# IMPLICATIONS OF CULTURAL AND LANGUAGE ISSUES FOR INTERPERSONAL AND INFORMATIONAL JUSTICE

by

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# ABSTRACT

HALEY JANE WOZNYJ. Implications of cultural and language issues for interpersonal and informational justice. (Under the direction of DR. LINDA SHANOCK)

The population in the United States is increasingly becoming more diverse. The share of minorities in the United States has grown substantially in recent decades and is projected to continue to grow. These trends have translated into a more diverse labor force, too. Minority groups, like Hispanics and Asians, participate in the labor force at higher rates than Caucasians. Despite these statistics, minorities hold only 25% of minorities hold managerial positions. As the share of minorities in the workforce continues to grow, yet are supervised by managers from most likely a different ethnic background, management scholars must consider the implications of managing a workforce that is more culturally diverse than ever before. The current study focused specifically on the types of justice enacted by supervisors, mainly interpersonal and informational justice, as they capture dynamics of interpersonal relationships that are likely affected by cross-cultural interactions. We investigated whether perceived discrimination, in the form of microaggressions, influences minorities' perceptions of interpersonal justice, and whether that relationship depends on trust in the supervisor. In addition, we explored whether language barriers and culture value discrepancies between supervisor and subordinate influence informational justice. In a sample of 259 Hispanics, chosen because of their rapid population growth and unique culture, we found that microaggressions are negatively related to interpersonal justice. However, that negative relationship is buffered if subordinates are able to trust their supervisor. In addition, the greater extent of language barriers and the greater the discrepancy between supervisor

and subordinate on the high-context/low-context cultural dimension, the lower levels of perceived informational justice. This study adds to the very limited literature on the predictors of organizational justice and integrates the justice literature with the diversity literature. Our findings have implications for future research (e.g. they can be expanded to other minority groups) and for practice, as organizations can develop diversity training programs to diminish feelings of injustice in minorities.

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# INTRODUCTION

The population in the United States is becoming increasingly diverse. In particular, the population of minority groups has steadily increased over the past decade, fueled by a surge in the growth of Hispanic and Asian populations (Shrestha & Heisler, 2011; Toossi, 2012). While Caucasians comprise a majority of the population, their share of the U.S. population has steadily decreased in tandem with the increase of minority groups in the population. By 2050, Caucasians are expected to make up only 63% of the population in the United States, despite the fact that their share of the population hovered close to 80% in the early 1990's (Toossi, 2012).

Mimicking the trends in the larger population, the labor force has also become more diverse. Hispanics and Asians participate in the labor force at higher rates than their Caucasian counterparts (Toossi, 2012) with Native Hawaiians and Other Pacific Islanders participating at the highest rates overall (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013b). Similar to the projections in the general U.S. population, the share of minority groups in the labor force is projected to continue increase the coming decades.

As ethnic minority groups continue to comprise a larger share of the total population as well as the labor force, we must begin to address potential implications for maaging a workforce that is more diverse than ever before. Culture refers to "patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting" that is shared amongst a group of people (Thomas, 2008, p. 27). Culture dictates what members expect and how they behave in situations that they encounter in everyday life, including those at work (Thomas, 2008). Thomas (2008) notes that much of the theory about management has its basis in the U.S. and American culture, due in part to the lack of awareness of other contexts and values

(called parochialism). The problem arises because the issues relevant to managing a culturally diverse workforce may be different from those relevant to managing a Caucasian-dominated workforce. Particularly, management research could benefit from focusing on how cultural and language issues influence minorities' perceptions at work. As minority groups immigrate from other countries to the U.S., they are likely to bring their culture and language with them and possibly attempt to maintain it as they establish a life in the U.S. (Berry, 1997). If members of different cultures come into contact at work, the different expectations that they have about how they should think, feel, and act in situations may influence their interactions.

Interpersonal interactions are a daily occurrence at work, and the interaction between supervisors and their subordinates is a particularly common one. Although the share of minorities in the labor force is increasing, with the exception of Asians, Whites are most likely to hold management positions (Toossi, 2012). More specifically, Caucasians hold upwards of 75% of managerial positions (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013a). Thus, minorities are likely to have a manager that is of a different ethnic background and culture. In particular, cross-cultural interactions with supervisors may have implications for employees' perceptions of fairness as enacted by supervisors. We focus on fairness enacted by supervisors because it is a heavily researched and important component of the workplace experience for employees (e.g. Colquitt et al., 2013). However, justice scholars have not focused much attention on the predictors of organizational justice, let alone the role of culture and ethnicity as predictors. Specifically, our study seeks to add to the organizational justice literature by examining how culture and language issues influence minorities' perceptions of fairness enacted by

their supervisors, mainly interpersonal and informational justice. See Figure 1 for a conceptual model of the hypothesized relationships.

## Organizational Justice

In general, organizational justice represents employees' perceptions of fairness in organizations (Colquitt, 2001). There are four types of organizational justice: distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational (Colquitt et al., 2013). Distributive justice refers to employees' perceptions of the fairness of outcomes, like pay raises and promotion decisions. Procedural justice is the fairness of decision-making processes that result in outcomes (i.e. unbiased policies and procedures used to make decisions). Whereas distributive and procedural justice are thought to be representative of the organization, interpersonal and informational justice are often treated as fairness enacted by supervisors when implementing decisions (Colquitt, 2001; Roch & Shanock, 2006). Interpersonal justice refers to the respect and propriety that supervisors show to employees when communicating and enacting decisions, whereas informational justice refers to the adequacy, timeliness, and truthfulness of information given to employees (Colquitt et al., 2013).

Organizational justice is an important construct within the organizational sciences because it is related to many work outcomes (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013). The more that employees feel they are being treated fairly, they are more likely to work harder (i.e. increase task performance) and to engage in tasks that are not necessarily prescribed of them, but help the organization in some way (i.e. organizational citizenship behaviors; Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013; Tepper & Taylor, 2003). In addition, organizational justice is positively related to

organizational commitment, perceived organizational support, and positive state affect (Colquitt et al., 2013). Thus, organizational justice has implications for many outcomes of value to organizations, employees, and researchers.

## Organizational Justice – Cultural and Language Considerations

Although organizational justice and its outcomes have been studied widely (i.e. Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt et al, 2013), there has been little focus on the predictors of organizational justice, let alone the role of ethnicity and culture as predictors of justice. Prior to the 1960s, minority groups in the United States commonly experienced overt prejudice and discrimination in the workplace (King et al., 2011). The Civil Rights Act and the Equal Opportunity Act represent measures taken to prevent overt discrimination based on race or ethnicity (and as related to culture). However, King et al. (2011) argue that these regulations have not been successful in preventing more covert forms of discrimination, like interpersonal harassment. Thus, we focus on the types of organizational justice that deal with interpersonal relationships and are enacted by supervisors—mainly interpersonal and informational justice (Colquitt, 2001).

### Interpersonal Justice

As mentioned previously, interpersonal justice refers to the degree to which supervisors treat employees with politeness, dignity and respect when enacting procedures (Colquitt et al., 2001). If employees perceive their supervisors to be disrespectful or impolite in their interactions, interpersonal justice may be in jeopardy. Specifically with regard to minorities, supervisors may threaten interpersonal justice perceptions by unintentionally discriminating against their minority subordinates because of their unique culture—a phenomenon known as microaggressions (Sue et al., 2007).

Microaggressions are subtle forms of racism against people of color that occur in every day interactions (Sue et al., 2007; Sue, Lin, & Rivera, 2009). Sue et al. (2007; p. 273) define microaggressions as "brief and commonplace daily verbal, behavioral, or environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative racial slights or insults toward the target person or group." Though microaggressions have been studied fairly widely within clinical psychology, there is a relative lack of studies within the organizational sciences (Sue, et al., 2009). The few studies that have focused on microaggressions in the workplace have shown that microaggressions can influence selection and promotion decisions and retention of employees (see Sue et al., 2009 for review).

