

The Social Psychology of Gender
Differences and Procedural Justice in
Close Relationships

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**The Social Psychology of Gender Differences
and Procedural Justice in Close Relationships**

**De Sociale Psychologie van Sekseverschillen
en Procedurele Rechtvaardigheid in Intieme
Relaties**

(met een samenvatting in het Nederlands)

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Imagine you have a discussion with your partner about a holiday the two of you are about to book. Your partner wants to go on a holiday together with some of your friends, whereas you would like to go on a holiday alone with your partner. At first, you try to persuade your partner with arguments and tell him/her why you prefer a holiday with only the two of you, but then the discussion turns into a fight as both of you start yelling your arguments to each other. After a while, your partner refuses to listen to you and says that if you do not want join him/her on the holiday with your friends, you might as well stay home.

In the above example, your partner refuses to listen to you and does not let you voice your opinion. How would you feel when this would happen to you? Most people would react angry, frustrated, annoyed, or sad (Mikula, Scherer, & Athenstaedt, 1998). The reason why people become upset in such a situation is because they are not allowed to voice their opinion and most people consider that to be procedurally unjust (Folger, 1977).

Procedural justice refers to the fairness of the procedures preceding the outcomes that people get in relationships and other social interactions.

Procedures can be interpreted in a formal way, such as rules and laws, but also in an informal way, such as the way one is treated by their partner or whether an individual is granted voice during an argument (Lind & Tyler, 1988). When an individual is granted voice, this individual will perceive the procedure to be more fair than when the individual is not granted voice. This effect is called the voice effect (Folger, 1977). Voice procedures have a positive influence on people's affective and behavioral reactions. When individuals are not granted voice, they do not only think they are treated unfair, they also become upset and perceive negative emotions (Mikula et al., 1998).

Individuals react more positively to fair procedures than to unfair procedures (Folger, Rosenfield, Grove, & Corkran, 1979). This effect is referred to as the fair process effect. Voice and fair process effects are very robust and easily generalize across methodologies and samples (e.g., Brockner, Heuer, Siegel, Wiesenfeld, Martin, Grover, Reed, & Bjorgvinsson, 1998; Lind, Kanfer, & Earley, 1990; Van den Bos, 1999).

Fair process effects have been shown in a variety of contexts, such as politics, organizations, society, and law. However, the context of close relationships has been relatively neglected. Research on justice in close relationships has tended to focus almost exclusively on distributive justice (i.e., the fairness of outcome distributions; for an overview, see Kluwer & Mikula, 2002). One of the reasons why this omission is remarkable is because we know that procedural justice often has a greater impact on how people react in social situations than distributive justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Literature on procedural justice has shown the effects procedural injustice can have on the reactions of people. In organizations, effects have been reported as distrust toward the management, theft, revenge, and thinking of leaving the organization as results of procedural injustice (e.g., Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Skarlicki &

Folger, 1997). It is therefore important that we gain knowledge of the influence of procedural justice in the context of close relationships.

There is some evidence that women place more value on procedural justice than men (Kluwer, Heesink, & Van der Vliert, 1997; Kluwer, Tumewu, & Van den Bos, 2007, Study 2; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997). However, other studies fail to show gender differences in procedural justice (Lee & Farh, 1999; Tata, 2002). What the different studies have in common is that they expect women to be more sensitive toward procedural justice than men, because women are more caring towards others and value their close relationships than men. Therefore, women will be more sensitive to the way they are treated by close others than men. In this thesis, I will study the influence of procedural justice on the reactions of men and women in contexts related to close relationships. The aim of this thesis is to systematically study the social psychology of gender differences in procedural justice in close relationships and provide more insight in why and under which conditions gender differences in procedural justice occur. More specifically, I will investigate these gender differences from three different perspectives.

First, I will take a macro-level perspective by focusing on differences in the social roles that men and women occupy. That is, I will test whether status differences between men and women will account for the differences in their reactions toward procedural justice. Second, I take a meso-level perspective and investigate whether individual and situational differences in relational orientation influence men's and women's reactions toward procedural justice. Third, I will narrow my search under which conditions gender differences occur to a micro-level perspective and examine whether experiential mindsets can explain the different reactions of men and women toward procedural justice. In this way, I attempt to provide more insight in the underlying social psychological processes of gender differences in procedural justice. In what follows in this introduction, I will introduce the three perspectives mentioned

here and I will introduce the eight empirical studies I have conducted following these perspectives.

A Social Role Perspective Focusing on Status

One of the most influential theories in the justice literature (Tyler & Lind, 1992) assumes that the justice judgments of people are shaped by information about whether authorities treat the individual in a neutral way, whether authorities can be trusted, and whether authorities regard the individual as having high status within the group. Neutrality refers to the capability of the authority to make an unbiased decision and to use the appropriate information to come to that decision. Trust has to do with the positive treatment by the authority, which communicates that the authority can be trusted and will not exploit the individual. Lastly, status refers to whether the authority treats an individual with respect, meaning that the authority values that individual and that, therefore, the individual has high social status within the group.

When the authority treats an individual with disrespect, that individual will perceive that the authority does not value the individual and regards that the individual has low social status within the group. According to the relational model, individuals with a low-status position in society will be especially susceptible to the way they are treated by their interaction partner, because fair treatment communicates that the partner is respecting them as a valuable full-fledged group member (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992).

However, these status effects in procedural justice are not often found. Most studies concerning status and procedural justice are correlational survey data. As a consequence, these studies cannot show the causal link between status and procedural justice on outcome variables (such as affective reactions). Van Prooijen, Van den Bos, and Wilke (2002) conducted some experiments on

this issue, but could not show that low-status individuals place more value on procedural justice than high-status individuals. In contrast, they did find that status salience, regardless of the level of status, influenced the sensitivity of participants for procedural justice.

Gender and status differences are often found parallel to each other (e.g., Eagly, 1987). Inherent to traditional gender roles in society is that women have lower status and less access to power than men (Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia, & Vanneman, 2001). Moreover, jobs in which women are overrepresented have lower status than jobs in which men are overrepresented. Johnson and Helgeson (2002) showed that women's self-esteem often depends on their social bonds and the relationships they maintain. In their review of the literature on gender differences, Cross and Madson (1997) argued that women are more relationally oriented than men. Furthermore, research on relational orientation and procedural justice showed that individuals high in relational orientation tend to be more sensitive to injustice than individuals low in relational orientation (Brockner, De Cremer, Van den Bos, & Chen, 2005; Tyler & Lind, 1992). Together with the inconclusive findings of gender and status on procedural justice, I suggest that the effect of procedural justice can be found in the combination of status and gender. In other words, the combination of being a woman and having low status should make these individuals prone to procedural justice.

An Individual versus Situational Approach Focusing on Relational Orientation

In the previous section, I assumed that women are more sensitive to procedural justice because they are more relationally oriented than men. In the current section, I will test whether the role of relational orientation influence

men and women in a way that they become more sensitive to procedural justice. Below I will demonstrate why women are often found to be more relationally oriented than men and how this relational orientation influences their sensitivity to procedural justice.

In 1982, Gilligan started a discussion about morality and gender. Gilligan argued that men and women perceive the world differently and that this different perception is already apparent in their behavior in their youth. Girls are focused more on care and connectedness with others than boys, whereas boys are focused more on individuation and separation. Gilligan found that women differ from men in the way they approach moral decisions. Whereas the male moral sense is based on abstract principles of justice, the female moral sense is based on the value of human relationships. According to Gilligan, when faced with a moral conflict, men focus on a set of abstract principles, whereas women tend to weigh the impact a decision would have on the people involved. However, her line of reasoning did not result in more justice research on possible gender differences in justice effects. This is surprising as the concept of morality is closely linked with the concept of justice.

Gilligan's reasoning could help to explain why women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men. If women are more focused on care for others than men, then this would suggest that women also are more focused on the relationships they maintain. When women are more oriented toward their relationships and think these relationships are important to their identity, then women will be more focused on the way they are treated by others than men.

Markus and Kitayama (1991) developed the concept of independent and interdependent self-construal. Individuals high in interdependent self-construal see themselves as interconnected with others. Individuals high in independent self-construal see themselves as independent of others. In Western societies, women are more likely to construct an interdependent self-construal than men (Cross & Madson, 1997). Because of different social influences, like upbringing, education, and other socialization processes, boys are encouraged to

behave in more competitive ways and construct a more independent self-construal, whereas girls are taught more to care about others and construct a more interdependent or relational self-construal (Gilligan, 1982; Maccoby, 1990).

Closely linked to the concept of interdependent self-construal is the concept of relational orientation. The difference between the two concepts is the origin: Interdependent self-construal originates from the need to differentiate Western and Eastern cultures (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), whereas relational orientation is used in the context of gender differences in close relationships (e.g., Gagné & Lydon, 2003; Romig & Bakken, 1992; White, Speisman, Jackson, Bartis, & Costos, 1986). Nevertheless, self-construal is often used interchangeably with relational orientation. In this dissertation, I will use the term relational orientation, because I think it covers the difference between men and women more in a general manner than interdependent self-construal.

Brockner and colleagues (2005) showed that individuals high in interdependent self-construal are more susceptible to procedural justice than individuals low in interdependent self-construal. Gagné and Lydon (2003) argued that women are more relationally oriented on a dispositional level than men. The relational model (Tyler & Lind, 1992) also supports the explanation that women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men because of relational concerns. Thus, I argue that differences in relational orientation between men and women may help to explain why men and women react differently to procedural justice. More specifically, I will argue in Chapter 3 that when situational conditions salientize relational orientation, both men and women show strong fair process effects, whereas in situations where relational orientation is not salient women show stronger fair process effects than men. I will discuss this issue in detail in Chapter 3.

A Social-Cognitive Approach Focusing on Experiential Processes

Plausible conditions that could explain the gender effect at a micro level are cognitive differences between men and women. More specifically, cognitive-experiential self-theory (Epstein, 1994) helps to explain how cognitive differences between men and women could play a role in their different reactions toward procedural justice (see also Maas & Van den Bos, 2006). According to cognitive-experiential self-theory, individuals process information by two parallel and interactive systems. An intuitive-experiential system refers to an automatic, heuristic, and affective way of information processing. A rationalistic system covers a logical, analytical, and effortful way of information processing. Although people can rely on both systems of information processing, there are some important individual differences in the degree to which individuals rely on a certain mode of information processing.

In daily life, women have the tendency to process information in an experiential way, whereas men tend to process information in a rationalistic way (Pacini & Epstein, 1999). Krings and Gordon (1998) showed that women are more emotionally expressive than men, suggesting that women more often adopt an experiential mindset than men and will react more emotional than men in an experiential mindset. In line with the above findings, Epstein, Pacini, Denes Raj, and Heuer (1996) found that a rationalistic mindset was strongly related to adjustment and coping ability and that an experiential mindset is closely linked to the establishment of interpersonal relationships. Interestingly, Suh, Moskowitz, Fournier, and Zuroff (2004) showed that men are focused more on achievement, which is in line with the rationalistic mindset, whereas women are focused more on maintaining close relationships, which is in line with the experiential mindset.

Cognitive-experiential self-theory assumes that an experiential mindset is closely linked to affect-related experiences. A relevant affect-related

experience in the current thesis is a justice experience (Mikula, Scherer, & Athenstaedt, 1998; Van den Bos, Maas, Waldring, & Semin, 2003). Thus, adopting an experiential mindset could lead to a heightened sensitivity to procedural justice. More specifically, when an individual adopts an experiential mindset and encounters a justice event, that person will react from his or her gut-feeling, thereby reacting emotionally. When an individual reacts to a justice-event in a rationalistic way, that person will first weigh the pros and the cons against each other before coming to a judgment. Maas and Van den Bos (2006) indeed showed that individuals who adopted an experiential mindset reacted more strongly in affective terms to fair as opposed to unfair procedures than individuals who adopted a rationalistic mindset. Following from the above, I argue that women who adopt an experiential way of information processing will react more strongly to procedural justice than men who adopt an experiential mindset.

Overview of the Current Thesis

The aim of this thesis is to provide more insight into why and under which conditions women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men. I start with studying conditions from a macro-level perspective in Chapter 2 and I gradually specify the conditions to a meso-level perspective in Chapter 3, and end with a micro-level perspective in Chapter 4. In this way I aim to grasp the underlying process of gender differences in procedural justice effects and gradually gain insight into the social psychological processes of why and when men and women react differently to procedural justice. Below, I will briefly outline the chapters.

In *Chapter 2*, I take a social role perspective on gender differences in procedural justice. In three experimental studies I will test whether women in

low-status positions are more sensitive to procedural justice compared to men in low-status positions and men and women in high-status positions.

In *Chapter 3*, I focus on the way men and women perceive their relationships. I will test whether differences in relational orientation account for their reactions to procedural justice. With two questionnaires and an experimental design I will study whether men and women differ in their reactions to procedural justice and whether this difference is due to differences in relational orientation.

In *Chapter 4*, the focus is on the social-cognitive aspects that could play a role in obtaining insight in why women are more sensitive to procedural justice. Two experimental studies are conducted to test whether women who adopt an experiential mindset show stronger fair process effects than men who adopt an experiential mindset.

Finally, in *Chapter 5*, I provide an overview of the presented studies and the theoretical and practical implications of the current research. Furthermore, I will discuss whether the presented studies provide sufficient support for the chosen conditions under which I suspect women to be more sensitive to procedural justice than men.

To summarize, the present thesis focuses on whether there are gender differences in procedural justice in close relationships and under which conditions these gender differences are likely to occur. In the following chapters, eight studies are presented that are conducted to provide more insight into the social psychology of gender effects in procedural justice. It should be noted that each chapter can be read independently of the other chapters and as such there will be some overlap in the introductions of the different empirical chapters.

Chapter 2

Procedural Justice, Gender, and Status in Close Relationships: Satisfaction of Female Underdogs

For many people, close relationships yield valuable outcomes, such as companionship, intimacy, support, and love. Conflicts in close relationships can be a threat to the existence of an intimate relationship and research has shown that relationship conflict can have profound negative effects on an individual's mental and physical well-being (for an overview, see Fincham & Beach, 1999). The way couples interact and handle their conflicts is seen as a central determinant of marital quality (for reviews, see Bradbury, Fincham, & Beach, 2000; Fincham & Beach, 1999; Holmes & Murray, 1996; Karney & Bradbury, 1995). For example, when individuals feel their partner does not treat them with dignity and respect, this has a negative effect on their relationship satisfaction in general (Kluwer, Tumewu, & Van den Bos, 2007, Study 2). Treating a person with dignity and respect is a key component of procedural justice, which refers to the fairness of procedures that precede people's outcomes and, more generally, the fairness of the way in which people have been treated (Van den Bos, 2005).

Procedural justice has a great impact on feelings, attitudes, and behavioral responses (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Several studies have shown that individuals who are treated fairly react more positively than individuals

who are treated unfairly (e.g., Brockner et al., 1998; Folger, Rosenfield, Grove, & Corkran, 1979). For example, relationship partners who receive voice in conflict-resolution procedures respond with more positive affect than relationship partners who do not receive voice (Kluwer et al., 2007). This effect has been called the *fair process effect* (e.g., Folger et al., 1979). In addition, when people are given the opportunity to voice their opinions, they perceive procedures to be more fair. This has been called the *voice effect* and is one of the most replicated and robust findings in the justice literature (e.g., Folger, 1977).

Procedural justice has instrumental and non-instrumental value (Lind, Kanfer, & Earley, 1990). As to the first, when individuals have the opportunity to voice their opinion, they have control over their own outcome. A non-instrumental reason why people value procedural justice is that when individuals are treated in a procedurally just way, they feel good about themselves and feel respected by the other (Tyler & Lind, 1992). Lind and others (1990) showed that both instrumental and non-instrumental components are important. It has been suggested, however, that in close relationships the non-instrumental component of fair and respectful treatment is especially important. For example, Fehr (1988) argued that being respected is inevitably linked to love and commitment.

A considerable amount of research has been conducted on procedural justice in organizational settings as well as in laboratory experiments. However, until recently, procedural justice in close relationships has been a relatively neglected area of research. Research on justice in close relationships has focused merely on distributive justice (i.e., the fairness of outcome distributions; for a review, see Kluwer & Mikula, 2002), even though procedural justice often has a greater impact on how people react in social situations (Lind & Tyler, 1988). It is therefore important that we gain knowledge of the influence of procedural justice in the context of close relationships.

Gender Differences in Procedural Justice

Some studies in work organizations have shown that women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997; Tata & Bowes-Sperry, 1996). They showed that for women the effect of procedural justice on organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction was stronger than for men. However, other organizational studies (Kulik, Lind, Ambrose, & MacCoun, 1996; Lee & Farh, 1999) found no gender differences. Thus, results about gender differences in sensitivity to procedural justice in work organizations are inconclusive. Recently, Kluwer and colleagues (2007, Study 2) showed that in close relationships procedural justice influenced women more strongly than men. Compared with men, women reported lower relationship satisfaction after being unfairly treated by their partner in a relationship conflict than men.

