RESEARCH ARTICLE

WILEY | Journal of Organizational Behavior

Investigating gendered reactions to manager mistreatment: Testing the presumed role of prescriptive stereotypes

Frank Mu[1] | Winny Shen[2] | D. Ramona Bobocel[1] | Amy H. Barron[1]

[1]Department of Psychology, University of Waterloo, Waterloo, Canada

[2]Schulich School of Business, York University, Toronto, Canada

Correspondence
Winny Shen, Schulich School of Business, York University, Toronto, Canada.
Email: wshen88@schulich.yorku.ca

Ramona Bobocel, Department of Psychology, University of Waterloo, Waterloo, Canada.
Email: rbobocel@uwaterloo.ca

Summary

Emerging research demonstrates that female managers who mistreat their subordinates suffer more severe negative consequences than male managers. Researchers presume this is because women (but not men) are penalized for acting incongruently with communality prescriptions (i.e., being insufficiently kind). However, integrating this work with the broader literature on gender and leadership, gendered reactions to mistreatment could also—or alternatively—be explained by incongruence with high agency proscriptions (i.e., being too dominant). We model these mechanisms simultaneously in a moderated mediation model across three studies, and find that employees are less trusting of female than male managers because they interpret interpersonal justice violations from women as incongruent with low agency prescriptions. Our results challenge a prevailing assumption in the mistreatment literature by revealing that female managers suffer more severe relational consequences than male managers because their violation of interpersonal justice is construed as excessively agentic, whereas these behaviors are viewed as similarly contravening communality for both male and female managers. By directly testing and correctly specifying the mechanism through which manager gender can shape social exchange processes in the aftermath of manager mistreatment, our studies have scientific and practical implications.

KEYWORDS
interpersonal justice violation, manager gender, mistreatment, prescriptive gender stereotypes, social exchange theory

1 | INTRODUCTION

Positive exchange relationships between managers and subordinates are critical at work (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008). Yet these relationships can be damaged when managers are perceived as mistreating subordinates (e.g., Bowling & Beehr, 2006). Imagine approaching your manager to discuss why you were passed over for a promotion, only to have them derogate your job performance and brusquely eject you

from their office. You would perceive your manager to have mistreated you and lose trust in them as a result. However, would the relational consequences of such mistreatment be the same if your manager were a man or a woman?

Prior research suggests that employees rely on prescriptive gender stereotypes—normative beliefs as to how men and women should act—to guide their reactions to managerial behaviors (Heilman, 2012). In the example above, we predict that subordinate trust and future exchanges

with the manager would be worse if the manager were a woman versus a man. Although manager characteristics, such as gender, are known to shape employees' responses to mistreatment, the specific mechanism underlying these gendered reactions remains equivocal.

Research on gender stereotypes indicates that women are expected to adhere to multiple standards, including prescribed communality—for example, being kind and caring—and proscribed agency—for example, *not* being dominant and aggressive (Abele & Wojciszke, 2007; Prentice & Carranza, 2002). Critically, a line of emerging research on gendered reactions to mistreatment assumes that it is women's failure to act communally that underlies stronger negative reactions to their actions relative to their male counterparts (e.g., Caleo, 2016; Kim et al., 2021; Motro et al., 2021). However, conceptually, such negative reactions could also be due to perceived violations of agentic proscriptions for women. Indeed, the broader literature on gender and leadership has traditionally argued that female leaders

who exercise their authority receive more backlash relative to male leaders due to violation of agency proscriptions (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

In short, scholars do not yet understand the psychological process underlying gendered reactions to *mistreatment* enacted by men and women. Understanding mechanism is crucial in this realm, especially given increasing attention to one mechanism despite plausible alternatives (Leavitt et al., 2010). Accurately pinpointing the mechanism is also essential for successful practical intervention. For example, interventions that focus on educating employees about how their expectations for female managers to be communal may bias their responses to female as compared to male managers may fail to address the problem.

To this end, we integrate research on gender stereotypes and social exchange theory by testing a moderated mediation model wherein manager mistreatment is differentially associated with perceived agentic and communal incongruence, depending on manager gender, and these violations of stereotypical expectations in turn

TABLE 1 Study details at a glance.

	Study 1	Study 2	Study 3
Model tested			
Sample source	Amazon MTurk	Amazon MTurk	Prolific
Measurement approach	Retrospective of recent event (within past 3 months)	Average over the study period (of 6 weeks)	General retrospective (time period not specified)
Mistreatment	Degree of interpersonal justice violation for the event	Degree of interpersonal justice violation for that week (averaged across 6 weeks)	Degree of interpersonal justice violation generally
Incongruence	Agentic and communal incongruence for the event	Agentic and communal incongruence for that week (averaged across 6 weeks)	Degree of agentic and communal incongruence generally
Outcome	Trust in manager since the event	Trust in manager that week (averaged across 6 weeks)	Degree of trust in manager, OCB, and CWB generally
Response scale	Five-point Likert scales (six-point Likert scales used for two control variables)	Seven-point Likert scales	Seven-point Likert scales
Temporal separation of constructs in analysis?	No	No	Yes (2–10 day gap between assessment of mistreatment and stereotype incongruence, and assessment of trust, OCB, and CWB)
Level of analysis	Ambiguous (one reported event per manager does not allow for disambiguation of between- vs. within-person variance; however, converging results to Studies 2 and 3 suggest the recalled event was likely reflective of the manager's general behavior)	Between-person (note that a cross-level model with manager gender at Level 2 and all other variables within-person centered at Level 1 was also examined, but was not supported; see SOM for details)	Between-person

damage key social exchange outcomes. We examine our model within ongoing manager–subordinate relationships across three field studies employing diverse methodologies: event recall (Study 1), daily diary (Study 2), and multi-wave survey (Study 3). Initially, we focus on the effects of the model on trust, a key indicator of social exchange quality, but extend the model to additional downstream social exchange outcomes (i.e., citizenship and counterproductive work behaviors) in our final study (see Table 1).

Our research contributes to the scholarly literature in several ways. Most importantly, we provide the first direct—and simultaneous—test of stereotype incongruence as the mechanism that underlies gendered reactions to transgressing managers. Moreover, previewing our findings, results implicate agentic incongruence rather than communal incongruence. Thus, our research challenges an increasingly prevalent assumption in the mistreatment literature, suggesting the need for a course correction. Furthermore, as agentic prohibitions and communal prescriptions are reflections of underlying hostile and benevolent sexist attitudes, respectively, within society (Glick & Fiske, 2001), understanding the mechanism at play pinpoints the gendered societal beliefs and systems that serve to sustain these biases and that need to be eradicated.

Our research also enriches social exchange-based theorizing. Currently, social exchange theorists presume that employees reciprocate the treatment they receive from managers in a quid pro quo manner (Colquitt et al., 2013; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Greco et al., 2019). By this account, employees should be equally distrusting of male and female managers who violate interpersonal justice norms. However, our research shows how and why the social exchange process is more complex. Employees respond not only to the norm violation, but also to their manager's gender, which alters how the norm violation is interpreted due to gender stereotypes.

Finally, our research makes use of ongoing manager–subordinate relationships (vs. the simulated paradigms often used in extant research) to move beyond what *can* happen to uncover what *does* happen in the workplace (Mook, 1983). This is important because in hypothetical vignettes, evaluators have limited information about the fictitious managers, and may therefore be more reliant on gender stereotypes to judge managerial actions (Landy, 2008). In addition, our approach allows us to go beyond manager performance evaluations based on limited information (see Caleo, 2016) to examine *relational* outcomes (e.g., trust) that are central to social exchange theory. As such, our results demonstrate the enduring negative impact that gender stereotypes can have within long-term workplace relationships.

2 | THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

2.1 | Manager mistreatment and trust

Manager mistreatment can be conceptualized as an overarching construct that captures a range of interpersonal behaviors (verbal, non-verbal, and physical) that harm others at work (Hershcovis, 2011).

Although there are distinctions between specific mistreatment constructs (e.g., abusive supervision, interpersonal justice violations), prior research generally shows strong empirical associations, corroborating similar nomological networks (e.g., Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hershcovis, 2011). Additionally, manager mistreatment can be considered a type of transgression (Shapiro et al., 2011), since such actions violate norms of respectful interpersonal treatment and civility in the workplace (Deng et al., 2020).

In the current research, we utilize interpersonal justice violations as an index of manager mistreatment. Organizational justice scholars define interpersonal justice as the quality of interpersonal treatment that decision-makers display when they are making decisions that affect employees (see Colquitt, 2001). Managers violate interpersonal justice when they are impolite or disrespectful toward employees during decision-making (Bies, 2015; Colquitt et al., 2015). As such, interpersonal justice violations fall within the broader definition of mistreatment described above. Nevertheless, interpersonal justice violations may have particularly strong effects on manager–subordinate relationships; this is because decision-making situations make salient the fact that managers control valued resources and possess power to negatively affect employees' work life. Therefore, interpersonal justice violations are impactful as employees may feel particularly vulnerable to exploitation by their managers (Proudfoot & Lind, 2015).

Research has found that negative acts, such as manager mistreatment, are returned in-kind in line with social exchange principles (Greco et al., 2019). To assess the relational consequences of leader mistreatment, we focus on employee trust in their manager. Trust is conceptualized as the "essence" of a high-quality social exchange relationship within social exchange theories (e.g., Blau, 1964; Thibault & Kelley, 1959), and universally recognized as an index of social exchange relationship quality (Colquitt et al., 2013; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001). Trust is defined as positive expectations about the actions of the target and willingness to be vulnerable to the target's actions (Mayer et al., 1995; McAllister, 1995). Given the diffuse and risky nature of social exchange relationships, high-quality exchanges require trusting that others will fulfill their obligations (Blau, 1964; Thibault & Kelley, 1959). A lack of trust signals withdrawal from the social exchange relationship (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001). This logic leads to the following hypothesis:

> **Hypothesis 1.** Manager mistreatment is negatively associated with employee trust.

2.2 | Communality prescriptions and the moderating role of manager gender

Although employees are generally less trusting of managers who mistreat them, such reactions may be further shaped by social categorization and stereotyping processes (e.g., Caleo, 2016; Marques et al., 2017; Zapata et al., 2016). Gender is a highly salient social

category to perceivers, so employees often compare the behaviors of their managers against standards dictated by prescriptive gender stereotypes (Heilman, 2012). Generally, women are prescribed to exhibit high communality—that is, concern for the welfare of others, such as being considerate, kind, and understanding, whereas men are prescribed to exhibit high agency that is, controlling tendencies, such as being aggressive, dominant, and direct (Abele & Wojciszke, 2007; Prentice & Carranza, 2002). Moreover, women face a double bind as they are also expected to *withhold* agency (e.g., Hentschel et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2018), and failures to do so elicit significant backlash (e.g., Phelan et al., 2008; Rudman & Glick, 2001).

As manager mistreatment is defined by harmful interpersonal behavior, it overlaps with the content of prescriptive gender stereotypes. For example, the labels of specific mistreatment constructs (e.g., *abusive* supervision and *incivility*) are often used synonymously with descriptors of a low communality, such as being inconsiderate or unkind. Consequently, when faced with manager mistreatment, employees may interpret their female (vs. male) managers' actions as insufficiently communal. Indeed, this was the argument put forth—but not directly tested—by Caleo (2016) when examining differential gendered reactions to managerial interpersonal (in)justice, by Kim et al. (2021) when examining differential gendered reactions to abusive supervision, and by Motro et al. (2021) when examining differential gendered reactions to team member incivility. That is, these authors argued that women were punished more than men for engaging in these behaviors because their actions were construed as being insufficiently nice. To our knowledge, we are the first to empirically test this increasingly prevalent presumption.