Sue et al. (2007) identify three different ways in which microaggressions can manifest. The first, microassault, is similar to traditional forms of discrimination; it refers to explicit verbal or non-verbal attacks against minorities and is intended to hurt or offend the recipient (e.g., saying or displaying racial epithets; King et al., 2011; Sue et al., 2007). The second and third forms, microinsult and microinvalidation, are less obvious than microassaults. They are also likely to occur unintentionally. Drawing from Sue et al. (2007), King et al. (2011) and Volpone (2012), microinsults are insensitive or rude behaviors that may be unconscious or unintentional but that demean their heritage or identity (e.g., a supervisor telling an African American that he/she is a credit to their race). Microinvalidation refers to messages or behaviors that exclude or negate the thoughts, feelings or experiential reality of minorities (e.g., a supervisor denying time off for a cousin's quinceañera; such celebrations are not an important part of U.S. culture but are to Hispanics). Although their focus was not directly on justice perceptions, King et

al. (2011) found evidence of all three types of microaggressions in the court dockets of discrimination claims from women and ethnic minorities.

Supervisors may (intentionally or unintentionally) express racial microaggressions in their interactions with minority subordinates when enacting organizational decisions. Whether intentional or not, minorities may perceive subtle behaviors and verbal or nonverbal cues from supervisors as signs of disrespect or incivility (King et al., 2011). Although subtle messages and behaviors may seem like they would not be perceived as racist to the majority group, Sue et al. (2007) note that it is most accurate to consider the opinion of the minority when determining if a microaggression has occurred. Often the microaggressions are invisible to the perpetrator (in this case, the supervisors) and well-intentioned.

The respect and politeness that characterizes interpersonal justice (Colquitt et al., 2001) may be at risk when supervisors express microaggressions because the hidden messages are often rude and insulting to the minority. Microaggressions may severely deteriorate perceptions of interpersonal justice because they are inherently disrespectful. As such, we hypothesize the following:

*Hypothesis 1: Microaggressions will be negatively related to interpersonal justice.*

Although the presence of microaggressions may influence minorities' perceptions of interpersonal justice, certain aspects of the supervisor—subordinate relationship, like trust, may influence the extent to which microaggressions are detrimental for reduced interpersonal justice. Interpersonal trust refers to the "extent to which a person is confident in and willing to act on the basis of the words, actions and decisions of

another" (McAllister, 1995, p. 25). Trust in managers has been shown to have positive outcomes for employees, like organizational citizenship behaviors, job satisfaction, and commitment (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

Trust is a critical component of interpersonal relationships, particularly with regard to the supervisor—subordinate relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Roch & Shanock, 2006). Given the positive outcomes of trust, to the extent that minorities can trust their supervisors, the negative effects of microaggressions on interpersonal justice may be diminished. That is, trust in their supervisor may buffer the negative relationship between microaggressions and interpersonal justice. Some minority cultures, like the Hispanic culture, value trust to a greater extent than Caucasians (Volpone, 2012). Thus, if minorities can trust their supervisors, they may understand that microaggressions are unintentional, and may not attribute it as a sign of disrespect on the part of the supervisor. Consequently, minorities' perceptions of interpersonal justice may not be affected. We hypothesize the following:

> *Hypothesis 2: Trust in supervisor will moderate the relationship between microaggressions and interpersonal justice such that the negative relationship between microaggressions and interpersonal justice will be weaker when trust is high.*

Informational Justice

According to Colquitt et al. (2013), informational justice refers to the truthfulness, adequacy and completeness of information that supervisors give to their employees regarding decisions and procedures in the organization. For many minority groups, both

language barriers as well as communication norms within their cultures may influence perceptions of informational justice.

According to the American Community Survey, close to 61 million people over the age of five in the United States speak a language other than English (Ryan, 2013). That translates into approximately 21% of the population that speaks a non-English language. Although the American Community Survey asks participants to indicate how often or how well they speak the language, it is possible that non-English speakers may not be completely proficient in English. That is, although they can understand and communicate during basic conversations in English, they may feel more comfortable speaking their native language. Non-native English speakers may not know what certain words mean or how they are used in certain contexts because they may be unfamiliar with the English language, culture and its idioms. Therefore, supervisors may be giving adequate and timely information, yet some employees may not completely understand the information they are receiving and thus may not interpret it as adequate. Simply put, if subordinates are unable to understand their supervisors because of language barriers, their perceptions of informational justice may suffer.

*Hypothesis 3: Language barriers will be negatively related to informational justice.*

In addition to possible language barriers, supervisors may be unaware or insensitive to cultural differences regarding communication norms that may exist between Caucasians and members of other cultures. In turn, supervisors may not accommodate their messages to facilitate understanding, which is an important component of informational justice (Amason et al., 1999). Hall (1976) developed a

continuum on which national cultures are placed according to the communication styles they prefer (Richardson & Smith, 2007), called high-context/low-context (HCLC). Cultures are categorized along the continuum based on the communication styles that its members prefer and predominantly use (Korac-Kakabadse, Kouzmin, Korac-Kakabadse, & Savery, 2002; Mueller, 2008). HCLC is relevant for relationships with others, particularly those in authority (Kim, Pan, & Park, 1998), and thus may have implications for the adequacy of the information that employees get from supervisors (i.e. informational justice).

Cultures like Hispanic, African, and Asian have been shown to fall on the high-context side of the continuum while the Caucasians in the United States tend to fall on the low-context side (Korac-Kakbadse et al., 2002). Members of cultures that fall on the higher side of the continuum value nonverbal communication like gestures and assume that listeners understand the context in which they are communicating (Korac-Kakbadse et al., 2002). As such, they are often ambiguous and implicit in their messages (Korac-Kakabadse et al., 2002). Higher-context cultures also emphasize the tone in which messages are communicated and take the time to build relationships and trust in order to facilitate understanding. On the other end of the continuum, members of lower-context cultures, like Americans, are often very direct in their messages (Mueller, 2008). Supervisors from low-context cultures, like the dominant Caucasian culture in the U.S., rely less on non-verbal cues than members of high-context cultures and use precise words with unambiguous and specific meanings (Korac-Kakabadse et al., 2002). Thus, the candid nature of supervisors' messages may feel inadequate or incomplete to minorities such as Hispanics or Asians who expect more implicit and contextualized messages.

Mueller (2008) similarly argues that messages created by members of higher-context cultures may be difficult to understand for members of lower-context cultures, and vice versa. Consequently, if supervisors, who are statistically likely to be members of the predominantly culture in the U.S. (a low-context culture; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013b), communicate in a predominantly low-context style, minorities from high-context cultures may not understand the messages that their supervisors are trying to convey. This disconnect in communication may influence minorities' perceptions of informational justice because they may feel that the information and explanations they are receiving are incomplete or inadequate. As such, we hypothesize the following:

*Hypothesis 4: When there is a discrepancy in the supervisor versus subordinate's cultural dimension of high-context/low-context, informational justice will be lower than when the cultural dimension of both parties is in agreement.*

## Hispanics and Organizational Justice

Given our theoretical model, Hispanics offer an appropriate sample to begin to test the hypotheses we have proposed. The Hispanic population in the United States is increasing rapidly (Motel & Patten, 2013). From 2000 to 2011, the Hispanic population increased from 35 million to almost 52 million, an increase of 48 percent. Hispanics represent the fastest growing ethnic group, comprising about 17 percent of the total United States population. In addition, they are expected to grow faster than other ethnic groups in the coming decades, including Caucasians (Toossi, 2012). These trends are mimicked within the labor force as well. At 66 percent, Hispanics currently participate in the labor force at higher rates than all other ethnic groups, including Caucasians, and are employed in a wide variety of industries and occupations (U.S. Bureau of Labor

Statistics, 2013b). In addition, Hispanics are projected to comprise about 19 percent of the total labor force by 2020 and almost one third by 5050 (Pew Hispanic Center, 2011; Toossi, 2012). Given their rapid growth in the general population as well as in the labor force, faster than other ethnic groups, we focus on Hispanics in particular in the current study.

Despite their increasing share in the labor force, there has been little empirical research on Hispanics at work (Volpone, 2012). Thus, it is important that researchers and organizations begin to consider the implications of managing a U.S. workforce that is comprised of more Hispanics than ever before. As argued earlier, both cultural and language issues may influence minorities' interactions with their supervisors and thus perceptions of justice as enacted by their supervisors. These arguments are particularly relevant to Hispanics because, as compared to other ethnic minorities, they have been able to maintain their heritage and cultural values to a greater extent and have relatively resisted pressures to assimilate to the dominant U.S. culture (McLemore, Romo, & Baker, 2001). Consequently, culture may play a prominent role in how Hispanics think, feel and act at work. More specifically, Hispanics emphasize cultural values, like trust and respect that characterize interpersonal relationships and are also critical components of interpersonal justice. Thus, the hypothesized relationships with regard to interpersonal justice may be particularly salient in Hispanic employees.