Cross and Madson (1997) showed that women are more relationally oriented than men. Indeed, research has shown that relationally oriented individuals are more sensitive to injustice (Brockner, De Cremer, Van den Bos & Chen, 2005; Lind & Tyler, 1988). Individuals who use relational information as a means of self-definition have strong levels of interdependent self-construal (Cross & Madson, 1997; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Following this line of reasoning, Brockner and colleagues (2005) showed that individuals who scored high on interdependent self-construal showed stronger fair process effects on contribution behavior, positive affect, and desire for future interaction than individuals who scored low on interdependent self-construal.

Status

In contrast to what one would assume from the literature on gender differences in close relationships (see, e.g., Bradbury, Fincham, & Beach, 2000; Fincham & Beach, 1999; Holmes & Murray, 1996; Karney & Bradbury, 1995), there have been some but not many studies that showed gender differences in how people react to variations in procedural justice. We drew on existing theoretical and empirical literature to identify what qualifies the moderating effect of gender on procedural justice and affective reactions. In the literature on the social psychology of justice, several authors have argued that status is a crucial factor in how people react to fair and unfair procedures (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992; Van Prooijen, Van den Bos, & Wilke, 2002, 2005). One of the most recognized theories concerning status and procedural justice is the relational theory of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992). This theory focuses on the non-instrumental value of procedural justice and asserts that individuals in low-status positions have a greater need to be treated in a procedurally just way than individuals in high-status positions. According to the relational model, people in low-status positions have a greater concern for social evaluation and therefore will be more sensitive to the way they are treated than those in higher status positions (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992; Van Prooijen et al., 2002, 2005).

Information about one's intragroup status has been called standing or status recognition (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Fair treatment indicates high status in the group. When authorities treat low-status individuals respectfully, these individuals will infer having higher status position within the group. When authorities treat them disrespectfully, they will infer having low status position within the group. Another explanation that focuses on the instrumental value of procedural justice is that low-status individuals have less opportunities and resources to reach favorable outcomes than high-status individuals. Procedurally just treatment is a way to reach these outcomes. This also suggests

that procedural justice is more important for low-status individuals than for high-status individuals.

Surprisingly, little support has been found for the effects of status on justice so far and most research has been correlational in nature (e.g., Tyler, 1989; Tyler, 1994). Therefore, these studies cannot draw a causal link between status and justice. To our knowledge, no research has found reliable effects of low and high status and fair and unfair procedures on people's reactions. Van Prooijen, Van den Bos, and Wilke (2005) showed that status salience had an effect on the sensitivity to procedural justice: The effect of procedure was stronger when status was salient than when status was not salient. However, these authors did not include salience of *high* and *low* status into their design, making it impossible to conclude that, as the relational model would predict, status (low vs. high) is indeed an important moderator of fair process effects. Another study by Van Prooijen, Van den Bos, and Wilke (2005) focused on the level of status. Findings from their experiments showed that low-status individuals and high-status individuals did not differ in their justice judgments after a procedure manipulation. However, they differed from the control condition, that is, low- and high-status individuals showed a stronger voice effect than individuals in the neutral status condition. Thus, in contrast to what one would expect on the basis of the relational model, previous studies that varied the level of status did not yield reliable effects of fair and unfair procedures on people's reactions.

The Current Research

In the present research, we aim to further clarify the underlying process of gender differences in procedural justice by investigating the role status may have in this process. More specifically, we argue that women may be more sensitive to procedural justice than men, not only because they are more

relationally oriented (Cross & Madson, 1997; Kluwer et al., 2007, Study 2), but also because they generally have lower status positions than men (Tyler & Lind, 1992). We think that the combination of female gender and low status elicits the strongest fair process effects. In today's society, traditional gender roles are still prevalent as women often possess lower status positions than men (Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia, & Vanneman, 2001). Within close relationships, women generally experience more dissatisfaction with the division of household labor than men and more often desire a change in their partner's behavior than vice versa (Kluwer, Heesink, & Van de Vliert, 2000). Consequently, women more often find themselves in the role of complainant, while men have the role of defendant of the status quo. In relationship conflict, complainants generally have less power to get what they want than defendants (Kluwer, 1998). The non-instrumental component of procedural justice is of great importance in such a situation, because the way husband and wife treat each other influences the acceptance of the outcome. Finally, gender functions as a status cue (Wood & Karten, 1986). Men are often seen as more competent than women and individuals allocate higher status positions to men and lower status positions to women.

In sum, the literature on close relationships argues that women have a greater concern for procedural justice, because they are more relationally oriented than men. However, few studies show that women are more sensitive to procedural justice. Furthermore, research on status and procedural justice shows that the results of different levels of status and procedural justice do not produce the expected effects on dependent variables such as satisfaction with treatment. What we suggest here is that the predicted main effects of gender and status often (but not always; for significant main effects of gender see Kluwer et al., 2007, Study 2) may be too weak when investigated separately. However, when the gender and status effects proposed by the close relationship and procedural justice literatures are combined, it may well be that the combination of gender and status reliably influences people's reactions such that the strongest

fair process effects will be found among women (cf. Kluwer et al., 2007, Study 2) having low status (cf. Tyler & Lind, 1992). The main aim of the three studies reported here was to examine whether women with low status indeed show the strongest fair process effects in situations of relationship conflict, compared to women with high status or men with low or high status. Finding support for this pattern of effects would yield evidence for predictions formulated in both the close relationship and procedural justice literatures. More specifically, we would like to show here that focusing on multiplicative effects (such as the interactive effect of gender *and* status) may better explain the psychology of fair process effects than focusing only on the isolated effects of single moderators (such as gender *or* status).

Study 2.1

In Study 2.1, we first tested the status hypothesis among women. More specifically we wanted to test whether low-status women show stronger fair process effects than high-status women and therefore we manipulated status and procedural justice among female participants.

Method

Participants and design. Participants were 109 heterosexual female students at Utrecht University who partially fulfilled course requirements for having taken part in the study. We expected status to have a stronger impact on gender differences in procedural justice in heterosexual relationships. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the four conditions of a 2 (status: low vs. high) x 2 (procedure: voice vs. no voice) experimental design.

Experimental procedure. Participants were placed in separate cubicles. Each cubicle was equipped with a computer from which the participants read

and responded to the stimulus information. In the study, participants were asked to imagine that they had been involved in a relationship for two years. This was followed by the manipulation of status. In the low-status condition, participants read:

Because you are still in college and your partner already has a job, you have a lower financial status. As your partner earns more money, your partner contributes more to the purchase of joint possessions.

In the high-status conditions, stimulus materials read as follows:

Because you already have a job and your partner is still in college, you have a higher financial status. As you earn more money, you contribute more to the purchase of joint possessions.

All participants were then informed that their relationship was deteriorating and was coming to an end:

Lately, things have been getting worse in your relationship. You both decide to end the relationship, because it is unbalanced. However, you still have to divide your joint possessions.

This was followed by the manipulation of procedure. Participants in the voice condition read the following information:

When you call your ex-partner to make an appointment to pick up your belongings, it soon becomes clear that your ex-partner is willing to give you voice in picking a date for the appointment. Your ex-partner quietly lets you finish your sentences and listens to what you have to say.

In contrast, participants in the no-voice condition read the following:

When you call your ex-partner to make an appointment to pick up your belongings, it soon becomes clear that your ex-partner is not willing to give you voice in picking a date for the appointment. Your ex-partner does not let you finish your sentences and interrupts you all the time. Hence, your ex-partner does not listen to what you have to say.

After this, the dependent variables and manipulation checks were solicited.

Manipulation checks. To ensure that participants experienced the manipulation of status in the way we intended, a manipulation check was implemented after the measurement of the dependent variable. We asked whether participants had a higher status than their partner (1 = *not agree*, to 7 = *agree*), whether participants had a lower status than their partner (reversed; 1 = *not agree*, to 7 = *agree*), whether participants earned more money than their partner (1 = *not agree*, to 7 = *agree*), and whether their partner earned more money than the participant (reversed; 1 = *not agree*, to 7 = *agree*). The four items were averaged to form a reliable status scale ($\alpha = .92$).

The manipulation of the procedure was checked by asking participants how fair (1 = *very unfair*, to 7 = *very fair*), just (1 = *very unjust*, to 7 = *very just*), and appropriate (1 = *very inappropriate*, to 7 = *very appropriate*) they felt they were treated by their ex-partner. The three items were averaged to form a reliable procedural justice scale ($\alpha = .99$).

Dependent variable. Satisfaction with the way they were treated by their ex-partner was measured with three items on 7-point scales. Participants rated how satisfied (1 = *very dissatisfied*, to 7 = *very satisfied*), happy (1 = *very unhappy*, to 7 = *very happy*), and dissatisfied (1 = *not at all*, to 7 = *very much*) they felt about the way they were treated by their ex-partner (Van den Bos & Miedema, 2000). The three items were averaged to form a reliable satisfaction with treatment scale ($\alpha = .79$). After this, participants were debriefed, thanked and paid for their participation.

Results and Discussion

Manipulation of status. A 2 x 2 analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the manipulation check of status only yielded a main effect of status, $F(1, 105) = 615.06, p < .001, \eta^2 = .85$. Participants in the high-status condition reported to have a higher status ($M = 5.80, SD = 0.74$) than participants in the low-status condition ($M = 2.14, SD = 0.81$). No main effect of procedure or significant

interaction effect was found. This suggests that the manipulation of status was successful.

Manipulation of procedure. A 2 x 2 analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the manipulation check of procedure yielded a main effect only, $F(1, 105) = 345.62, p < .001, \eta^2 = .77$. Participants in the no-voice condition reported less procedural justice ($M = 1.79, SD = 0.55$) than participants in the voice condition ($M = 5.19, SD = 1.24$). No main effect of status or significant interaction effect was found. This suggests that the manipulation of procedure was successful.

Satisfaction with treatment. Means and standard deviations of satisfaction with treatment are displayed in Table 2.1. A 2 x 2 analysis of variance showed a main effect of procedure, $F(1, 105) = 415.99, p < .05$. Participants reported less satisfaction in the no-voice condition than in the voice condition. Furthermore, we found the expected two-way interaction between status and procedure, $F(1, 105) = 5.06, p < .05$. Women in the low-status position showed a stronger fair process effect, $F(1, 106) = 255.08, p < .05, \eta^2 = .71$, than women in the high-status position, $F(1, 106) = 167.03, p < .05, \eta^2 = .61$.

Table 2.1

Means and Standard Deviations of Satisfaction with Treatment as a Function of Status and Procedure among Female Participants (Study 2.1)

	Status	
	Low	High
No voice	1.46 (0.46)	1.92 (0.62)
Voice	5.05 (1.12)	4.79 (0.92)

Note. Means are on 7-point scales with higher means indicating more satisfaction with treatment

As expected and in line with our analysis of the predictions formulated in the close relationships and procedural justice literatures, low-status women

reacted stronger to variations in procedural justice than high-status women. In order to more fully test our hypothesis formulated in the general introduction, we wanted to examine the effects of both variations in gender and status on the strength of participants' fair process effects in Study 2.2. Therefore, we used the same stimulus materials as in Study 2.1, but we now included men as well as women in our design. In Study 2.2 we also used somewhat different items for our dependent variable of treatment satisfaction. The reason we did this was that in Study 2.1 we measured how satisfied, happy, and dissatisfied participants were with the way they were treated, thus soliciting two very closely related items (satisfaction and dissatisfaction). In correspondence with earlier fair process studies (e.g., Van den Bos & Miedema, 2000), in Studies 2.2 and 2.3 we assessed how satisfied, happy, and glad participants were with the way they were treated.

Study 2.2

Method

Participants and experimental design. Participants were 179 students at Utrecht University (83 men and 96 women). Four male and six female participants were excluded from the analyses, because they were not heterosexual. Like in Study 2.1, we were only interested in heterosexual participants. The design was a 2 (gender: male vs. female) x 2 (status: low vs. high) x 2 (procedure: voice vs. no voice) experimental design. Male and female participants were randomly assigned to one of the four experimental conditions. Participants received 6 Euros for their participation (approximately \$7.30 US).

Experimental procedure. Upon their arrival in the laboratory, participants were seated in separate cubicles. By means of a computer, they read the same scenario as in Study 2.1 and filled in a questionnaire. After this,

participants were debriefed, thanked and paid for their participation.

Manipulation checks. The manipulation of status was checked by asking participants: who had the highest status (1 = *my partner*, 2 = *me*), who earned the most money (1 = *my partner*, 2 = *me*), and who had the most contribution in making the appointment? (1 = *my partner*, 2 = *me*). These three items were summed (3 = low status and 6 = high status) and formed a reliable status scale ($\alpha = .98$). Like in Study 2.1, the manipulation of procedure was checked by asking how fair (1 = *very unfair*, to 7 = *very fair*), just (1 = *very unjust*, to 7 = *very just*), and appropriate (1 = *very inappropriate*, to 7 = *very appropriate*) participants felt about the way they were treated by their ex-partner. The three items were averaged to form a reliable procedural justice scale ($\alpha = .97$).

Satisfaction with treatment. Satisfaction with treatment was measured with three items (Van den Bos & Miedema, 2000). Participants were asked how satisfied (1 = *very dissatisfied*, to 7 = *very satisfied*), glad (1 = *not glad at all*, to 7 = *very glad*), and happy (1 = *very unhappy*, to 7 = *very happy*) they felt about the way they were treated by their ex-partner. The three items were averaged and formed a reliable satisfaction with treatment scale ($\alpha = .97$).

Results and Discussion

Manipulation of status. A 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA on the status manipulation check only yielded a main effect of status, $F(1, 161) = 2055.61, p < .001, \eta^2 = .93$. Participants in the low-status condition reported to have lower status ($M = 3.11, SD = 0.49$) than participants in the high-status condition ($M = 5.94, SD = 0.28$).

Manipulation of procedure. A 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA on the manipulation check of procedure yielded a main effect of procedure only, $F(1, 171) = 443.59, p < .001, \eta^2 = .72$. Participants in the no-voice condition reported less perceived procedural justice ($M = 2.04, SD = 0.68$) than participants in the voice condition ($M = 5.29, SD = 1.23$). Hence, the procedure manipulation was successful.

Satisfaction with treatment. Means and standard deviations of

satisfaction with treatment are displayed in Table 2.2. A 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA showed a main effect of procedure, $F(1, 161) = 660.77, p < .05, \eta^2 = .80$. Participants reported less satisfaction in the no-voice condition than in the voice condition. Furthermore, we found the predicted significant three-way interaction, $F(1, 161) = 3.96, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$. Other effects were not significant. To test whether low-status women showed a stronger fair process effect than high-status women and low- and high-status men, we performed a two-way ANOVA within the low- and the high-status conditions. Within the high-status condition, we only found a main effect of procedure, $F(1, 161) = 315.24, p < .05$. Within the low-status condition, we found a main effect of procedure, $F(1, 161) = 345.86, p < .05$, and a significant two-way interaction between gender and procedure, $F(1, 161) = 5.68, p < .05$. In support of our hypothesis, gender differences in procedural justice occurred only in the low-status condition such that low-status women showed stronger a fair process effect, $F(1, 164) = 244.34, p < .05, \eta^2 = .60$, than low-status men, $F(1, 164) = 120.19, p < .05, \eta^2 = .42$. Results of a contrast analysis further showed that low-status women reacted stronger to the procedure manipulation compared to high-status women and low- and high-status men, $F(1, 165) = 5.67, p < .05, \eta^2 = .03$.

Our results supported our hypothesis that women in low-status positions showed a stronger fair process effect than men in low-status positions, whereas no significant gender differences were found in the high-status condition. Although these results were very promising, the scenario method that we used in Studies 2.1 and 2.2 had some weaknesses. First, participants reported about hypothetical situations. This raised questions about the validity of our results. We do not know for sure whether participants will react the same way in real life. Moreover, participants may have had trouble indicating how they would react in such a situation. One might wonder whether similar results would be obtained when participants directly experience having low or high status. Second, some participants may have had more trouble trying to imagine they were in the described situation than others. Because status was manipulated as

socio-economic status and because women often have a lower socio-economic status than men in real life, the scenario in the low-status woman/high-status man conditions may have made more sense to participants than the scenario in the high-status woman/low-status man conditions.

Table 2.2

Means and Standard Deviations of Satisfaction with Treatment as a Function of Gender, Status, and Procedure (Study 2.2)

	Status			
	Low		High	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
No voice	1.72 (0.50)	1.28 (0.39)	1.84 (0.91)	1.78 (0.58)
Voice	5.02 (1.44)	5.55 (0.63)	5.53 (0.99)	5.30 (1.32)

Note. Means are on 7-point scales with higher means indicating more satisfaction with treatment.

In Study 2.3, we therefore aimed to replicate the results of Studies 2.1 and 2.2 by inducing status and procedural justice in an experimental setting. Furthermore, we used a different status manipulation, that is performance on a task, so that it would not be likely to be confounded with gender-related status expectations like socio-economic status.

Study 2.3

Method

Participants and design. Participants were 156 students at Utrecht University (79 men and 80 women). Following Shaffer, Pegalis, and Bazzini (1996), we presented participants with the prospect of future interaction with another participant to induce the context of potential acquaintance (Berscheid & Regan, 2005). The design of Study 2.3 was a 2 (gender: male vs. female) x 2

(status: low vs. high) x 2 (procedure: voice vs. no voice). Male and female participants were randomly assigned to one of the four experimental conditions. Participants were paid 2 Euros for their participation (approximately \$2.40 US).

