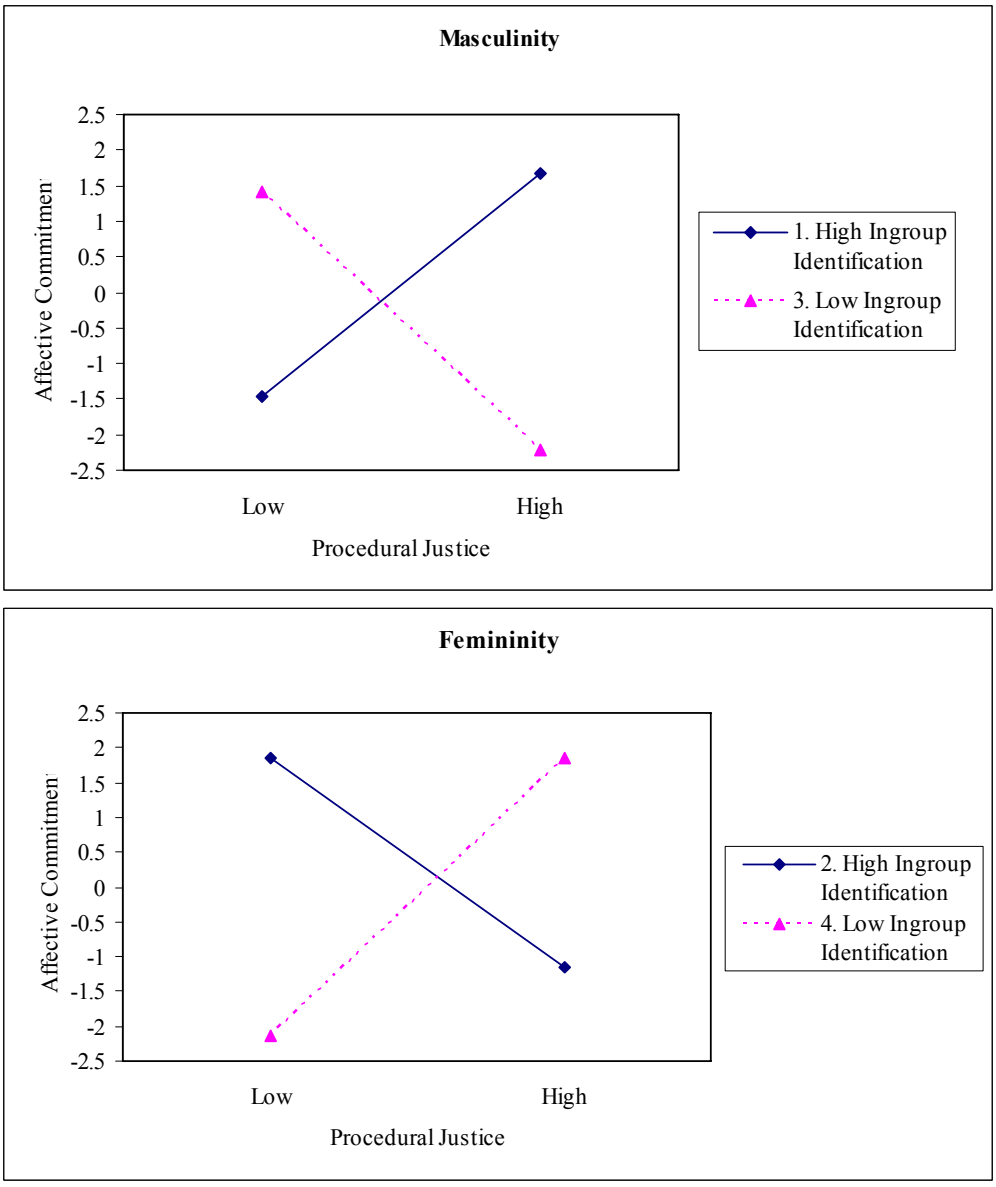


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	2.38*
(1) and (3)	1.69^{+}
(1) and (4)	0.81
(2) and (3)	-0.39
(2) and (4)	-1.32
(3) and (4)	-1.21

$^{+}$p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Figure C49. Three-way interactions among procedural justice, ingroup identification, and masculinity on affective commitment in Chinese sample

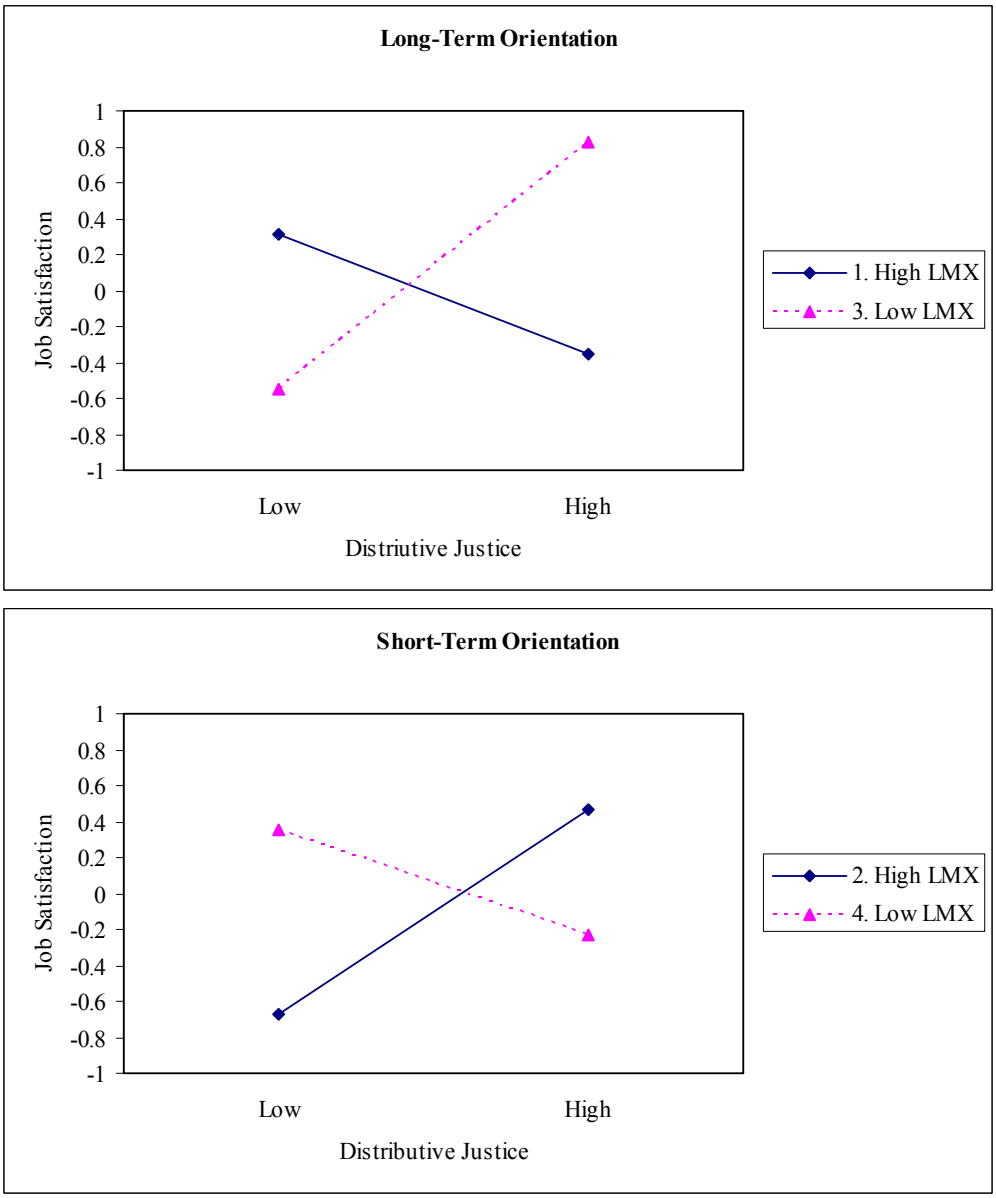


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	2.05*
(1) and (3)	2.11*
(1) and (4)	-0.29
(2) and (3)	0.24
(2) and (4)	-1.55
(3) and (4)	-2.30*

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C50. Three-way interactions among distributive justice, LMX, and long-term orientation on job satisfaction in the U.S. sample