In addition, Hispanics' ability to maintain their culture may also contribute to language barriers that they may experience when communicating with their supervisors. As of 2011, a little more than one third of Hispanics in the United States were foreign born (Motel & Patten, 2013). As such, Hispanics may continue to speak their native

language at home. This notion is supported by 2011 American Community Survey data that shows approximately 35 million Hispanics over the age of five speak Spanish at home (Gonzalez-Barrera & Lopez, 2013). Considered differently, approximately three quarters of the Hispanic population in the U.S. and 13 percent of the total U.S. population over the age of five speak Spanish at home (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013). Given these statistics, it is possible that Hispanics may encounter language barriers when interacting with their supervisors.

In summary, Hispanics' unique cultural values, like an emphasis on trust and respect, and possible issues with language may influence their attitudes and behaviors at work, particularly with regard to fair treatment from their supervisors (Volpone, 2012). Therefore, Hispanics represent an appropriate sample in which to test the potential implications of culture and language issues on justice enacted by supervisors, mainly interpersonal and informational justice.

# METHOD

## Sample and Procedure

The sample consisted of 259 working Hispanics throughout the United States. The participants were recruited via Qualtrics Survey Panels, an online survey administrator, and were compensated for their time. Qualtrics builds in data quality checks, like catch questions and response time checks, to Panel surveys to ensure high quality data. If the participants were not Hispanic or failed to meet the data quality checks, they were screened out of the survey and their responses were not recorded.

The sample was 58% female and an average age of 38.93 years old (*SD* = 11.14). Approximately 32% of the sample had a 4-year college degree, while 13% had a high school diploma/GED and 19.2% had a graduate or professional school education. Using the Occupational Information Network (O*Net) classification of industries and careers (http://www.onetonline.org/find/), the participants represented a wide variety of industries and careers. All 21 industry categories were represented, with Healthcare and Social Assistance (13.5%), Government (10.4%) and Educational Services (10%) represented most heavily. Similarly, all 16 categories of career clusters were represented. Business Management and Administration, Marketing, Sales and Service, and Education and Training had the highest frequency, represented 20.8%, 8.5% and 7.7% of the sample respectively. Thus, the sample was representative of a wide range of jobs and not one particular organization. The participants had an average of 17.15 years of work experience (*SD* = 9.88) and had been with their current organization for approximately 5.52 years (*SD* = 7.29).

## Measures

### Organizational Justice

We measured informational and interpersonal justice using Colquitt's (2001) measure. For each scale, participants indicated the extent to which they agree with the statement using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree;* 5 = *strongly agree*). Interpersonal justice was measured using a 4-item measure. Sample items include "my supervisor has treated me in a polite manner" and "my supervisor has treated me with respect". Informational justice was measured with a 4- item measure. Sample items include "my supervisor has explained the procedures thoroughly" and "my supervisor has communicated details in a timely manner". Both measures demonstrated high reliability, with the alpha coefficients of .91 for both interpersonal and informational justice.

### Microaggressions

Microaggressions were measured using the 10-item Racial Microaggression in Counseling Scale (Constantine, 2007). Although this measure has been widely used in the counseling literature (e.g. Owen, Imel, Tao, Wampold, Smith & Rodolfa, 2011; Owen, Leach, Wampold, & Rodolfa, 2011), to our knowledge, this is the first time it has been used in organizational settings. As such, the referent in this measure was adapted from the counselor to the supervisor. For example, an item that reads "My counselor seems to deny having any cultural biases or stereotypes" was be changed to read "My supervisor seems to deny having any cultural biases or stereotypes." An additional sample item includes "my supervisor sometimes minimizes the importance of cultural issues". Respondents indicated the extent to which they agree with each statement (1 =

*strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). This adapted measure showed high reliability, with an alpha of .93.

Trust in supervisor

Trust was measured with a commonly used 10-item trust measure from McAllister (1995; e.g. as cited in Chowdhury, 2005; Li & Tan, 2013). The 10-item scale included items such as "I trust and respect my supervisor" and "other work associated of mine who must interact with my supervisor consider him/her to be trustworthy". Similar to previous studies, this measure showed a high degree of reliability with an alpha of .92.

Language Barriers

Language barriers were assessed in five different ways. The first was one item, asking participants whether English is their first language, with a yes/no response. The second question assessed proficiency, asking the participants to indicate how comfortable they are with the English language. Using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*), participants were also asked to respond to the item "I have trouble understanding what my supervisor says" (e.g. McManus, Gould & Welch, 1983; Tainer, 1988).

In addition, participants responded to Marin, Sabogal, Marin, Otero-Sabogal, Perez-Stable's (1987) 12-item acculturation scale. Because we were only interested in language barriers, we used the eight language acculturation items, which referred to what language participants prefer to speak and listen to during normal daily activities. Sample items include "In general, in what language(s) are the movies, TV shows, and radio programs you *prefer* to watch and listen to?" and "In which language(s) do you usually think?". Participants responded using a 6-point scale (*1* = only Spanish; *2* = more

Spanish than English; *3* = both equally, *4* = More English than Spanish; *5* = only English; *6* = a language other than Spanish or English). The alpha coefficient for the language acculturation scale is .91.

Finally, we used generation status as a proxy for language barriers with the rationale that the more removed from the native country (i.e. higher generation), the less likely that the native language would be preserved, and thus diminishing the possibility of language barriers. We asked participants to indicate whether they were born in the United States, whether their mother was born in the United States, and whether their father was born in the United States. Using that information, we calculated the participant's generation status using a commonly accepted classification (e.g. Knight, Kagan, Nelson, & Gumbiner, 1978; Valentine, 2001). If the participant was not born in the United States, they were labeled as first generation. If one or both of their parents were not born in the United States, they were labeled as second generation. If both of their parents were born in the United States, they were labeled as third generation.

High-context/low-context

High-context/low-context communication values were measured using items adapted from Richardson and Smith's (2007) 14-item measure. Sample items include "Fewer words can often lead to better understanding" and "A speaker can assume that listeners will know what they really mean". Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with the statements using a 5-point response scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). To get at the discrepancy between the participants and their supervisors on the cultural dimension of high-context/low-context, participants were then asked to indicate the extent to which they believed their *supervisor*

would rate each item, using the same response scale. The measure showed an acceptable degree of reliability for both participant and supervisors' beliefs; the alphas for participants' and supervisors' were .82 and .84 respectively.

Controls

Several variables served as controls for this study. The race of the supervisor was included because supervisor—subordinate similarity may influence the presence of microaggressions. More specifically, if the supervisor is the same ethnicity as the Hispanic subordinates, they are likely from the same culture, and thus they may be less likely to unintentionally degrade aspects of the Hispanic culture—doing so would inherently insult their own culture as well. In addition, they may be more understanding of Hispanic culture and understand possible sensitivity surrounding cross-cultural issues. A significant body of literature suggests that the ethnic similarity of a supervisor and his/her employee leads to a host of outcomes, including perceived discrimination (e.g. Avery, McKay, and Wilson, 2008) and also may be related to perceptions of justice.

In addition, we controlled for how long each respondent has worked in their organization. Longer tenure may result in additional interactions between supervisors and subordinates. As such, they may become familiar with each other (i.e. their communication styles and/or their cultural values). Thus, supervisors may be less likely to engage in microaggressions toward longer tenure subordinates because they have begun to understand the culture or may have learned that culture may be a sensitive issue for Hispanics. Similarly, we controlled for how many years of relevant work experience each respondent has. As Hispanic employees become accustom to the rules and expectations for their line of work, they may be more acculturated and thus more likely to

act in accordance with work expectations rather than cultural expectations. Therefore, there would be less of a cultural difference between supervisor and subordinate and less of a basis to engage in microaggressions.