Experimental procedure. Participants were placed in separate cubicles. Each cubicle was equipped with a computer from which the participants read and responded to the stimulus information. Participants were led to believe they would be working with another participant in the experiment. In reality, the responses of the other participant were preprogrammed. De Gilder and Wilke (1990) have manipulated status successfully by giving participants bogus feedback on how well they performed on a “contrast sensitivity test”. Following these authors, we used a similar manipulation as De Gilder and Wilke (1990). Contrast sensitivity was described as an ability that is an important predictor of academic development. Participants were presented with a series of pictures of a large square that was filled with small black and white squares. Each picture was shown for five seconds. After each picture was shown, they were asked to estimate the amount of black squares. After two practice trials, participants had to complete the actual task, which consisted of twenty trials. After completing the task, the computer calculated their scores on the contrast sensitivity task. Status was manipulated by means of false feedback on how well participants scored on the task. In the low-status conditions, participants received feedback that they scored rather poorly: Three out of twenty trials were answered correctly and the mean score was between eight and twelve trials. In the high-status condition, participants received feedback that they scored very well: Seventeen out of twenty trials were answered correctly and the mean score was between eight and twelve trials. When the score had been presented to the participant, the computer calculated the score of their partner, which was then presented to the participant. This score was always a score of ten correct trials.

After the contrast sensitivity test and the status manipulation, two new tasks were introduced. The first was a difficult and boring task, the so-called letter counting task (Brockner et al., 1998; Van den Bos, Steiner, Van Yperen,

& Dekker, 2005). In this task, a letter string and a letter field were presented and participants had to count how many times the letter string was presented in the letter field. The second task is known as a nice task in which participants had to remember the colors and the shapes of moving figures. Participants were presented examples of both tasks and were told they had to decide between the two of them who would do which task. In order to decide who would do which task, participants were told that they could exchange messages with their partner. They were then told that their partner had already sent a message to the participant. This message contained the procedure manipulation. In the no-voice condition, participants received the following message: “I think we are supposed to send each other a message about who will do which task. I think we should let the experimenter decide who will do which task. I don’t take your opinion into account. That is why I choose the option “no response”, so you can’t react to my message. I will communicate my preference to the experimenter.” In the voice condition participants received the following message: “I think we are supposed to send each other a message about who will do which task. In that case I am curious what you think about this. I suggest we will let the experimenter decide who will do which task. Do you agree? I choose for the option “response”, so you can send a message back to me.” After reading the message, participants could respond to the message and were asked to fill in a questionnaire. Finally, participants were debriefed, thanked, and paid for their participation.

Manipulation checks. The manipulation of status was checked twice. After participants read the scenario, they had to indicate whether they had low or high status. When they typed the wrong answer they received an automatically generated reply that they typed the wrong answer. This question was posed repeatedly until participants typed the right answer. The same question was posed again at the end of the experiment, but this time participants did not receive feedback after a wrong answer.

Comparable to Studies 2.1 and 2.2, the manipulation of procedure was

checked by asking participants how fair (1 = *very unfair*, to 7 = *very fair*), just (1 = *very unjust*, to 7 = *very just*) and appropriate (1 = *very inappropriate*, to 7 = *very appropriate*) they thought they were treated by their partner. The three items were averaged to form a reliable procedural justice judgment scale ($\alpha = .94$).

Dependent variable. As in Study 2.2, satisfaction with treatment was measured by asking participants how satisfied (1 = *very dissatisfied*, to 7 = *very dissatisfied*), glad (1 = *not glad at all*, to 7 = *very glad*), and happy (1 = *very unhappy*, to 7 = *very happy*) they felt about the way they were treated by their partner. These three items were averaged to form a reliable satisfaction scale ($\alpha = .95$).

Results and Discussion

Manipulation of procedure. A 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA on the manipulation check of procedure yielded a main effect of procedure only, $F(1, 157) = 170.52$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .52$. Participants in the no-voice condition reported less perceived procedural justice ($M = 2.97$, $SD = 1.15$) than participants in the voice condition ($M = 5.48$, $SD = 1.15$). This suggests that the manipulation of procedure was successful.

Satisfaction with treatment. Means and standard deviations of satisfaction with treatment are displayed in Table 2.3. To test our hypothesis, we performed a 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA. We found a main effect of procedure, $F(1, 151) = 173.13$, $p < .05$. Participants were more satisfied in the voice condition than in the no-voice condition. The predicted three-way interaction was not significant, $F(1, 151) = .36$, *ns*. However, Bobko (1986) suggests that in cases of ordinal interactions, an analysis of variance can produce spurious main effects. Theoretically, we proposed that one group (low-status women) differs from the three other groups (high-status women, low-status men, and high-status men) and that these three groups are approximately equal. The solution

proposed by Bobko (1986) is to test a set of two contrasts using analysis of variance. The first contrast tests whether the three groups are equal. The second contrast tests whether the one group is significantly different from the three other groups.

Table 2.3

Means and Standard Deviations of Satisfaction with Treatment as a Function of Gender, Status, and Procedure (Study 2.3)

	Status			
	Low		High	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
No voice	3.03 (1.50)	2.30 (0.74)	2.84 (1.12)	2.95 (1.02)
Voice	5.32 (1.13)	5.35 (1.05)	4.79 (1.23)	5.23 (1.20)

Note. Means are on 7-point scales with higher means indicating more satisfaction with treatment.

As predicted, the first contrast was not significant, $F(1, 114) = .25, ns$. High-status women, low-status men, and high-status men did not differ significantly from each other in their reported satisfaction. The second contrast analysis showed the expected pattern, $F(1, 155) = 4.37, p < .05$. Low-status women showed a stronger fair process effect, $F(1, 154) = 68.86, p < .05, \eta^2 = .31$, than high-status women, $F(1, 154) = 40.96, p < .05, \eta^2 = .21$, low-status men, $F(1, 154) = 40.46, p < .05, \eta^2 = .21$ and high-status men, $F(1, 154) = 27.47, p < .05, \eta^2 = .15$

Our results provide supportive evidence for our predictions. That is, even though we did not find the three-way interaction, our data showed the expected pattern using Bobko's (1986) statistical procedure for testing our hypotheses. In this way, the results of Study 2.3 replicate and extend the results of Studies 2.1 and 2.2. Hence, these results support the robustness of the moderating influence of status on gender differences in reactions to procedural justice.

General Discussion

Based on the close relationships literature, one would expect that women would be more sensitive to procedural justice than men. An explanation given for this gender difference is that women are often more relationally oriented than men. However, little attention is given to nor much empirical support has been found for gender differences in procedural justice in close relationships (for exceptions, see, e.g., Kluwer et al., 2007, Study 2). Furthermore, when attention has been paid to this important issue, inconclusive effects of gender on fair process effects have been found (see, e.g., Kluwer et al., 2007, Study 2; Kulik et al., 1996; Lee & Farh, 1999; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997; Tata & Bowes-Sperry, 1996). In our search for an explanation for the inconclusive results of gender differences in procedural justice (Kluwer et al., 2007, Study 2; Kulik et al., 1996; Lee & Farh, 1999; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997; Tata & Bowes-Sperry, 1996), the procedural justice literature showed that status could serve as a moderator in our framework.

Based on the procedural justice literature, one would expect that low-status individuals would be more sensitive to procedural justice than high-status individuals. However, little research supports the view that low-status individuals are more sensitive to procedural justice. In the current research, we examined whether combining the gender and status predictions derived from the close relationships and procedural justice literatures would reveal that gender and status can in fact moderate reactions to perceived procedural justice. Thus, using an equal number of men and women as participants, we argued that the separate effects of status and gender often may be insufficient to elicit stronger fair process effects, but that a combination of female gender and low status may yield stronger fair process effects than other combinations of gender and status. The research findings of our three studies indeed revealed that women in low-status positions were more sensitive to variations in procedural justice than

women in high-status positions and than men in low- and high-status positions.

Our research results thus suggest that women in low-status positions have a greater need to be treated fairly, to have the opportunity to voice their opinions and to be listened to. Women in high-status positions also cared about procedural justice, but there were no differences with men in low and high-status positions. Apparently, the combination of being a woman, who is more relationally oriented (cf. Kluwer et al., 2007, Study 2) *and* having a low status (cf. Tyler & Lind, 1992) causes them to have a greater concern for social evaluation, making low-status women more susceptible to differences in procedural justice.

Study 2.1 showed support for the relational theory of authority among women. Women in low-status positions showed a stronger fair process effect than women in high-status positions. Study 2.2 replicated the results of Study 2.1, but also showed that women in low-status positions showed a stronger fair process effect than men in low- and high-status positions. To overcome the problems of validity, we conducted Study 2.3, in which participants directly experienced low or high status. Study 2.3 again showed that low-status women were more sensitive to differences in procedural justice than low-status men and high-status women and men.

Study 2.3 showed the expected pattern of results within a context of mere acquaintance in which the participant and an unknown other had to work together on different tasks (Berscheid & Regan, 2005; Shaffer et al., 1996). Although Study 2.3 showed the expected pattern of results, we did not find a significant three-way interaction in that study. This may suggest that the context of close relationships (Studies 2.1 and 2.2) elicits stronger status and gender effects on procedural justice than less intimate contexts (Study 2.3). Even though the three-way interaction was not significant in Study 2.3, we argue that our finding is clearly important as we had a legitimate reason to perform a contrast analysis instead of an analysis of variance (Bobko, 1986). Nevertheless, further research is needed to replicate our findings and to study the possible role

of the closeness of the context. Perhaps this will reveal that the context of close relationships elicits stronger gender by status effects on reactions to procedural justice than other contexts do.

Although the relational model assumes that status differences influence procedural fairness effects, empirical work on this topic has typically reported correlational data (see, e.g., Tyler, 1989, 1994; Tyler & Blader, 2002). In the current study we have reported evidence for the causal order that is most central in the relational model (Tyler & Lind, 1992). Although this does not rule out the possibility that procedural justice affects perceptions of status as well, the present experiments support the prediction that differences in the level of status may influence people's reactions to perceived procedural justice, especially when gender as a moderating variable is taken into account.

Our research also provides an explanation for the study performed by Van Prooijen and colleagues (2005), who did not find differences between low- and high-status individuals on justice judgments. Low- and high-status individuals showed a stronger voice effect compared with the control group. However, they did find larger effect sizes in the low-status conditions than in the high-status conditions (Van Prooijen, personal communication, February, 2004). Perhaps if Van Prooijen et al. would have considered gender as an additional independent variable (including allocating an equal number of men and women to experimental conditions), they would have found significant interaction effects. Van Prooijen and others (personal communication, February, 2004) indeed found a slight trend for the interaction between voice and gender in procedural justice in low-status conditions such that in the low-status conditions, women appeared to show a stronger voice effect than men. The few male participants taking part in the Van Prooijen and colleagues experiment may have caused this trend to be not statistically significant.

Even though status differences often exist between men and women in organizations, gender differences in procedural justice have rarely been observed in organizations. Research by Tata and Bowes-Sperry (1996) and

Sweeney and McFarlin (1997) is an exception, but they did not take the moderating role of status into account. Perhaps the context of an intimate relationship elicits gender differences in procedural justice. This is not surprising, because one of the most fundamental needs of human beings is the need to form and maintain stable relationships (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Given that intimate relationships tend to be closer than work relationships and given the fact that equality is an important determinant of relationship quality, it seems plausible that status inequalities matter more to individuals within close relationships than at work. Hence, the effects of status and gender on procedural justice are probably stronger in romantic relationships than in organizations.

The current research contributes not only to the justice literature, but also to the close relationships literature. Just as the relational theory of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992) has to take gender into account, the close relationship literature about gender differences in procedural justice should take status into account. Our research bridges the two research areas and shows the importance of taking other research areas into account as they can contain valuable information for the research area of interest.

Future research could focus on real status differences in relationships, like when a couple decides to divorce and they want custody over the children. In 80% of the cases, children are assigned to the mother, which puts fathers in a low-status position (Chin-A-Fat & Steketee, 2002; Kitmann & Emery, 1993). Hence, it would be interesting to study this group, in which men naturally have low status, and in which the outcome is of great importance, that is, the custody of your own children. In this situation, it is important that both parties perceive procedural justice. Otherwise, children will be the victim of conflicts between their parents (Amato, 2000).

A necessary follow-up study of the current studies is to test whether relational orientation indeed moderates the relationship between gender and procedural justice. In the current studies, we assumed relational orientation played a role (in combination with low status), but we never tested this in the

current studies. Thus, we should test in a follow-up study whether women are more sensitive to procedural justice, because they are more relationally oriented (Kluwer et al., 2007, Study 2).

Another interesting avenue for future research is that, in addition to individual differences such as relational orientation or situational differences such as status, cognitive differences between men and women could also qualify the gender differences in procedural justice on affective reactions. Recent work on information processing (Pacini & Epstein, 1999) suggests that women have the tendency to process information in a more intuitive way than men. Men on the other hand, tend to process in a more rationalistic way than women. Furthermore, Maas and Van den Bos (2006) showed that people who adopt an intuitive-experiential mindset are more sensitive to procedural justice than people who adopt a rationalistic mindset. Perhaps women in experiential mindsets will show stronger fair process effects than men in experiential mindsets and men and women in rationalistic mindsets.

To conclude, in the current research we aimed to show that status moderates the relationship between gender and procedural justice. Women in low-status positions are especially susceptible to differences in procedural justice, compared to women in high-status positions and men in low- and high-status positions. In three empirical studies, we found support for our hypothesis. Hence, in this chapter we showed that the combination of status and gender plays an important role. It is therefore important to stress that both (low) status and gender are important in explaining the psychology of the fair process effect. The combination of the two is of importance when studying gender differences in procedural justice. Furthermore, it is this combination that often is characteristic of what women in general possess: women are relationally oriented and often have low-status positions. In other words, our research suggests that especially female underdogs respond most strongly to just versus unjust treatment.

Chapter 3

Gender and Procedural Justice in Close Relationships: The Moderating Role of Relational Orientation

John and Jane are involved in an intimate relationship. John has invited some colleagues, including his boss, over for a Saturday night dinner at his place. John promises Jane to help her cooking and cleaning the house. However, at two o'clock, three friends of John drop by and ask John to join them on a short biking trip. Jane is stunned when John agrees to join them. She is furious as John has promised to help her preparing the dinner with his colleagues.

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In this example, Jane feels treated unfairly by John because he breaks his promise. Unfair treatment is a component of procedural justice. Procedural justice refers to the fairness of procedures that precede the allocation of certain outcomes. It can refer to formal procedures such as laws and rules, but also to informal procedures such as being treated with respect and dignity or being given the opportunity to voice one's opinion (e.g., Van den Bos, 2005). When a person is given the opportunity to voice his or her opinion, he or she will perceive the procedures as more fair. This effect is one of the most robust and replicated effects in the justice literature and is called the *voice effect* (e.g., Folger, 1977). Several studies have shown that procedural justice affects human behavior, attitudes, and affective feelings (e.g., Tyler & Lind, 1992; Van den Bos & Miedema, 2000). Another robust and often replicated effect in the procedural justice literature is the *fair process effect*. This effect refers to the finding that people react more positively to outcomes or other events that follow after people have experienced fair as opposed to unfair procedures (e.g., Folger, Rosenfield, Grove, & Corkran, 1979). For example, the way people are treated can buffer the negative effects of a conflict. People are more satisfied with their relationship and more committed to outcomes evolving from a conflict when they are treated fairly than when they are treated unfairly during the conflict (Tyler & Lind, 1992).

Earlier research on justice in close relationship contexts has focused almost exclusively on distributive justice issues and explored how people react to the fairness of outcome distributions (for a review, see, e.g., Kluwer & Mikula, 2002). It could, however, well be argued that procedural justice has strong effects on people's reactions in a close relationship context, because the close relationship context has a strong relational nature (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Tyler (1994) argues that relational motives directly shape procedural justice judgments. Furthermore, the influential *relational model of authority* (Tyler & Lind, 1992) states that relational concerns play a major role in individual differences in sensitivity to procedural justice. Individuals who assign greater

importance to their relationships with others, that is who are relationally oriented, and who strongly believe that relationships should affirm basic moral values are in a vulnerable position as they risk the chance of being exploited by others. To minimize the risk of being exploited by others, individuals seek ways in which the other can be trusted. One way of doing this is by referring to perceptions of procedural justice to assess whether one has been treated in a fair way (Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003).

In the present paper, we therefore argue that individuals with strong relational orientation will be influenced more strongly by procedural justice (i.e., show stronger fair process effects) than individuals with a weak relational orientation. Furthermore, because women are found to be more relationally oriented than men (e.g., Cross & Madson, 1997), our general prediction is that in our relationship studies women will show stronger fair process effects than men.

Relational Orientation

According to the relational model of authority, people care about procedural justice, because it communicates information that is relevant to their sense of self and their identity in relation to others. For example, ample research has shown the positive effects of being given the opportunity to voice one's opinion (e.g., Folger, 1977; Van den Bos & Spruijt, 2002). The relational model explains these positive effects by arguing that presenting people the opportunity to voice their own opinion indicates that they are respected by the party enacting the procedure. When an individual is being treated with respect, he or she infers that the interaction partner values him or her (Tyler, 1994). Being valued by another important person validates a person's identity, self-esteem, and self-respect (Koper, Van Knippenberg, Bouhuijs, Vermunt, & Wilke,

1993). Hence, people acquire and maintain their sense of self-respect through respectful treatment by others (Tyler & Blader, 2002).