2.3 | Agency proscriptions as an alternative reason for gendered reactions to mistreatment

Although the preceding argument may very well hold up empirically, it has not been directly examined. Moreover, the scholarly conversation in the mistreatment literature has neglected the potential role of agency proscriptions—behaviors that characterize high agency are based on dominance and control over others (Abele & Wojciszke, 2007; Prentice & Carranza, 2002). Further, manager mistreatment is arguably a form of workplace aggression (Hershcovis, 2011). As such, descriptions of interpersonally unjust behaviors or other forms of mistreatment from managers can be perceived in agentic terms, such as the manager being hostile or dominant. Thus, when their manager mistreats them, subordinates may especially interpret their female (vs. male) managers' actions as excessively agentic based on proscriptive gender stereotypes.

In contrast to the mistreatment literature, the literature on gender and leadership has long argued that female leaders often face backlash when they are perceived to violate agency, particularly dominance, proscriptions (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Ma et al., 2022). For example, female leaders face more censure than their male counterparts for autocratic leadership (e.g., Eagly et al., 1992), using assertive communication styles (e.g., Brescoll, 2011), and displaying dominance-

based emotions (e.g., anger; Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). Although this work implicates agency proscriptions in explaining gendered reactions to manager mistreatment, it is important to test this assumption empirically because the two literatures differ in key respects.

First, research on gender and leadership has examined a wider array of agentic behaviors, many of which are not necessarily injurious, which differs from the mistreatment literature. Therefore, it is possible that mistreatment uniquely violates employees' fundamental needs for positive self-regard (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), in which case subordinates may tend to react defensively due to self-enhancement motives (e.g., Baumeister et al., 1996) and perceive such actions as excessively hostile or agentic for both male and female leaders. Second, gender and leadership studies generally manipulate *unequivocal* agentic behaviors (e.g., clear displays of anger) and measure leader evaluations, whereas in the case of mistreatment, there can be ambiguity in the behavior itself in terms of whether it violates different gendered expectations. This leaves open the possibility that evaluators may not necessarily interpret mistreatment as an agentic action, such that other mechanisms (e.g., communality incongruence) ultimately explain why female (vs. male) leaders who engage in these behaviors are evaluated more negatively. For both these reasons, it is possible that communality incongruence does indeed explain the greater distrust of female managers relative to male managers following interpersonal justice violations.

Finally, there is a third reason to test the two mechanisms. Ambivalent sexism theory (Glick & Fiske, 2001) argues that agency proscriptions stem from hostile sexist beliefs, whereas communality prescriptions come from benevolent sexist beliefs. Together, these beliefs tend to uphold the status quo, but they reflect differential assumptions about women. Related research (e.g., Barreto & Doyle, 2022) suggests that hostile sexism and associated behavioral standards have become less influential over time, given that it is more overt and implies a negative view of women. In contrast, benevolent sexism and standards based on it continue to maintain the status quo because it is more subtle and implies a positive view of women (e.g., women are warm and kind). Given that much of the gender and leadership research was conducted when women were less prevalent in leadership roles (Carli & Eagly, 2016), the greater awareness in society of how sexism operates could suggest a weaker role for agentic incongruence than communal incongruence in explaining gendered reactions to manager mistreatment.

In summary, female managers who mistreat their subordinates are more apt to be mistrusted for both violating workplace norms regarding interpersonal conduct and violating gender role expectations. Critically, drawing on social role theory (Eagly & Wood, 2012), the latter could reflect perceived incongruence with gender-based agentic or communal standards. By contrast, male managers are not expected to be communal, but are prescribed to be highly agentic (e.g., Prentice & Carranza, 2002). Thus, male managers who engage in leader mistreatment may suffer some relational penalties for violating norms of professional behavior, but to a lesser extent than female managers because they do not violate gender role expectations.

Integrating the preceding arguments, we test the following first-stage moderation hypotheses, which we simultaneously model:

Hypothesis 2a. The relationship between manager mistreatment and communal incongruence is moderated by manager gender, such that it is positive among employees with female managers but not among those with male managers.

Hypothesis 2b. The relationship between manager mistreatment and agentic incongruence is moderated by manager gender, such that it is positive among employees with female managers but not among those with male managers.

In turn, violation of gendered expectations should explain the differential effects of manager mistreatment on trust for female (vs. male) managers. Thus, we test the following moderated mediation hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a. There is a significant conditional indirect effect of manager mistreatment on trust in manager via perceived communal incongruence, such that it is negative among employees with female managers but not among those with male managers.

Hypothesis 3b. There is a significant conditional indirect effect of manager mistreatment on trust in manager via perceived agentic incongruence, such that it is negative among employees with female managers but not among those with male managers.

2.4 | Downstream behavioral responses

Scholars often categorize social exchange outcomes as relational (e.g., trust) and behavioral, in which the former mediate the latter (e.g., Cropanzano & Byrne, 2000). Therefore, although our main purpose is to examine the role of communality and agency incongruence in explaining why employees are less trusting of female relative to male managers who mistreat them, we extend our model (in Study 3) to examine downstream manager-directed behaviors. Trust is a key index of the quality of one's social exchange relationship (Colquitt et al., 2013; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001), which is posited to drive downstream exchange behaviors. The greater an employee's trust in their manager, the greater their confidence that the manager will behave in a manner that is consistent with the employee's needs (Robinson, 1996). This belief in the positive intentions of the manager can transform the employee's self-interest into concern for others (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001), which promotes the likelihood that the employee will engage in behaviors that help the manager, and reduces the likelihood of work behaviors that harm the manager (Rusbult & Van Lange, 1996). Consistent with these arguments, trust has been positively associated with organizational

citizenship behaviors (e.g., Mayer & Gavin, 2005) and negatively associated with counterproductive work behaviors (e.g., Thau et al., 2007).

Accordingly, in Study 3, we measured manager-directed organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) and manager-directed counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs; Dalal, 2005) to examine the downstream effects of perceived stereotype incongruence and trust in manager in a serial mediation chain. In other words, employees will be more apt to interpret the interpersonal justice violations of female (vs. male) managers as contravening gender-based norms of behaviors (either agentic or communal), which then leads to lower trust, and in turn to withholding of OCBs or enactment of CWBs toward their manager. Therefore, we tested the following:

Hypothesis 4a. There is a significant conditional indirect effect of manager mistreatment on manager-directed OCBs via communal incongruence and trust in manager, such that it is negative among employees with female managers but not among those with male managers.

Hypothesis 4b. There is a significant conditional indirect effect of manager mistreatment on manager-directed OCBs via agentic incongruence and trust in manager, such that it is negative among employees with female managers but not among those with male managers.

Hypothesis 5a. There is a significant conditional indirect effect of manager mistreatment on manager-directed CWBs via communal incongruence and trust in manager, such that it is positive among employees with female managers but not among those with male managers.

Hypothesis 5b. There is a significant conditional indirect effect of manager mistreatment on manager-directed CWBs via agentic incongruence and trust in manager, such that it is positive among employees with female managers but not among those with male managers.

3 | OVERVIEW OF STUDIES

We conducted three studies to test the mechanisms underlying gendered reactions to manager mistreatment within ongoing manager–subordinate relationships (see Table 1). In Study 1, we tap into cognitive processes via an event recall methodology whereby participants recalled a recent interpersonal justice violation by their manager. However, a single event could be anomalous of managers' typical behavior. Thus, in Study 2, we conducted a weekly diary study over 6 weeks, in which we averaged the variables to capture a manager's typical interpersonal justice violation. This manner of aggregation minimizes the influence of retrospective biases that plague many person-level measures of behavior (Gabriel et al., 2019). Finally, in Study

3, we extend our model to examine whether the differential relational damage stemming from interpersonal justice violations predicts subordinates' downstream social exchange behaviors, namely, OCBs and CWBs toward their manager.[1]

It is important to note that Study 3 was conducted in the midst of the COVID-19 pandemic. To facilitate social distancing, many organizations allowed their employees to work from home. This means that the sample is not directly comparable with the samples in Studies 1 and 2, when work-from-home arrangements were less common. Moreover, scholars have posited that face-to-face versus virtual communications may shape gendered social interactions differently, though there is significant disagreement regarding how exactly this would unfold (for a review, see Fischer, 2011). Some believe that virtual interactions, particularly text-based ones, will mitigate the impact of gender stereotypes due to fewer visual cues, thereby lowering the salience of gender. Others argue that the influence of gender stereotypes will be amplified in virtual interactions, as people may disproportionately attend to gender in these contexts because there are fewer alternative cues. Still, a third camp posits that rather than uniformly strengthening or weakening the impact of gender and associated stereotypes, the influence of communication medium on this process will be context-dependent. Given these differing possibilities, we asked participants to report the proportion of time they typically spent working in-person during the pandemic, and explored whether this further moderated our hypothesized relationships in Study 3.

4 | STUDY 1

4.1 | Method

4.1.1 | Participants and procedure

We recruited full-time working adults in the United States from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) via TurkPrime (Litman et al., 2017) who reported experiencing an interpersonal justice violation from their manager within the past 3 months. After determining eligibility, participants ($N = 314$) were asked to recall a recent event in which their manager violated interpersonal justice rules. Specifically, participants were first shown the definition of interpersonal justice violations and then asked to visualize the event, recall their thoughts and feelings during and after the interaction, and describe the event as accurately as possible (see SOM for details). Next, participants completed measures assessing their perceptions of interpersonal justice violation, agentic and communal incongruence, and trust in their manager.

We excluded 47 participants from the analyses: 44 did not report an interpersonal justice violation from their manager, and three failed attention check items (e.g., *This is an attention check, please respond*

strongly agree; Meade & Craig, 2012). Thus, the final sample comprised of 267 participants, who spent a median time of 14.7 min to complete the study and received $2.50 USD as remuneration. On average, participants were 35.1 years of age ($SD = 9.6$). The majority identified as female (52.1%) and White (74.2%; 8.2% as Black, 7.1% as Hispanic, 3.7% as East Asian, and 6.8% as other). The majority (64%) reported having a male manager and knowing their manager, on average, for 3.7 years ($SD = 4.0$).

4.1.2 | Measures

In this study, all items explicitly referred to the event recalled by participants. (Full scales and all other research materials from the three studies are presented in the SOM.)

Interpersonal justice violations

We used Colquitt et al.'s (2015) scale to assess employee perceptions of the extent of interpersonal justice violation during the decision-making event (4 items; $\alpha = .81$) on a five-point scale ($1 = to\ a\ very\ small\ extent$, $5 = to\ a\ very\ large\ extent$). Sample item: *Does [he/she] treat you in a rude manner?*

Agentic and communal incongruence

We adapted items commonly used to measure agentic (five items; $\alpha = .76$; *dominant*, *assertive*, *authoritative*, *direct*, and *confident*) and communal (five items; $\alpha = .88$; *considerate*, *kind*, *understanding*, *helpful*, and *sympathetic*) traits (e.g., Carli et al., 2016; Ramsey, 2017) to capture the extent to which one's manager's actions deviated from how they *should have acted*. Participants responded on five-point bipolar scales regarding the degree to which their manager should have been more or less agentic, and more or less communal, during the recalled event ($-2 = much\ less$, $0 = about\ the\ same$, $+2 = much\ more$). As women are expected to refrain from exhibiting agency, we reverse-scored agentic incongruence such that higher scores represent beliefs that the manager should have been *less* agentic. As women are expected to exhibit high communality, higher scores for communal incongruence represent beliefs that the manager should have been *more* communal.

Trust in manager

We used Roberts and O'Reilly's (1974) three-item scale ($\alpha = .85$) to measure trust in their manager since the event on a five-point scale ($1 = not\ at\ all$, $5 = very\ much$). Sample item: *How free do you feel to discuss with [supervisor name] about the problems and difficulties in your job without jeopardizing your position or having it held against you later?*

Control variables

We controlled for event characteristics to rule out the possibility that effects are due to participants recalling different types of events for male versus female managers. Severity: *How severe were [supervisor name's] actions?* from $1 = not\ at\ all$ to $5 = extremely$. Frequency of such behaviors in the past: *Prior to this specific event, how often has [supervisor name] displayed similar behaviors toward you?* from $1 = never$

---

[1]We also conducted two initial studies testing the hypothesized moderation effect of manager gender on the relationship between manager mistreatment and trust in manager (mediators excepted). In both studies (one cross-sectional, $N = 455$ and one lagged, $N = 354$), the negative relationship between interpersonal justice violations and trust in manager was significantly stronger for female (vs. male) managers. See supplemental online materials (SOM) for details (i.e., Table S1 and S2, Figure S1).