Finally, we controlled for negative affectivity. Negative affectivity represents a tendency to see things in an unfavorable or negative way (Watson & Clark, 1984; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988; Watson & Tellegen, 1985). We included negative affectivity as a control because people high in negative affectivity are likely to see microaggressions as more threatening and insulting than people low in negative affectivity. For example, because they are more pessimistic, they may ascribe microaggressions as intentional, and thus more harmful to perceptions of interpersonal fairness from supervisors. In addition, people high in negative affectivity may choose to focus on the negative side of the interactions with their supervisor. Thus, they may only remember the times when their interactions were poor (i.e. their supervisor did not treat them with respect) or when their supervisor was not clear in communicating decisions. Such an outlook may have implications for scores of informational and interpersonal justice.

# RESULTS

Table 1 shows means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations of all variables. All correlations were in the expected direction. In addition, all measures showed acceptable internal reliabilities. Race of the supervisor and negative affectivity were significantly related to multiple variables of interest. As such, they were included as control variables in subsequent analyses. Tenure at the organization and work experience were not significantly related to any focal variables, and thus were not included as controls. First, we tested the discriminant validity of interpersonal and informational justice, microaggressions, trust in supervisor, and language acculturation. Next, we tested our hypotheses.

## Discriminant Validity

We conducted a series of confirmatory factor analytic (CFA) models to examine if interpersonal and informational justice, microaggressions, trust in supervisor, and language acculturation are distinct constructs and that the items loaded onto their intended factors. We used MPlus 6.11 software (Muthen & Muthen, 2011) with maximum likelihood estimation to compare the fit of four models: a single-factor model (combines interpersonal justice, informational justice, trust in supervisor, microaggressions, and language acculturation into one factor), a two-factor model (treats interpersonal and informational justice as one factor and trust, microaggressions and language acculturation as a second factor), a three-factor model (combines interpersonal and informational justice as the first factor, trust and microaggressions as a second factor, and language acculturation as a third factor) and finally a five-factor model, which treats the five variables as distinct factors. For language barriers, we used only the language

acculturation scale in the factor analysis because the other 4 ways of assessing language barriers were 1-item measures only on a variety of different response scales and were not.

Table 2 shows the results of these analyses. Considering all fit statistics, the five-factor model showed considerable improvement over the other models. For the five-factor model, the root-mean-square-errors-of-approximation (RMSEA) was below.10, and the comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) values were above .90, but the other models had fit statistic values that were not as good. Most items loaded well onto their predicted factors in the five-factor model using a cutoff loading of .40. We dropped one trust in supervisor item ("If people knew more about my supervisor and his/her background, they would be more concerned and monitor his/her performance more closely") for subsequent analyses, as its loading was .13. These results suggest that the adequate factor structure of interpersonal and informational justice, microaggressions, trust in supervisor and language acculturation is a five-factor model.

## Structural Equation Modeling for Tests of Hypotheses 1-3

We used structural equation modeling with MPlus 6.11 (Muthen & Muthen, 2011) to test Hypotheses 1-3 simultaneously. This is advantageous because it provides more realistic coefficients that take into account covariation among predictors and outcome variables, and accounts for measurement error. Hypothesis 4 was tested using polynomial regression with response surface analysis (Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattitson, & Heggestad, 2010). The results for Hypotheses 1-3 are presented in Figure 2. Microaggressions were significantly and negatively related to interpersonal justice, supporting Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2 stated that trust in supervisor would moderate the relationship between microaggressions and interpersonal justice such that the negative

relationship between microaggressions and interpersonal justice will be weaker when trust is high. The microaggressions x trust in supervisor coefficient was significant and positive as related to interpersonal justice ($b = .34$, $p < .01$). To aid in interpretation, the relationship between microaggressions and interpersonal justice was plotted at one standard deviation above and below the mean of trust in the supervisor. The resulting graph is illustrated in Figure 3. The interaction is consistent with Hypothesis 2; when trust in supervisor is high, the negative relationship between microaggressions and interpersonal justice is weaker (i.e. less negative) than when trust in supervisor is high.

We then conducted simple effects tests (Aiken & West, 1991) to test the significance of the interaction. The test revealed a non-significant relationship between microaggressions and interpersonal justice at one standard deviation above the mean for trust, $t(258) = -1.48$, $p > .05$. The test also revealed a significant relationship between microaggressions and interpersonal justice at one standard deviation below the mean for trust, $t(258) = -5.64$, $p < .001$. Thus, Hypothesis 2 supported; trust in the supervisor appears to buffer the negative effects of microaggressions on interpersonal justice given that the relationship between microaggressions and interpersonal justice was not significant when trust was high, only at low levels of trust.

Hypothesis 3 stated that language barriers, as measured in five different ways, would be negatively related to informational justice. Only two of the five ways in which language barriers were measured were significantly related to informational justice: generation status and ability to understand their supervisor. The further removed that participants' were from their native country in terms of generation status, the higher their perceived informational justice. In addition, if participants indicated that they had trouble

understanding what their supervisor said (represented by a higher score), they also indicated they perceived lower levels of informational justice. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was partially supported.

Polynomial Regression with Response Surface Analysis for Testing Hypothesis 4

To test Hypothesis 4, which predicted that the discrepancy between participants' and their supervisor's score on the HCLC cultural dimension would relate to informational justice, we used polynomial regression with response surface analysis. Response surface analysis is a technique that researchers can use when they are interested in how combinations of variables (i.e. a discrepancy in high-context/low-context cultural dimension between participants and their supervisor) relate to an outcome (i.e. informational justice; Shanock et al., 2010).

Following the steps outlined in Shanock, et al. (2010), we first inspected how many participants were considered to have a discrepancy between their own and their supervisor's score on the HCLC cultural dimension. To do that, we first standardized the participants' own HCLC scores and the supervisors' HCLC scores (Fleenor, McCauley, & Brutus, 1996). We then subtracted the standardized supervisor's HCLC score from the standardized participants' own HCLC score. A discrepancy score is said to exist when the standardized score on one predictor (i.e. own HCLC or supervisor's HCLC) is half a standard deviation above or below the standardized score on the other predictor (i.e. supervisor's HCLC or own HCLC). Thirty-two percent of the sample was considered to have a discrepancy. Thus, we were satisfied that discrepant values exist. These results are presented in Table 3.

Next, following the procedure outlined in Atwater, Waldman, Ostroff, Robie, & Johnson (2005), we proceeded with the polynomial regression analysis. First, we centered the predictors (i.e. participants' own HCLC score and supervisor's HCLC score) around the midpoint of the scale (Edwards, 1994) to aid in interpretation (Aiken & West, 1991). Then, we created three new variables: the square of participants' own HCLC score, the square of supervisor's HCLC score, and the cross-product of participants' own HCLC score and supervisor's HCLC score. Next, we ran the polynomial regression analysis by regressing informational justice (the outcome) onto the centered predictor variables (i.e. participants' own HCLC and supervisor HCLC), and the three variables we just created (Shanock, et al., 2010).

Shanock et al. (2010) explain that instead of evaluation $R^2$, as is typically done with regression, polynomial regression with response surface analysis is evaluation in terms of the response surface pattern. The response surface pattern represented by the slope and curvature of two lines—the line of perfect agreement (when X = Y) and the line of incongruence (when X and Y are not in agreement). The results from the response surface analysis are presented in Table 4. The surface test $a_1$ represents a linear line of perfect agreement. Because $a_1$ is significant and positive, the results suggest that informational justice increase as participants' own HCLC and supervisor's HCLC increases. However, the results of the surface test of $a_1$ should be interpreted with caution given that there was also curvature along the line of perfect agreement. Therefore, there is not a straightforward linear slope to the line (as one can see in Figure 4, there is a dip in the line of perfect agreement). The surface test $a_2$ represents a non-linear slope of the line of perfect agreement. The results show that $a_2$ is positive and

significant, suggesting that when the participant's and supervisor's HCLC are in agreement, as participants' own HCLC and supervisors HCLC increase, informational justice increases non-linearly. Looking at Figure 4, one can see that when HCLC values are in agreement but low (near zero) there is a dip in informational justice but when HCLC values are in agreement but increasing in either direction (towards LC or HC), informational justice is higher. Therefore, cultural alignment seems to matter for informational justice more so when the cultural value (either low or high context) is endorsed.