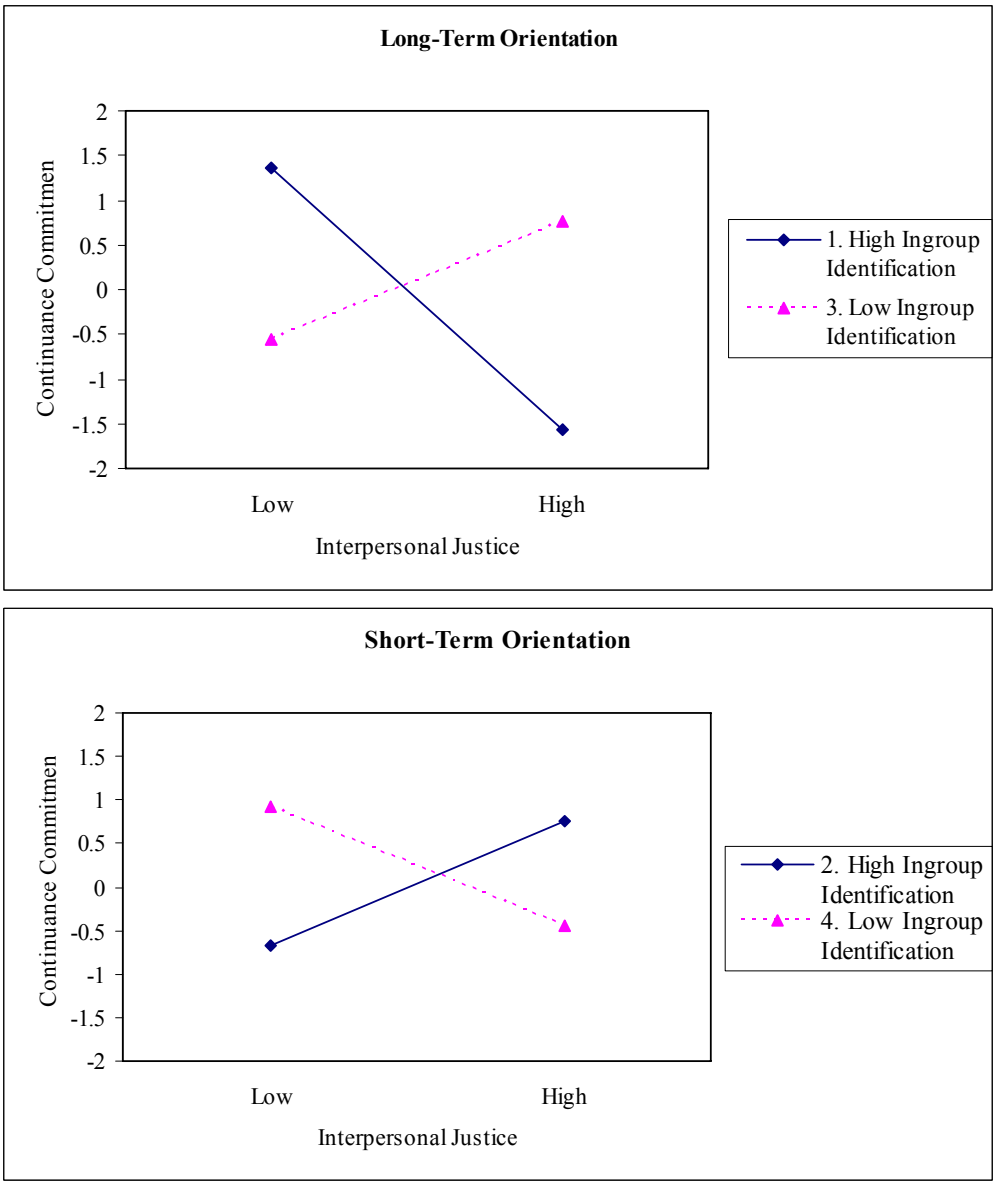


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	-1.83^{+}
(1) and (3)	-1.40
(1) and (4)	-0.08
(2) and (3)	-0.22
(2) and (4)	1.53
(3) and (4)	2.06*

$^{+}$p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Figure C51. Three-way interactions among interpersonal justice, ingroup identification, and long-term orientation on continuance commitment in the U.S. sample

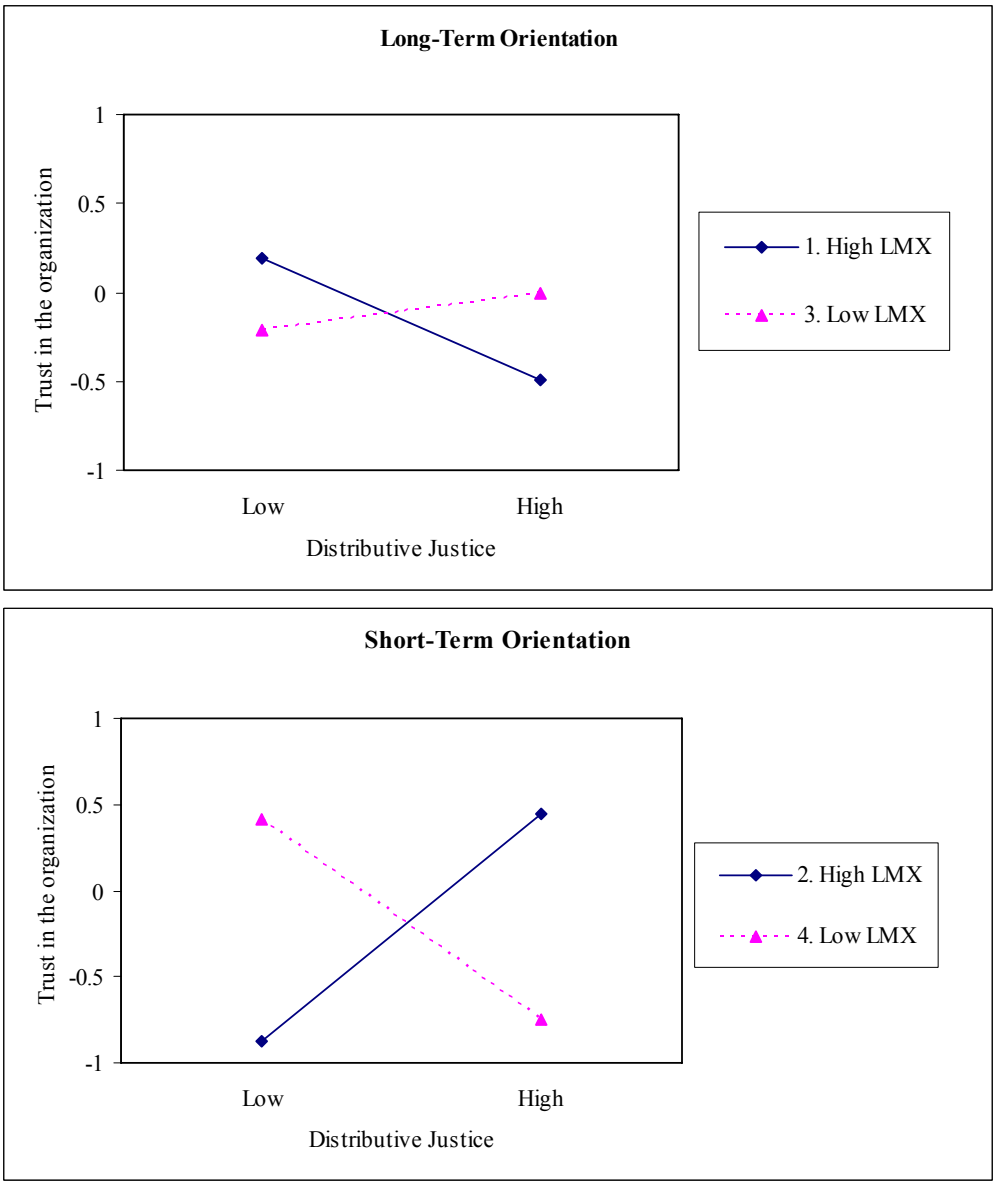


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	-3.19**
(1) and (3)	-2.33*
(1) and (4)	-1.06
(2) and (3)	0.08
(2) and (4)	1.77^{+}
(3) and (4)	2.19*

$^{+}$p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Figure C52. Three-way interactions among distributive justice, LMX, and long-term orientation on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample

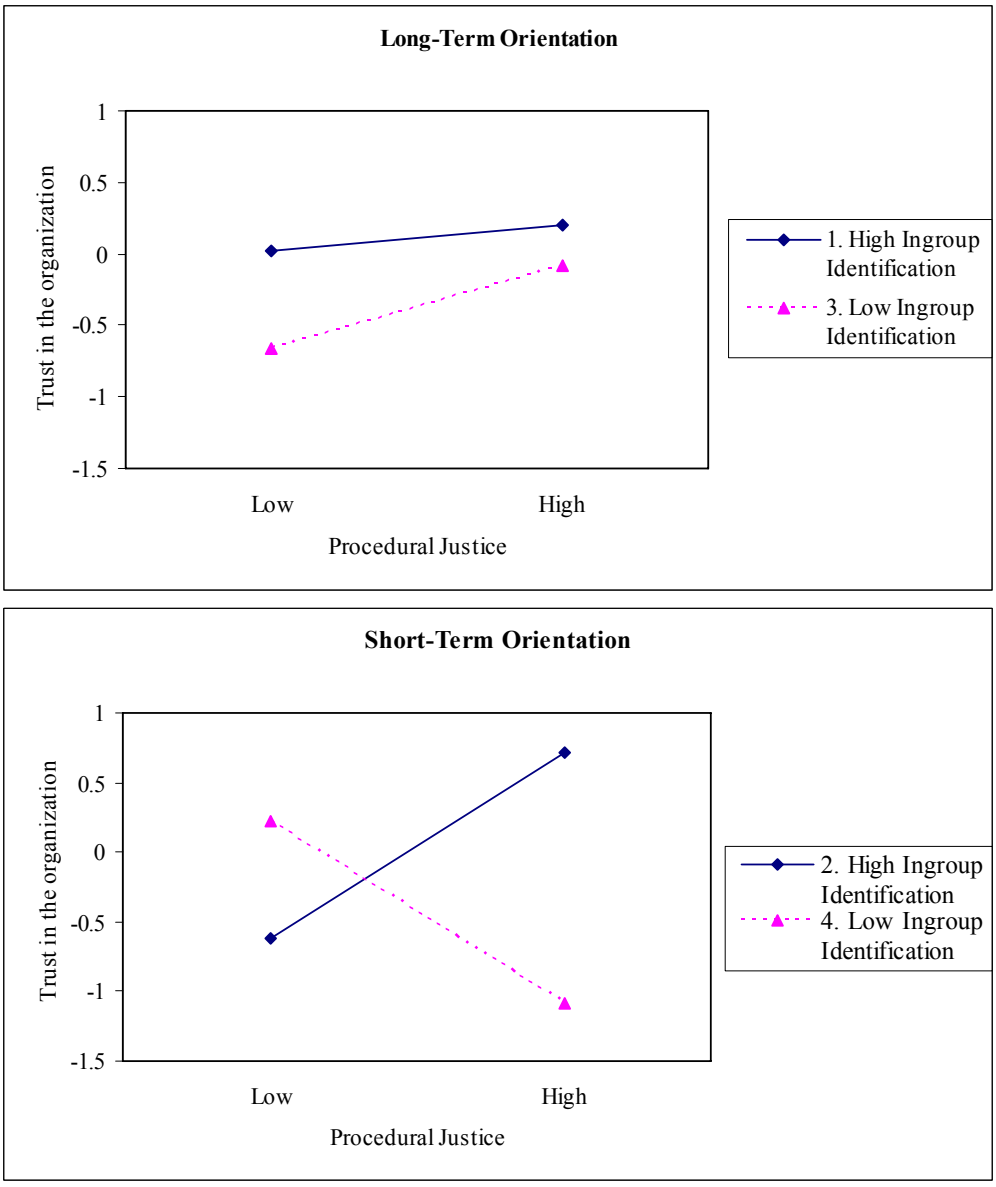


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	-2.12*
(1) and (3)	-0.63
(1) and (4)	0.51
(2) and (3)	1.06
(2) and (4)	2.28*
(3) and (4)	1.48

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C53. Three-way interactions among procedural justice, ingroup identification, and long-term orientation on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample

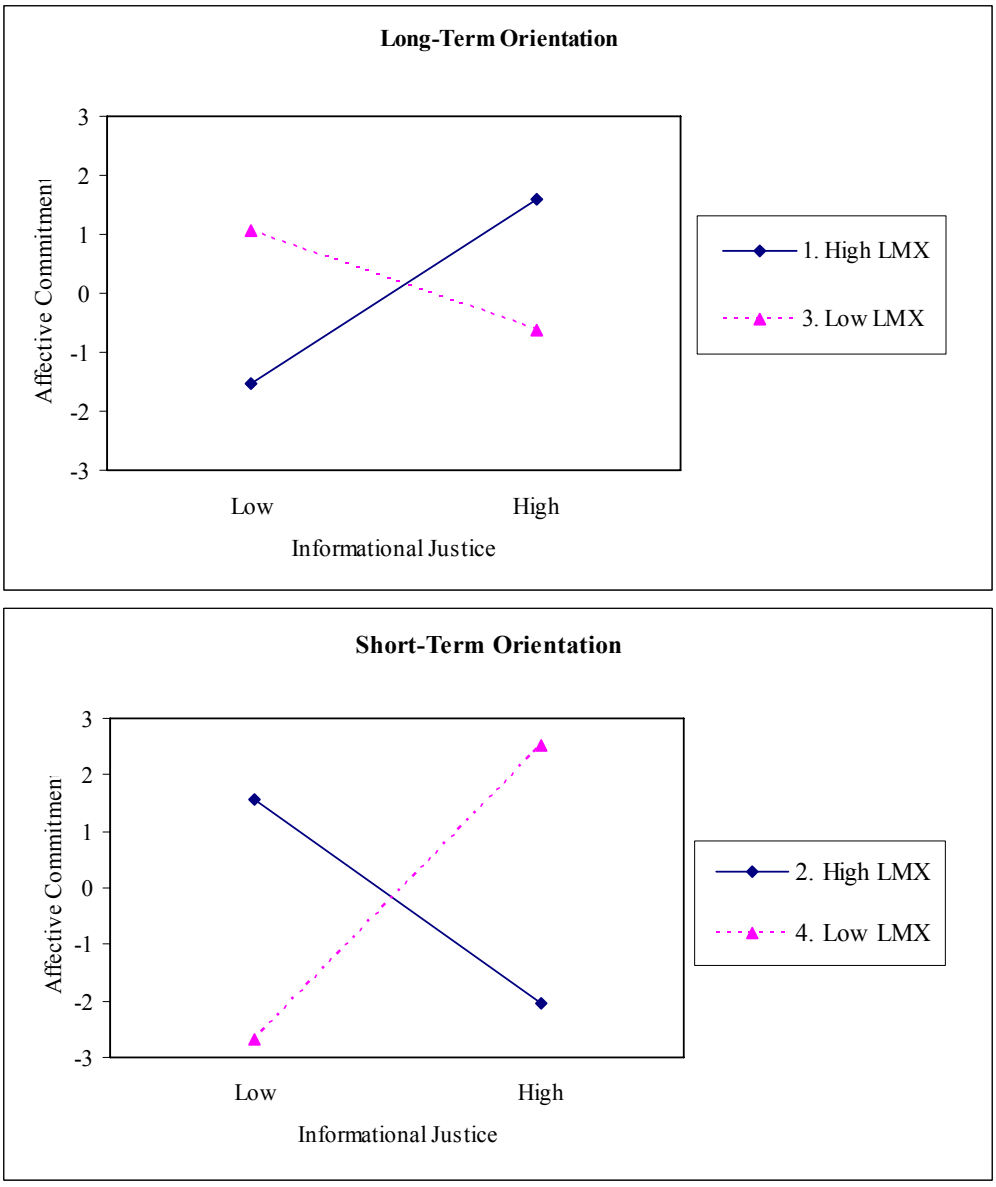


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	-1.52
(1) and (3)	-0.32
(1) and (4)	1.43
(2) and (3)	0.70
(2) and (4)	2.33*
(3) and (4)	2.67**

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C54. Three-way interactions among informational justice, LMX, and long-term orientation on affective commitment in Chinese sample

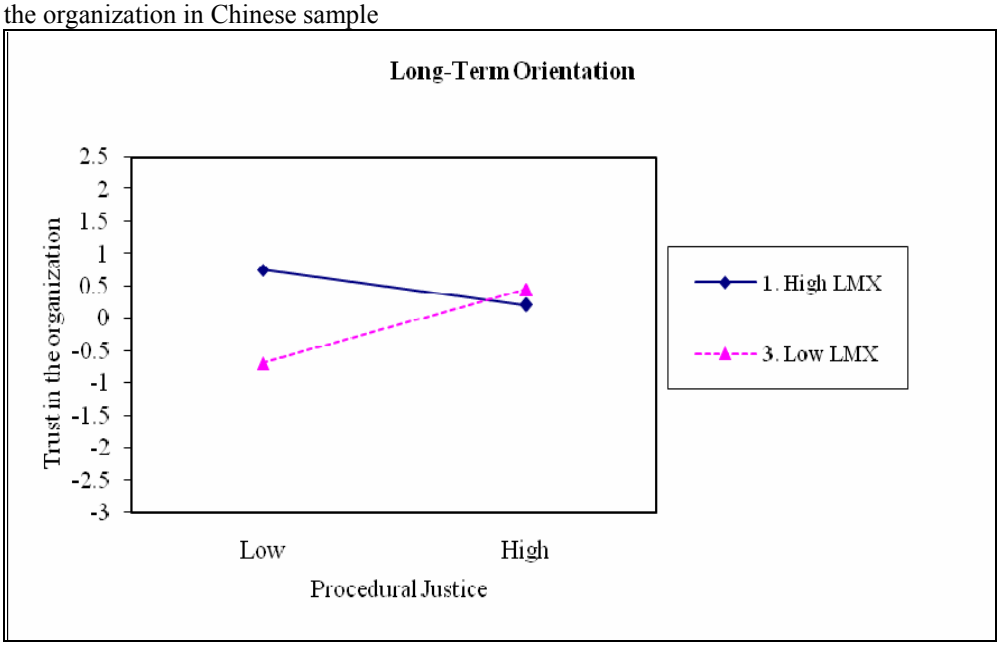


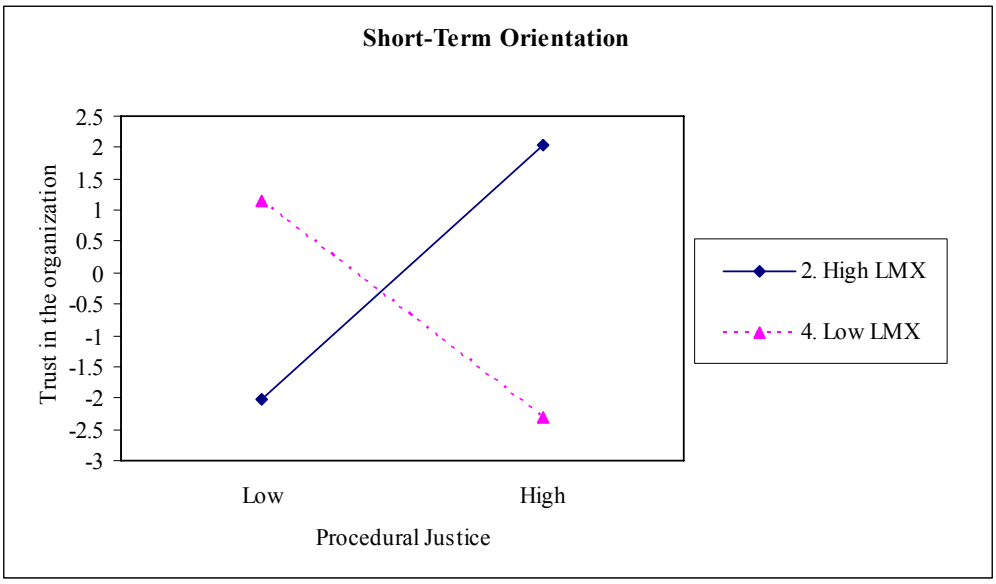
Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	2.47*
(1) and (3)	1.46
(1) and (4)	-0.55
(2) and (3)	-0.60
(2) and (4)	-1.85^{+}
(3) and (4)	-2.16*