TABLE 2   Study 1: Descriptive statistics and correlations among variables.

	$\overline{M}$	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Participant age	35.1	9.6	-									
2. Participant gender[a]	0.52	0.50	.04	-								
3. Manager gender[a]	0.36	0.48	−.04	.25*	-							
4. Event severity[b]	3.31	0.95	.22*	−.03	−.07	-						
5. Event history[c]	2.28	1.09	−.13*	.07	.08	.15*	-					
6. Event typicality[c]	2.50	1.17	−.14*	.03	.08	.17*	.54*	-				
7. Event ITJ violation[b]	3.24	1.01	.09	.06	−.03	.59*	.25*	.26*	(.81)			
8. Agentic incongruence[b]	0.50	0.78	.10	.13*	.08	−.02	.03	.01	.12*	(.76)		
9. Communal incongruence[b]	1.23	0.78	.07	.09	.00	.07	−.05	.03	.07	.35*	(.88)	
10. Trust in manager[b]	2.27	0.99	−.07	−.07	−.07	−.34*	−.20*	−.18*	−.34*	−.30*	−.32*	(.92)

Note: N = 267. Scale reliabilities (alphas) are reported on the diagonals. Event severity = severity of manager's actions during the event, Event history = frequency of manager engaging in similar behaviors in the past, Event typicality = frequency of manager engaging in similar behaviors toward others, and Event ITJ violation = extent to which managers violated interpersonal justice rules during the event.

[a]Gender was dummy-coded (0 = male, 1 = female).
[b]Variables were measured with five-point scales.
[c]Variables were measured with six-point scales.
*p < .05.

to 6 = *very often*. Typicality of these behaviors toward others: *Prior to this specific event, how often have you observed your supervisor displaying similar behaviors toward others?* from 1 = *never* to 6 = *very often* as control variables. We also controlled for participants' own gender.[2]

4.1.3 | Data analyses

We used a regression-based moderated path-analytic framework (Edwards & Lambert, 2007) based on maximum likelihood estimation and centered continuous predictor variables (Cohen et al., 2003). Conditional indirect effects were generated using a product-of-coefficients approach (Preacher et al., 2007), with statistical significance tested via confidence intervals that were constructed by bootstrapping estimates 10,000 times (MacKinnon et al., 2007). All analyses were conducted using the *lavaan* package (version 0.6–5; Rosseel, 2012) in *R* version 3.6.2.

4.2 | Results and discussion

Table 2 presents descriptive statistics and correlations. Supporting *Hypothesis 1*, there is a significant negative relationship between the degree of interpersonal justice violation and trust in managers. Supporting *Hypothesis 2b*, manager gender moderated the relationship between the degree of interpersonal justice violation and perceptions of agentic incongruence (b = 0.19, SE = .10, p = .05, 95% CI [0.004, 0.38]; see Model 1, Table 3). Simple slopes analysis indicated a significant positive

relationship between interpersonal justice violation and agentic incongruence among employees with female managers (b = 0.28, SE = .09, p < .01, 95% CI [0.08, 0.45]), but not among those with male managers (b = 0.09, SE = .08, p = .26, 95% CI [−0.07, 0.23]; see Figure 1a). Thus, the more a female manager was recalled as rude, the more the subordinate perceived her actions were incongruent with agentic standards for women, as she should have acted with *less* agency. In contrast, results indicate that manager gender did not moderate the relationship between the degree of interpersonal justice violation and perceptions of communal incongruence (b = −0.03, SE = .10, p = .74, 95% CI [−0.22, 0.16]), failing to support *Hypothesis 2a*.

In turn, the conditional indirect effect of the degree of interpersonal justice violation on trust in manager via agentic incongruence was significant among employees with female managers (IDE = −0.07, SE = .03, 95% CI [−0.15, −0.02]), but not among employees with male managers (IDE = −0.02, SE = .02, 95% CI [−0.07, 0.01]). Further, the indirect effects were significantly different across the two groups (*index of moderated mediation* = −0.05, SE = .03, 95% CI [−0.12, −0.002]; Hayes, 2015). Together, these results support *Hypothesis 3b* but not *Hypothesis 3a* (given null findings for *Hypothesis 2a*), indicating that subordinates view interpersonal justice violations by female (vs. male) managers as being "too aggressive."

5 | STUDY 2

5.1 | Method

5.1.1 | Participants and procedure

Participants were recruited from MTurk (via TurkPrime) through an eligibility survey where we identified individuals who were adults in

---

[2]Interpretation of results is consistent when the control variables are excluded. We also explored whether our hypothesized moderated mediation model was further moderated by participant gender. Across all three studies, the first-stage moderation on the mediators (i.e., interpersonal justice violation × manager gender × participant gender on agentic or communal incongruence) was not statistically significant.

TABLE 3 Study 1: Regression models for mediators and dependent variable.

Mediators Variable	Model 1: Agentic incongruence			Model 2: Communal incongruence		
	b	SE	95% CI	b	SE	95% CI
(Intercept)	0.79**	.24	[0.31, 1.26]	1.09**	.25	[0.61, 1.57]
Participant gender	0.15	.10	[−0.04, 0.34]	0.16	.10	[−0.03, 0.35]
Event severity	−0.11†	.06	[−0.23, 0.01]	0.04	.06	[−0.08, 0.16]
Event history	0.02	.05	[−0.09, 0.12]	−0.08	.05	[−0.18, 0.02]
Event typicality	−0.02	.05	[−0.11, 0.07]	0.05	.05	[−0.05, 0.14]
Manager gender	0.09	.10	[−0.11, 0.28]	−0.03	.10	[−0.23, 0.17]
Event ITJ violation	0.09	.07	[−0.05, 0.22]	0.04	.07	[−0.09, 0.18]
Event ITJ violation × manager gender	0.19*	.10	[0.004, 0.38]	−0.03	.10	[−0.22, 0.16]

Dependent variable Variable				Model 3: Trust in manager		
				b	SE	95% CI
Direct effects:						
(Intercept)				3.93**	.28	[3.39, 4.47]
Participant gender				−0.001	.11	[−0.21, 0.21]
Event severity				−0.25**	.07	[−0.38, −0.12]
Event history				−0.11†	.06	[−0.22, 0.003]
Event typicality				−0.02	.05	[−0.12, 0.08]
Manager gender				−0.14	.11	[−0.35, 0.08]
Event ITJ violation				−0.12	.08	[−0.27, 0.03]
Event ITJ violation × manager gender				−0.02	.11	[−0.23, 0.19]
Agentic incongruence				−0.25**	.07	[−0.39, −0.11]
Communal incongruence				−0.30**	.07	[−0.44, −0.16]
Indirect effects:						
Event ITJ violation →						
Agentic incongruence for male managers				−0.02	.02	[−0.07, 0.01]
Agentic incongruence for female managers				−0.07*	.03	[−0.15, −0.02]
Communal incongruence for male managers				−0.01	.02	[−0.06, 0.03]
Communal incongruence for female managers				−0.004	.04	[−0.06, 0.08]

Note: N = 267. Higher scores on the variables reflect more of the construct. Event ITJ violation was mean-centered, and all gender variables were dummy-coded with 0 = male and 1 = female.
Abbreviation: ITJ, interpersonal justice.
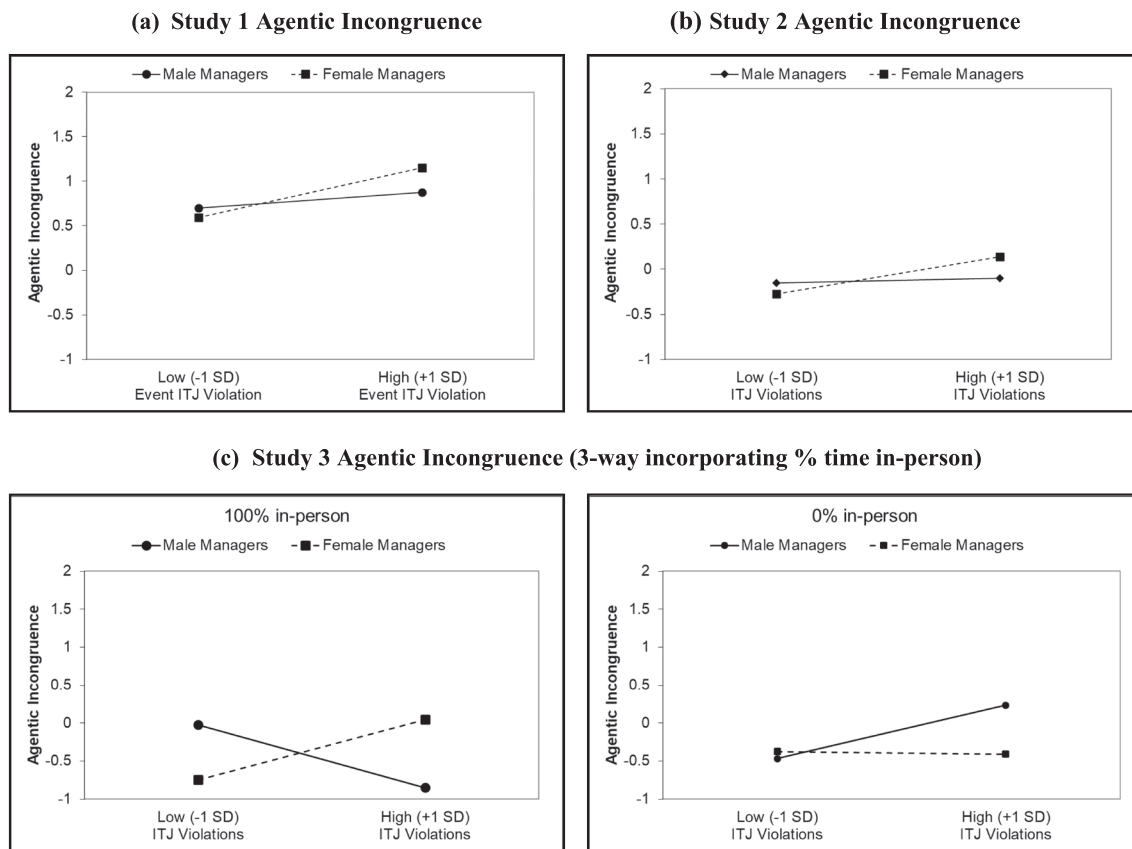†p < .10, *p < .05, and **p < .01.

the United States working full-time, interacted with their manager at least 3–4 times per week, were available over the next 6 weeks, and were not included in our prior studies (N = 1,238). Two days later, eligible recruits were invited to complete a baseline survey where they provided self and manager demographics (N = 460). Those who completed the baseline survey were invited to complete the weekly surveys (N = 433).

Participants were sent a weekly survey on Friday for 6 weeks. In each weekly survey, participants first reported their manager's gender and race for verification. Then, participants reflected on decision-making events over the week to report the extent to which their managers committed interpersonal justice violations, and the extent to which their actions constituted agentic or communal incongruence.

Finally, participants reported their current trust in their manager. At the end of the final weekly survey, participants also completed probes about whether they experienced any major job changes (e.g., manager, duties) during the study.

Given our interest in between-person effects, we only retained participants who completed at least three weekly surveys (Bliese, 2000), excluding 45 participants. We excluded four participants who experienced major job changes during the study, and 41 participants for failing to complete the final survey as we were unable to ascertain if they experienced any major job changes during the study. Also, we excluded 116 participants for data quality issues (n = 50 for failing attention checks, n = 69 for inconsistent reporting of manager gender or race). The final sample comprised of 224 participants, who

(a) Study 1 Agentic Incongruence

(b) Study 2 Agentic Incongruence

(c) Study 3 Agentic Incongruence (3-way incorporating % time in-person)

FIGURE 1 Interaction between interpersonal justice violations and manager gender on perceived agentic incongruence (Studies 1, 2, and 3). *Note*: (a) Study 1 ITJ violation during recalled event × manager gender. (b) Study 2 ITJ violations × manager gender from between-person analyses. (c) Study 3 ITJ violations × manager gender × % time in-person (proportion of weekly time spent working in-person at the workplace during the COVID-19 pandemic). ITJ violation, interpersonal justice violation.