Although it is interesting to discuss the significant surface tests along the line of perfect agreement, recall that our hypothesis was with regard to the line of incongruence. To assess whether Hypothesis 4 is supported, we need to interpret the degree of discrepancy between participants' own HCLC and supervisor's HCLC. Thus, we looked at the surface test $a_4$, which represents the curvature along the line of incongruence. The results show that $a_4$ is significant and positive, which suggests that as the degree of discrepancy increases in either direction (i.e. whether participants' own HCLC is higher or supervisor's HCLC is higher), informational justice is much lower. Thus, informational justice suffers more as participants' own HCLC and supervisor HCLC diverge from one another. The surface test of $a_3$, the only non-significant finding from the response surface analysis, represents the slope of the line of incongruence.

To aid in interpretation of the response surface analysis, we graphed the results of the polynomial regression (see Figure 4). From the figure, you can see that informational justice is highest when participants' own HCLC and supervisor's HCLC are in agreement. Furthermore, in comparison, informational justice is much lower when

participant's own HCLC and supervisor's HCLC are not in agreement, or are discrepant. That is, if supervisors and subordinates differ on the HCLC cultural dimension, which indicates different communication styles, subordinates perceive that their supervisors do not give adequate and complete information. Thus, Hypothesis 4 is supported.

# DISCUSSION

This study adds to the limited literature on the predictors of organizational justice and in particular, justice that is enacted by supervisors (i.e. interpersonal and informational justice). In addition, the current study also adds to the organizational justice literature by focusing specifically on cultural and language issues as predictors of justice. We found that the greater the extent of microaggressions Hispanics perceived from their supervisors, the lower their levels of interpersonal justice. Although our study is cross-sectional in nature, it may suggest that the disrespectful and rude nature of microaggressions may be detrimental to perceptions of the respect and propriety that supervisors show to their subordinates. Although microaggressions may harm perceptions of interpersonal justice, we also found that the negative relationship is buffered somewhat if participants are able to trust their supervisor. If subordinates are confident in their supervisors and are able to trust them, they may understand that microaggressions are not really intentional. Subordinates who trust their supervisors may reason that supervisors may not completely understand their culture and thus do not take offense to the microaggressions or see them as disrespectful. Therefore, when trust is high, the relationship between microaggressions and informational justice is much weaker than when trust in supervisor is low.

With regard to informational justice, we found that two of the five measures of language barriers–generation status and ability to understand their supervisor–were significant predictors. Generation status may have been significantly related to informational justice because it is the most comprehensive of the five measures of language barriers. Looking at the Table 1, you can see that generation status is

significantly related to both language acculturation and English as a first language. Thus, it is possible that this proxy for language barriers encompasses many different aspects of lingual issues that Hispanic workers (and possibly other ethnic minorities in the U.S.) face. In addition, the ability for participants to understand their supervisor is similarly comprehensive due to its vagueness, which also represents a limitation. Participants could have indicated that they have trouble understanding their supervisor for many reasons other than language barriers (i.e. the supervisor is not socially skilled). The other three measures of language barriers were not significantly related to informational justice, but were in the expected direction. The relationship between English as a first language and informational justice may not be significant because there is some range restriction in the sample; only 30% of the participants indicated that English was not their first language. In addition, there was some range restriction in the acculturation measure. The mean score for acculturation was 4.07 out of 5 (after removing participants who responded with a 6—a language other than Spanish or English), indicated that participants were relatively highly acculturated. Finally, the comfort with English measure may have been too vague to accurately capture language barriers; that is, 'comfort' may have be interpreted differently across the sample.

Using polynomial regression with response surface analysis, we also found support for Hypothesis 4. Discrepancies in the HCLC cultural dimension between supervisor and subordinate appear to harm perceptions of informational justice. More specifically, the curvature along the line of disagreement suggests that as the amount of discrepancy in the HCLC cultural dimension increases, perceptions of informational justice suffer greatly. This study is the first to consider how differences on a particular

cultural dimension can influence informational justice. Although there are some limitations to our approach (see below), such an investigation is important given the statistics surrounding diversification of the workplace and the pervasiveness of Caucasian managers. Although minorities participate in the labor force at higher rates than Caucasians, only one out of every four managers is a minority (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013b). Thus, although there are more minorities in the workforce each year, their supervisors are statistically more likely to be Caucasian. Not only may minorities differ from their supervisors on HCLC as the current study focused on, but a wide variety of other cultural dimensions as well. These cross-cultural relationships present an interesting dynamic to the supervisor–subordinate relationship that may have important implications for the quality of the relationship as well as individual attitudes and behaviors, like organizational justice.

It is interesting to note that we found aforementioned effects over and above the effects of race similarity with supervisor and negative affectivity. Over 60% of the sample had a supervisor that was of a different race than the participant. Nonetheless, microaggressions, language barriers and cultural value discrepancies explained significant variance in the levels of interpersonal and informational justice that we found above race of the supervisor. That is, the effects we found are not due solely to race differences between supervisors and subordinates. In addition, the effects on interpersonal and informational justice that we found are more than simply participants' negative view of the world, or negative affectivity.

An alternative way to test these control variables (supervisor race and participant negative affectivity) is to include them as moderators of the hypothesized model; the size

of the effects of the hypothesized relationships may depend on the levels of the control variables. For example, if the supervisor is the same ethnicity as the Hispanic subordinates, they are likely from the same culture, and thus the relationships would likely wash out whereas they would be expected to hold for supervisors of a different ethnicity than their employees. We wanted to assess whether the model's relationships are the same when the supervisor is of the same ethnicity or only when he/she is of a different ethnicity. It made more sense to think of these variables as control variables (simply as independent variables in the regression equations) instead of moderators (i.e., they may share variance with the focal variables).

However, we tested this alternative model and found that the interaction with the moderator control variables was significant for only a handful of the focal variables. In particular, the interaction of comfort with English (a language barrier proxy) with negative affectivity and with supervisor race—both of which were included as controls in the original analyses—was significantly related to informational justice. In addition, the relationships between interpersonal justice and the trust*microaggressions*negative affectivity interaction, the trust*microaggressions*tenure interaction and the trust*microaggressions*work experience interaction were significant. The majority of the relationships we tested were not dependent on levels of the moderator control variables. As such, we did not include these in the main set of results reported nor the tests of hypothesized relationships. However, the possibility of these as moderators might be fruitful to examine in future research.

## Theoretical and Practical Implications

As mentioned previously, the present study adds to our limited knowledge of the

predictors of justice. Although organizational justice has been studied widely, much of the research has focused on the outcomes of justice, like task performance or organizational commitment (Colquitt et al., 2013). The current study contributes to the justice literature by investigating how issues like microaggressions and discrepancies between supervisors and subordinates on cultural dimensions may influence justice enacted by supervisors. In addition, we have considered the justice implications when managing a changing workforce, comprised of more Hispanics than ever before (Toossi, 2012). Thus, we considered constructs, like microaggressions and discrepancies between supervisors and subordinates on the HCLC cultural dimension, which are commonly used in the diversity literature, but have not been considered within the justice literature. Applying these constructs to the justice literature represents an attempt to integrate the literatures on diversity and organizational justice.

Regarding the justice literature, it makes sense to consider cultural differences and discrimination, microaggressions in particular, because interpersonal treatment is a critical component of perceptions of fairness (Colquitt et al., 2013). Culture influences how we interact with others, and plays an important role in interpersonal relationships. Myers, Speights and Shanock (2013) found that Hispanics perceive lower levels of supervisor support than their Caucasian counterparts do, and informational justice was one potential mechanism they explored. We attempted to expand this finding and explore specific reasons for why Hispanics may perceive lower levels of informational justice—that is, cultural predictors of both informational and interpersonal justice. To date, the diversity literature has focused primarily on the results of implementing various diversity initiatives, particularly diversity training (e.g., Kalinoksi, Steele-Johnson, Peyton, Leas,

Steinke, & Bowling, 2013). However, the broader implications of managing a diverse workforce have received little attention. As part of a recent book calling for more research on Hispanics at work in the United States, Volpone (2012) mentioned that such research is needed to understand how Hispanics' unique cultural values and expectations influence the way they think, feel and act at work. Such research is certainly beneficial for other minority groups as well.

We chose to use microaggressions over perceived discrimination, which is commonly used in the diversity literature (e.g., Madera, King, & Hebl, 2012; Sanchez & Brock, 1996) because perceived discrimination represents more overt rather than subtle forms of discrimination. However, the current study could be extended by considering perceived discrimination in addition to microaggressions. Although similar, perceived discrimination and microaggressions are different (in our sample, the two constructs have a correlation of .64). Formally, perceived discrimination is an "individual's perception that selective and differential treatment is occurring because of the individual's ethnic group membership" (Sanchez & Brock, 1996 p. 705; Mirage, 1994). As mentioned earlier, microaggressions refer to more subtle forms of racism, which was better suited to answer our questions regarding the interpersonal relationship between supervisors and their subordinates.