Individuals who identify strongly with another person will be more sensitive to the way they are treated by others. Indeed, Tyler and DeGoeij (1995) showed that the more individuals identify with another party, the more they are influenced by the level of procedural justice enacted by the other party. A relevant dispositional trait in this respect is *self-construal*, which reflects the degree of psychological significance people assign to their relationship with others. Individuals who see themselves as interconnected with other people are labeled as people high in interdependent self-construal (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). As relationships with other people are an important part of the identity of individuals with a high level of interdependent self-construal, these individuals will be more sensitive to the way they are treated than individuals with a low level of interdependent self-construal. Indeed, Brockner, De Cremer, Van den Bos, and Chen (2005) showed that individuals high in interdependent self-construal are more sensitive to differences in procedural justice than individuals low in interdependent self-construal.

In their review of the psychological literature about gender and the self, Cross and Madson (1997) demonstrate that many gender differences in cognition, emotion, motivation, and social behavior can be explained in terms of men's and women's different self-construals. Because of different social influences, like upbringing and other socialization processes, men are thought to construct and maintain more independent self-construals, this means that they see themselves as more autonomous and independent of other people, whereas women are thought to construct and maintain more interdependent self-construals (Maccoby, 1990). Indeed, men are found to be less relationally oriented on a dispositional level than women (Cross, Bacon & Morris, 2000; Cross & Madson, 1997; Cross, Morris & Gore, 2002; Gabriel & Gardner, 1999; Stein, Newcomb, & Bentler, 1992). In addition, women perceive their relationship more as part of their own identity than men, suggesting that women

are more relationally oriented than men (Cross & Madson, 1997; Gabriel & Gardner, 1999).

Closely related to the concept of interdependent self-construal is the concept of relational orientation. The difference between the concepts lies in its origin. Interdependent self-construal was meant to differentiate Western and Eastern cultures (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), whereas relational orientation is used in the context of gender differences in close relationships (e.g., Gagné & Lydon, 2003; Romig & Bakken, 1992; White, Speisman, Jackson, Bartis, & Costos, 1986). Nevertheless, interdependent self-construal and relational orientation are often used interchangeably. In the current dissertation, we will use the term relational orientation, because we think relational orientation covers the difference between men and women more in a general way than interdependent self-construal.

Related to this is the literature on agency and communion (Bakan, 1966; Suh, Moskowitz, Fournier, & Zuroff, 2004; Wiggins, 1991). Agency refers to strivings for mastery and power. Traits belonging to agency are assertiveness and dominance. Communion refers to strivings for intimacy and union. Traits belonging to communion are warmth and agreeableness. Translating this to our research purposes, agency focuses on independence whereas communion focuses on harmonious interdependent relationships with others. Agency is seen as a masculine trait, whereas communion is seen as a feminine trait. Indeed, men are found to be more agentic than women, whereas women are found to be more communal than men (Suh et al., 2004).

Thus, research shows that women indeed are more communal and relationally oriented on a general dispositional level than men. As Brockner and colleagues (2005) already pointed out, individuals with higher levels of interdependent self-construals are more sensitive to procedural justice. Following from the relational model and the literature reviewed here, we argue that women are more sensitive to procedural justice, because they are more relationally oriented on a dispositional level than men.

Gender Differences and Procedural Justice

Surprisingly, research on gender differences in procedural justice is scarce. Sweeney and McFarlin (1997) and Tata and Bowes-Sperry (1996) studied gender differences in procedural justice in organizational settings and found that the effects of procedural justice on organizational outcomes, such as job satisfaction, was stronger for women than for men. In a study on the perception of fairness of the division of labor in close relationships, Kluwer, Heesink, and Van de Vliert (2002) found that women's fairness perceptions were related to procedural justice (i.e., voice during discussions about the division of labor), whereas men's fairness perceptions were not. These findings indicate that procedural justice is more important for women than for men. Furthermore, in Chapter 2, we showed that low-status women are more sensitive to procedural justice than low-status men and high-status women and high-status men. However, our line of reasoning was based on the idea that women are stronger relationally oriented on a dispositional level than men. We think it is necessary to test whether this line of reasoning is true, because this will clarify whether and why women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men.

A possible reason why we did not find interaction effects between gender, status and procedure is because the relationship context was not salient. In Studies 2.1 and 2.2 the relationship was not intact and in Study 2.3 we did not use a real close relationship. In the following studies we will test whether we find the interaction effect between gender and procedure in the context of conflict in close relationships.

More specifically, in the present research we aim to clarify whether and why procedural justice is generally more important for women than for men in a close relationship context. This said, we argue that under certain conditions men can be equally sensitive to procedural justice as women. That is, we argue here that men are relationally oriented on a relationship-specific level (Gagné &

Lydon, 2003); their relational orientation therefore depends on the state of their relationship, such that for men their close relationship can be more versus less salient. In contrast, women tend to be relationally oriented on a dispositional level. Thus, for women, their close relationship is salient most of the time. Earlier studies showed that relational orientation makes individuals sensitive to procedural justice (e.g., Brockner et al., 2005). Therefore, we argue that when contextual cues salientize relational orientation, both women's and men's relational orientation is high and therefore, we expect that both women and men then show strong fair process effects. Thus, under conditions of the close relationship being salient, we expect that not only women, but also men will show strong fair process effects.

The Current Research

Building on the above presented line of reasoning, our first and general prediction is that women will react stronger to fair versus unfair procedures than men. However, relational orientation will qualify the moderating role of gender in the relationship between procedural justice and affective feelings. More specifically, under high levels of situational-relational orientation, men and women will show strong fair process effects, under low levels of situational-relational orientation, women will show a stronger fair process effect than men.

In Study 3.1, we test our general prediction that women show a stronger fair process effect than men in a close relationship context. We use a critical incidents method in which respondents recall a conflict with their partner and report on the perceived fairness of the procedure during the conflict. We also measured their affective feelings regarding the treatment by their partner. This method enables respondents to respond from their own experience. In Study 3.2, we use a similar method to test whether men with a high level of relational orientation show a stronger fair process effect than men with a low level of

relational orientation. Men's relational orientation is more susceptible to variations in the identification with the partner at that time, which is dependent on the state and the salience of their relationship. Cross, Morris, and Gore (2000) pointed out that individuals who are high in relationship-specific identification should be more likely to incorporate their partner into their self-construal. Thus, men who are high in relational orientation should probably perceive their partner as part of their identity. Therefore, we used Aron, Aron, and Smollan's (1992) Inclusion of Other in the Self scale (IOS) to measure men's relational orientation.

We acknowledge that the disadvantage of using self-report questionnaires is that we cannot draw conclusions about causality. Therefore, we used a full experimental design to test both predictions in Study 3.3. Following earlier justice studies (Brockner et al., 2005; Van den Bos & Spruijt, 2002), our dependent variables in all studies were feelings of positive affect in the context of relationship conflict. Moreover, in each study we measured positive affective feelings during or following relationship conflicts.

Study 3.1

Method

A survey was conducted among 303 respondents with a heterosexual relationship. We used a critical incidents method (Flanagan, 1954; Yovetich & Rusbult, 1994), asking respondents to describe a recent serious relationship conflict with their partner. After their description of the conflict, respondents were asked to answer questions about the conflict and to indicate the extent to which they experienced positive affective feelings after the conflict.

Respondents and procedure. An initial sample of 317 respondents filled in the survey. Surveys were distributed in three ways: On a large home and

garden fair, on the campus of Utrecht University, and on the internet. Most respondents ($N = 263$) were recruited on the internet.

The data of 14 respondents were excluded from the analyses because they had either broken up with their partner (4 respondents) or because they failed to describe a conflict, and consequently did not answer the questions about the incident (10 respondents). This resulted in a final sample of 127 men and 176 women. Their mean age was 34.8 years ($SD = 11.04$). The respondents' close relationship had an average duration of 9.9 years ($SD = 9.87$). Of the respondents, 19.8% were living apart, 32.7% cohabited, and 47.5% were married. Furthermore, 51.8% of the respondents had children. Of the respondents, 2.6% was lower educated (lower vocational education or less), 43.9% was moderately educated (high school or secondary vocational education), and 52.8% had higher education (higher vocational education or university). The majority of the men (87.4%) and women (75.6%) had a paid job.

Critical incident. Respondents were asked to think of a recent serious issue that they had disagreed about with their partner. Respondents were asked to write down what the conflict was about, what their own and their partner's points of view were, how they dealt with the issue, and how the conflict ended. We asked several descriptive questions about the incident, such as when the conflict took place, how long it took before it was over, how often this type of conflict occurred in the relationship, how serious the conflict was, and what the outcome of the conflict was.

Descriptives. The majority of the described incidents (89.9%) had taken place within the last 3 months. The majority of the incidents (71.4%) were resolved on the same day. The degree of seriousness of the incident ($M = 3.93$, $SD = 2.05$) and the frequency of conflicts like the described one ($M = 3.45$, $SD = 1.67$) were rated around the scale midpoint. The degree to which participants thought themselves as a winner of the conflict ($M = 3.79$, $SD = 1.53$), the degree to which an integrative agreement was reached ($M = 4.15$, $SD = 1.99$) and the

degree to which participants failed to solve the conflict ($M = 3.38$, $SD = 2.43$) were also rated around the scale midpoint. Furthermore, controlling for these descriptive measures in regression analyses did not alter the results and that is why we dropped them from the analyses reported below.

Measures. Procedural justice was measured with the nine items developed for that purpose by Moorman (1991). Examples of the items are “Were you allowed to voice your opinion during the disagreement?”, “Did your partner listen to your point of view?”, “Did you think the way things went during the disagreement was fair?”, and “Were you treated with respect by your partner?” (1 = *not at all*, to 7 = *very much so*). We averaged the items into a reliable scale of procedural justice ($\alpha = .96$). Higher scores indicated more perceived procedural justice during the conflict.

Positive affect after the conflict was measured with four items adapted from Van den Bos and Miedema (2000). The items are: “Were you in a good mood after the incident?”, “Did you feel good about yourself after the incident?”, “Were you proud after the incident?”, and “Were you angry when the incident was over?” (reversed; 1 = *not at all*, to 7 = *very much so*). Participants’ answers to the four items were averaged to form a reliable positive affect after the conflict scale ($\alpha = .83$). Higher scores indicated more positive affect after the conflict.

Results and Discussion

Positive affect after the conflict. We conducted a hierarchical regression analysis for positive affect after the conflict, in which gender (dummy coded) and procedural justice (centered) were entered in Step 1, and the interaction of gender by procedural justice was entered in Step 2 (see Table 3.1). The overall regression model was significant, $F(3, 249) = 99.19$, $p < .001$. The significant main effects of gender and procedural justice showed that men reported more positive affect after the conflict than women and that procedural justice judgments were positively related to positive affect after the conflict. As

predicted, the two-way interaction of gender by procedural justice accounted for unique variance in positive affect after the conflict, $\Delta F(1, 246) = 4.04, p < .05$.

As Aiken and West (1991) suggested, we plotted the predicted means for positive affect after the conflict one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean of procedural justice. Figure 3.1 presents the regression lines for the gender by procedural justice interaction effect on positive affect after the conflict. Simple slope analyses (see Aiken & West, 1991) showed that the slopes of the regression lines for positive affect were more positive for wives, $b = .77, p < .001$, than for husbands, $b = .60, p < .001$. Hence, in support of our hypothesis, the association between procedural justice and positive affect after the conflict was stronger for women than for men. Another way of looking at this graph is that women reported less positive affect after the conflict than men under conditions of low procedural justice, $F(1, 247) = 16.68, p < .001$, and that no gender differences occurred under conditions of high procedural justice, $F(1, 247) = 2.55, ns$. This is in line with other research, which shows that people tend to react stronger to unfair events as opposed to fair events (e.g., Van den Bos & Van Prooijen, 2001).

In sum, in support of our prediction, women showed a stronger fair process effect than men. These findings correspond with the results of earlier research (Kluwer et al., 2002; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997; Tata & Bowes-Sperry, 1996) and are supportive of the line of reasoning that, consistent with the relational model (Tyler & Lind, 1992), procedural justice is important, because it communicates relational information. We obtained evidence for a moderating influence of gender on fair process effects, revealing that the positive relationship between procedural justice and positive affect is stronger for women than for men.

Table 3.1

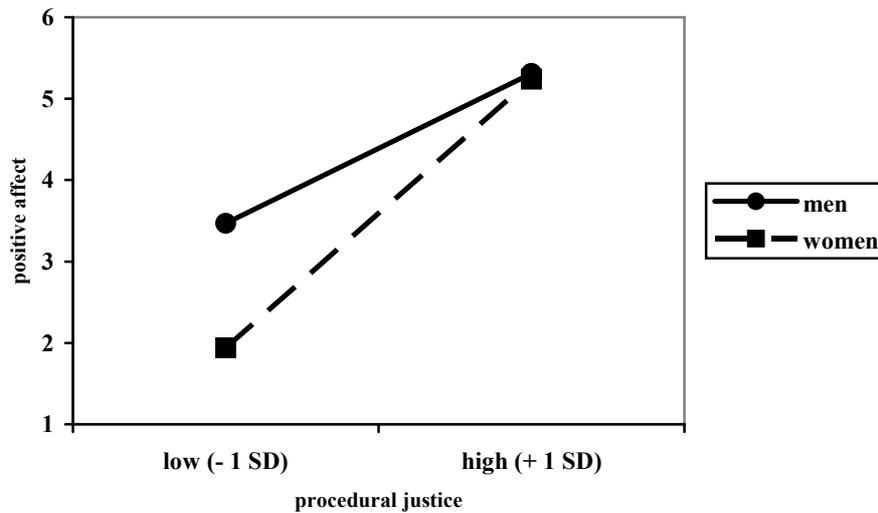
Hierarchical Regression of Positive Affect on Procedure and Gender (Study 3.1)

Independent variables		Positive Affect
<i>Step 1:</i>	Procedure	.56 ^{***}
	Gender	-.51 ^{**}
	ΔR^2	.34 ^{***}
<i>Step 2:</i>	Procedure x Gender	.30 [*]
	ΔR^2	.02 [*]
<i>Total R²</i>		.36

Note: Unstandardized regression-coefficients for the final model are presented (centered data). R^2 -change values are presented for each consecutive step. ^{***} $p < .001$, ^{**} $p < .01$, ^{*} $p < .05$

Figure 3.1

Interaction of procedure by gender on positive affect after the conflict (Study 3.1).



Study 3.2

The aim of Study 3.2 was to extend Study 3.1 in two ways. First, we tested our prediction that differences in reactions to perceived procedural justice are produced by differences in relational orientation. Because men tend to be less relationally oriented on a dispositional level than women, the extent to which men are relationally oriented depends strongly on the salience of their close relationship. Therefore, we predicted that men are more sensitive to procedural justice when they identify strongly with their relationship or when their close relationship is salient (i.e. when they are high in relational orientation), than when men are low in relational orientation (Gagné & Lydon, 2003). To test this prediction, we focused on differences between men low and high in relational orientation in their sensitivity to procedural justice. More specifically, we expected that men with a high relational orientation will show a stronger fair process effect than men with a low relational orientation.

We used the “Inclusion of Other in the Self Scale” (IOS; Aron et al., 1992) to measure relationship-specific relational orientation (cf. Gagné & Lydon, 2003). The IOS was originally designed to tap people’s sense of interpersonal connectedness. The IOS measures the incorporation of a partner’s perspectives, resources, and characteristics into a person’s self-construal (Aron et al., 1992). We used the IOS as a measure of relationship orientation, because the IOS has a great test-retest reliability and has proved to predict how long romantic couples stay together, with no relation to social desirability (Aron et al., 1992; Gagné & Lydon, 2003). The IOS exists of seven pairs of increasingly overlapping circles, one circle representing the participant and the other circle another person. We replaced “the other” by “partner”, because we wanted to measure relational orientation with regard to the current partner instead of an unspecified other. Respondents were asked to indicate which of the seven pairs overlapping circles represented the relationship with his/her partner best. In contrast to relationship orientation questionnaires, the IOS focuses on one

specific relationship and not on relationships in general. This fits our purpose of measuring relational orientation on a relation-specific level (Gagné & Lydon, 2003).

Second, we used a related yet somewhat different dependent variable. In Study 3.1, we focused on positive affect after the conflict and in Study 3.2. We focused on positive affect in a different stage of the conflict, that is positive affect regarding the course of the conflict. Procedural justice will have strong influences on affective reactions regarding the course of the conflict, because procedural justice will be manifested during the course of the conflict.

Method

A survey was conducted among 153 male respondents with a heterosexual relationship. Like in Study 3.1, we used a critical incidents method (Flanagan, 1954; Yovetich & Rusbult, 1994), in which respondents were asked to describe a recent serious conflict with their partner and answer some questions concerning that conflict and their feelings about the way they were treated.