TABLE 4 Study 2: Descriptive statistics and correlations among aggregated variables for between-person analyses.

	$\overline{M}$	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. ITJ violations	1.37	0.76	(.93)					
2. Agentic incongruence[b]	−0.04	0.55	.21*	(.81)				
3. Communal incongruence[b]	0.39	0.58	.46*	.06	(.92)			
4. Trust in manager[b]	5.21	1.29	−.62*	−.29*	−.42*	(.97)		
5. Participant gender[a]	0.45	0.50	.00	.15	−.06	−.10	-	
6. Manager gender[a]	0.42	0.40	.02	−.09	.04	.01	−.37*	-
7. Participant age	35.1	10.0	−.05	.07	.03	.04	−.06	−.01	-

Note: N = 224. All continuous variables are mean scores averaged across 6 weeks of data collection (one survey per week). Scale reliabilities (alphas) are reported on the diagonals.
Abbreviation: ITJ, interpersonal justice.
[a]Gender was dummy coded (0 = male, 1 = female).
[b]Variables measured with seven-point scales.
*p < .05.

completed 1,239 out of 1,344 weekly surveys (92% response rate; *mean surveys* = 5.5), spent a median time of 31.46 min to complete all the study activities, and received up to $12.00 USD as remuneration. Participants were, on average, 35.1 years old (SD = 10.0). Most

identified as male (54.9%) and White (76.3%; 7.5% as Black, 7.1% as Hispanic, 3.6% as East Asian, 2.2% as South Asian, and 3.3% as other). The majority (57.6%) had a male manager with whom they worked, on average, for 3 years (SD = 4.8).

5.1.2 | Measures

Our predictor and mediator measures were the same as those employed in Study 1, but asked participants to reflect on what occurred over the past week and used seven-point Likert scales (see Table 1). Measures of interpersonal justice violations ($\alpha = .90–.95$), agentic incongruence ($\alpha = .73–.85$), and communal incongruence ($\alpha = .91–.94$) were generally reliable. For trust, we switched to the more commonly used Yang et al. (2009) measure and asked participants to report their current levels of trust in their manager ($1 = $ strongly disagree to $7 = $ strongly agree; $\alpha = .96–.97$). Sample item: I'm sure I could openly communicate my feelings to my supervisor.

5.1.3 | Data analyses

We used the same analytic approach as Study 1 and focused on the between-person level of analysis. There was meaningful between-person variance (ICC_1) for all study variables: 68% for interpersonal

justice violations, 53% for agentic incongruence, 49% for communal incongruence, and 87% for trust in manager. ICC_2 values indicate that participants' responses to our focal measures were relatively consistent across measurement periods (range $= .81–.97$; see Table S3 in the SOM for details). Thus, we aggregated all weekly variables by computing the mean of each variable across all available data points for each participant. We also examined our predictions at the within-person level of analysis, but found no evidence of a cross-level moderating effect of manager gender on the within-person relationship between interpersonal justice violations and trust in manager, suggesting that the bias in reactions reflects a person-based phenomenon (see Tables S4 and S5 in the SOM for details).

5.2 | Results and discussion

Table 4 presents descriptive statistics and between-person correlations. Supporting Hypothesis 1, we found a significant negative relationship between mean interpersonal justice violations and mean trust

TABLE 5 Study 2: Regression models for between-person analyses.

Mediators Variable	Model 1: Agentic incongruence			Model 2: Communal incongruence		
	b	SE	95% CI	b	SE	95% CI
(Intercept)	−0.13*	.05	[−0.22, −0.03]	0.42**	.05	[0.32, 0.52]
Participant gender	0.13	.08	[−0.02, 0.28]	−0.07	.07	[−0.21, 0.08]
Manager gender	0.06	.08	[−0.09, 0.21]	−0.01	.08	[−0.16, 0.14]
ITJ violations	0.03	.07	[−0.09, 0.16]	0.36**	.07	[0.23, 0.49]
ITJ violations × manager gender	0.24**	.09	[0.06, 0.42]	−0.02	.09	[−0.20, 0.16]

Dependent Variable Variable				Model 3: Trust in manager		
				b	SE	95% CI
Direct effects:						
(Intercept)				5.43**	.11	[5.22, 5.65]
Participant gender				−0.25†	.14	[−0.52, 0.03]
Manager gender				0.05	.14	[−0.22, 0.33]
ITJ violations				−0.78**	.13	[−1.04, −0.53]
ITJ violations × manager gender				−0.13	.17	[−0.47, 0.20]
Agentic incongruence				−0.35**	.12	[−0.59, −0.11]
Communal incongruence				−0.40**	.13	[−0.65, −0.16]
Indirect effects:						
ITJ violations →						
Agentic incongruence for male managers				−0.01	.02	[−0.06, 0.03]
Agentic incongruence for female managers				−0.10*	.04	[−0.18, −0.02]
Communal incongruence for male managers				−0.14*	.05	[−0.25, −0.04]
Communal incongruence for female managers				−0.14*	.05	[−0.23, −0.04]

Note: N = 224. All continuous variables are mean scores averaged across 6 weeks of data collection (one survey per week). ITJ violations variable was mean-centered, and all gender variables were dummy-coded with 0 = male and 1 = female.
Abbreviation: ITJ, interpersonal justice.
†*p* < .10, *p* < .05, and **p* < .01.

in manager. Supporting *Hypothesis 2b*, manager gender moderated the relationship between mean interpersonal justice violations and mean agentic incongruence ($b = 0.24$, $SE = .09$, $p = .01$, 95% CI [0.06, 0.42], see Model 1, Table 5). Simple slope analysis revealed a significant positive relationship between mean interpersonal justice violations and mean agentic incongruence among employees with female managers ($b = 0.27$, $SE = .06$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [0.15, 0.40]), but not among employees with male managers ($b = 0.03$, $SE = .07$, $p = .60$, 95% CI [−0.09, 0.16]; see Figure 1b). Thus, the more a female manager was generally perceived as disrespectful across decision-making events, the more her subordinate believed that she should have generally acted with *less* agency. In contrast, manager gender did not moderate the relationship between mean interpersonal justice violations and mean communal incongruence ($b = −0.02$, $SE = .09$, $p = .81$, 95% CI [−0.20, 0.16]), again failing to support *Hypothesis 2a*.

In turn, the conditional indirect effect of interpersonal justice violations on trust in manager via agentic incongruence was significant among employees with female managers ($IDE = −0.10$, $SE = .04$, 95% CI [−0.18, −0.02]), but not among those with male managers ($IDE = −0.01$, $SE = .02$, 95% CI [−0.06, 0.03]). Although the 95% confidence interval around this index does include zero (*index of moderated mediation* = −0.08, $SE = .07$, 95% CI [−0.30, 0.01]), this index is significant when we use the more liberal 90% confidence interval criteria, a common practice in the literature (e.g., Lennard et al., 2019). Overall, results are consistent with Study 1, further providing support for *Hypothesis 3b*, but not *Hypothesis 3a*.

6 | STUDY 3

6.1 | Method

6.1.1 | Participants and procedure

We used Prolific (www.prolific.co; Palan & Schitter, 2018) to recruit full-time working adults in the United States who report to a direct manager. Recruits first completed a screening questionnaire to determine eligibility. Our data were collected in December 2020, during the COVID-19 pandemic. As mentioned previously, we anticipated that participants' work arrangements and interactions with their managers would be drastically altered relative to participants in Studies 1 and 2. Therefore, we asked participants the proportion of time (0–100%) they typically spent working in-person per week at their workplace during the pandemic and explored its influence on our hypothesized effects.

Eligible participants ($N = 482$) were invited to complete a three-wave study whereby each survey was available for 2 days, followed by a 2-day gap before the next survey became available. In the first survey (Time 1), participants provided demographic information about themselves and their managers, and were randomly assigned to report on either: (a) perceptions of interpersonal justice violations and stereotype incongruence or (b) perceptions of incivility and abusive supervision from their managers.[3] Consistent with the prior studies, we yoked interpersonal justice violations and stereotype incongruence, so participants could report how their managers "should have acted" during decision-making events. In the second survey (Time 2), participants verified the demographics of their managers and completed the other set of measures ([a] or [b] above). This process was used to minimize common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and survey order effects due to conceptual overlap between the focal constructs. In the final survey (Time 3), participants verified the demographics of their managers again and completed measures of trust in manager, OCBs, and CWBs. In total, 404 participants completed all three surveys (83.8% retention rate).

We excluded 72 participants from analyses based on data quality issues ($n = 26$ for failing attention checks; $n = 46$ for inconsistent reporting of manager gender or race). The final sample comprised of 332 participants, who spent a median time of 13.45 min to complete all surveys, and were remunerated up to £4.00 GBP.[4] Participants were, on average, 35.1 years of age ($SD = 9.3$). Most identified as male (59.5%) and White (80.7%; 8.1% as East Asian, 6.0% as Hispanic, 2.4% as South Asian, 1.8% as Black, and the rest as other). Most participants (63.1%) had a male manager whom they worked with, on average, for 4.0 years ($SD = 4.3$). On average, participants were spending 37.4% of their time working in-person during the COVID-19 pandemic ($SD = 43.3$).

6.1.2 | Measures

Our focal measures were the same as in Study 2, albeit referencing general person-level perceptions instead of weekly perceptions. These measures were highly reliable (see Table 4).

Manager-directed OCB and CWB
We adapted Dalal et al.'s (2009) measures to assess how frequently participants generally engaged in OCBs (six items; $\alpha = .89$; sample item: *I spoke highly about my supervisor to others*) and CWBs (six items; $\alpha = .84$; sample item: *I tried to harm my supervisor*) toward their manager on a seven-point scale ($1 = almost never$, $7 = almost always$).

6.1.3 | Data analyses

We used the same analytic approach as earlier but with two differences: (1) We include work arrangement (i.e., proportion of time

---

[3]We included perceptions of leader incivility and abusive supervision to explore whether manager gender also moderated their effects on trust in manager. Generally, we observed the same moderating effects of manager gender on trust in manager for interpersonal justice violations, abusive supervision, and leader incivility among employees working in-person during the pandemic. However, results for those working remotely during the pandemic diverged somewhat across the three constructs; see SOM for details. Additionally, due to space constraints in our surveys, and because interpersonal justice violations were the focus of this research, we did not examine the mediators underlying these effects for leader incivility and abusive supervision. Thus, we do not discuss these variables further in-text.
[4]Prolific is based in the United Kingdom, so renumeration is processed by the platform in British sterling pounds. All renumeration adhered to Prolific's guidelines for fair and ethical compensation.

TABLE 6 Study 3: Descriptive statistics and correlations among variables.

	$\overline{M}$	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Participant age	35.1	9.3	-											
2. Participant gender[a]	0.40	0.49	−.04	-										
3. Manager gender[a]	0.37	0.48	−.05	.26*	-									
4. % in-person time	0.37	0.43	.06	.00	.04	-								
5. ITJ violations	1.46	0.92	.02	−.08	−.06	.09	(.90)							
6. Agentic incongruence	−0.20	0.84	.01	.05	.05	−.08	.09	(.83)						
7. Communal incongruence	0.59	0.95	.004	.10	.06	.14*	.24*	−.19*	(.94)					
8. Trust in manager	5.45	1.24	−.08	−.01	−.04	−.15*	−.49*	−.20*	−.13*	(.96)				
9. Manager-directed OCB	4.94	1.20	.01	.02	.00	−.10	−.19*	−.10	.02	.57*	(.89)			
10. Manager-directed CWB	1.70	0.80	.03	−.04	−.05	.14*	.61*	−.04	.14*	−.51*	−.24*	(.84)		
11. Manager incivility	1.67	0.94	.06	−.06	−.05	.16*	.81*	.03	.25*	−.58*	−.30*	.62*	(.92)	
12. Abusive supervision	1.35	0.71	.06	−.03	−.06	.12*	.84*	.08	.23*	−.55*	−.24*	.62*	.84*	(.96)

Note: $N = 332$. Scale reliabilities (alphas) are reported on the diagonals. % time in-person = proportion of weekly work time spent working in-person during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Abbreviations: CWBs, counterproductive work behaviors; ITJ, interpersonal justice; OCBs, organizational citizenship behaviors.