Although there has been extensive research on perceived discrimination, there has been little research on microaggressions at work, despite King et al.'s (2011) finding that microaggressions are present at work. Future research should continue to add to the limited knowledge on microaggressions in organizational settings, especially given the diversification of the workforce. In particular, what are other outcomes of

microaggressions? Are there individual differences in supervisors (and perhaps co-workers) who engage in microaggressions (e.g., supervisors' personality)? Because microaggressions are often invisible to the perpetrator (i.e. the supervisor), future research may also aid in our understanding of how to reduce microaggressions. For example, does diversity sensitivity training have any effect on the prevalence of microaggressions?

The present study also attempts to begin to understand Hispanics' experiences at work, particularly with regard to perceived organizational justice. Although our arguments regarding interpersonal treatment, cultural values and language barriers are likely applicable to a variety of minority groups, we chose to focus on Hispanics. They were an appropriate sample for our research questions given their rapid growth in the U.S. workforce and their unique, sustained culture. Hispanics will have a major presence in the labor force in years to come. As such, it is important to understand Hispanics both as a cultural group and as employees and how their culture influences their attitudes and behaviors and their relationships with their supervisors at work.

Our study adds to the limited literature on Hispanics at work. Future research would benefit from investigating Hispanics further; are there other cultural dimensions that influence their thoughts and behaviors at work? In addition, future studies would also benefit from considering these relationships in other minority groups. Other cultures also differ from Caucasians on a variety of cultural values. For example, similar to Hispanics, Africans and Asians are thought to fall on the high-context side of the HCLC cultural dimension (Korac-Kakbadse et al., 2002). Furthermore, using Hofstede's classification, Asian cultures are also more likely to be accepting of power differences,

like those between supervisors and subordinates (known as power distance), whereas Caucasians value power equality (Hofstede, 1980). Thus, not only may other minority groups experience microaggressions, but culture values different from HCLC may influence important work outcomes.

Given the diversification of the workforce, organizations should begin to consider how they could make cross-cultural interactions positive ones and, perhaps, take advantage of them. Our results suggest that supervisors may engage in microaggressions, which have negative implications for interpersonal justice. Organizations may be able to reduce microaggressions by increasing supervisors' awareness and educating them on microaggressions. As our results suggest, spending time to help facilitate trust building in supervisor-subordinate relationships may also help to reduce the negative effects of microaggressions. In addition, cultural or diversity training (e.g. Kalinokski et al., 2013) may make supervisors more sensitive to cultural differences that may be present in an attempt to increase understanding and decrease negative outcomes that may result from a discrepancy in cultural values.

## Limitations

Although our hypotheses were supported, this study is not without limitations. First, the participants were recruited through Qualtrics Panels and were able to take the survey wherever Internet was accessible. While this may present opportunities for participants to respond haphazardly, we worked data quality checks in order to ensure high quality data. For example, if participants answered the questions too quickly, they were screened out of the survey and their answers were not recorded. In addition, if the participants did not correctly respond to the catch questions, they were screened out and

their answers were not recorded. Furthermore, using Qualtrics panels inherently restricted our sample to people with computers and access to the internet, potentially confounding the results with class. However, given that our sample represented a range of educational attainment and that we found significant results regarding microaggressions, language and cultural value discrepancies with supervisors, we do not believe class to be an issue that prevented us from having enough variability to test our hypotheses nor that the issues were completely different than if we had a wider variety of classes/income levels represented. Even in this group, microaggressions were still experienced and the sample had discrepancies on cultural dimensions. In addition, 30% of the sample had English not as a first language. It may be that the issues are exacerbated among recent immigrants because their cultural value and language issues may be more prevalent. However, future research would be needed to see if results generalize to Hispanics who are working in lower income jobs. Furthermore, our sample was strengthened by using Hispanics from a multitude of jobs in a variety of organizations and industries. Instead of getting a snapshot of the dynamics of a single organization, we were able to see a pattern of results that allowed us to focus on Hispanics across a variety of jobs and industries.

Moreover, the survey was given in English only. This decision may explain the lack of significant findings with regard to many of the language barrier questions. A majority of participants indicated that they were native English speakers, perhaps because non-native speakers may not feel confident signing up for a Qualtrics survey conducted in English. Due to range restriction in the number of participants that spoke a language other than English, we are confident in the integrity of our data. However, future

research may investigate how the results would differ if participants were given the option to take the survey in the language they are most comfortable with, and in Hispanics with low English proficiency.

In addition, all of the data was self-report, including supervisor's beliefs regarding the HCLC cultural dimension. While common method bias could be a concern, which we address below statistically, self-report is actually advantageous for some of the variables we investigated. First, the participants are in the best position to report on demographic information such as language barriers and cultural dimensions. In addition, it is best to consider the minority's opinion when measuring microaggressions (Sue et al., 2007). As mentioned previously, microaggressions are subtle and often unintentional on the part of the perpetrator (i.e. the supervisor). If we had asked supervisors to report the extent to which they engaged in microaggressions towards their subordinates, they may inaccurately say never because they do not realize they are doing so. Thus, having the participants self-report the extent to which they perceive microaggressions from their supervisor is a more accurate measure than asking supervisors.

However, our study could have been strengthened by including supervisor-rated outcomes, like performance, to see how detriments in interpersonal and informational justice influence job performance. In addition, it could be strengthened by asking supervisors to take the HCLC cultural dimension measure. Nonetheless, having the participants self-report how they believed their supervisor would have answered resulted in variability in responses and discrepancies between the participant and the supervisor.

Because common method bias is a possibility with data from a single source, we took statistical measures to reduce concerns. First, as mentioned previously, the one-

factor model from the CFA did not fit the data well. Furthermore, the five-factor model in which all variables were treated as a separate factor fit the data best. To further relieve concerns, we used the marker variable technique by using a theoretically unrelated marker variable (polychronicity; Williams, Hartman, & Cavazotte, 2010). We added polychronicity into the model and conducted a CFA to assess whether the marker variable and focal study variables were related to a common factor (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). The results suggest that only 2% of the variance in the items is due to method variance. Thus, common method bias does not seem to be a concern in the present study.

## Conclusion

The present study investigated how microaggressions, supervisor-subordinate differences in cultural values, and language barriers influence perceptions of organizational justice that are enacted by the supervisor—mainly interpersonal and informational justice. It adds to the growing literature on diversity in the workplace and provides a starting point for understanding the predictors of organizational justice. Future research should investigate these relationships in other minority groups before generalizing beyond our strictly Hispanic sample. However, our study provides a starting point for understanding how minorities' experiences at work influence their perceptions of justice and relationship with their supervisor.

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Table 1: Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for study variables

| | *M* | *SD* | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. | 8. | 9. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Informational Justice | 3.87 | .86 | **.91** | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Interpersonal Justice | 4.20 | .83 | .70** | **.91** | | | | | | | |
| 3. Microaggressions | 2.32 | .87 | -.31** | -.41** | **.93** | | | | | | |
| 4. Trust in Supervisor | 3.70 | .86 | .76** | .71** | -.35** | **.92** | | | | | |
| 5. English as First Language | 1.30 | .46 | -.05 | -.03 | -.03 | -.08 | - | | | | |
| 6. Comfort with English | 3.91 | .40 | .11 | .13* | -.19** | .06 | -.15** | - | | | |
| 7. Understand Supervisor | 1.26 | .61 | -.18** | -.12 | .06 | -.15* | .01 | -.22** | - | | |
| 8. Language Acculturation | 4.09 | .81 | .03 | .05 | -.09 | .10 | -.59** | .16* | -.06 | **.91** | |
| 9. Generation Status | 2.47 | .45 | .00 | -.04 | .03 | .02 | -.49** | .04 | -.03 | .43** | - |

Note. $N = 259$. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. Reliabilities are shown on the diagonal in bold. *HCLC* = High Context/Low Context. Variables 12 to 15 are control variables.