$^{+}$p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Figure C55. Three-way interactions among procedural justice, LMX, and long-term orientation on trust in the organization in Chinese sample



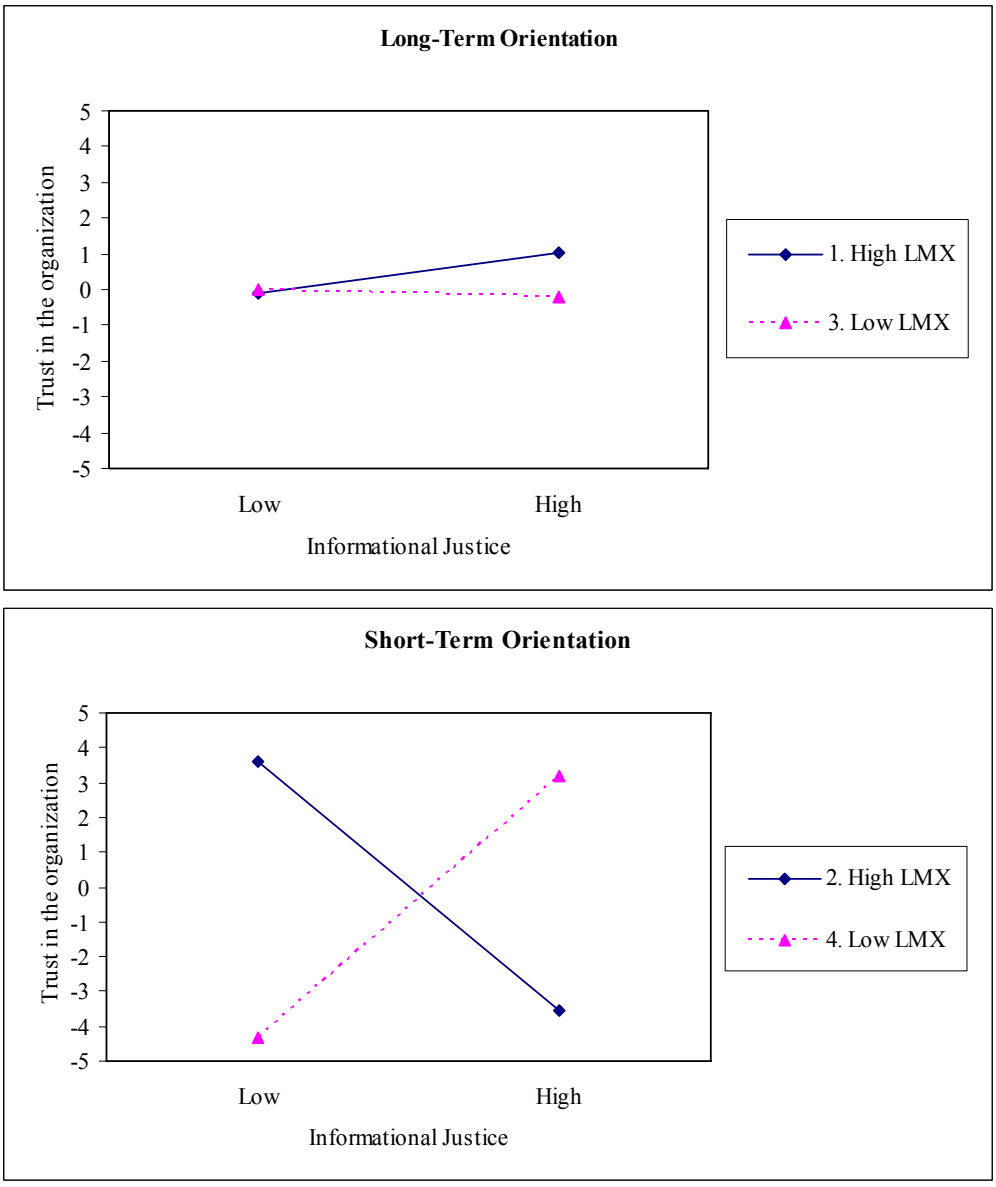


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	-1.87^{+}
(1) and (3)	-0.60
(1) and (4)	0.99
(2) and (3)	0.91
(2) and (4)	1.72^{+}
(3) and (4)	1.78^{+}

$^{+}$p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Figure C56. Three-way interactions among informational justice, LMX, and long-term orientation on trust in the organization in Chinese sample

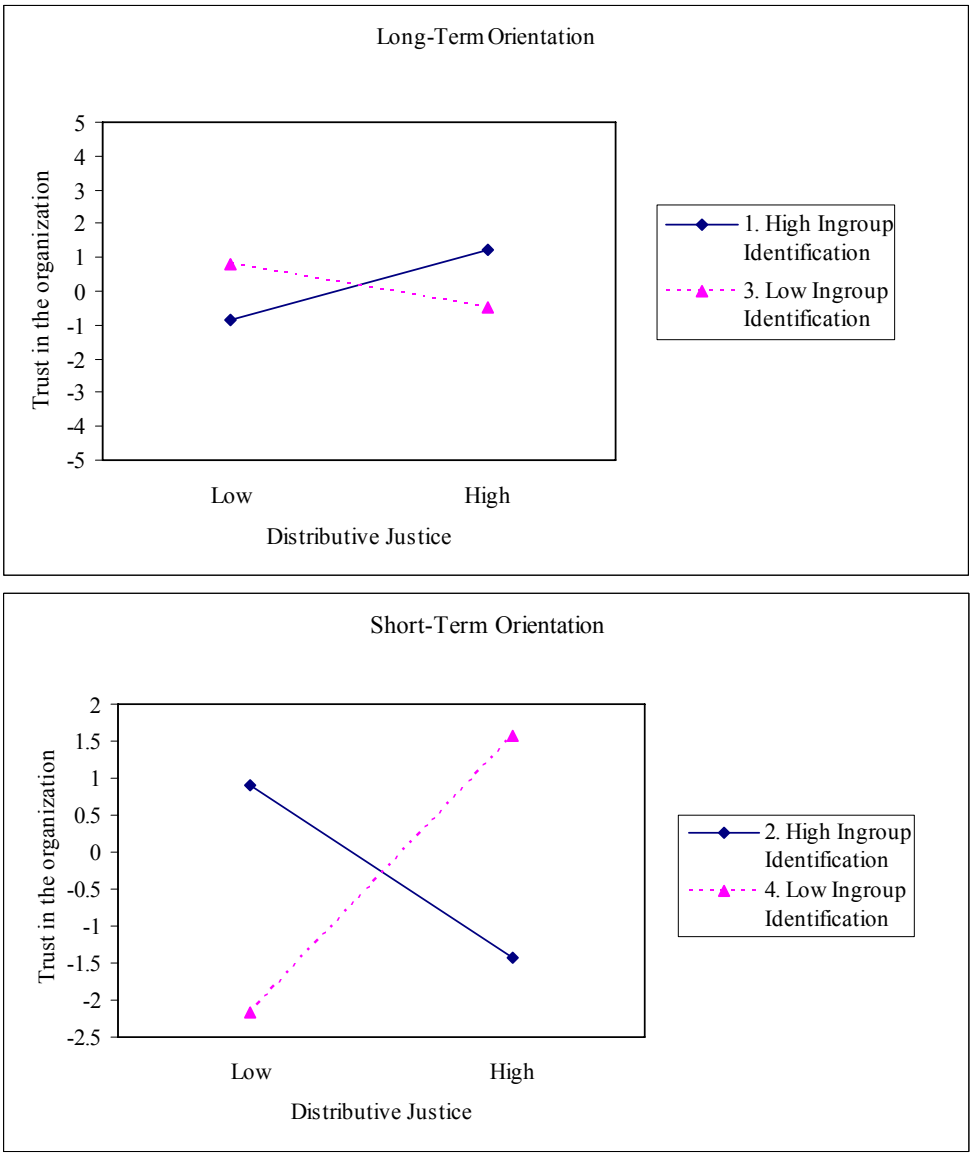


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	3.12**
(1) and (3)	0.42
(1) and (4)	-1.70^{+}
(2) and (3)	-2.20*
(2) and (4)	-3.13**
(3) and (4)	-2.49*

$^{+}$p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Figure C57. Three-way interactions among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and long-term orientation on trust in the organization in Chinese sample