[a]Gender was dummy-coded (0 = male, 1 = female). All continuous variables were measured with seven-point scales.

*$p < .05$.

working in-person during the COVID-19 pandemic) as an additional moderator, as there is significant ambiguity in the literature regarding whether and how gender stereotypes may be differentially salient when employees are interacting more virtually with managers (Fischer, 2011); and (2) we include manager-directed OCBs and CWBs as downstream outcomes of trust in manager in a serial mediation chain. We conduct our analyses using the full sample (i.e., including all workers across all work arrangements, $N = 332$), such that the resulting models produce estimates for the full range of the percent of time in-person continuum. However, instead of graphing simple slopes at the conventional $+/-1$ SD, we depict simple slopes at the minimum and maximum values because they reflect the most common work arrangements in our sample (i.e., 50% of participants report spending 0% of time in-person, and 26% of participants report spending 100% of time in-person).[5] We focus on the results for employees working 100% in-person, as these individuals should be the most comparable to participants sampled in our prior studies where data was collected pre-pandemic, but report results for those working 0% in-person (or 100% remotely) in supplemental analyses.

[5]We also conducted the focal analyses on the truncated sample (i.e., only those working 100% in-person, $n = 86$). We still observe a significant interpersonal justice violation × manager gender interaction on agentic incongruence as theorized (and again not on communal incongruence). The indirect effects in the full moderated mediation model (via agentic incongruence) did not reach statistical significance in this reduced sample, likely due to low power. Thus, regardless of whether we analyze the full sample or truncated sample, Study 3 continues to implicate agentic incongruence as central to subordinates' interpretation of and reactions to manager mistreatment.

6.2 | Results and discussion

Table 6 presents descriptive statistics and correlations for Study 3. We again found a significant negative relationship between interpersonal justice violation and trust in manager, supporting *Hypothesis 1*. In support of *Hypothesis 2b* (adding work arrangement as noted above), we found a significant three-way interaction between work arrangement, manager gender, and interpersonal justice violation on perceived agentic incongruence ($b = 1.28$, $SE = .16$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [0.73, 1.83]; see Model 1, Table 7). Simple slopes analysis shows that among employees working in-person during the pandemic, the relationship between interpersonal justice violations and agentic incongruence was positive and significant among those with female managers ($b = 0.42$, $SE = .18$, $p = .02$, 95% CI [0.07, 0.77]), but negative and significant among those with male managers ($b = −0.45$, $SE = .12$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [−0.68, −0.22]; see left panel of Figure 1c). Thus, the more a female manager was generally disrespectful during decision-making processes in a face-to-face context, the more subordinates believed that she should have acted with less agency. However, the more a male manager did the same, the more subordinates believed that *he* should have acted with *more* agency. Given that we did not observe the latter effect in our prior studies, we speculate that it could be due to conditions of the pandemic; for example, autocratic leaders are seen as more acceptable under conditions of uncertainty (Schoel et al., 2011).

Consequently, the conditional indirect effect of interpersonal justice violations on trust in manager via agentic incongruence was negative and significant among those with female managers ($IDE = −0.07$,

TABLE 7 Study 3: Regression models for mediators and dependent variables.

Mediators Variable	Model 1: Agentic incongruence			Model 2: Communal incongruence		
	b	SE	95% CI	b	SE	95% CI
(Intercept)	−0.24**	.06	[−0.36, −0.12]	0.50**	.07	[0.36, 0.63]
Participant gender	0.09	.09	[−0.09, 0.27]	0.22*	.10	[0.01, 0.42]
Manager gender	−0.14	.13	[−0.39, 0.11]	0.10	.14	[−0.17, 0.38]
% time in-person	−0.32**	.12	[−0.55, −0.09]	0.27*	.13	[0.01, 0.53]
ITJ violations	0.07	.06	[−0.04, 0.18]	0.28**	.06	[0.15, 0.40]
ITJ violations × manager gender	0.08	.11	[−0.13, 0.30]	−0.12	.12	[−0.36, 0.12]
ITJ violations × % time in-person	−0.83**	.16	[−1.14, −0.52]	−0.56**	.18	[−0.91, −0.21]
% time in-person × manager gender	0.36*	.17	[0.02, 0.69]	−0.12	.19	[−0.50, 0.25]
ITJ violations × manager gender × % time in-person	1.28**	.16	[0.73, 1.83]	0.31	.31	[−0.30, 0.92]

Dependent Variable Variable	Model 3: Trust in manager		
	b	SE	95% CI
Direct effects:			
(Intercept)	5.44**	.11	[5.23, 5.65]
Participant gender	−0.09	.12	[−0.32, 0.15]
Manager gender	−0.06	.12	[−0.30, 0.17]
% time in-person	0.12	.13	[−0.15, 0.38]
ITJ violations	−0.65**	.07	[−0.79, −0.50]
ITJ violations × manager gender	−0.03	.14	[−0.31, 0.24]
ITJ violations × % time in-person	0.48*	.22	[0.05, 0.90]
Manager gender × % time in-person	−0.82**	.24	[−1.30, −0.34]
ITJ violations × manager gender × % time in-person	−1.28**	.37	[−2.00, −0.56]
Agentic incongruence	−0.16*	.07	[−0.30, −0.01]
Communal incongruence	−0.02	.07	[−0.14, 0.11]
Indirect effects:			
ITJ violations × 0% time in-person (i.e., working remotely) →			
Agentic incongruence for male managers	−0.06*	.04	[−0.16, −0.01]
Agentic incongruence for female managers	0.003	.03	[−0.05, 0.05]
Communal incongruence for male managers	−0.01	.05	[−0.10, 0.08]
Communal incongruence for female managers	−0.004	.03	[−0.08, 0.05]
ITJ violations × 100% time in-person (i.e., working in-person) →			
Agentic incongruence for male managers	0.07*	.04	[0.01, 0.20]
Agentic incongruence for female managers	−0.07*	.05	[−0.21, −0.005]
Communal incongruence for male managers	0.001	.02	[−0.04, 0.07]
Communal incongruence for female managers	0.000	.03	[−0.05, 0.06]

Note: N = 332. % time in-person = proportion of weekly work time spent working in-person at the workplace during the COVID-19 pandemic, with low = 0% and high = 100%. All continuous variables were mean-centered, and all gender variables were dummy-coded with 0 = male and 1 = female. Abbreviation: ITJ, interpersonal justice.
†*p* < .10, *p* < .05, and **p* < .01.

SE = .05, 95% CI [−0.21, −0.005]), replicating Studies 1 and 2, and supporting *Hypothesis 3b*. Among those with male managers, this conditional indirect effect was positive and significant (*IDE* = 0.07, *SE* = .04, 95% CI [0.01, 0.20]). Last, in contrast to the findings for

agentic incongruence, there was no significant three-way interaction between work arrangement, manager gender, and interpersonal justice violation on perceived communal incongruence (*b* = −0.12, *SE* = .19, *p* = .74, 95% CI [−0.50, 0.25]), once again failing to

TABLE 8 Study 3: Regression model for downstream behavioral outcomes (manager-directed OCBs and CWBs).

DVs Variable	Model 4: Manager-directed OCBs			Model 5: Manager-directed CWBs		
	b	SE	95% CI	b	SE	95% CI
Direct effects:						
(Intercept)	0.93†	.49	[−0.03, 1.90]	2.38**	.34	[1.72, 3.04]
Participant gender	0.08	.11	[−0.15, 0.30]	−0.04	.08	[−0.19, 0.11]
Manager gender	0.09†	.05	[−0.01, 0.20]	0.06	.04	[−0.02. 0.13]
% time in-person	0.09	.13	[−0.15, 0.34]	0.24**	.08	[0.07, 0.40]
ITJ violations	0.04	.05	[−0.06, 0.14]	0.11**	.03	[0.04, 0.17]
ITJ violations × manager gender	0.28*	.13	[0.03, 0.53]	0.22**	.09	[0.05, 0.39]
ITJ violations × % time in-person	−0.39†	.20	[−0.78, 0.004]	0.38**	.14	[0.12, 0.65]
Manager gender × % time in-person	−0.11	.17	[−0.44, 0.23]	−0.18	.11	[−0.40, 0.04]
ITJ violations × manager gender × % time in-person	0.42	.35	[−0.57, 1.10]	−0.44†	.23	[−0.89, 0.02]
Agentic incongruence	0.04	.05	[−0.06, 0.14]	0.11**	.03	[0.04, 0.17]
Communal incongruence	0.09†	.05	[−0.01, 0.20]	0.06	.04	[−0.02, 0.13]
Trust in manager	0.62**	.05	[0.52, 0.72]	−0.26**	.03	[−0.33, −0.19]
Indirect effects:						
ITJ violations × 0% time in-person (i.e., working remotely) × male managers →						
Agentic incongruence → trust in manager	−0.04*	.02	[−0.10, −0.003]	0.02*	.01	[0.002, 0.04]
Communal incongruence → trust in manager	−0.005	.03	[−0.07, 0.04]	0.002	.01	[−0.02, 0.03]
ITJ violations × 0% time in-person (i.e., working remotely) × female managers →						
Agentic incongruence → trust in manager	0.002	.02	[−0.03, 0.04]	−0.001	.01	[−0.01, 0.01]
Communal incongruence → trust in manager	−0.002	.02	[−0.06, 0.03]	0.001	.01	[−0.01, 0.02]
ITJ violations × 100% time in-person (i.e., working in-person) × male managers →						
Agentic incongruence → trust in manager[1]	0.04*	.03	[0.004, 0.12]	−0.02*	.01	[−0.05, −0.002]
Communal incongruence → trust in manager[1]	0.001	.02	[−0.02, 0.04]	0.000	.01	[−0.02, 0.01]
ITJ violations × 100% time in-person (i.e., working in-person) × female managers →						
Agentic incongruence → trust in manager[1]	−0.04*	.03	[−0.13, −0.002]	0.02*	0.01	[0.001, 0.05]
Communal incongruence → trust in manager[1]	0.000	.02	[−0.04, 0.03]	0.000	.01	[−0.01, 0.01]

Note: N = 332. % time in-person = proportion of weekly work time spent working in-person at the workplace during the COVID-19 pandemic, with low = 0% and high = 100%. All continuous variables were mean-centered, and all gender variables were dummy-coded with 0 = male and 1 = female.
Abbreviations: CWBs, counterproductive workplace behaviors; ITJ, interpersonal justice; OCBs, organizational citizenship behaviors.
†*p* < .10, *p* < .05, and **p* < .01.

support Hypothesis *2a*, and therefore necessarily failing to support Hypothesis *3a*.

Hypotheses *4* and *5* predicted that downstream, diminished trust should predict manager-directed OCBs and CWBs. Given the lack of support for the mediating role of communal incongruence, we focused these analyses on conditional indirect effects on manager-directed OCBs and CWBs sequentially via agentic incongruence and trust in manager (see Table 8). Supporting Hypothesis *4b*, among those working in-person during the pandemic, the conditional indirect effect of interpersonal justice violations on manager-directed OCBs via agentic incongruence, and in turn trust in manager, was negative and significant among those with female managers (*IDE* = −0.04, *SE* = .03, 95% CI [−0.13, −0.002]), but was positive and significant among those with male managers (*IDE* = 0.04, *SE* = .03, 95% CI [0.004, 0.12]). A

similar pattern of results was found for manager-directed CWBs, albeit positive and significant among those with female managers (*IDE* = 0.02, *SE* = .01, 95% CI [0.001, 0.05]), and negative and significant among those with male managers (*IDE* = −0.02 *SE* = .01, 95% CI [−0.05, −0.002]). This supports Hypothesis *5b*. Thus, our results show that diminished trust due to gendered reactions to leader mistreatment are associated with workers' reciprocation behaviors.