Respondents and procedure. The survey was put on the website of a popular Dutch psychology journal. All respondents were recruited on the internet. The mean age of the respondents was 40.28 years ($SD = 10.52$). The respondents' intimate relationship had an average duration of 12.59 years ($SD = 10.21$). In 54.9% of the cases, respondents were married, 28.6% cohabited, 15.4% lived apart, and 1.1% said their relationship had a different form. Twelve point six percent was lower educated (lower vocational education or less), 56.6% was moderately educated (high school or secondary vocational education), and 29.6% was higher educated (higher vocational education or university). The majority of the respondents (85.2%) had a paid job.

Critical incident. Like in Study 3.1, respondents were asked to think of a recent serious issue that they had disagreed about with their partner and write down what the conflict was about, what their own and their partner's points of

view were, how they dealt with the issue, and how the conflict ended. We asked several descriptive questions about the incident, such as when the conflict took place, how long it took before it was over, how often this type of conflict occurred in the relationship, how serious the conflict was, and what the outcome of the conflict was.

Descriptives. The majority of the described incidents (86.5%) had taken place within the last three months. The majority of the incidents (80.4%) were resolved on the same day. The degree of seriousness of the incident ($M = 3.77$, $SD = 1.84$), the frequency of conflicts like the described one ($M = 3.45$, $SD = 1.58$), the degree to which participants thought themselves as a winner of the conflict ($M = 3.78$, $SD = 1.36$), and the degree to which an integrative agreement was reached ($M = 3.96$, $SD = 1.89$) were rated just below the scale midpoint. The degree to which participants failed to solve the conflict ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 2.30$) was rated below the scale midpoint. Controlling for these descriptive measures in the regression analyses did not alter the results and therefore we dropped them from further analyses.

Measures. We used the “Inclusion of Other in the Self Scale” (Aron, Aron, & Smollan, 1992) as a measure of *relational orientation*. The scale consists of seven pairs of two circles with an increasing degree of overlapping parts. Respondents who indicated having a large overlapping part with their partner, were individuals with a high relational orientation. Furthermore, *procedural justice* was measured with the same 9 items as in Study 3.1 ($\alpha = .96$).

Positive affect regarding the course of the conflict was measured with eight items on a 7-point scale. Negative items such as angry, sad, disappointed, etc. were recoded. Examples of items are: “How happy were you with the course of the conflict?” (1 = *unhappy*, to 7 = *happy*), “How sad were you with the course of the conflict?” (reversed; 1 = *not sad*, to 7 = *sad*). Participants’ answers to the eight items were averaged to form a reliable positive affect

regarding the course of the conflict scale ($\alpha = .94$). Higher scores indicated more positive affect regarding the course of the conflict.

Table 3.2

Hierarchical Regression of Positive Affect on Procedure and IOS (Study 3.2)

Independent variables		Positive Affect
<i>Step 1:</i>	Procedure	.65***
	IOS	.18***
	ΔR^2	.54***
<i>Step 2:</i>	Procedure x IOS	.07*
	ΔR^2	.02*
<i>Total R²</i>		.56

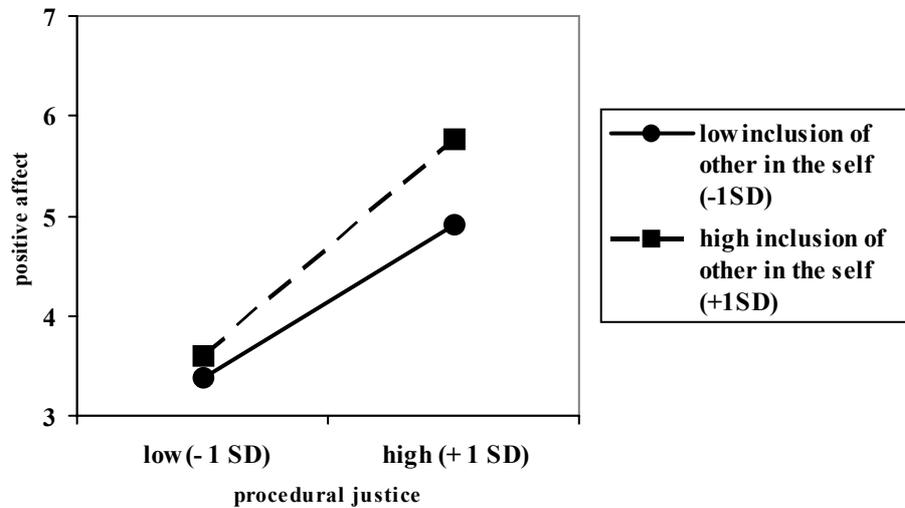
Note: Unstandardized regression-coefficients for the final model are presented (centered data). R^2 -change values are presented for each consecutive step. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Results and Discussion

Positive affect regarding the course of the conflict. We conducted a hierarchical regression analysis for positive affect regarding the course of the conflict, in which procedural justice (centered) and IOS (centered) were entered in Step 1. The interaction term between procedural justice and IOS was entered in Step 2 (see Table 3.2). The total regression model was significant, $F(3, 148) = 62.38, p < .001$. We found significant main effects of both procedural justice and IOS. Our male respondents reported more positive affect following procedural justice than following procedural injustice and men higher in IOS reported more positive affect than men lower in IOS. As predicted, the two-way interaction of IOS by procedural justice accounted for unique variance in positive affect regarding the course of the conflict, $\Delta F(1, 148) = 5.03, p < .05$.

Figure 3.2

Interaction of procedure by inclusion of other in the self on positive affect with the course of the conflict among men (Study 3.2).



Study 3.3

Consistent with the relational model, the results of Study 3.2 showed that men who strongly identified with their partner showed a stronger fair process effect than men who less strongly identified with their partner. Although Studies 3.1 and 3.2 supported our hypotheses, we should note some limitations that were inherent to the critical incident method used in both studies. That is, the measurement of relational orientation and procedural justice were both self-report measures in retrospect. Hence, memories of our respondents may have been distorted and we cannot draw conclusions about the causality of our results. To overcome these problems, we manipulated relational orientation in Study 3.3 and we manipulated whether our participants were confronted with either a fair or an unfair procedural treatment in a scenario

describing a relational conflict. By manipulating both relational orientation and procedural justice, we will have a better understanding of the influence of relational orientation on the sensitivity of men and women to fair and unfair treatment.

In Study 3.3, we manipulated relational orientation by making either the partner salient or by making an unrelated topic (i.e., the study) salient. We expected men to be more susceptible to the manipulation of relational orientation as their relational orientation depends on the salience of their close relationship (Gagné & Lydon, 2003). Women's relational orientation is less dependent of salience of their close relationship; thus, we expected less difference in the sensitivity to procedural justice between the partner-salient and the study-salient condition among women. Accordingly, the manipulation of relational orientation will lead to gender differences in procedural justice in the study-salient condition (i.e., women show stronger fair process effect than men). In the partner-salient condition, men and women will react equally strong to procedural justice.

Procedural justice was manipulated in a scenario in which participants were given versus not given the opportunity to voice their own opinions. Prior research (e.g., Folger, 1977; Van den Bos & Spruijt, 2002; Van den Bos, Vermunt & Wilke, 1996) has shown that when a person is given the opportunity to voice their own opinions, he or she will perceive the procedures as more fair. Moreover, Folger and colleagues (1979) showed that individuals react more positively to outcomes that follow after individuals have experienced fair (e.g., voice) as opposed to unfair (e.g., no voice) procedures. In this study, we will therefore test the fair process effect in such a way that the opportunity to voice opinions will lead to more positive affective reactions about the treatment by the partner than not having the opportunity to voice opinions.

The dependent variable in Study 3.3 focused on a different element of the relationship conflict. We already argued that in close relationships the treatment by the partner is an important indicator of procedural justice. In our

scenario, the partner is the source of the (in)justice. That is why we chose for positive affect with the treatment by the partner as the dependent variable. We expected that men in the study-salient condition will show a weaker fair process effect than women in the study-salient condition, women in the partner-salient condition, and men in the partner-salient condition.

Method

Participants and design. Participants were 216 students of Utrecht University with a heterosexual relationship. Eight female students were excluded from the analyses, because of missing values, so 109 men and 99 women were included in the final dataset. The design was a 2 (gender: male vs. female) by 2 (relationship salience: partner vs. study) by 2 (procedure: no voice vs. voice) between-subjects design. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the four conditions of the manipulated variables (relationship salience and procedure).

Experimental procedure. A questionnaire was conducted among 216 participants with a heterosexual relationship. Surveys were distributed and filled in at fraternities and were collected half an hour later by the experimenter. First, we assigned participants either to the partner-salient condition or to the study-salient condition. In the partner-salient condition, we asked participants to name three ways in which their lives are interconnected with their partner. In the study salient-condition, participants were asked to name three reasons why they had chosen for their study. Subsequently, procedure was manipulated by means of a scenario. Participants read:

“You have a conflict with your partner. The two of you cannot decide what you are both going to do during the weekend. Your partner wants to hang out with some friends. You want to undertake fun activities with your partner.” This was followed by the manipulation of procedure. Participants in the voice condition read the following information:

“During this conflict your partner lets you finish your sentences and listens to you. Subsequently, your partner tells you he/she will consider your point of view.”

In contrast, participants in the no-voice condition read the following:

“During this conflict your partner does not let you finish your sentences and does not listen to you. Subsequently, your partner tells you s/he will decide by him/herself what s/he is going to do in the weekend.”

Next, participants were asked to fill in questions about the way they were treated by their partner.

Dependent variable. Positive affect with treatment was measured with six items on a 7-point scale. Examples of items are: “How happy are you with the way you are treated by your partner?” (1 = *unhappy*, to 7 = *happy*), “How cheerful are you with the way you are treated by your partner?” (1 = *not cheerful*, to 7 = *cheerful*). Participants’ answers to the 6 items were averaged to form a reliable positive affect scale ($\alpha = .94$).

Results

Positive affect with treatment. Means and standard deviations of positive affect with treatment are displayed in Table 3.3. A 2 (gender: men vs. women) x 2 (relational orientation: partner vs. study) x 2 (procedure: voice vs. no voice) analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed a main effect of procedure, $F(1, 158) = 139.18, p < .05, \eta^2 = .47$. Participants reacted more positively to voice ($M = 4.31, SD = 1.28$) as opposed to no-voice procedures ($M = 2.10, SD = 1.21$). Furthermore, the three-way analysis showed a two-way interaction effect between gender and procedural justice, $F(1, 158) = 6.83, p < .05$. In accordance with our line of reasoning, women showed a stronger fair process effect $F(1, 205) = 170.61, p < .01, \eta^2 = .36$, than men $F(1, 205) = 90.07, p < .01, \eta^2 = .23$.

Table 3.3

Means and Standard Deviations of Positive Affect with Treatment as a Function of Gender, Relational Orientation, and Procedure (Study 3.3)

	Relational Orientation Salience			
	Partner		Study	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
No voice	2.16 (0.83)	1.73 (1.45)	2.65 (1.55)	1.73 (0.76)
Voice	4.28 (1.40)	4.48 (1.17)	3.96 (1.10)	4.40 (1.20)

Note. Means are on 7-point scales with higher means indicating more positive affect with treatment.

The predicted three-way interaction was not significant, $F(1, 158) = 0.92, p = .34, \eta^2 = .01$. However, taking a closer look at the study- and partner-salient conditions, results showed the expected pattern. That is, within the study-salient condition, we found a significant procedure effect, $F(1, 162) = 36.60, p < .05, \eta^2 = .18$, and a significant two-way interaction effect between gender and procedural justice, $F(1, 162) = 4.12, p < .05, \eta^2 = .03$. Women showed a stronger fair process effect, $F(1, 78) = 29.94, p < .001, \eta^2 = .28$, than men did, $F(1, 84) = 8.88, p < .01, \eta^2 = .10$. In the partner-salient condition, we only found a significant procedure effect, $F(1, 162) = 63.44, p < .05, \eta^2 = .28$, suggesting that in this condition both men and women reacted with more positive affect following the opportunity to voice their opinion than when they did not have this opportunity.

We predicted that the fair process effect (i.e., differences in positive affect after voice procedures as opposed to no-voice procedures) of the men in the study-salient condition would significantly differ from the fair process effect among men in the partner-salient condition, women in the partner-salient condition, and women in the study-salient condition. In such a case, Bobko (1986) suggested that it is legitimate to test the hypothesis with a contrast analysis. Bobko proposed to test two contrasts using analysis of variance. The

first contrast tests whether the one group (i.e., men in the study-salient condition), is significantly different from the three other groups (i.e., the men in the partner-salient condition and the women in the study and the partner-salient condition). This contrast showed that this was indeed the case, $F(1, 162) = 7.45$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .04$. Men in the study-salient condition showed a smaller fair process effect, $F(1, 161) = 13.08$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .08$, than men in the partner-salient condition, $F(1, 161) = 34.34$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .18$, women in the study-salient condition, $F(1, 161) = 48.43$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .23$, and women in the partner-salient condition, $F(1, 161) = 53.37$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .25$. In sum, responses of men whose relational orientation was not salientized differed significantly from men and women whose relational orientation had been salientized and women whose relational orientation had not been salientized explicitly.

The second contrast tests the equality of the three groups (i.e., women in the partner-salient condition, men in the partner-salient condition and women in the study salient-condition). Following this procedure, our second contrast proved to be non-significant, $F(1, 118) = .91$, *ns*. Hence, the three conditions did not differ from one another. Thus, using this procedure recommended by Bobko (1986), we showed that relational orientation qualified the moderating effect of gender in the relationship between procedural justice and affect.

General Discussion

Our aim of this research was to shed more light on gender differences in procedural justice in close relationships. More specifically, we focused on relational orientation as a possible moderator of gender differences in procedural justice. We argued that women incorporate their relationship in their own identity and are therefore more sensitive to the way they are treated by their partner. Following this line of reasoning, we tested two general hypotheses. In Study 3.1, we tested whether women are indeed more sensitive

to procedural justice than men. In Study 3.2, we tested another element of our line of reasoning, namely whether men's relational orientation interacts with procedural justice, that is whether men would especially show a strong fair process effect when they have a high level of relational orientation. Lastly, in Study 3.3, we tested the second hypothesis, whether relational orientation qualified the relationship between gender and procedural justice on positive affect.

Results of Study 3.1 supported our hypothesis that, in general, women show stronger fair process effects than men. In Study 3.2, results supported our hypothesis that men with higher levels of relational orientation were more sensitive to procedural justice than men with lower levels of relational orientation. In Study 3.3, we manipulated relational orientation and procedural justice. Results indeed showed that the gender difference in procedural justice was qualified by relational orientation. In the lower relational orientation condition, we replicated the results of Study 3.1, that is, women were more sensitive to procedural justice than men. In the higher relational orientation condition, the difference between men and women in the fair process effect was not significant. In other words, women were sensitive to procedural justice regardless of whether they were asked to think about their partner (higher relational orientation condition) or their study (lower relational orientation condition), whereas men were more sensitive to procedural justice when they were asked to think about their partner than when they were asked to think about their study.

In sum, we showed that relational orientation qualified the relationship between procedural justice and gender on positive affective reactions in the context of relationship conflicts. Men with higher levels of relational orientation were as sensitive to procedural justice as women; men with lower levels of relational orientation were less sensitive to procedural justice than men with higher levels of relational orientation and than women.

Our results are in line with the relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992). The relational model of authority connects concerns about justice to concerns about social bonds between people, such as a close relationship. The basic assumption of the relational model is that people have a need to belong to groups. Therefore, people are sensitive to relational information that can confirm their status as a group member (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Women are more relationally oriented on a dispositional level than men and women incorporate their relationship as part of their own identity (e.g., Cross & Madson, 1997). As such, women are sensitive to the way they are treated by their partner, because this treatment contains relational information (e.g., whether her partner views her as an equal interaction partner). The relational model argues that procedures communicate relational information that is relevant for the individual's self-definition. Consequently, information about their relationships should influence the behavioral and affective reactions of women. In our research, we showed that procedural justice indeed had a stronger influence on the affective reactions of women and relationally oriented men than on men with a lower level of relational orientation.

Strengths and Limitations

A particular strength of the current research is that we used two different methodologies (questionnaires and experimental design) and a diverse pool of participants (visitors of a fair, students, visitors of different websites on the internet) that showed similar patterns of findings. Moreover, our pool of participants has included different types of relationships: dating, cohabiting, and married relationships. Furthermore, we showed that positive affect is a robust dependent variable. We used positive affect with a different focus in the conflict in each study as our dependent variable. That is, in Study 3.1, we focused on positive affect after the conflict, in Study 3.2, we focused on positive affect with the course of the conflict, and in Study 3.3, we focused on positive affect with treatment by the partner. All three studies showed converging results. Hence, we are confident about the robustness of the effects.

Our studies also have some limitations. In Studies 3.1 and 3.2, we used self-report questionnaires to establish perceived procedural justice and affective reactions. The disadvantage of using self-report questionnaires is that memories of participants can be distorted and we cannot draw conclusions about the causality of our results. In Study 3.3, we tried to solve this problem by manipulating relational orientation and procedural justice. However, the drawback of our procedural justice manipulation (i.e., a scenario) is that it requires some imagination from the participant. It is a hypothetical situation, which can cause difficulties for participants who cannot identify themselves with the situation. Furthermore, the results of Study 3.3 did not show the expected three-way interaction, although we did find a significant two-way interaction in the low relational orientation condition. However, when we analyzed the results with a contrast analysis (Bobko, 1986), we did find that men who thought about their study showed the weakest fair process effect compared to women in the study-salient condition and men and women in the partner-salient conditions.