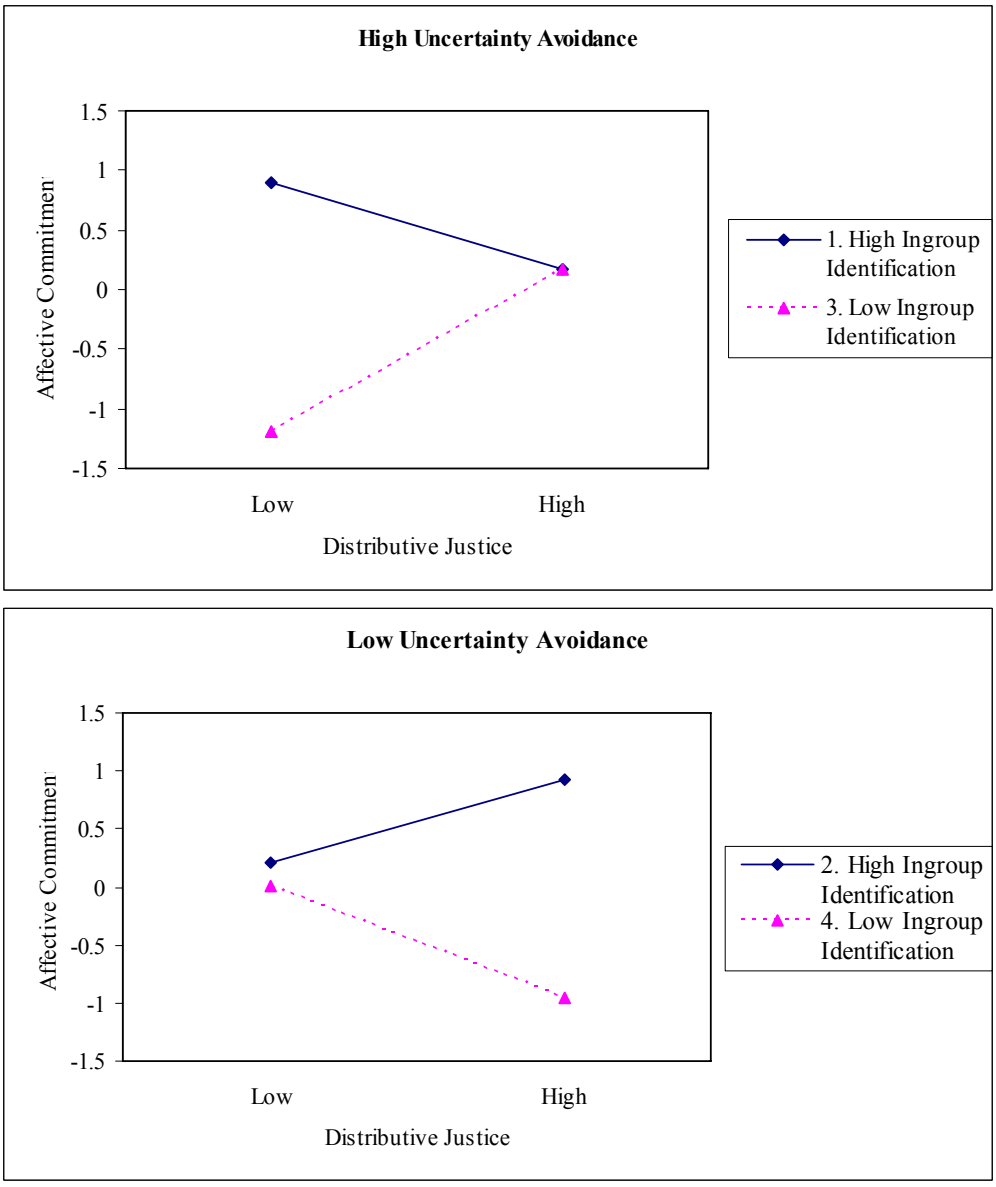


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	2.27*
(1) and (3)	1.16
(1) and (4)	-0.72
(2) and (3)	-0.46
(2) and (4)	-2.15*
(3) and (4)	-2.22*

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C58. Three-way interactions among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and uncertainty avoidance on affective commitment in the U.S. sample

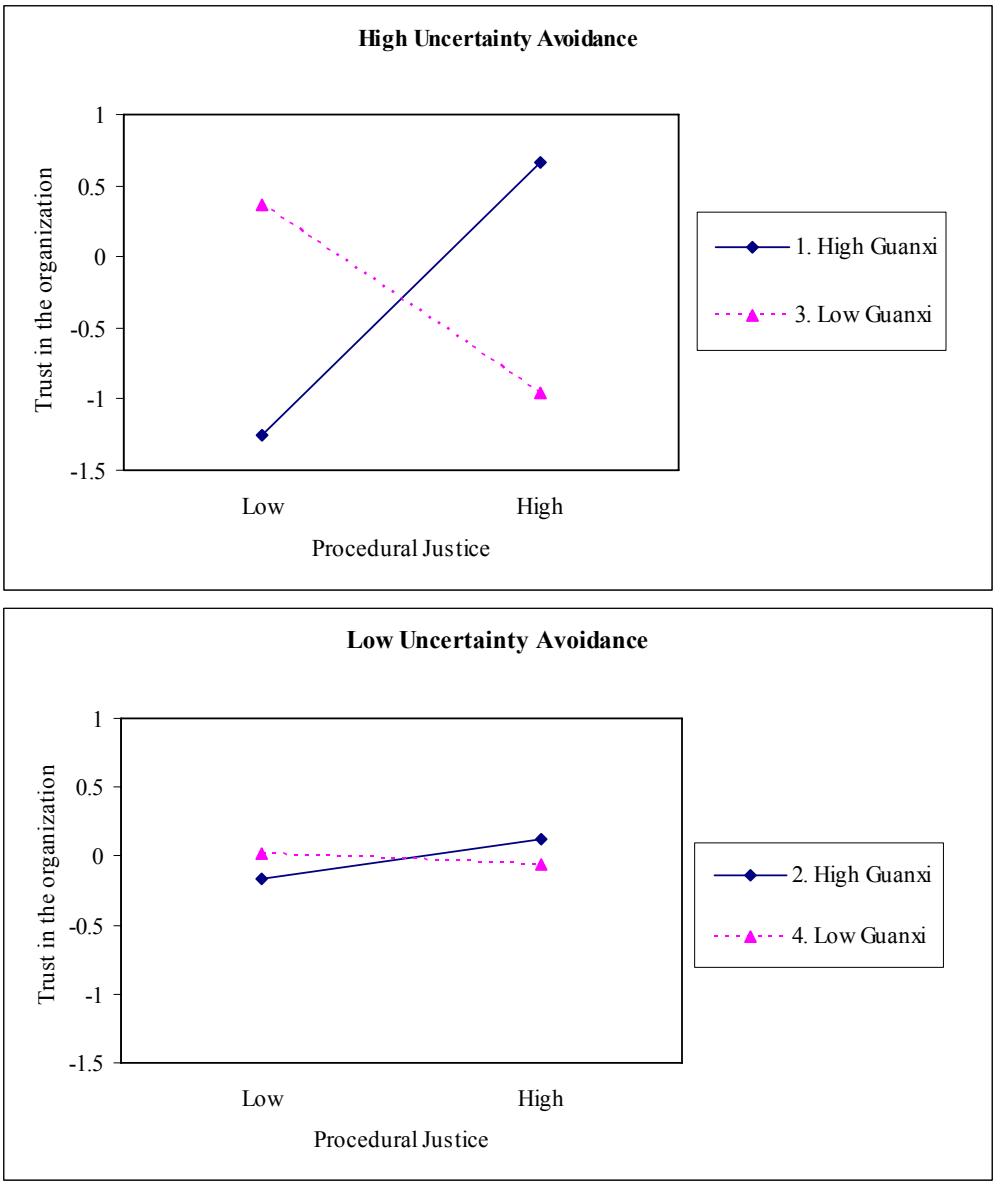


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	-1.55
(1) and (3)	-1.33
(1) and (4)	0.24
(2) and (3)	-0.52
(2) and (4)	1.60
(3) and (4)	2.10*

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C59. Three-way interactions among procedural justice, *guanxi*, and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample

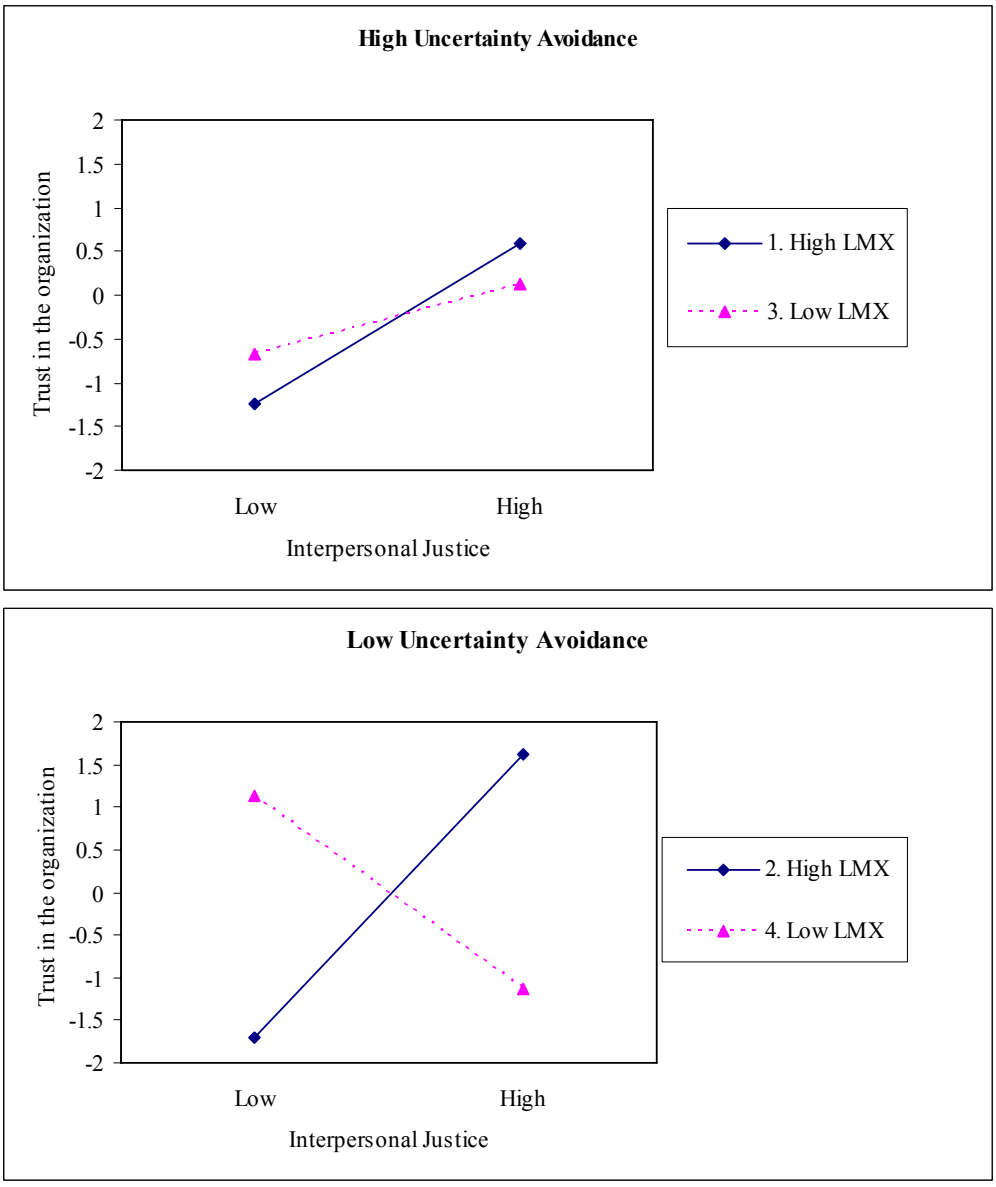


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	2.09*
(1) and (3)	3.27***
(1) and (4)	2.40*
(2) and (3)	1.67^{+}
(2) and (4)	0.40
(3) and (4)	-1.81^{+}

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C60. Three-way interactions among interpersonal justice, LMX, and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the organization in the U.S. sample

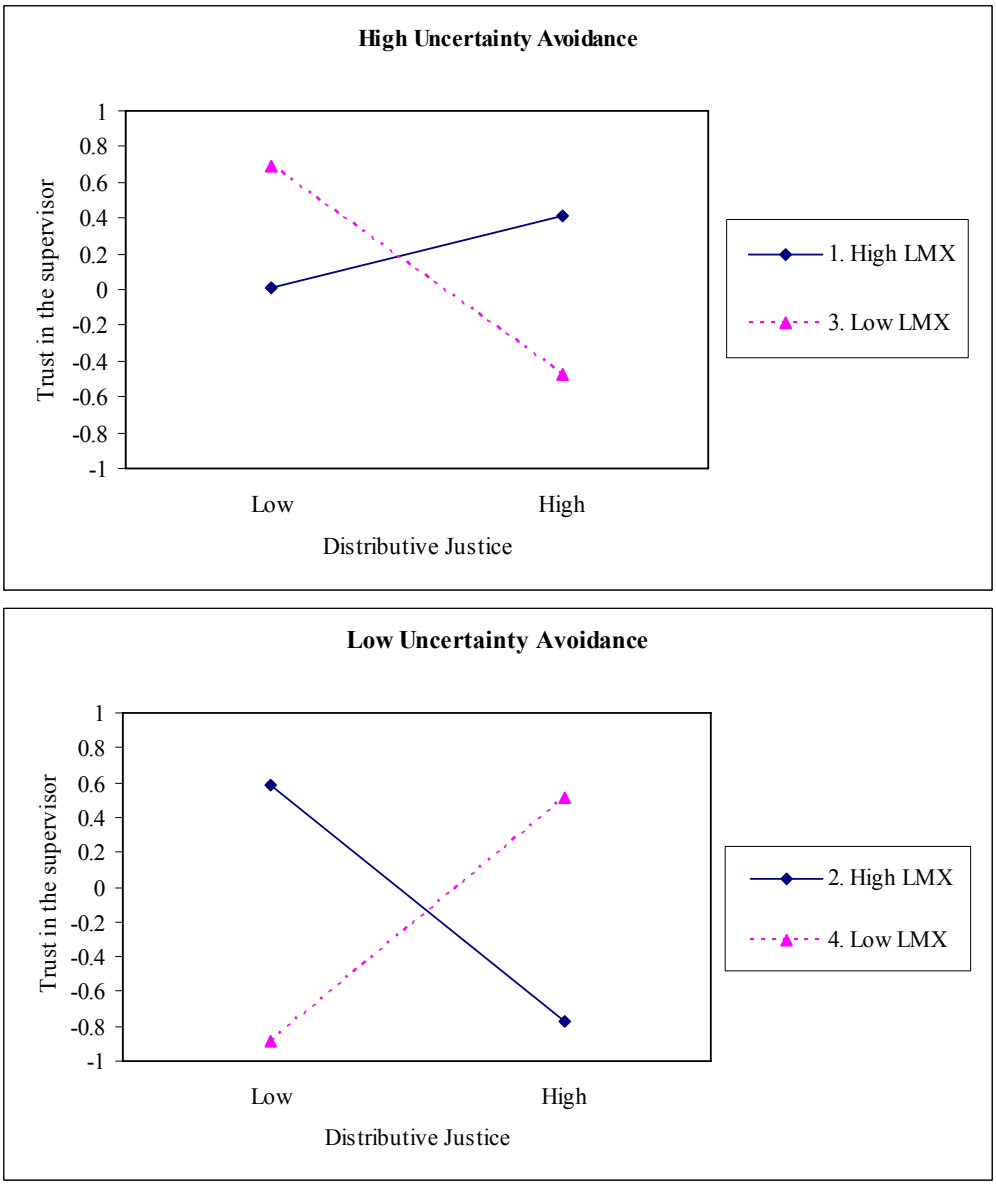


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	-1.37
(1) and (3)	0.59
(1) and (4)	2.64**
(2) and (3)	2.08*
(2) and (4)	3.91***
(3) and (4)	2.70**

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C61. Three-way interactions among distributive justice, LMX, and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample

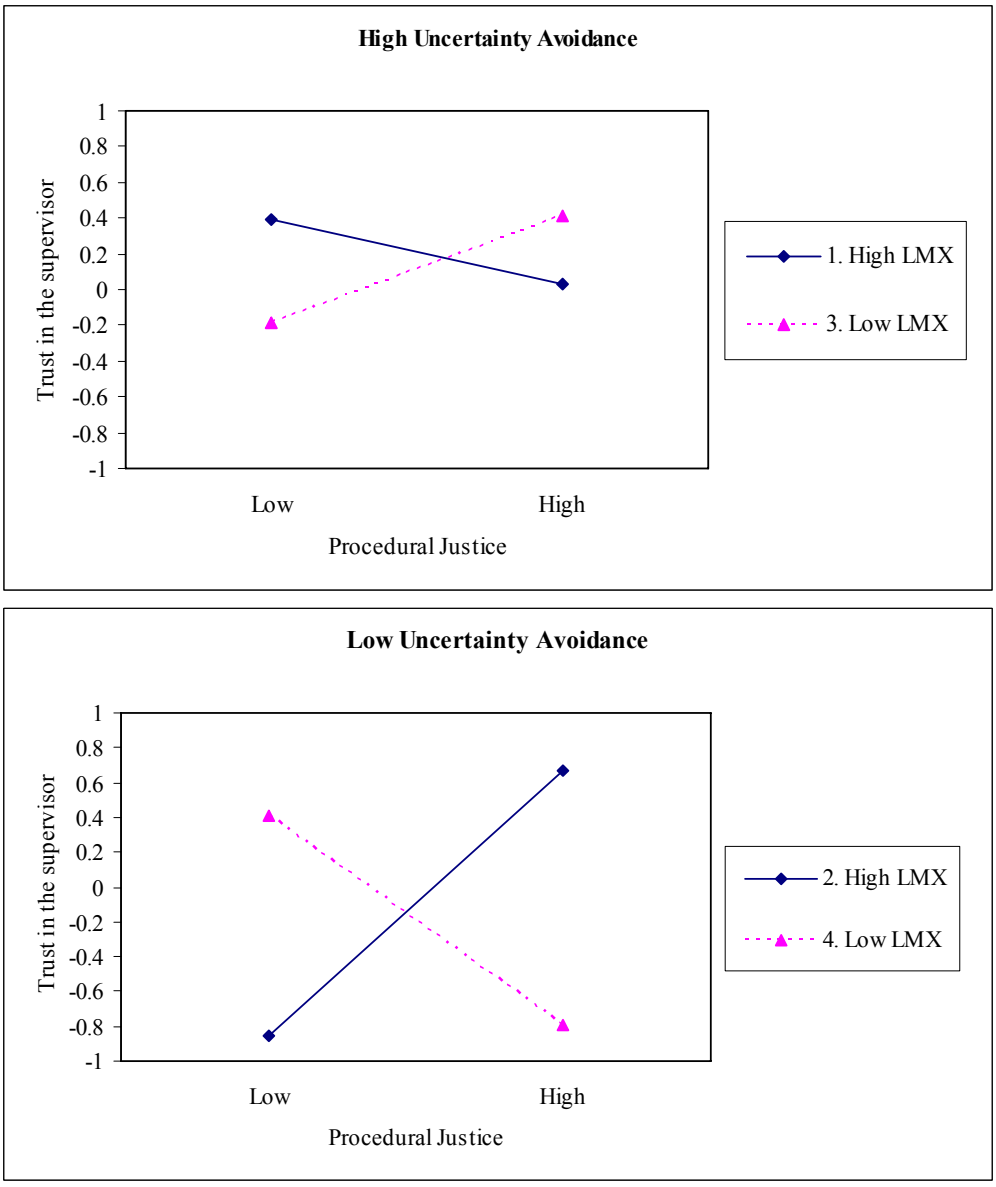


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	1.50
(1) and (3)	1.07
(1) and (4)	-0.88
(2) and (3)	-0.23
(2) and (4)	-2.46*
(3) and (4)	-2.56*

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C62. Three-way interactions among procedural justice, LMX, and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the supervisor in the U.S. sample

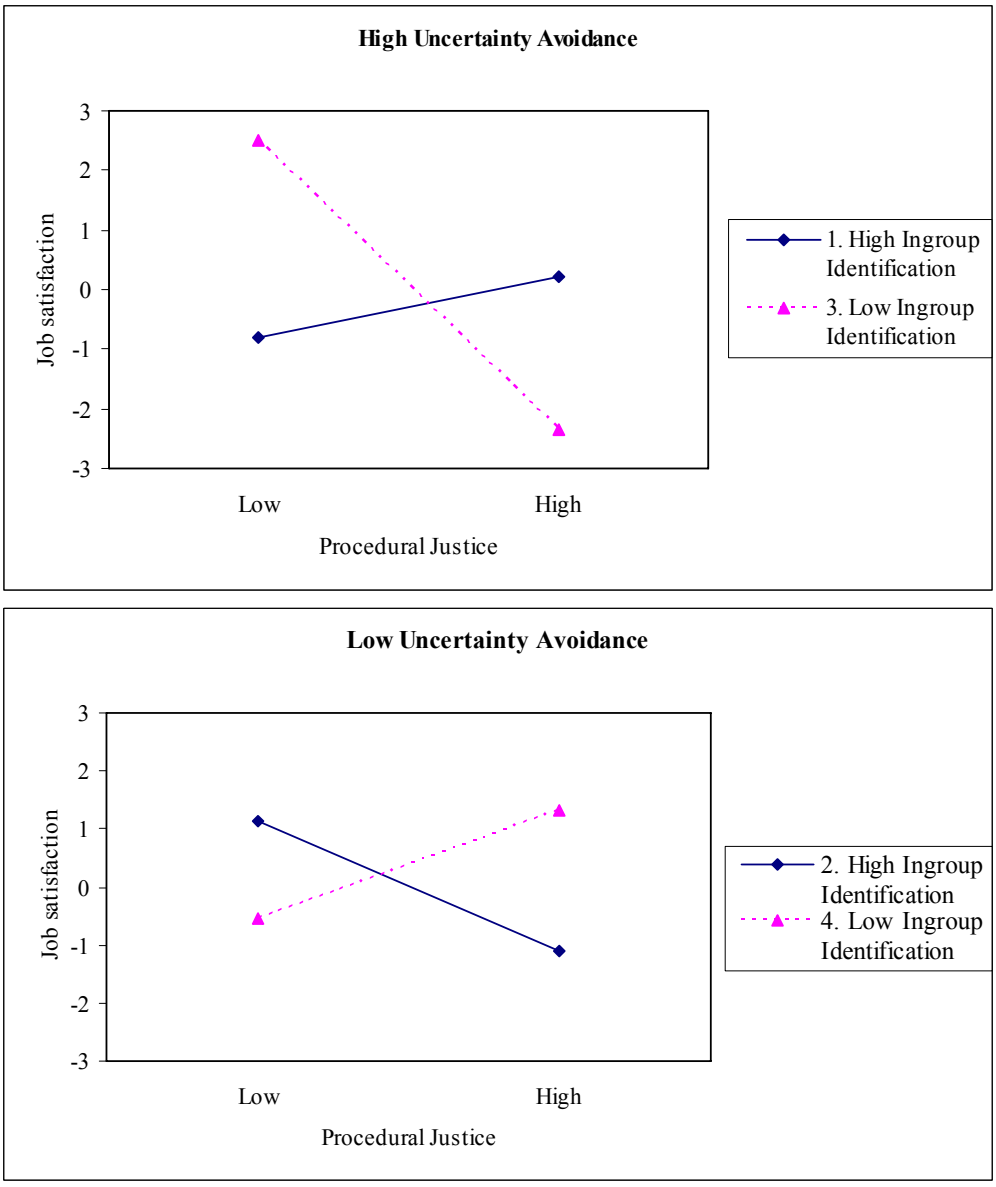


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	-2.19*
(1) and (3)	-0.71
(1) and (4)	0.78
(2) and (3)	0.87
(2) and (4)	2.50*
(3) and (4)	1.92^{+}

$^{+}$p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Figure C63. Three-way interactions among procedural justice, ingroup identification, and uncertainty avoidance on job satisfaction in Chinese sample

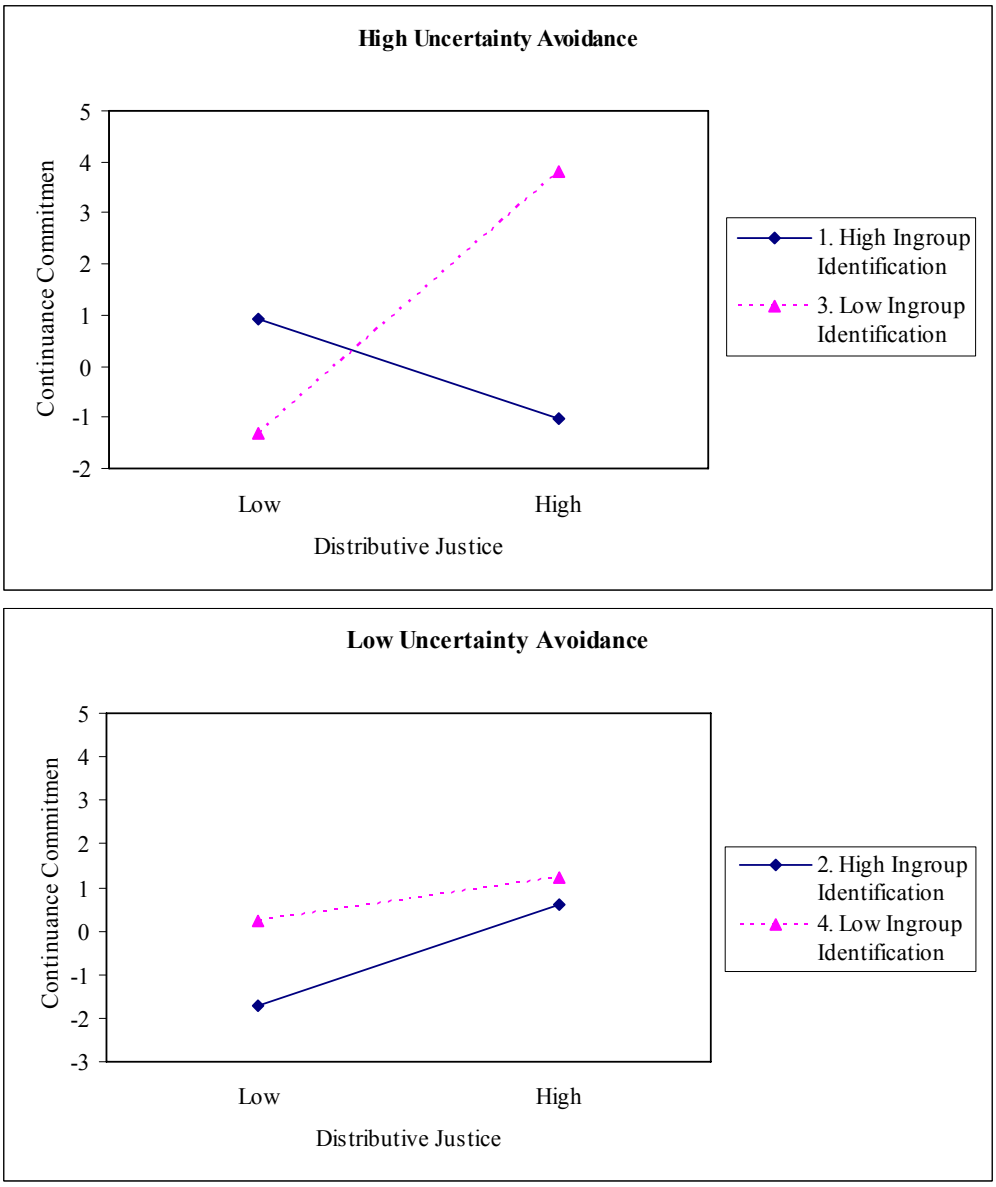


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	1.28
(1) and (3)	1.48
(1) and (4)	-0.25
(2) and (3)	0.84
(2) and (4)	-1.25
(3) and (4)	-2.57*

$^{+}p \leq 0.10$; $*p \leq 0.05$; $**p \leq 0.01$; $***p \leq 0.001$.