6.2.1 | Supplemental analyses

When decomposing the three-way interaction between proportion of time working in-person, manager gender, and interpersonal justice violation on perceived agentic incongruence, simple slopes

analysis indicated that, for those working 0% in-person (or 100% remotely), the relationship between interpersonal justice violations and perceived agentic incongruence was positive and significant among those with *male* managers ($b = 0.38$, $SE = .08$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [0.22, 0.54]), but was not significant among those with *female* managers ($b = -0.02$, $SE = .13$, $p = .88$, 95% CI [−0.26, 0.23]; see right panel of Figure 1c). These results suggest that the more a male manager was generally rude during decision-making events amidst remote work, the more subordinates believed that he should have acted with less agency. This effect is unexpected, given that men are typically encouraged to exhibit high agency (e.g., Prentice & Carranza, 2002).

Among employees working completely remotely, the conditional indirect effect of interpersonal justice violations on trust in manager via agentic incongruence was not significant among those with female managers ($IDE = 0.003$, $SE = .03$, 95% CI [−0.05, 0.05]), but was negative and significant among those with male managers ($IDE = -0.6$, $SE = .04$, 95% CI [−0.16, −0.005]). Downstream, diminished trust should influence manager-directed OCBs and CWBs (see Table 8). The conditional indirect effect of interpersonal justice violations via agentic incongruence and then trust in manager on OCBs was not significant for employees with female managers ($IDE = 0.002$, $SE = .02$, 95% CI [−0.03, 0.04]), but was negative and significant for those with male managers ($IDE = -0.04$, $SE = .02$, 95% CI [−0.10, −0.003]). Similarly, the conditional indirect effect of interpersonal justice violations via agentic incongruence and then trust in manager on CWBs was not significant for employees with female managers ($IDE = -0.001$, $SE = .01$, 95% CI [−0.01, 0.01]), but was positive and significant for those with male managers ($IDE = 0.02$, $SE = .01$, 95% CI [0.002, 0.04]). Thus, not only do subordinates who are working remotely believe that male managers who acted rudely during decision-making events should have behaved with less agency, but they also tend to exhibit diminished trust toward these managers as a result, which in turn contributed to fewer OCBs and more CWBs directed toward these managers. We discuss these unexpected findings for male managers in the remote work context in the General Discussion.

7 | GENERAL DISCUSSION

Across three studies, we found that employees are less trusting of female relative to male managers who mistreat them because female managers are uniquely perceived as exhibiting excessive agency. Having said that, in Studies 2 and 3, we also observe that interpersonal justice violations are positively associated with perceived communal incongruence regardless of manager gender, which is negatively related to trust in manager. Thus, although employees may *generally* desire their manager to be "nicer" when they violate interpersonal justice, it does not explain why female managers suffer more severe relational damage than their male counterparts.

Additionally, this bias in reactions appears to reflect a person- or entity-based phenomenon, as in Study 2 employees did not seem to

be differentially reactive to *fluctuations* in interpersonal justice violations from female compared to male managers.[6] The lack of within-manager gender effects is also consistent with research suggesting that gender stereotypes are based on traits. Specifically, evaluators seem to primarily penalize women who consistently display stereotype-incongruent behavioral tendencies, rather than women who display isolated stereotype-incongruent behaviors (Biernat, 2018).

7.1 | Theoretical implications

Our research makes several theoretical contributions to the literature. First, to our knowledge, we are the first to systematically test the role of two stereotype-based mechanisms, and in doing so we correct a growing misconception in the mistreatment literature that female managers who mistreat employees are penalized more harshly than male managers due to a perceived communality deficit. Instead, our research reveals that such differential reactions are due to perceptions of excessive agency. Hence, our work reflects a critical form of theory pruning, whereby certain theoretical possibilities are made less possible in explaining the current phenomenon, which serves to contribute to theoretical progress and refinement (Leavitt et al., 2010). Further, by simultaneously modeling multiple potential pathways, our research is rigorous and reduces the possibility of specious (or spurious) mediation (Fischer et al., 2017).

Although gendered reactions to interpersonal justice violations are not explained by communality incongruence, we found evidence (in two of three studies) that interpersonal justice violations are associated with perceived communality incongruence regardless of manager gender. Functionally, this indicates that female managers must navigate additional challenges compared to male managers in that their enactment of interpersonal justice is judged against *both* communal prescriptions and agentic proscriptions, in line with the broader literature on the double-bind that women leaders face more generally (e.g., Hentschel et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2018). By contrast, male managers who violate interpersonal justice norms appear to be only negatively evaluated against communality standards. As prior research on gender stereotypes indicates that men are generally not prescribed to be communal (e.g., Prentice & Carranza, 2002), this suggests that an expectation of "niceness" may primarily stem from the managerial role, perhaps being especially salient during decision-making when employees feel vulnerable. In fact, meta-analytic research has found that, over time, leadership positions are increasingly seen as overlapping with and requiring more relational qualities (Koenig et al., 2011).

Second, our research has implications for expanding social exchange-based theorizing, which argues that employees reciprocate the treatment they receive in a quid pro quo fashion (Cropanzano &

---

[6]We note that in Study 1, because we only assessed one event per manager, we could not decompose between- versus within-manager variance. However, convergence of findings to Study 2 between-person results and Study 3 results suggest that the recalled events were likely reflective of the manager's general behavior.

Mitchell, 2005). This principle has long been invoked to explain why employees react negatively to mistreatment, such as when managers violate justice norms (Colquitt et al., 2013). However, it has also led to a predominant focus in the literature on the *actions themselves* rather than on how the actions are construed by recipients. For example, organizational justice scholars have long studied the effects of different types of norm violations, such as violations of procedural, distributive, and interpersonal justice norms, with the general assumption that violations are interpreted relatively uniformly by recipients. Our research reveals that the reciprocation process is not only rooted in managers' actions, but is also contextualized by manager gender due to gender stereotypes that alter how the norm violations are interpreted. In this way, it adds to growing calls to consider how the social identity of actors, observers, and recipients can contextualize evaluators' moral judgments (e.g., Hester & Gray, 2020). Relatedly, it also reinforces calls for more person-centric research (e.g., Guo et al., 2011; Rupp et al., 2017) to understand employees' in-situ subjective experiences following mistreatment, which shape their mental representations of events and people, and their downstream reactions.

Third, our research made use of ongoing manager–subordinate relationships, demonstrating that women managers are perceived as overly agentic and therefore more distrusted than their male counterparts when they violate interpersonal justice norms, even within long-term relationships in which employees have individuating information about their manager. It may be helpful to consider this finding within a broader context. Ambivalent sexism theory (Glick & Fiske, 2001) offers that agentic proscriptions, and benevolent prescriptions, for women reflect hostile and benevolent ideologies, respectively, that stem from common societal beliefs regarding gender roles. For example, patriarchal systems contribute to beliefs involving dominative paternalism (i.e., men legitimately should have more power than women), as well as protective paternalism (i.e., women deserve protection by men). Together, these differential gender-based standards reinforce the existing social hierarchy between men and women—women who are agentic are punished, whereas women who are communal are rewarded. Thus, our results suggest that female (vs. male) leaders who violate interpersonal justice rules are more likely to be seen as poor exchange partners because they challenge the status quo by not conforming to societal norms regarding their "appropriate" gender roles by acting with agency. As a result, these women are likely to be subject to hostile attitudes and treatment from others.

7.2 | Practical implications

Our work also has important practical implications for the workplace. Broadly, our ability to detect these gendered effects indicates that modern organizations continue to be patriarchal systems where men's greater power is seen as legitimate, such that behaviors that reflect agency among women continue to be penalized. This is even more concerning given the increased societal awareness of how

sexism operates (Barreto & Doyle, 2022), which might imply that the problem no longer exists. Rather, our findings indicate limited societal progress in dismantling existing gendered systems of oppression and underscore the need for continued change efforts. By taking this more expansive view, our work suggests that to effect change in gender relations at work, what may be essential is system-level interventions that disrupt ingrained and problematic beliefs that contribute to sexist ideologies, such as gender differentiation (Glick & Fiske, 2001), and move people toward recognizing gender similarities or fluidity.

More specifically, an erroneous assumption that insufficient communality serves as the explanatory mechanism of gendered reactions to managers' mistreatment can be problematic. Such messages may lead women to attempt to overcome this unequal backlash by enhancing others' perceptions of their communality either indirectly (e.g., by highlighting their motherhood status) or directly via communal behaviors. However, such attempts are likely to be insufficient in leveling the playing field among male and female managers, as they do not operate on the actual mechanism underlying the problem, and may ironically open women up to experiencing other biases. For example, highlighting one's status as a mother could cause women to incur motherhood penalties, such as lower wages (Correll et al., 2007).

Instead, some scholars argue that it may better serve female leaders to adopt a paradox mindset, seeking creative ways to simultaneously enhance perceptions of their agency and communion, rather than a dilemma mindset, which sees the two characteristics as at odds (Zheng et al., 2018). Indeed, a recent study of female executives indicates that they employ several strategies to manage this paradox, including sequencing (i.e., asking for input and then decisively deciding) and complementing (i.e., demonstrating agency and communion toward different aspects of a situation in a cohesive manner; Zheng et al., 2018). Our findings suggest that female managers may similarly benefit from adopting a paradox mindset during decision-making processes or when explaining their actions, as their behaviors are likely to be evaluated against both agency proscriptions and communality prescriptions. For example, a female manager could communicate to their subordinates that their brusque behavior during decision-making (i.e., agentic action) is motivated by communal concerns, such as their desire to reduce subordinates' anxiety by informing all of them about decisions affecting them as soon and directly as possible.

Finally, in our studies, employees reported that female managers commit *similar or lower levels* of interpersonal justice violations than male managers. This converges with prior findings whereby manager gender (e.g., Mayer et al., 2007) and manager–subordinate gender similarity (e.g., Carter et al., 2014) are typically not associated with interpersonal justice. The lack of a main effect of gender also aligns with what is often found for other forms of transgressions (e.g., Kim et al., 2021; Motro et al., 2021; Shapiro et al., 2011). From a practical standpoint, this form of backlash is particularly insidious as the bias against female managers is evident only when examining the *consequences* of leader mistreatment. Thus, in organizations that

incorporate employee ratings of manager trust in their performance assessments, our results suggest that female managers will be at a career disadvantage. We acknowledge that the effects we have uncovered are not large. Yet prior computer simulations demonstrate that even small gender-based disparities (e.g., those that explain 1% of the variance in outcomes) can accumulate over time and across individuals to meaningfully and practically impact the gender composition of those who reach the upper echelons of organizations (Martell et al., 1996). Ultimately, although it is unacceptable for any manager to mistreat their subordinates, female managers should not experience more backlash or penalties than their male peers by virtue of being women. Analogously, male managers should not be given a pass for mistreatment due to their gender.

7.3 | Limitations and future directions

Our findings are qualified by a few limitations. First, although we employed different study designs to triangulate our results (Cook & Campbell, 1979), all our studies utilized self-report data from one source. However, given the subjective nature of the focal constructs, we believe self-report is a valid approach. Further, given our main interest in interaction effects, common method variance is unlikely to have a significant impact on our observed results (Siemsen et al., 2010). Nevertheless, to overcome this limitation, future research could employ multi-source designs, such as collecting other reports of employee trust or behaviors.