Table 1: Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for study variables (continued)

| | *M* | *SD* | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. | 8. | 9. | 10. | 11. | 12. | 13. | 14. | 15. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10. Participant HCLC | 2.98 | .55 | .20** | .05 | .15* | .12 | -.01 | -.07 | .04 | -.13* | .04 | **.82** | | | | | |
| 11. Supervisor HCLC | 3.10 | .57 | .12 | .00 | .13* | .00 | -.07 | .04 | .08 | -.07 | -.05 | .67** | **.84** | | | | |
| 12. Supervisor Race | 2.01 | 1.08 | .03 | -.11 | .10 | -.01 | .02 | -.05 | .15* | -.15* | -.08 | .16** | .13* | - | | | |
| 13. Tenure at the Organization | 5.52 | 7.29 | .03 | .03 | .06 | -.02 | .08 | -.14 | .05 | -.01 | -.05 | .08 | -.03 | -.07 | - | | |
| 14. Work Experience | 17.15 | 9.88 | -.03 | -.09 | .11 | -.01 | -.05 | .04 | -.10 | .14* | .07 | -.02 | -.13* | -.11 | .39** | - | |
| 15. Negative Affectivity | 1.47 | .51 | -.21** | -.17** | .15* | -.14* | -.04 | -.21** | .22* | .00 | -.01 | .10 | .14* | .13* | .00 | -.15* | **.87** |

Table 2: Confirmatory factor analysis results

| Model | CFI | TLI | $\chi^2$ | *df* | Difference | RMSEA |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| One-factor | .49 | .46 | 4491.25 | 629 | | .15 |
| Two-factor | .52 | .49 | 4266.72 | 628 | 224.53* | .15 |
| Three-factor | .67 | .65 | 3126.85 | 626 | 1139.87* | .12 |
| Five-factor | .90 | .90 | 1347.54 | 619 | 1779.31* | .067 |

*Note.* $N = 259$. The one factor model includes interpersonal justice, informational justice, trust, microaggressions, and language acculturation as one factor. The two-factor treats interpersonal and informational justice as one factor and trust, microaggressions and language acculturation as a second factor. The three-factor model treats interpersonal and informational justice as the first factor, trust and microaggressions as a second factor, and language acculturation as a third factor. The five-factor model treats all variables as its own factor. CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; Difference = difference in chi-square from the next model; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation. * $p < .05$.

Table 3: Descriptive results for response surface analysis

| Agreement groups | Percentage | Mean Own HCLC | Mean Supervisor HCLC |
|---|---|---|---|
| Own HCLC more than Supervisor HCLC | 14.29 | 3.37 | 2.88 |
| In Agreement | 68.34 | 3.13 | 3.17 |
| Own HCLC less than Supervisor HCLC | 17.37 | 2.84 | 3.57 |

Note. $N = 259$. HCLC = High-Context/Low-Context

Table 4: Response surface analysis results of the relationship between participants' own high-context/low-context, perceived supervisor's high-context/low-context and informational justice

| Effect | Coefficient | Standard Error | Test Stat (*t*) |
|---|---|---|---|
| $a_1$ | .25* | .11 | 2.192 |
| $a_2$ | .29* | .11 | 2.634 |
| $a_3$ | -.29 | .24 | -1.193 |
| $a_4$ | -2.20* | .37 | -5.872 |

Note. $N = 259$; $a_1$ = slope along x = y (as related to Z); $a_2$ = Curvature on x = y (as related to Z); $a_3$ = Slope along x = -y (as related to Z); $a_4$ = Curvature on x = -y (as related to Z). Negative affectivity and supervisor race were included as controls.