Future research should replicate the results found in Study 3.3 to test the robustness of this effect. Furthermore, future research should use a manipulation of procedural justice by treating participants in a just or unjust manner, instead of using self-reports or scenarios. Such a manipulation provides the opportunity to tap affective reactions directly after just or unjust treatment. However, within a close relationship context, it is difficult to make these manipulations convincing to participants, because participants probably know their partner well enough to know whether the (unfair) treatment is manipulated. More importantly, one could question whether such a manipulation is ethical.

In conclusion, the present studies make an important contribution to the understanding of gender differences in procedural justice in close relationships. We showed that women indeed are more sensitive to procedural justice, but primarily when relational orientation is not salient among men. When relational orientation has been made salient, men and women show an equally strong fair

process effect. By thus having studied the qualifying role of relational orientation on gender and procedural justice, we have gained more insight into why and when women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men in the context of close relationships.

Chapter 4

Gender Differences in Procedural Justice and the Role of Experiential Mindsets

Suppose your partner tells you that he or she just bought a new car, without consulting you. How would you react? Most people become frustrated, annoyed, or even angry when the partner decides to do an expensive purchase without consult (Mikula, Scherer, & Athenstaedt, 1998). People become angry and frustrated, when they do not have the opportunity to voice their opinion. The opportunity to voice one's opinion is an important aspect of procedural justice (e.g., Folger, 1977). Thus, when people do not have the opportunity to voice their opinion, they perceive this procedure as unjust.

Procedural justice refers to the fairness of the decision-making process. An important and robust effect within the justice literature is the fair process effect (e.g., Folger, Rosenfield, Grove, & Corkran, 1979). This effect refers to the finding that people react more positively to fair procedures as opposed to unfair procedures. Another important aspect of procedural justice is the interpersonal treatment a person receives (e.g., Greenberg, 1993). For example, whether a person is given the opportunity to voice his or her own opinion.

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People judge a voice procedure as more fair than a no-voice procedure. This robust effect is called the voice effect (e.g., Folger, 1977).

Procedural justice communicates important relational information. Being treated procedurally just means that the person respects you and can be trusted (e.g., Tyler, 1989). Some researchers (e.g., Fehr, 1988; Regan, Kocan, & Whitlock, 1998) regard trust as the most important component of close relationships. Moreover, Fehr (1988) argued that being respected is inevitably linked to love and commitment. Chapters 2 and 3 of the current thesis already showed that perceptions of fairness play an important role in close relationships.

Gender Differences in Procedural Justice

A growing number of studies report findings that support gender differences in procedural justice. These studies show that women place more value on procedural justice than men in diverse contexts (e.g., Kluwer, Heesink, & Van de Vliert, 2002; Kluwer, Tumewu, & Van den Bos, 2007; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997; Tata & Bowes-Sperry, 1996). Sweeney and McFarlin (1997) and Tata and Bowes-Sperry (1996) showed in an organizational context that the relationship between procedural justice and organizational outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) is stronger for women than for men. Chapters 2 and 3, and studies of Kluwer and colleagues (2002, 2007, Study 2) showed that in a relationship conflict context, women place more value on procedural justice than men.

Chapter 2 focused on situational mechanisms underlying the gender differences in procedural justice. More specifically, we studied the influence of social roles and showed that status moderated the relationship between gender and procedural justice on satisfaction regarding the treatment by the partner. Women in low status positions were more sensitive to procedural justice

compared to men in low status positions and men and women in high status positions.

Chapter 3 showed that relational orientation moderates the relationship between gender and procedural justice on affective reactions regarding the treatment by the partner. More specifically, we showed that women's reactions to procedural justice were not influenced by high and low relational orientation manipulations, whereas men's reactions were influenced by the manipulation of relational orientation. Men in the high relational orientation condition were more sensitive to procedural justice than men in low relational orientation condition. Men in the high relational orientation condition reacted equally strong to procedural justice as women in the low and high relation orientation condition.

Apart from differences in social roles (i.e. status) and individual differences (i.e. relational orientation), there are also cognitive differences between men and women that could explain why men and women react differently to procedural justice. We propose that the way men and women process information may influence their reactions to procedural justice. More specifically, we argue that women have the tendency to process information on a more intuitive basis than men and therefore women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men.

Reason versus Emotion

A major debate among philosophers and psychologists has been whether people process information with reason or emotion. Philosophers in the 18th century such as Kant were strongly influenced by the Enlightenment and stated that all knowledge begins with experience, but also that there is nothing higher than reason. On the other hand, philosophers as Hume, argued that

emotion is more important than reason. Hume (1739-1740) even declared that: “Reason is, and ought only to be the slave of the passions, and can never pretend to any other office than to serve and obey them.” Moreover, Hume argued that justice judgments are derived from feelings and not from reasoning.

In the domain of psychology, there also has been a debate between rationalistic (Sabbagh, Dar, & Resh, 1994) and intuitionist models of moral judgments (Haidt, 2001) and justice judgments (Van den Bos, 2003). Haidt focuses on moral judgments and argues that moral judgments are caused by quick moral intentions and are then followed by moral reasoning. Van den Bos (2003) showed indeed that the affective state that people are in before a justice event can strongly influence their justice judgments. It seems to be that the strength of reactions to procedural justice is more dependent on emotional processes than on rationalistic processes.

Cognitive-Experiential Self-theory

Related to the debate between rationalistic versus intuitionist models, Epstein (1994) developed cognitive-experiential self-theory (CEST). According to CEST, people process information by two parallel and interactive systems, namely an intuitive-experiential system and a rationalistic system. The intuitive-experiential system covers an automatic, heuristic, and affective way of information processing. The rationalistic system refers to a logical, analytical, and effortful way of information processing. Although people can rely on both types of information processing, there are important individual differences in the degree to which people rely on a certain mode of information processing.

CEST assumes that experiential mindsets are closely related to affect-related experiences. Following this line of reasoning, individuals who are in an experiential mindset should react more intensely to fairness events, as being

treated procedurally unjust is an affect-related experience (Brockner, De Cremer, Van den Bos, & Chen, 2005; Mikula, Scherer, & Athenstaedt, 1998). Maas and Van den Bos (2006) indeed showed that among people who are inclined to react strongly to affect-related events, those who are put in an experiential mindset react more strongly to differences in procedural justice than those who are put in a rationalistic mindset.

Epstein, Pacini, Denes Raj, and Heier (1996) found that a rationalistic thinking style was strongly related to adjustment and coping ability and that an experiential thinking style was strongly related to the establishment of favorable interpersonal relationships. Other research showed that men are more focused on achievement than women and women are more focused on maintaining interpersonal relationships than men (Suh, Moskowitz, Fournier, & Zuroff, 2004). In line with this, Pacini and Epstein (1999) found that men often rely on a rationalistic way of information processing and that women often rely on an experiential way of information processing.

According to studies by Epstein (1994), women process information in an experiential way and react more from their gut-feeling, which may lead to more extreme responses than men. Men on the other hand process information more in a rationalistic mode, which leads them to reconsider the event and put it more in perspective than women. Women are also found to be more emotionally expressive than men (Kring & Gordon, 1998) which supports the finding of Epstein and others (1996) that women rely on an experiential system of information processing.

Affect Intensity

As we mentioned above, being in an experiential processing mode, will lead people to be more susceptible to affect-related processes, such as

procedural justice. Building on this line of reasoning, we argue that the intensity to which individuals react to daily events should play a crucial role when individuals are in an experiential processing mode. Larsen and Diener (1987) showed that affect intensity can generalize over positive and negative affective domains. Furthermore, they showed that affect intensity is stable over time and consistent across situations. Moreover, Larsen and Diener found that women generally have a higher affect intensity than men.

A study of Van den Bos, Maas, Waldring, and Semin (2003) showed that affective reactions following fair and unfair procedures are moderated by people's tendency to react strongly or mildly toward affect-eliciting events. That is, people high in affect intensity show strong affective reactions following the experience of procedural fairness. Furthermore, Maas and Van den Bos (2006) found that affect intensity moderates people's fairness reactions when they are in an experiential mode of information as opposed to a rationalistic mode of information processing. We propose that affect intensity will moderate the relationship between mindset, gender and procedural justice on affective responses regarding the procedures. More specifically, we predict that women who are in an experiential mindset and have high affect intensity will show stronger affective reactions towards fair versus unfair procedures than women in an experiential mindset with low affect intensity and men in an experiential mindset regardless of their affect intensity.

Current Research

We argue that differences in affect intensity will moderate women's fairness reactions when they have been brought in an experiential (as opposed to rationalistic) mode of information processing. More specifically, we will test whether women with high affect intensity in an experiential mode will show

strong affective reactions toward fair versus unfair procedures. Furthermore, we will exploratively study the effects of rationalistic mindsets and affect intensity on men's affective reactions toward fair and unfair procedures (Study 4.1). We will try to replicate our findings in Study 4.2.

To test our predictions, we conducted two studies in which we manipulated information processing and procedural justice, and measured affect intensity. We induced the information processing mode by explaining one of the two systems of information processing (Maas & Van den Bos, 2006). Half of the participants read about an experiential way of information processing and the other half of the participants read about a rationalistic way of information processing.

We expect a four-way interaction between gender, procedure, mindset, and affect intensity. More specifically, within the experiential condition we expect a three-way interaction in which women with high affect intensity will show the strongest fair process effect compared with women with low affect intensity and men with low and high affect intensity. In the rationalistic condition, we do not expect a three-way interaction between gender, procedure and affect intensity.

As our dependent variable, we used negative affect toward treatment by the partner. Earlier research (e.g., Mikula, Scherer, & Athenstaedt, 1998) showed that procedural injustice elicits negative affective feelings. Weiss, Suckow, and Cropanzano (1999) also argued that emotion as a dependent variable in the justice literature is informative. They state that within justice research: "emotion is the central mechanism through which a sense of unfairness is translated into (...) behavior."

Study 4.1

Method

Participants and design. Two hundred and fifty-nine students (133 men and 126 women) enrolled in our experiment. The experiment lasted about 35 minutes and participants were paid 4 Euros for their participation. Participants first filled out the Affect Intensity Measure (AIM, Larsen et al., 1986) and were then randomly assigned to one of the conditions of a 2 (mindset: experiential vs. rationalistic) x 2 (procedure: voice vs. no voice) between-subjects design.

Experimental procedure. Upon arrival at the laboratory, participants were led to one of 14 separate cubicles, that were each equipped with a computer. The instructions of the experiment were presented on the computer screen. Participants were informed that they would participate in three separate studies. In the first study, participants were asked to fill in the Affect Intensity Measure (AIM; Larsen et al., 1986), which consisted of 40 items. Examples of items are: “When I accomplish something difficult I feel delighted or elated” and “Seeing a picture of some violent car accident in a newspaper makes me feel sick to the stomach” (1 = *never*, 7 = *always*, $\alpha = .85$).

After participants had completed the AIM, the second study was introduced. In the second study, we manipulated participants’ mindsets (Maas & Van den Bos, 2006). Depending on the condition, participants received information that constituted our operationalization of the experiential or the rationalistic conditions.

Participants in the *experiential condition* read: “Various studies showed that people process information they read in several ways. Important and often used ways are having many associative thoughts while reading, connecting the content to own experiences and visualizing what is described while reading. Based on intuition, gut feelings, impulsive creativity, own experiences, and associations evoked by the information read, people form their opinions about

the information. Terms used to express their opinions are expressive and impulsive in nature; people say what they think and what is on their hearts”.

Participants in the *rationalistic condition* read: “Various studies showed that people process information they read in several ways. An important and often used way is reading the text carefully and weighing the pros and the cons in a logical and analytical way. Based on logical evidence and precise processing of the information read, people form their opinions about the information. Terms used to express opinions in this way are for example “On the one hand . . . and on the other hand”.

Subsequently, participants were asked to think for 45 seconds how they would read, process, and react to information when they were in the above described state of mind. Participants were then asked to write down what the first thought was that came to mind when they would process the information they just read in an intuitive (vs. a rationalistic) way. The descriptions participants gave were indeed examples of the manipulated mindset. An example of the experiential condition: “I try to imagine myself in a story and try to visualize that story”. An example of the rationalistic condition: “First, I pick out the essential points of a story, then I categorize them and evaluate them in order of importance”. After this, participants were asked to read a story and to react toward that story according to the mindset they had just read about. This story has already been used in a study by Maas and Van den Bos (2006). These authors successfully showed that a student population of participants reacted to this story in either experiential or rationalistic ways. Participants read:

“Vera and Mark are brother and sister. They are traveling together around Thailand on summer break. One night they are staying alone in a cottage near the beach. Jointly they decide that it would be interesting and fun if they tried making love. At the very least it would be a new experience for both of them. Vera was already taking birth control pills for some time, but Mark uses a condom too, just to be safe. They both equally enjoy making love, but they

decide not to do it again. They keep that night to themselves as a special secret, which makes them feel even closer to each other than they already were.”

The original story was of Haidt (2001), and the adjusted version used here was made by Maas and Van den Bos (2006). Participants were asked to process the information in the story according to the just manipulated mindset. They were asked the following questions: “What do you think of this situation? Was it a proper decision of Vera and Mark to make love?” and “What do you think of Vera and Mark?”.

In the third study that made up this experiment, participants were asked to read a scenario comparable to what we used in Chapter 2. In this scenario, the procedure manipulation was induced. Participants read:

“You have been involved in a relationship for two years. Lately things have been getting worse in your relationship. You both decide to end the relationship. However, you still have to divide your joint possessions.”

This was followed by the manipulation of procedure. Participants in the voice conditions read the following information:

“When you call your ex-partner to make an appointment to pick up your belongings, it soon becomes clear that your ex-partner is willing to give you voice in setting a date for the appointment. Your ex-partner patiently lets you finish your sentences and listens to what you have to say.”

In contrast, participants in the no-voice condition read the following:

“When you call your ex-partner to make an appointment to pick up your belongings, it soon becomes clear that your ex-partner is not willing to give you voice in setting a date for the appointment. Your ex-partner does not let you finish your sentences and interrupts you all the time. Hence, your ex-partner does not listen to what you have to say.”

After the scenario, the manipulation checks and dependent variables were measured.

Manipulation checks of mindset. The mindset manipulation was checked with various questions about the way participants read the story of

Vera and Mark. Participants were asked whether they thought thoroughly before reacting when reading the text about Vera and Mark, whether they weighed and pondered upon their answers before reacting, whether they reacted intuitively, whether they reacted impulsively and typing in the first thing that came to mind (all 1 = *certainly not*, to 7 = *certainly*), and whether they answered more in an analytical and rationalistic way or an intuitive and impulsive way (1 = *very analytical and rationalistic*, to 7 = *very intuitive and impulsive*). After we recoded the first two items, we averaged the five items into a reliable scale to check our mindset manipulation ($\alpha = .85$). Higher scores indicated a more experiential mindset.

Manipulation check of procedure. The manipulation of procedure was checked in two ways. First, we asked two questions about the scenario as a check whether they understood the situation: “I was allowed to voice my own opinion regarding the date of the appointment” (1 = *yes*, 2 = *no*), and “My ex-partner was interested in my opinion regarding the date of the appointment” (1 = *yes*, 2 = *no*). When participants gave the wrong answer, we excluded their data from our analyses, because answering these two simple questions wrong indicated that participants did not read the material accurately. In our case, 3.1% of the participants (six men and two women) did not give the right answer to our two questions. This resulted in 124 female and 127 male participants in our dataset that were equally distributed over conditions.

Secondly, the manipulation of procedure was checked by asking the participants how fair (1 = *very unfair*, to 7 = *very fair*), deserved (1 = *very undeserved*, to 7 = *very deserved*), just (1 = *very unjust*, to 7 = *very just*), legitimate (1 = *very illegitimate*, to 7 = *very legitimate*), right (1 = *not right at all*, to 7 = *very right*), and justified (1 = *very unjustified*, to 7 = *very justified*) they had been treated by their ex-partner. These six items were averaged to form a reliable check on the manipulation of procedure ($\alpha = .99$).

Dependent variable. Negative affect toward treatment by the partner was measured with five items on a 7-point scale. Participants’ answers to the

five items were averaged to form a reliable negative affect toward treatment scale ($\alpha = .86$). The items were: “How sad are you with the way you were treated by your ex-partner?” (1 = *sad*, to 7 = *not sad*), “How disappointed are you with the way you were treated by your ex-partner?” (1 = *disappointed*, to 7 = *not disappointed*), “How perplexed are you with the way you were treated by your ex-partner?” (1 = *perplexed*, to 7 = *not perplexed*), “How dissatisfied are you with the way you were treated by your ex-partner?” (1 = *dissatisfied*, to 7 = *not dissatisfied*), and “To what extent are you in a negative mood with the way you were treated by your ex-partner?” (1 = *in a negative mood*, to 7 = *not in a negative mood*). We recoded these items, so higher scores indicate stronger negative affect.