Second, our samples are all drawn from online panel data. Management scholars have expressed several concerns when using this type of data for survey research, including representativeness, inattentiveness, and false representation (Porter et al., 2019; Walter et al., 2019). Samples drawn from online panel sources are non-representative of the general US population in several ways; specifically, they tend to be more diverse, younger, more highly educated, and earn lower pay (Walter et al., 2019). To the extent that these factors may impact the relationships of interest in this study, this could serve to bias results.

Interestingly, emerging research suggests that concerns of greater inattentiveness may not be borne out empirically (e.g., Walter et al., 2019). Moreover, in each of our studies, we followed recommended practices to ensure data integrity (i.e., inattentive responding checks; Landers & Behrend, 2015). It is often assumed that participants from online panels are financially motivated and may engage in false representation to access studies and earn payment (e.g., reporting they are employed when they are not). Several features of our studies help to guard against false representation by participants; namely, our use of pre-screen surveys, which included filler questions, made it difficult for participants to guess exactly what population we were seeking. We also required participants to verify their manager's demographics across surveys to minimize misrepresentation; that is, participants who misrepresent themselves merely for financial gain would likely be

participating in large numbers of studies quickly and unlikely to remember exactly how they responded to each survey. Nonetheless, replication of our findings in the future using samples where false representation is unlikely would bolster confidence in our findings (e.g., organizational samples where HR provides contact information for workers).

Third, we acknowledge that average levels of interpersonal justice violations were generally low across our studies.[7] Although arguably good for participants, this creates statistical challenges. In particular, regression analysis linearly extrapolates effects observed at lower levels to higher levels, but this may not accurately reflect what occurs (Fischer et al., 2021). For example, it is possible that our observed moderating effects at lower levels of interpersonal justice violations do not hold at higher levels of interpersonal justice violations. This could occur because there is less room for interpretation for more egregious rude behaviors, such that managers of both genders are equally spurned by subordinates as a result.

Scholars have offered two remedies for this issue: sampling contexts in which this phenomenon occurs at higher rates or creating these more extreme environments in the lab (Fischer et al., 2021). To some extent, we attempted the former in Study 1 by only sampling workers who reported that they could recall a recent incident of interpersonal justice violation by their manager. Indeed, mean levels of interpersonal justice violations are higher in that study ($M = 3.24$, $SD = 1.01$ on a five-point Likert scale). Although reassuring, it would be beneficial for future research to replicate our findings in samples (e.g., racial minority workers) or contexts (e.g., healthcare) where base rates of mistreatment tend to be higher. We did not pursue an experimental paradigm because our primary focus was to test our hypotheses within ongoing manager–subordinate relationships, which can be difficult to simulate in the lab. However, future research may desire to do so to observe what happens at more extreme levels of mistreatment.

Although imposed upon us by circumstances beyond our control, one finding that requires future attention is the influence of work arrangements on our findings. Namely, our pattern of results for those who were working completely remotely during the COVID-19 pandemic was virtually the opposite of those who were working

---

[7]We conducted additional analyses to examine the robustness of our results. First, to address the issue of non-normality, we corrected for skewness by log-transforming interpersonal justice violations and re-ran our analyses. For all three studies, the results remained consistent with those presented in-text. Second, to assess whether there were influential data points, we removed cases 2.5 SDs from the mean of interpersonal justice violations and re-ran our analyses. Generally, the pattern of results remained consistent but were somewhat weaker for the conditional indirect effects, which could be due in part to lower statistical power (i.e., conditional indirect effects of interpersonal justice violations on trust in manager via agentic incongruence for female managers in Studies 2 and 3, as well as the downstream models to OCBs and CWBs for female managers in Study 3, were significant only when using the more liberal 90% confidence interval criteria). Yet, it is important to note that the majority of scholars believe that outliers should only be removed if there is a reason to consider them *invalid* (e.g., Orr et al., 1991). The cases in our research all passed our data screening procedures, suggesting that they are unlikely to be errors. Further, in Study 2, the measure of interpersonal justice violations is an average of the manager's behaviors over 6 weeks—reflecting a consistent perception of extremity by their subordinate. Thus, we contend that the preponderance of evidence indicates that these extreme cases likely represent a small number of (unlucky) participants who truly believe that their manager is very rude, and that our analyses in-text are the more valid set of results.

completely in-person. Remote employees were less trusting of unfair male (but not female) managers due to perceiving such managers to be excessively agentic. Interestingly, research has found that workers cited leadership behaviors that showed understanding and care as most needed for managing employees working from home during the pandemic, and almost never mentioned aggressiveness and competitiveness (Eichenauer et al., 2022). Although this suggests that employees may generally see no place for agency in the virtual environment, leading to the negative consequences experienced by male managers who are seen as rude and disrespectful, it raises the question of why female managers were not similarly censured.

We speculate that perhaps employees were more likely to make external (vs. internal) attributions regarding interpersonal justice violations for a female (vs. male) manager in the remote work (vs. in-person) context during the pandemic. During the pandemic, employees working remotely (vs. in-person) may have had a unique window into the non-work lives of their managers like never before (i.e., literally seeing into their home environment). Indeed, emerging research indicates that people pay attention to video backgrounds when making evaluations (e.g., parenthood cues, Roulin et al., 2023). Additionally, research indicates that women (vs. men) were disproportionately responsible for unpaid labor or home responsibilities during the pandemic (e.g., Shockley et al., 2021). To the extent that this was common knowledge, it could contribute to employees interpreting their female managers' interpersonal justice violations as due to extra stresses of their circumstances rather than due to a stable or internal disposition that may lead to stronger perceptions of stereotype incongruence. We encourage future research to test this possibility, as well as to disentangle to what extent our results are unique to working from home *during a pandemic* versus applicable to working from home generally.

7.4 | Conclusion

Manager mistreatment can damage relationships between managers and their subordinates. In the current research, we elucidate the mechanism that give rise to gendered reactions to manager mistreatment, demonstrating that the relational consequences of interpersonal justice violations are exacerbated for female as compared to male managers because employees perceive such violations to be incongruent with the stereotypical expectation that women, but not men, should refrain from exhibiting high levels of agency. Thus, our work substantiates *that*—and explains *why*—gender stereotypes exert significant negative effects within long-term workplace relationships and contribute to insidious biases experienced by female managers.

ORCID

Frank Mu https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7705-5235
Winny Shen https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6238-0051
D. Ramona Bobocel https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8721-8114

REFERENCES

Abele, A. E., & Wojciszke, B. (2007). Agency and communion from the perspective of self versus others. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *93*(5), 751–763. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.93.5.751

Barreto, M., & Doyle, D. M. (2022). Benevolent and hostile sexism in a shifting global context. *Nature Reviews Psychology*, *1–14*, 98–111. https://doi.org/10.1038/s44159-022-00136-x

Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, *117*(3), 497–529. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.117.3.497

Baumeister, R. F., Smart, L., & Boden, J. M. (1996). Relation of threatened egotism to violence and aggression: The dark side of high self-esteem. *Psychological Review*, *103*(1), 5–33. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.103.1.5

Biernat, M. (2018). Gender stereotyping, prejudice, and shifting standards. In C. B. Travis, J. W. White, A. Rutherford, W. S. Williams, S. L. Cook, & K. F. Wyche (Eds.), *APA handbook of the psychology of women: History, theory, and battlegrounds* (pp. 343–361). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/0000059-017

Bies, R. J. (2015). Interactional justice: Looking backward, looking forward. In R. S. Cropanzano & M. L. Ambrose (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of justice in the workplace* (pp. 89–107). Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199981410.013.4

Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. Wiley.

Bliese, P. D. (2000). Within-group agreement, non-independence, and reliability: Implications for data aggregation and analysis. In K. J. Klein & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions* (pp. 349–381). Jossey-Bass.

Bowling, N. A., & Beehr, T. A. (2006). Workplace harassment from the victim's perspective: A theoretical model and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(5), 998–1012. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.5.998

Brescoll, V. L. (2011). Who takes the floor and why: Gender, power, and volubility in organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *56*(4), 622–641. https://doi.org/10.1177/0001839212439994

Brescoll, V. L., & Uhlmann, E. L. (2008). Can an angry woman get ahead? Status conferral, gender, and expression of emotion in the workplace. *Psychological Science*, *19*(3), 268–275. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2008.02079.x

Caleo, S. (2016). Are organizational justice rules gendered? Reactions to men's and women's justice violations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *101*(10), 1422–1435. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000131

Carli, L. L., Alawa, L., Lee, Y., Zhao, B., & Kim, E. (2016). Stereotypes about gender and science: Women ≠ scientists. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *40*(2), 244–260. https://doi.org/10.1177/0361684315622645

Carli, L. L., & Eagly, A. H. (2016). Women face a labyrinth: An examination of metaphors for women leaders. *Gender in Management*, *31*(8), 514–527. https://doi.org/10.1108/GM-02-2015-0007

Carter, M. Z., Mossholder, K. W., Feild, H. S., & Armenakis, A. A. (2014). Transformational leadership, interactional justice, and organizational citizenship behavior: The effects of racial and gender dissimilarity between supervisors and subordinates. *Group & Organization Management*, *39*(6), 691–719. https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601114551605

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences* (3rd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(3), 386–400. https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.86.3.386

Colquitt, J. A., Long, D. M., William, C., Rodell, J. B., & Halvorsen-ganepola, M. D. K. (2015). Adding the "in" to justice: A qualitative and quantitative investigation of the differential effects of justice rule adherence and violation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(2), 278–297. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038131

Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., Rodell, J. B., Long, D. M., Zapata, C. P., Conlon, D. E., & Wesson, M. J. (2013). Justice at the millennium, a decade later: A meta-analytic test of social exchange and affect-based perspectives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *98*(2), 199–236. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031757

Cook, T., & Campbell, D. (1979). *Quasi-experimentation:* Design and analysis issues for field settings. Rand McNally.

Correll, S. J., Benard, S., & Paik, I. (2007). Getting a job: Is there a motherhood penalty? *American Journal of Sociology*, *112*(5), 1297–1338. https://doi.org/10.1086/511799

Cropanzano, R., & Byrne, Z. S. (2000). Workplace justice and the dilemma of organizational citizenship. In M. Van Vugt, M. Snyder, T. R. Tyler, & A. Biel (Eds.), *Cooperation in modern society: Promoting the welfare of communities, states and organizations* (pp. 142–161). Routledge.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, *31*(6), 874–900. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206305279602

Cropanzano, R., & Rupp, D. (2008). Social Exchange Theory and organizational justice: Job performance, citizenship behaviors, multiple foci, and a historical integration of two literatures. In S. Gilliland, D. D. Steiner, & D. P. Skarlicki (Eds.), *Justice, morality, and social responsibility* (pp. 63–99). Information Age Publishing.