Figure C64. Three-way interactions among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and uncertainty avoidance on continuance commitment in Chinese sample

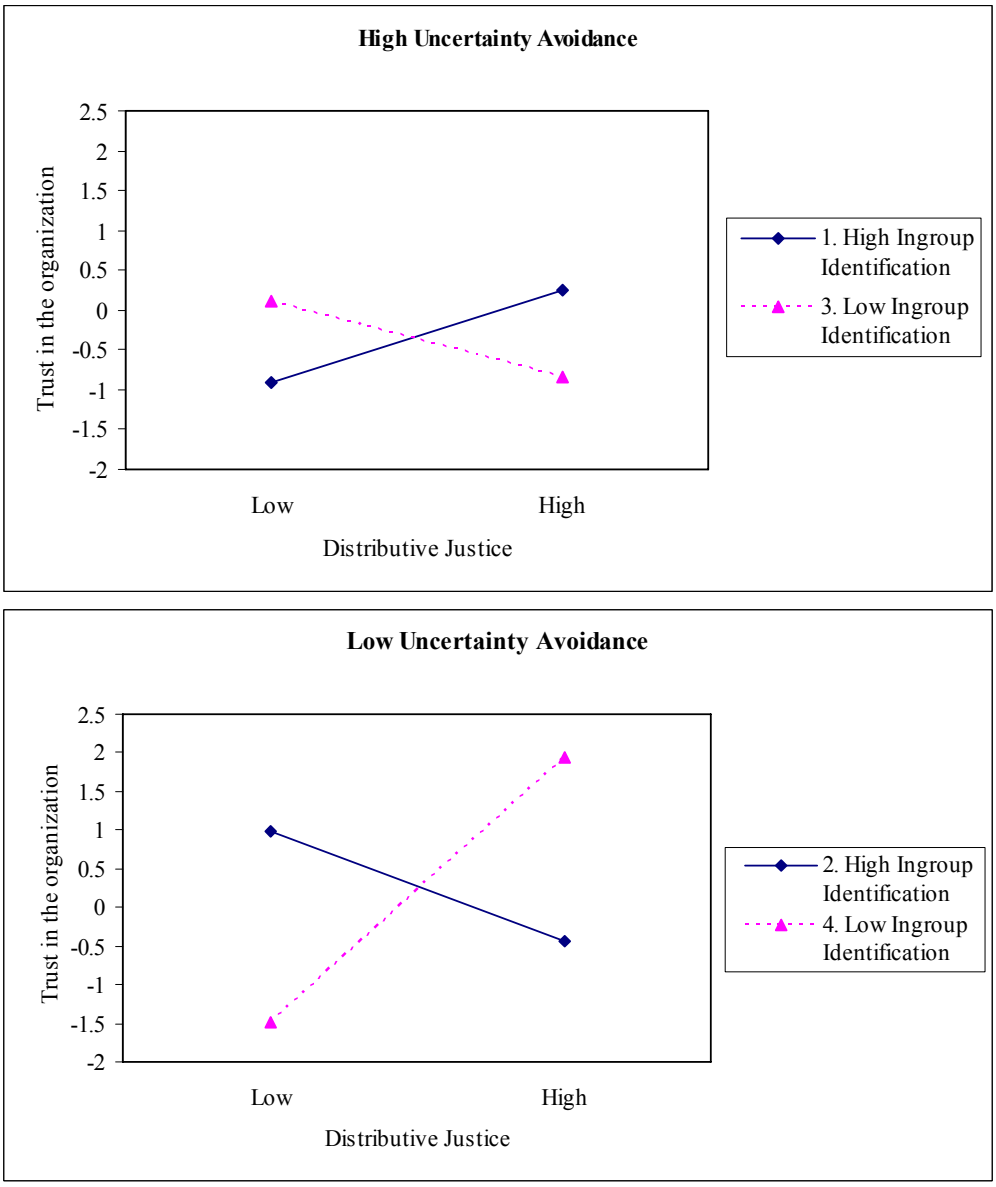


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	-1.89^{+}
(1) and (3)	-2.19*
(1) and (4)	-1.08
(2) and (3)	-1.10
(2) and (4)	0.44
(3) and (4)	1.89^{+}

$^{+}$p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Figure C65. Three-way interactions among distributive justice, ingroup identification, and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the organization in Chinese sample

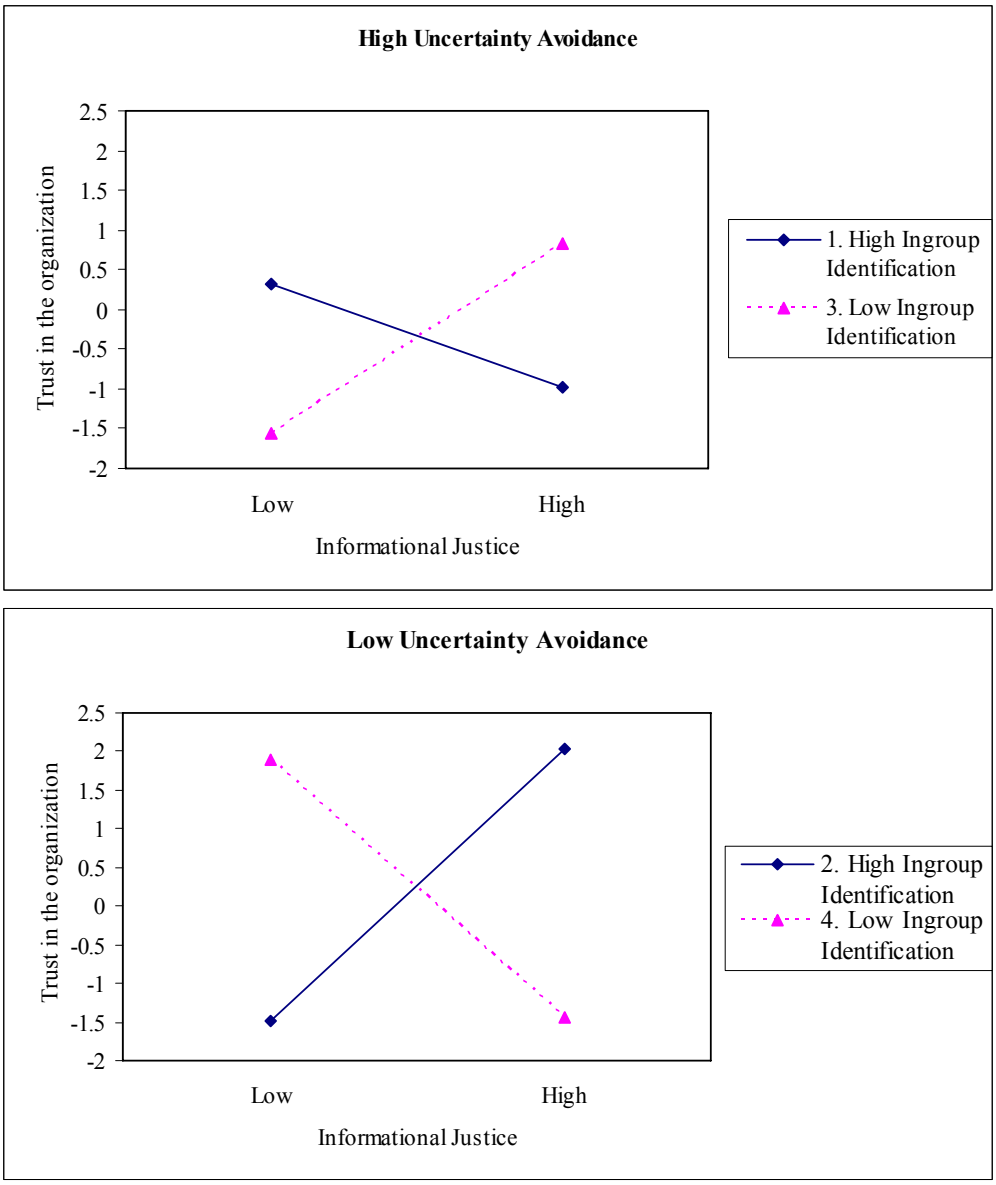


Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	1.33
(1) and (3)	0.76
(1) and (4)	-0.93
(2) and (3)	-0.22
(2) and (4)	-1.85^{+}
(3) and (4)	-2.32*

$^{+}$p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

Figure C66. Three-way interactions among informational justice, ingroup identification, and uncertainty avoidance on trust in the organization in Chinese sample



Slope difference tests:

Pair of slopes	t-value for slope difference
(1) and (2)	-1.73^{+}
(1) and (3)	-0.93
(1) and (4)	0.63
(2) and (3)	0.38
(2) and (4)	2.00*
(3) and (4)	2.23*

$^{+}$p≤0.10; *p≤0.05; **p≤0.01; ***p≤0.001.

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