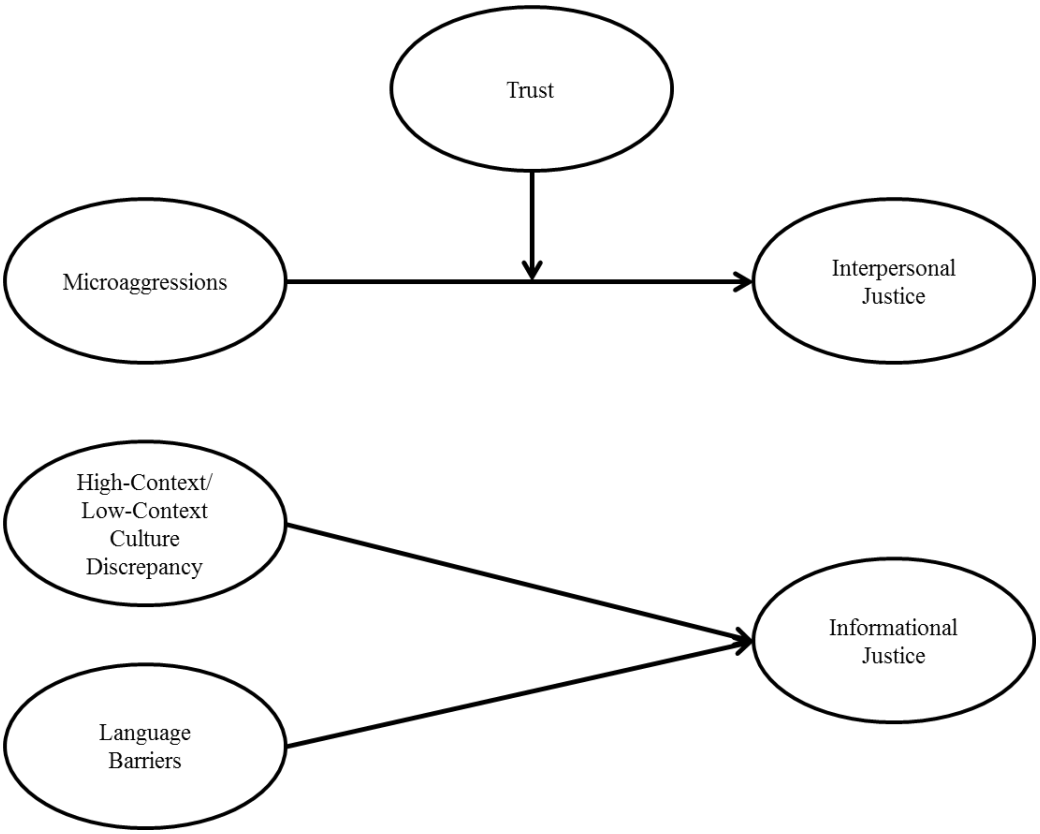


Figure 1: Conceptual Model of Hypothesized relationships

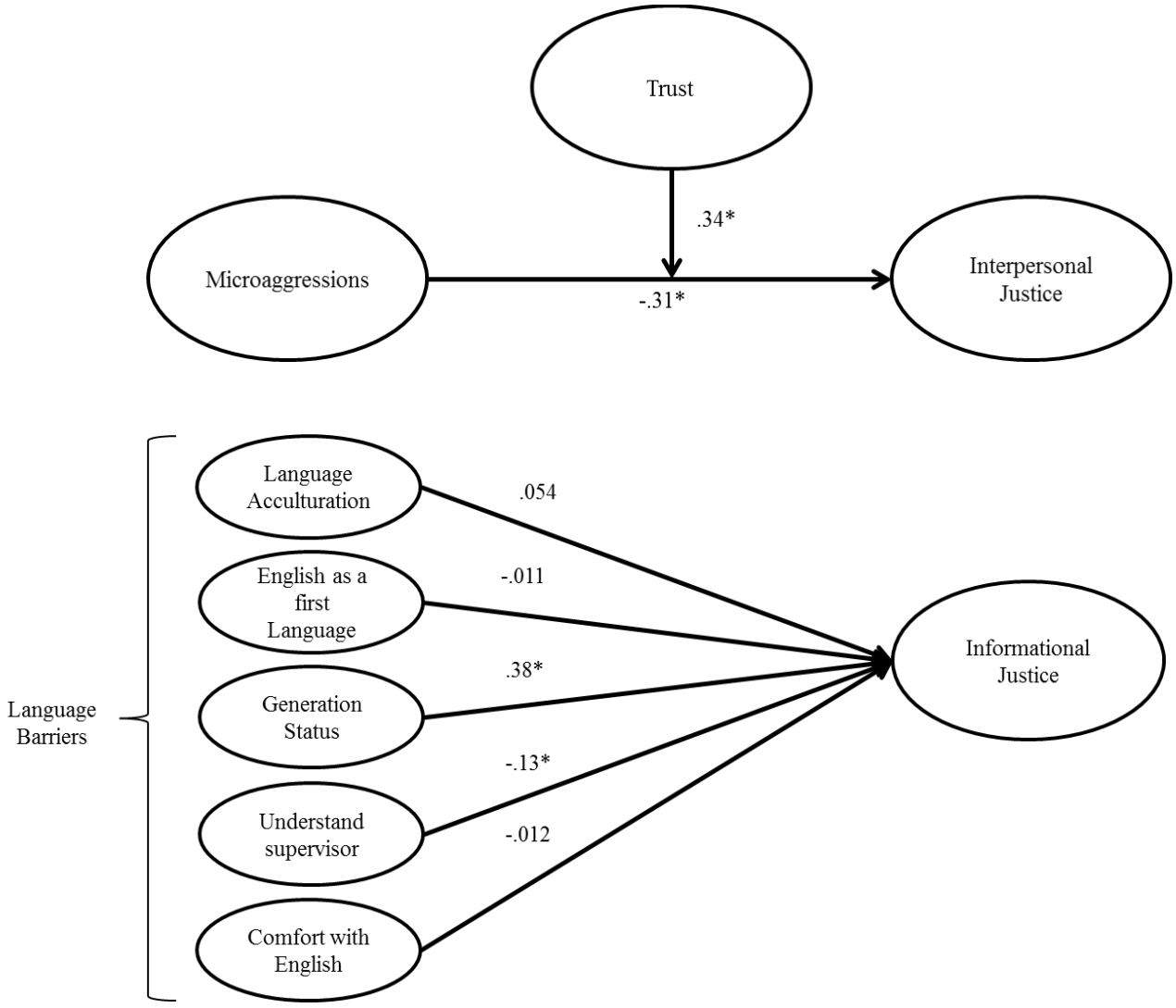


Figure 2: Results of Hypotheses 1-3, the relationship between microaggressions and interpersonal justice, the interaction of microaggresstions x trust in supervisor and interpersonal justice, and language barriers and informational justice. English as a first language was coded such that 1 = English was participants' first language and 2 = English was not participants' first language. Negative affectivity and supervisor race were included as controls. * $p < .05$

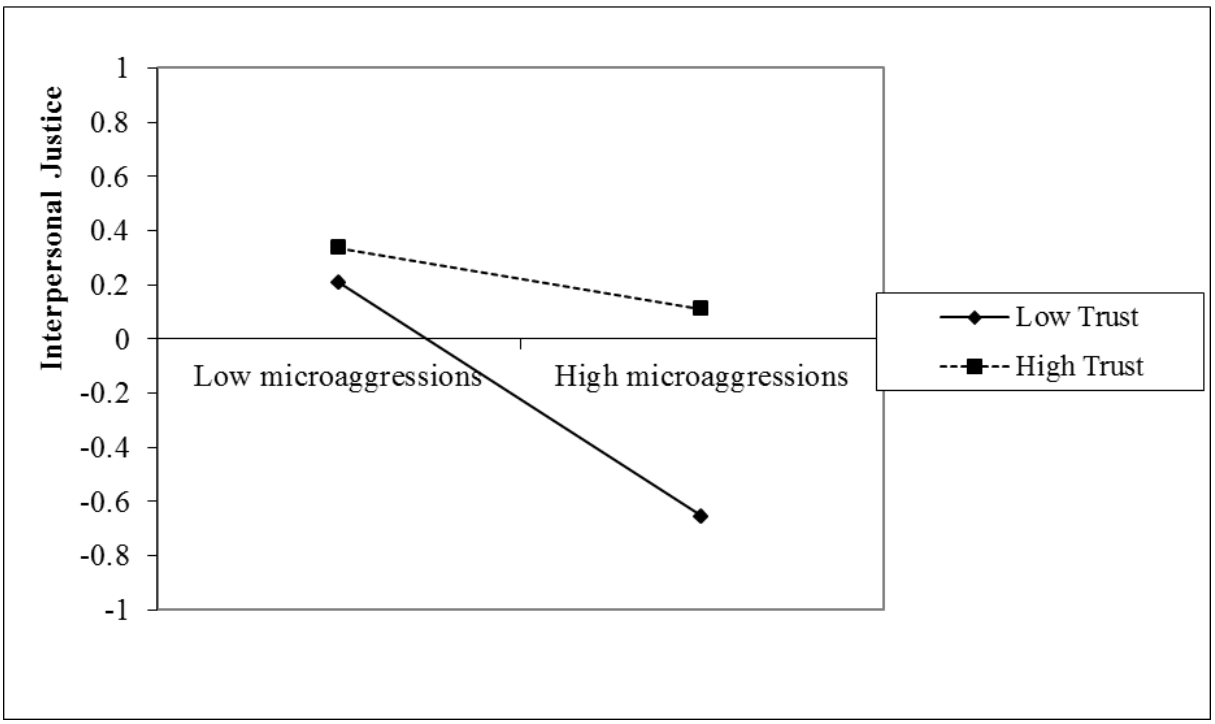


Figure 3: Plot of the interaction between microaggressions and trust in supervisor on interpersonal justice. Interpersonal justice is centered around 0 because the analysis utilized latent variables which have a mean of 0.

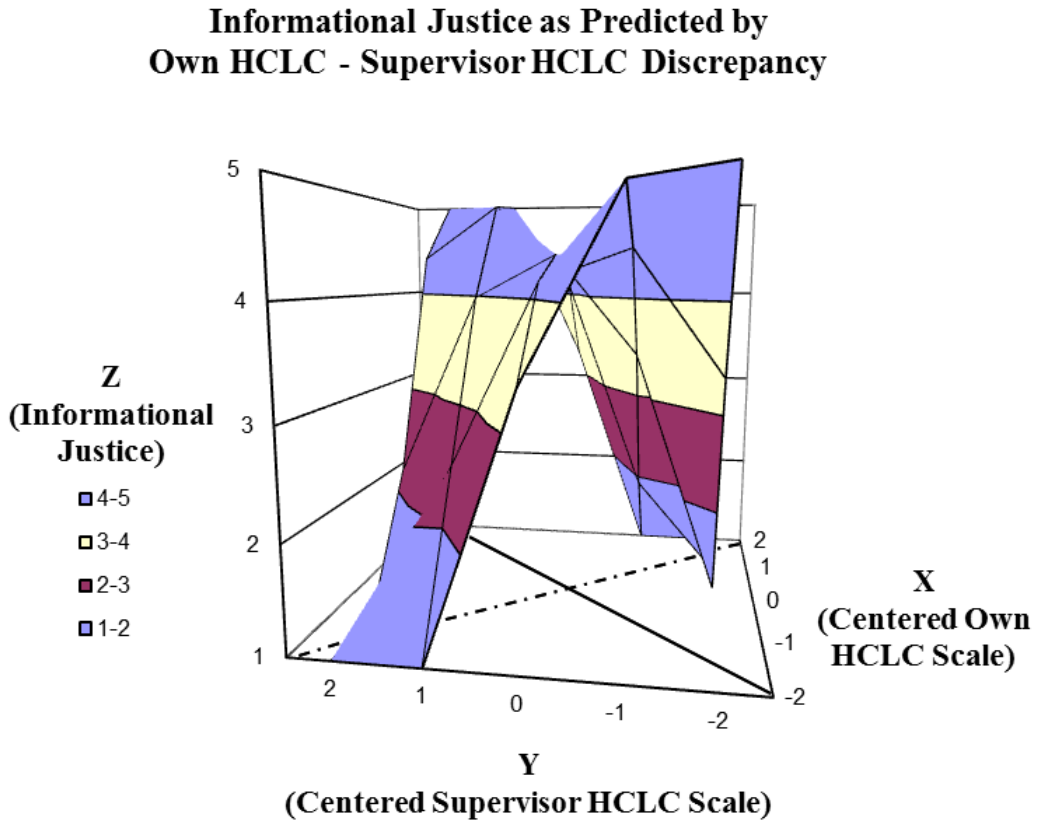


Figure 4: Polynomial regression with response surface analysis results showing the relationship between the discrepancy of participants' own HCLC and supervisor HCLC scores and informational justice. The solid diagonal line represents the line of perfect agreement and the dotted line represents the line of incongruence.