Results

Manipulation checks. The manipulation of mindset was checked with a regression analysis in which gender (effect-coded), AIM (centered), mindset (effect-coded), and procedure (effect-coded) were entered as predictors. Results showed a significant main effect of mindset, $\beta = -.63$, $t(236) = -11.71$, $p < .001$, indicating that participants in the experiential mindset condition reacted in a more experiential way ($M = 4.89$, $SD = 1.03$) than participants in the rationalistic mindset condition ($M = 3.22$, $SD = 1.16$). Hence, we can conclude that our mindset condition was induced as intended. Furthermore, we found a main effect of gender, $\beta = .11$, $t(236) = 2.03$, $p < .05$, indicating that women reacted in a more experiential way ($M = 4.21$, $SD = 1.39$) than men ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 1.35$). This gender effect is in accordance with our line of reasoning that women would react in a more experiential way than men would (cf. Pacini & Epstein, 1999). Next to these main effects, we also found a two-way interaction between gender and mindset, $\beta = -.11$, $t(236) = -2.18$, $p < .05$, indicating that women, $F(1, 122) = 120.72$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .50$, showed stronger reactions on experiential and on rationalistic items than men did, $F(1, 125) = 44.49$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .26$. This interaction effect is also in accordance with our line of reasoning,

because the gender effect is stronger in the experiential condition, $F(1, 248) = 6.61, p < .05, \eta^2 = .03$, than in the rationalistic condition, $F(1, 248) = 0.15, p < .69, \eta^2 = .00$. Women reported stronger reactions in the experiential condition ($M = 5.20, SD = 0.77$) than men ($M = 4.56, SD = 1.15$). In the rationalistic condition, the difference between women ($M = 3.25, SD = 1.16$) and men ($M = 3.18, SD = 1.17$) was small. Because women have the tendency to process information in an experiential way, being placed in an experiential condition will be familiar for them.

The manipulation of procedure was checked with a regression analysis in which gender (effect-coded), AIM (centered), mindset (effect-coded), and procedure (effect-coded) were the predictors. Results showed a significant main effect of procedure, $\beta = -.91, t(236) = -32.55, p < .001$, indicating that participants in the voice condition perceived more opportunity to voice their own opinion ($M = 5.80, SD = 0.93$) than participants in the no-voice condition, ($M = 1.92, SD = 0.83$). Hence, the procedure condition was induced as intended. We also found a significant two-way interaction between gender and procedure, $\beta = -.06, t(236) = -2.20, p < .05$, indicating that women, $F(1, 122) = 760.05, p < .001, \eta^2 = .86$, showed a stronger procedure effect than men, $F(1, 125) = 495.82, p < .001, \eta^2 = .80$. This is in line with the results described in Study 3.1.

Negative affect toward treatment. To test our hypothesis, we conducted a hierarchical regression-analysis for negative affect toward treatment, in which the main effects of gender (effect-coded), AIM (centered), procedural justice (effect-coded), and mindset (effect-coded) were entered in Step 1. The two-way interaction terms were entered in Step 2. The three-way interaction terms were entered in Step 3. The four-way interaction term between gender, procedural justice, AIM, and mindset was entered in Step 4 (see Table 4.1). The total regression model was significant, $F(14, 203) = 2.90, p < .001$. We found a main effect of procedure, indicating that participants reported more negative affect with the way they were treated by their ex-partner when they received no-voice than when they receive voice. Furthermore, we found a significant three-way

interaction between mindset, AIM, and procedure. Moreover, as predicted, the four-way interaction of gender by mindset by AIM by procedure accounted for unique variance in negative affect toward treatment, $\Delta F(1, 203) = 20.63, p < .001$.

To get better insight into these effects, we conducted regression analyses with AIM, gender, and procedure as predictors in both the experiential and rationalistic conditions. The experiential condition yielded a three-way interaction between gender, AIM, and procedure, $\beta = -.32, t(115) = -2.73, p < .01$. The other effects were not significant. The rationalistic condition yielded a main effect of procedure, $\beta = -.21, t(120) = -2.27, p < .05$, and also a three-way interaction between gender, AIM, and procedure, $\beta = .32, t(120) = 3.46, p < .001$.

We further analyzed the three-way interactions in the experiential and rationalistic conditions. In the experiential condition, a regression analysis showed a two-way interaction between AIM and procedure among women, $\beta = -.40, t(57) = -3.22, p < .01$. This indicated that women showed stronger fair process effects under high levels of affect intensity, $\beta = -.59, t(57) = -3.62, p < .01$, than under low levels of affect intensity, $\beta = .32, t(57) = 1.54, p = .13$. Within the experiential condition among men, there were no significant effects, $t_s < 0.66, ns$.

In the rationalistic condition, a regression analysis showed a two-way interaction between procedure and AIM among women, $\beta = .29, t(59) = 2.04, p < .05$. However, the procedure effect for participants with low levels of AIM, $\beta = -.39, t(59) = -1.60, p = .12$, and the procedure effect for participants with high levels of AIM, $\beta = .19, t(59) = 1.28, p = .21$ were not significant. Among men in the rationalistic condition, the regression analysis showed a main effect of procedure, $\beta = -.32, t(61) = -2.67, p < .05$, indicating that no-voice led to more negative affect than voice. The findings also showed a two-way interaction between AIM and procedure, $\beta = -.35, t(61) = -2.95, p < .01$, indicating that under high levels of affect intensity, $\beta = -.65, t(61) = -3.60, p < .01$, men

Table 4.1

Hierarchical Regression of Negative affect on Gender, Affect intensity, Mindset, and Procedure (Study 4.1)

Independent variables		Negative affect
Step 1:	Gender	-.00
	Affect intensity	-.06
	Mindset	.05
	Procedure	-.13**
	ΔR^2	.03
Step 2:	Gender x Affect intensity	-.10
	Gender x Mindset	-.08
	Gender x Procedure	.05
	Affect intensity x Mindset	.00
	Affect intensity x Procedure	-.10
	Mindset x Procedure	-.03
	ΔR^2	.04
Step 3:	Gender x Affect intensity x Mindset	-.08
	Gender x Affect intensity x Procedure	.03
	Gender x Mindset x Procedure	.04
	Affect intensity x Mindset x Procedure	.15*
	ΔR^2	.02
Step 4:	Gender x Affect intensity x Mindset x Procedure	.40***
	ΔR^2	.08***
<i>Total R²</i>		.36

Note: Unstandardized regression-coefficients for the final model are presented (centered data). R^2 -change values are presented for each consecutive step. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

showed stronger fair process effects than under low levels of affect intensity, $\beta = .02$, $t(61) = 0.14$, $p = .89$.

Figure 4.1a shows the regression lines of men and women with low (-1 SD) and high (+1 SD) affect intensity in an experiential mode on negative affect toward treatment. The lines show that among men, the level of affect intensity does not influence men's affective reactions. Whereas among women, the level of affect intensity does influence women's affective reactions. Under low levels of affect intensity, the fair process effect is not significant, whereas the fair process effect is significant under high levels of affect intensity.

We expected gender differences in the experiential condition in such a way that women with high affect intensity would show the strongest fair process effect. The results support this hypothesis: In the experiential condition, the difference between voice and no-voice is the strongest among women with high affect intensity.

Figure 4.1b shows the regression lines of men and women with low and high affect intensity in a rationalistic mode on negative affect toward treatment. The lines show that among men, affect intensity does influence their affective reactions. Under low levels of affect intensity, men do not show a fair process effect, whereas under high levels of affect intensity men show a strong fair process effect. Furthermore, the lines show that among women, the level of affect intensity does not significantly influence their affective reactions.

Figure 4.1a

Interaction of procedure by gender by affect intensity on negative affect in the experiential condition (Study 4.1).

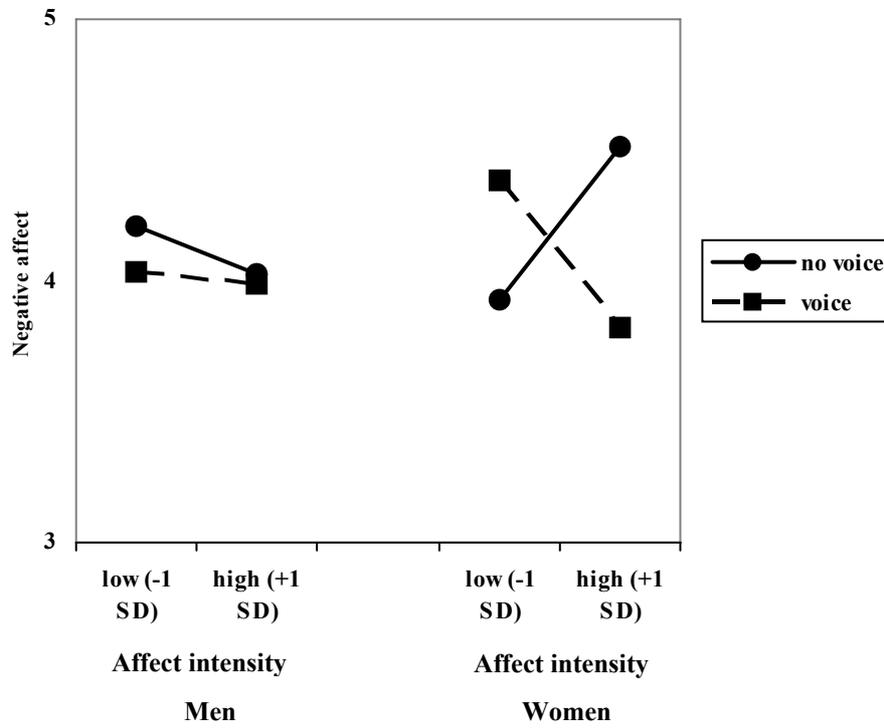
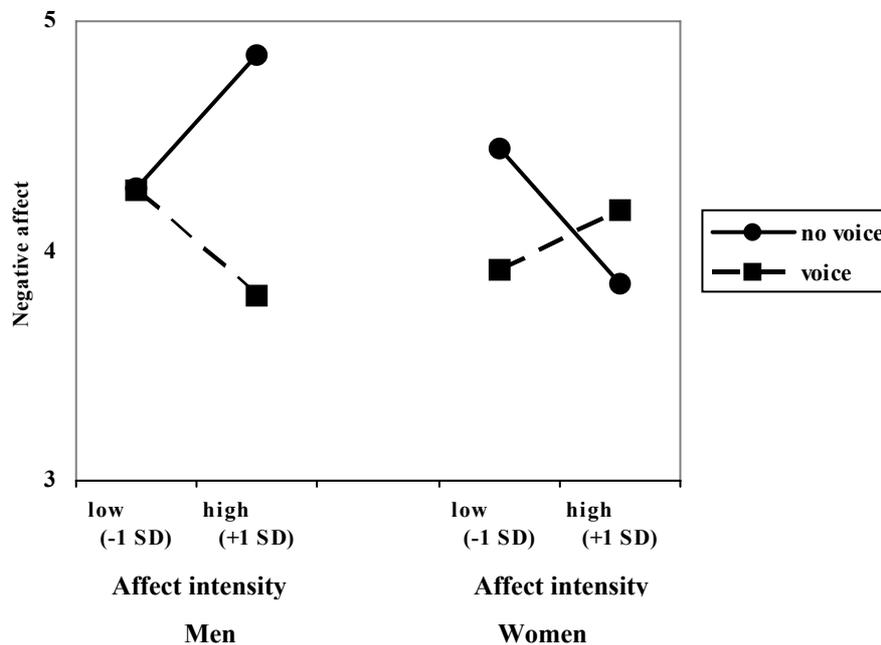


Figure 4.1b

Interaction of procedure by gender by affect intensity on negative affect in the rationalistic condition (Study 4.1).



Taking a look at the rationalistic condition, however, a striking result can be seen among men with high affect intensity. Within the rationalistic condition, men with high affect intensity showed the strongest fair process effect compared to women with high affect intensity and men and women with low affect intensity. Although we exploratively studied the effects of rationalistic mindsets on procedural justice and their affective reactions, we did not expect such a strong interaction effect of affect intensity and procedural justice. Especially because experiential mindsets are known to elicit strong affective reactions toward an affect eliciting event, whereas rationalistic mindsets are not known for these strong reactions. Also, Maas and Van den Bos (2006) did not find effects of rationalistic mindsets with high affect intensity on procedural justice and affective reactions in their studies.

Discussion and Introduction to Study 4.2

Results of Study 4.1 indicate that within the experiential condition, women with high affect intensity showed a stronger fair process effect than women with low affect intensity and men with low and high affect intensity. Thus, our main hypothesis was supported. Although we did not have expectations about the rationalistic condition, we found that men with high affect intensity showed stronger fair process effects than men with low affect intensity and women with low and high affect intensity.

In Study 4.2, we tried to replicate our main finding of Study 4.1, showing that women in the experiential condition with high affect intensity showed the strongest fair process effect compared to women with low affect intensity and men with low and high affect intensity in the experiential condition. We therefore expected a four-way interaction between gender, mindset, affect intensity, and procedure. Before drawing strong conclusions on the basis of the unexpected finding in the rationalistic mindset condition, an additional aim of Study 4.2 was to investigate whether the finding that men with high affect intensity with rationalistic mindsets show strong fair process effects is a robust effect.

Study 4.2

In Study 4.2, we used the same method to measure affect intensity and to manipulate mindset. We also used the same dependent variable. The main differences between Studies 4.1 and 4.2 were the population and the scenario in which we manipulated procedural justice. The sample consisted of students of Delft University of Technology. The field of technology deals with analytical and abstract principles. We aimed to show that even women in an analytical and abstract environment will show the strongest fair process effects in the

experiential condition when having high affect intensity. Another reason why we chose another population is that these participants are not used to participate in justice research. The students of Utrecht University are familiar with justice research. The reason we used another scenario was that in the scenario of Study 4.1, the relationship has ended, while we think it is also interesting to study a conflict in a close relationship which is intact. Therefore, following Chapter 3, we used a scenario about a weekend-leisure conflict.

Method

Participants and design. One hundred and fifteen students (77 men and 48 women) at Delft University of Technology participated in the experiment. The experiment lasted approximately 35 minutes and participants were paid 4 Euros for their participation. The design was a 2 (gender: female vs. male) by 2 (mindset: experiential vs. rationalistic) by 2 (procedure: voice vs. no-voice).

Experimental procedure. Upon arrival at the laboratory, participants were led to one of the six computers. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the conditions of a 2 (mindset: experiential vs. rationalistic) x 2 (procedure: voice vs. no-voice) design. Instructions were presented on the computer screen. In correspondence with Study 4.1, participants were informed that they would participate in three separate studies.

The measurement of affect intensity ($\alpha = .84$) and the manipulation of mindset were done in the same way as in Study 4.1. We manipulated procedure with a scenario that read:

“You have a conflict with your partner. The two of you cannot decide what you are both going to do during the weekend. Your partner wants to hang out with some friends. You want to undertake fun activities with your partner.” This was followed by the manipulation of procedure. Participants in the voice condition read the following information:

“During this conflict your partner lets you finish your sentences and listens to you. Subsequently, your partner tells you he/she will consider your point of view.”

In contrast, participants in the no-voice condition read the following:

“During this conflict your partner does not let you finish your sentences and does not listen to you. Subsequently, your partner tells you s/he will decide by him/herself what s/he is going to do in the weekend.”

This was followed by the dependent measures and the manipulation checks.

Manipulation checks. The manipulations of mindset and procedure were checked in the same way as in Study 4.1. First of all, we checked whether participants understood the scenario. In this study, 8.7 % of the participants gave wrong answers to the two questions (whether participants were allowed to voice their opinion and whether the partner was interested in the participant’s opinion) and therefore their data were excluded from our analyses. This left 70 male participants and 45 female participants for further analyses. Secondly, the manipulation of mindset was checked by the same five questions as in Study 4.1 ($\alpha = .81$) and the manipulation of procedure was checked by the same six questions as in Study 4.1 ($\alpha = .98$).

Dependent variable. We used the same dependent variable as in Study 4.1, namely negative affect toward treatment. Negative affect toward treatment was measured with the same five items as in Study 4.1 ($\alpha = .89$).

Results

Manipulation checks. The manipulation of mindset was checked with a regression analysis in which gender (effect-coded), AIM (centered), mindset (effect-coded), and procedure (effect-coded) were entered as predictors. Results showed a significant main effect of mindset, $\beta = .67$, $t(99) = 7.44$, $p < .001$, indicating that participants in the experiential mindset condition reacted in a more experiential way ($M = 4.82$, $SD = 0.90$) than participants in the rationalistic mindset condition ($M = 3.20$, $SD = 0.89$). Hence, our mindset

manipulation was induced as intended. Furthermore, we found a significant three-way interaction between mindset, gender, and procedure, $\beta = .22$, $t(99) = 2.49$, $p < .05$. Further analyses showed that women showed a main effect of mindset only, $\beta = .64$, $t(37) = 4.28$, $p < .001$. Men, on the other hand, showed next to a main effect of mindset, $\beta = .68$, $t(62) = 6.75$, $p < .001$, also a two-way interaction between mindset and procedure, $\beta = -.31$, $t(62) = -3.08$, $p < .01$. This indicates that among men in the voice condition, the main effect of mindset on the mindset manipulation check was stronger, $\beta = .92$, $t(32) = 7.86$, $p < .01$, than in the no-voice condition, $\beta = .41$, $t(30) = 2.35$, $p < .05$.