Dalal, R. S. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(6), 1241–1255. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.6.1241

Dalal, R. S., Lam, H., Weiss, H. M., Welch, E. R., & Hulin, C. L. (2009). A within-person approach to work behavior and performance: Concurrent and lagged citizenship-counterproductivity associations, and dynamic relationships with affect and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *52*(5), 1051–1066. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2009.44636148

Deng, H., Lam, C. K., Guan, Y., & Wang, M. (2020). My fault or yours? Leaders' dual reactions to abusive supervision via rumination depend on their independent self-construal. *Personnel Psychology*, *74*(4), 773–798. https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12430

Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2001). The role of trust in organizational settings. *Organization Science*, *12*(4), 450–467. https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.12.4.450.10640

Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review*, *109*(3), 573–598. https://doi.org/10.1037//0033-295X.109.3.573

Eagly, A. H., Makhijani, M. G., & Klonsky, B. G. (1992). Gender and the evaluation of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *111*(1), 3–22. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.111.1.3

Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (2012). Social role theory. In P. Van Lange, A. Kruglanski, & E. T. Higgins (Eds.), *Handbook of theories in social psychology* (pp. 458–476). Sage Publications. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446249222.n49

Edwards, J. R., & Lambert, L. S. (2007). Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: A general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychological Methods*, *12*(1), 1–22. https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.12.1.1

Eichenauer, C. J., Ryan, A. M., & Alanis, J. M. (2022). Leadership during crisis: An examination of supervisory leadership behavior and gender during COVID-19. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, *29*(2), 190–207. https://doi.org/10.1177/15480518211010761

Fischer, A. (2011). Gendered social interactions in face-to-face and computer-mediated communication. In A. Kappas & N. C. Kramer (Eds.), *Face-to-face communication over the internet* (pp. 53–78). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511977589.005

Fischer, T., Dietz, J., & Antonakis, J. (2017). Leadership process models: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Management*, *43*(6), 1726–1753. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206316682830

Fischer, T., Tian, A. W., Lee, A., & Hughes, D. J. (2021). Abusive supervision: A systematic review and fundamental rethink. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *32*(6), 101540. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2021.101540

Gabriel, A. S., Podsakoff, N. P., Beal, D. J., Scott, B. A., Sonnentag, S., Trougakos, J. P., & Butts, M. M. (2019). Experience sampling methods: A discussion of critical trends and considerations for scholarly advancement. *Organizational Research Methods*, *22*(4), 969–1006. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428118802626

Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (2001). An ambivalent alliance: Hostile and benevolent sexism as complementary justifications for gender inequality. *American Psychologist*, *56*(2), 109–118. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.56.2.109

Greco, L. M., Whitson, J. A., O'Boyle, E. H., Wang, C. S., & Kim, J. (2019). An eye for an eye? A meta-analysis of negative reciprocity in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *104*(9), 1117–1143. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000396

Guo, J., Rupp, D. E., Weiss, H. M., & Trougakos, J. P. (2011). Justice in organizations: A person-centric perspective. In S. W. Gilliland, D. D. Steiner, & D. P. Skarlicki (Eds.), *Emerging perspectives on organizational justice and ethics* (pp. 3–32). IAP Information Age Publishing.

Hayes, A. F. (2015). An index and test of linear moderated mediation. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *50*(1), 1–22. https://doi.org/10.1080/00273171.2014.962683

Heilman, M. E. (2012). Gender stereotypes and workplace bias. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *32*, 113–135. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.riob.2012.11.003

Hentschel, T., Heilman, M. E., & Peus, C. V. (2019). The multiple dimensions of gender stereotypes: A current look at men's and women's characterizations of others and themselves. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *10*(11), 1–19, 11. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00011

Hershcovis, M. S. (2011). "Incivility, social undermining, bullying … oh my!": A call to reconcile constructs within workplace aggression research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *32*(3), 499–519. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.689

Hester, N., & Gray, K. (2020). The moral psychology of raceless, genderless strangers. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *15*(2), 216–230. https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691619885840

Kim, J. K., Harold, C. M., & Holtz, B. C. (2021). Evaluations of abusive supervision: The moderating role of the abuser's gender. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *43*(3), 465–482. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2581

Koenig, A. M., Eagly, A. H., Mitchell, A. A., & Ristikari, T. (2011). Are leader stereotypes masculine? A meta-analysis of three research paradigms.

Psychological Bulletin, *137*(4), 616–642. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0023557

Landers, R., & Behrend, T. (2015). An inconvenient truth: Arbitrary distinctions between organizational, Mechanical Turk, and other convenience samples. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *8*(2), 142–164. https://doi.org/10.1017/iop.2015.13

Landy, F. J. (2008). Stereotypes, bias, and personnel decision: Strange and stranger. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *1*(4), 379–392. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1754-9434.2008.00071.x

Leavitt, K., Mitchell, T., & Peterson, J. (2010). Theory pruning: Strategies to reduce our dense theoretical landscape. *Organizational Research Methods*, *13*, 644–667. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428109345156

Lennard, A. C., Scott, B. A., & Johnson, R. E. (2019). Turning frowns (and smiles) upside down: A multilevel examination of surface acting positive and negative emotions on well-being. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *104*(9), 1164–1180. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000400

Litman, L., Robinson, J., & Abberbock, T. (2017). TurkPrime.com: A versatile crowdsourcing data acquisition platform for the behavioral sciences. *Behavior Research Methods*, *49*(2), 433–442. https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-016-0727-z

Ma, A., Rosette, A. S., & Koval, C. Z. (2022). Reconciling female agentic advantage and disadvantage with the CADDIS measure of agency. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *107*(12), 2115–2148. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000550

MacKinnon, D. P., Fairchild, A. J., & Fritz, M. S. (2007). Mediation analysis. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *58*, 593–614. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.58.110405.085542

Marques, T., Patient, D., & Cojuharenco, I. (2017). The "Who" of organizational justice. In C. Moliner, R. Cropanzano, & V. Martínez-Tur (Eds.), *Organizational justice: International perspectives and conceptual advances* (ed., Vol. 58, pp. 58–83). Taylor & Francis. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315648194-4

Martell, R. F., Lane, D. M., & Emrich, C. (1996). Male–female differences: A computer simulation. *American Psychologist*, *51*, 157–158. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.51.2.157

Mayer, D., Nishii, L., Schneider, B., & Goldstein, H. (2007). The precursors and products of justice climates: Group leader antecedents and employee attitudinal consequences. *Personnel Psychology*, *60*(4), 929–963. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2007.00096.x

Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *The Academy of Management Review*, *20*(3), 709–734. https://doi.org/10.2307/258792

Mayer, R. C., & Gavin, M. B. (2005). Trust in management and performance: Who minds the shop while the employees watch the boss? *Academy of Management Journal*, *48*(5), 874–888. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2005.18803928

McAllister, D. J. (1995). Affect- and cognition-based trust as foundations for interpersonal cooperation in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, *38*(1), 24–59. https://doi.org/10.2307/256727

Meade, A. W., & Craig, S. B. (2012). Identifying careless responses in survey data. *Psychological Methods*, *17*(3), 437–455. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0028085

Mook, D. G. (1983). In defense of external invalidity. *American Psychologist*, *38*(4), 379–387. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.38.4.379

Motro, D., Spoelma, T. M., & Ellis, A. P. J. (2021). Incivility and creativity in teams: Examining the role of perpetrator gender. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *106*(4), 560–581. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000757

Orr, J. M., Sackett, P. R., & DuBois, C. L. Z. (1991). Outlier detection and treatment in I/O psychology: A survey of researcher beliefs and an empirical illustration. *Personnel Psychology*, *44*(3), 473–486. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1991.tb02401.x

Palan, S., & Schitter, C. (2018). Prolific.ac—A subject pool for online experiments. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Finance*, *17*, 22–27. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbef.2017.12.004

Phelan, J. E., Moss-Rascusin, C. A., & Rudman, L. A. (2008). Competent yet out in the cold: Shifting criteria for hiring backlash toward agentic women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *32*(4), 406–413. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.2008.00454.x

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(5), 879–903. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879

Porter, C. O. L. H., Outlaw, R., Gale, J. P., & Cho, T. S. (2019). The use of online panel data in management research: A review and recommendations. *Journal of Management*, *45*(1), 319–344. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206318811569

Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007). Addressing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods, and prescriptions. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *42*(1), 185–227. https://doi.org/10.1080/00273170701341316

Prentice, D. A., & Carranza, E. (2002). What women and men should be, shouldn't be, are allowed to be, and don't have to be: The contents of prescriptive gender stereotypes. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *26*(4), 269–281. https://doi.org/10.1111/1471-6402.t01-1-00066

Proudfoot, D., & Lind, E. A. (2015). Fairness heuristic theory, the uncertainty management model, and fairness at work. In R. S. Cropanzano & M. L. Ambrose (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of justice in the workplace*. Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199981410.013.17

Ramsey, L. R. (2017). Agentic traits are associated with success in science more than communal traits. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *106*, 6–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2016.10.017

Roberts, K. H., & O'Reilly, C. A. (1974). Measuring organizational communication. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *59*(3), 321–326. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0036660

Robinson, S. L. (1996). Trust and breach of the psychological contract. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *41*(4), 574–599. https://doi.org/10.2307/2393868

Rosseel, Y. (2012). Lavaan: An R package for structural equation modeling. *Journal of Statistical Software*, *48*(2), 1–36. https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v048.i02

Roulin, N., Lukacik, E.-R., Bourdage, J. S., Chow, L., Bakour, H., & Diaz, P. (2023). Bias in the background? The role of background information in asynchronous video interviews. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *44*(3), 458–475. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2680

Rudman, L. A., & Glick, P. (2001). Prescriptive gender stereotypes and backlash toward agentic women. *Journal of Social Issues*, *57*(4), 743–762. https://doi.org/10.1111/0022-4537.00239

Rupp, D. E., Shapiro, D. L., Folger, R., Skarlicki, D. P., & Shao, R. (2017). A critical analysis of the conceptualization and measurement of organizational justice: Is it time for reassessment. *The Academy of Management Annals*, *11*(2), 919–959. https://doi.org/10.5465/annals.2014.0051

Rusbult, C. E., & Van Lange, P. A. M. (1996). Interdependence processes. In E. T. Higgins & A. W. Kruglanski (Eds.), *Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles* (pp. 564–596). The Guilford Press.

Schoel, C., Bluemke, M., Mueller, P., & Stahlberg, D. (2011). When autocratic leaders become an option—Uncertainty and self-esteem predict implicit leadership preferences. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *101*(3), 521–540. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0023393

Shapiro, D. L., Boss, A. D., Salas, S., Tangirala, S., & Von Glinow, M. A. (2011). When are transgressing leaders punitively judged? An empirical test. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*(2), 412–422. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021442

Shockley, K. M., Clark, M. A., Dodd, H., & King, E. B. (2021). Work–family strategies during COVID-19: Examining gender dynamics among dual-earner couples with young children. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *106*(1), 15–28. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000857

Siemsen, E., Roth, A., & Oliveira, P. (2010). Common method bias in regression models with linear, quadratic, and interaction effects. *Organizational Research Methods*, *13*(3), 456–476. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428109351241

Thau, S., Crossley, C., Bennett, R. J., & Sczesny, S. (2007). The relationship between trust, attachment, and antisocial work behaviors. *Human Relations*, *60*(8), 1155–1179. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726707081658

Thibault, J. W., & Kelley, H. H. (1959). *The social psychology of groups*. John Wiley.

Walter, S. L., Seibert, S. E., Goering, D., & O'Boyle, E. H. Jr. (2019). A tale of two sample sources: Do results from online panel data and conventional data converge. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *34*, 425–452. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-018-9552-y

Yang, J., Mossholder, K. W., & Peng, T. K. (2009). Supervisory procedural justice effects: The mediating roles of cognitive and affective trust. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *20*(2), 143–154. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.01.009

Zapata, C. P., Carton, A. M., & Liu, J. T. (2016). When justice promotes injustice: Why minority leaders experience bias when they adhere to interpersonal justice rules. *Academy of Management Journal*, *59*(4), 1150–1173. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2014.0275

Zheng, W., Kark, R., & Meister, A. L. (2018). Paradox versus dilemma mindset: A theory of how women leaders navigate the tensions between agency and communion. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *29*(5), 584–596. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2018.04.001

Zheng, W., Surgevil, O., & Kark, R. (2018). Dancing on the razor's edge: How top-level women leaders manage the paradoxical tensions between agency and communion. *Sex Roles*, *79*(11–12), 633–650. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-018-0908-6

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHIES

Frank Mu received his PhD in Industrial-Organizational Psychology from the University of Waterloo. His research focuses on fairness, employee engagement, and conflict resolution.

Winny Shen is an associate professor of organization studies in the Schulich School of Business, York University. Her program of research focuses on understanding issues of leadership, diversity and inclusion, and worker health and well-being and has appeared in leading psychology and management journals.

D. Ramona Bobocel is a full professor of industrial-organizational psychology in the Department of Psychology at the University of Waterloo. Her program of research focuses on the study of fairness in the workplace, including understanding processes that promote and hinder workplace fairness.

Amy H. Barron is a PhD student in the field of industrial-organizational psychology in the Department of Psychology at the University of Waterloo. Her research focuses on managers' treatment of employees with a focus on gender discrimination and the role of other cognitive biases.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.