A possible explanation for this finding could be that the manipulation checks were measured at the end of the experiment. In the voice condition, participants showed less negative affect than participants in the no-voice condition. Because these participants did not experience negative affect, they could accurately point out their mindset. However, participants in the no-voice condition had negative affect and their negative state may have interfered with their accuracy to point out their mindset (Frank, 1988). Clearly, future research is needed to further examine this finding and other possible explanations.

The manipulation of procedure was checked with a regression analysis. Results showed a significant main effect of procedure only, $\beta = .79$, $t(109) = 10.86$, $p < .001$, indicating that participants in the voice condition perceived more opportunity to voice their own opinion ($M = 5.34$, $SD = 1.28$) than participants in the no-voice condition, ($M = 2.60$, $SD = 1.00$). Hence, our procedure manipulation was induced as intended.

Negative affect toward treatment. We conducted a hierarchical regression analysis for negative affect toward treatment, in which gender (effect-coded), affect intensity (centered), mindset (effect-coded), and procedure (effect-coded) were entered in Step 1. The two-way interaction terms were entered in Step 2. The three-way interaction terms were entered in Step 3. The four-way interaction term between gender, procedure, affect intensity, and mindset was entered in Step 4. Unfortunately, the four-way interaction was not

significant. However, the three-way interaction between gender, procedure, and mindset was significant, and in the subsequent analyses we focused on this interaction effect.

Because all the independent variables were at nominal levels, we analyzed the data with an analysis of variance. Means and standard deviations of negative affect toward treatment are displayed in Table 4.3. To test whether women in an experiential mode showed a stronger fair process effect than women in a rationalistic mode and men in an experiential and rationalistic mode, we performed a two-way ANOVA within the rationalistic and experiential condition. Within the experiential condition, we found a main effect of procedure, $F(1, 56) = 71.97, p < .01, \eta^2 = .56$, and a two-way interaction between gender and procedural justice, $F(1, 56) = 4.79, p < .05, \eta^2 = .08$. This indicates that women showed a stronger fair process effect, $F(1, 23) = 48.33, p < .001, \eta^2 = .68$, than men, $F(1, 33) = 23.96, p < .05, \eta^2 = .42$. Within the rationalistic condition, we only found a main effect of procedure, $F(1, 51) = 13.83, p < .001, \eta^2 = .21$. Furthermore, results of a contrast analysis showed that women in the experiential condition showed a stronger fair process effect than women in the rationalistic condition and men in the experiential and the rationalistic conditions, $F(1, 111) = 7.33, p < .01, \eta^2 = .06$.

Discussion

In Study 4.2, we aimed to replicate our findings of Study 4.1. We expected a four-way interaction between gender, procedure, mindset, and affect intensity. We expected that women in an experiential mode and with high affect intensity would be most sensitive to differences in procedural justice. Unfortunately, we did not find significant effects of affect intensity. Nevertheless, the regression analysis showed a significant three-way interaction of gender by mindset by procedure on negative affect. More specifically, women in an experiential mode were more sensitive to procedural justice than

women in a rationalistic mode and men in an experiential or rationalistic mode. The unexpected finding in Study 4.1 was that within the rationalistic condition men with high affect intensity showed the strongest fair process effect. This finding was not replicated in Study 4.2.

In both studies, we showed that among women, those who were in an experiential mode, were more sensitive to procedural justice than those who were in a rationalistic mode (Study 4.2). In Study 4.1, we could identify the role of affect intensity within the experiential condition, showing that women with high affect intensity showed a stronger fair process effect than women with low affect intensity.

General Discussion

In the current research we aimed to provide more insight in why men and women react differently to procedural justice. We argued that cognitive differences between men and women may influence the sensitivity to procedural justice. Women have the tendency to process information in an experiential way, which makes them more susceptible to affect-related event such as procedural justice. We also focused on affect intensity: The intensity with which people react to daily-life events could influence the relationship between gender, mindset, and procedural justice on affective reactions.

The current research showed that women who processed information in experiential ways showed the strongest fair process effects. In Study 4.1, we found that affect intensity moderated the relation between gender and procedural justice within the experiential condition. The results of Study 4.2 showed that affect intensity did not have a moderating influence. Women in the experiential condition were more sensitive to procedural justice than women in the rationalistic condition and men in the experiential or rationalistic condition.

Both studies showed that mindset qualified the relationship between gender and procedural justice on affective reactions toward treatment by the partner. Especially, the experiential mindset seemed of importance among women as strong negative affective reactions towards the treatment by the partner were elicited. An unexpected finding in Study 4.1 was that among men who adopted a rationalistic mindset, strong negative affective reactions towards the treatment by the partner were also elicited. However, this finding was not replicated in Study 4.2.

Next to the effects of the mindset manipulation, we were also interested in the role of affect intensity. Because the experiential mindset has a strong affective component, affect intensity could play a crucial role in the qualifying effect of mindset on the relationship between gender and procedural justice on affective reactions. In Study 4.1, we indeed successfully showed the role of affect intensity among women who adopted an experiential mindset. However, we also found an effect of affect intensity among men who adopt a rationalistic mindset. In Study 4.2, these effects were not replicated. A possible explanation for the different findings is that the role of affect intensity is a subtle one, which is sensitive to differences in the participants' pool.

Strengths and Limitations

A particular strength of the current research is that we were able to show the predicted effects in two different settings. We showed that at Delft University of Technology women who are in an analytical environment, still report stronger fair process effect when they adopt an experiential mindset than women who adopt a rationalistic mindset. Furthermore, we showed that the effects of experiential mindsets among women are robust. In both studies we found support for the influence of experiential mindsets for women, leading to strong fair process effects. The effects of experiential mindsets are consistent with the results of Maas and Van den Bos (2006).

Limitations of the present research were the inconsistent findings of affect intensity found in our two experiments and the three-way interaction

within the rationalistic condition of Study 4.1. We can only speculate about why men with high affect showed strong fair process effects intensity in the rationalistic condition. A possible explanation could lie in the two different participant pools (non-technical vs. technical students). It may be the case that among technical students it is less appropriate to show emotions. Among non-technical students the role of affect intensity played a moderating role, probably because they are more allowed to show emotions according to social norms.

Implications

The current research has interesting implications for the debate between the rational mind and the emotional heart. The present findings show that particularly women with an experiential mindset are sensitive to procedural justice. The results of these studies fit with earlier research of Maas and Van den Bos (2006), showing that being in an experiential mindset makes one more sensitive to procedural justice than when one is in a rationalistic mindset.

Moreover, the present research also has implications for the way men and women cope with conflicts. The present research provides insight in the conditions under which conflicts have more or less severe consequences for close relationships. Women who adopt experiential mindsets will react more negatively to unfair treatment than men who adopt experiential mindsets and women who adopted rationalistic mindsets. In Study 4.1, the degree to which people react to affect-related daily life events was especially of influence on women who adopted experiential mindsets and men who adopted rationalistic mindsets.

Table 4.2

Hierarchical Regression of Negative affect on Gender, Affect intensity, Mindset, and Procedure (Study 4.2)

Independent variables		Negative affect
<i>Step 1:</i>	Gender	.18
	Affect intensity	-.64
	Mindset	.05
	Procedure	.98***
	ΔR^2	.44***
<i>Step 2:</i>	Gender x Affect intensity	.05
	Gender x Mindset	.03
	Gender x Procedure	.08
	Affect intensity x Mindset	.14
	Affect intensity x Procedure	-.00
	Mindset x Procedure	-.07
	ΔR^2	.03
<i>Step 3:</i>	Gender x Affect intensity x Mindset	-.08
	Gender x Affect intensity x Procedure	-.20
	Gender x Mindset x Procedure	.30*
	Affect intensity x Mindset x Procedure	-.14
	ΔR^2	.03
<i>Step 4:</i>	Gender x Affect intensity x Mindset x Procedure	-.22
	ΔR^2	.00
<i>Total R²</i>		.49

Note: Unstandardized regression-coefficients for the final model are presented (centered data).

R²-change values are presented for each consecutive step. *** p < .001, ** p < .01, * p < .05

Table 4.3

Means and Standard Deviations of Negative Affect Toward Treatment as a Function of Gender, Mindset, and Procedure (Study 4.2)

	Mindset			
	Experiential		Rationalistic	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
No voice	4.61 (0.85)	5.25 (0.84)	4.51 (1.09)	3.91 (0.64)
Voice	2.87 (1.21)	2.29 (1.23)	2.71 (1.29)	3.11 (1.43)

Note. Means are on 7-point scales with higher means indicating more negative affect toward treatment.

Future research should focus more on the role of affect intensity. In the present research, the role of affect intensity was not clear. That is, affect intensity played a moderating role in Study 4.1, but not in Study 4.2. In Study 4.2, the influences of affect intensity were possibly too subtle to cause a moderating influence on gender and procedural justice in the experiential condition. Furthermore, we think it is necessary to further investigate the role of a rationalistic mindset and high affect intensity among men.

To conclude, next to individual differences, such as relational orientation (see Chapter 3) and social role differences, such as status (see Chapter 2), we showed in the current chapter that differences in cognitions (i.e., experiential mindsets) play a role in gender differences in procedural justice within close relationships. The present research provides evidence that women in experiential mindsets showed stronger fair process effects than men in experiential mindsets. By thus having studied the qualifying role of experiential mindsets on gender and procedural justice, we have gained more insight into why and when women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men in the context of close relationships.

Chapter 5

General Discussion

The purpose of the present thesis was to examine the social psychology of gender differences in procedural justice in close relationships. More specifically, I aimed to provide more insight into why and under which conditions women in close relationships value procedural justice more than men. The studies in the current thesis were designed to examine under what conditions gender differences in procedural justice occur. Moreover, I investigated these gender differences in procedural justice from three different perspectives: A macro-level, a meso-level, and a micro-level perspective. In this concluding chapter, I will summarize the main empirical findings and discuss their theoretical and practical implications. In addition, I will point out the strengths and limitations of the discussed findings, and will give directions for future research.

Status

In Chapter 2, I investigated the gender difference in procedural justice from a macro-level perspective. Based on the relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992) and building on gender differences in today's society, I argued that status may play a significant role in understanding gender

differences in procedural justice. More specifically, I argued that the combination of being a woman and having low status would yield the strongest fair process effects.

The results of three studies supported this hypothesis. I revealed that under conditions of low status, women showed stronger affective reactions toward procedural justice than men. Under conditions of high status, men and women reacted equally strong to procedural justice. The reactions of these high-status individuals were equal to men's reactions in low status positions. In other words, compared to high-status individuals and low-status men, low-status women were the most sensitive to procedural justice.

Relational Orientation

In Chapter 3, I focused on a meso-level perspective. An important aspect of my line of reasoning in Chapter 2 was based on the assumption that women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men. In grounding this assumption, I argued in Chapter 2 that women are more sensitive to procedural justice because women are more relationally oriented than men. Earlier studies (Gagné & Lydon, 2003) supported the idea that women are relationally oriented on a dispositional level, whereas men are relationally oriented toward their current close relationship they are involved in. Thus, I proposed in Chapter 3 that varying situational differences in relational orientation would have no or little effect on women's reactions toward procedural justice, whereas situational variations in relational orientation would have a reliable influence on men's reactions toward procedural justice. More specifically, among men I expected to find a stronger fair process effect under high levels of situationally-induced relational orientation than under low levels of situational relational orientation,

whereas I did not expect such a moderating effect of situational variations in relational orientation among women.

The results of three studies supported my predictions. Women's reactions were not influenced when their relationship was made salient, whereas men reacted stronger to procedural justice when their relationship was made salient than when their relationship was not made salient. Or put differently, men and women reacted equally strong to procedural justice when their relationship was made salient. When their relationship was not made salient, women reacted stronger to procedural justice than men.

Experiential Mindsets

Following up on these encouraging findings, I took a micro-level perspective on the psychological mechanisms that drive men and women to react differently to procedural justice. According to studies by Epstein (1994), women tend to process information in an experiential way and react more from their gut feelings than men. Men tend to process information more in a rationalistic way. Despite these gender differences, individuals can rely on both types of information processing. That is, women can rely on a rationalistic mindset, whereas men can rely on an experiential mindset. However, in daily life, women prefer to adopt an experiential way of information processing, whereas men prefer to adopt a rationalistic way of information processing (Pacini & Epstein, 1999).

Building on cognitive-experiential self-theory (Epstein, 1994; Pacini & Epstein, 1999) and research by Maas and Van den Bos (2006), I expected that women who adopt an experiential mindset would show stronger fair process effects than men who adopt an experiential mindset. To test my hypothesis, I conducted two experimental studies in which I manipulated mindset and

procedural justice. Results of Study 4.1 showed that women who were high in affect intensity and who had adopted an experiential mindset reacted more strongly to procedural justice than women who were low in affect intensity and adopted an experiential mindset and men with low and high affect intensity who adopted an experiential mindset. In Study 4.2, I showed again that women who adopt an experiential mindset react more strongly to procedural justice than men who adopt an experiential mindset.

Theoretical Implications

Taken together, the findings reported in the present thesis illuminate the conditions under which women react more strongly to procedural justice than men in the context of close relationships. For illustrative purposes the main findings are summarized in Figure 5.1.

The Central Role of Relational Orientation

When taking a closer look at the interaction patterns of the different perspectives (see Figure 5.1), it is noteworthy that procedural justice and gender produce different interaction effects with the manipulations of status and mindset (reported in Chapters 2 and 4 respectively) than with the manipulation or relational orientation (reported in Chapter 3). That is, the interaction patterns concerning status and mindset show that the gender effect is only apparent under low status conditions and when adopting experiential mindsets. The interaction pattern concerning relational orientation suggests that women are high in relational orientation on a dispositional level, whereas men are not, and that the gender effect in procedural justice weakens or even disappears when men also become high in relational orientation (by means of a salientizing manipulation).

In the current thesis, the meso-level perspective seems to be the most important perspective, because the construct studied in this perspective (relational orientation) is able to wipe out gender differences in procedural justice effects. That is, as the research in Chapter 3 reveals, women tend to be high in relational orientation and therefore show strong fair process effects, but if relational orientation is made salient to men, men also show strong fair process effects. In this situation, men and women become equally (highly) sensitive to procedural justice. In contrast, in Chapters 2 and 4, women only show strong fair process effects under the conditions of low status or experiential mindsets, whereas men do not show these strong fair process effects.

I hasten to note here that when developing the studies presented in this thesis I predicted the effects I subsequently obtained without me realizing the differential interaction effects these predictions implied for Chapters 2 and 4 versus Chapter 3 as has described above. It was only after I had conducted my studies, that I realized that the two interaction patterns really differ. Social psychology researchers should take notice of the different interaction effects discussed here, especially when studying gender differences, and should realize that different processes may be underlying these differential interaction effects.

I argue that the interaction effects in this thesis provide more insight about when and why gender effects in procedural justice occur. Nevertheless, I acknowledge that the gender effects in procedural justice are somewhat weaker than other effects commonly studied in the justice literature (for reviews, see, e.g., Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992; Van den Bos & Lind, 2002). These findings corroborate with a meta-analysis of Hyde (2005). She argues that males and females are similar on most, but not all psychological variables. She claims that men and women are more alike than that they are different. However, I think that Hyde was somewhat too fast in concluding that men and women are similar

on most psychological variables. After all, I showed that when systematically focusing on gender (including assigning an equal number of men and women to experimental conditions), reliable gender differences can be found.

Bridging Different Research Areas

The current research bridges two research areas, namely justice research and close relationships research. First, the current thesis contributes to procedural justice theories by investigating the moderating role of relevant manipulations and individual difference variables (i.e., gender, status, relational orientation, and experiential mindsets) on the fair process effect on people's affective reactions. The role of individual differences has received relatively little attention in procedural justice research so far (Brockner et al., 1998). By including individual difference variables into my studies, I have provided more knowledge about which individuals tend to be especially sensitive to procedural justice. More specifically, I showed that women with low status, women in an experiential mindset, and individuals high in relational orientation show the strongest fair process effects.

Second, the current research contributes to close relationships research. Surprisingly, although there has been considerable attention for distributive justice in close relationships, procedural justice has been largely neglected in this domain. So far, procedural justice has primarily been studied in the contexts of law, politics, and work organizations. Procedural justice seems especially important in close relationships when both partners are high in relational orientation. The present research takes an important step to fill this void.

Status

In the current thesis I applied the relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992) to procedural justice in close relationships. Although one generally does not speak of a true authority within close relationships, there are often (small) status differences between men and women in different areas of their relationships. For example, in the current Dutch society, women take a larger share of household chores and therefore have more control over the household (Portegijs, Hermans, & Lalta, 2006). Men often earn more money than women, which leads to a higher financial status for men compared to women. However, the household is seen as a lower-status domain than the financial domain in which men generally rule. Thus, inherent to traditional gender roles, status and gender tend to be naturally confounded (Eagly, 1987) in a way that men occupy higher status positions than women. By deconfounding these variables in my experiments (see Chapter 2), I showed the importance of taking status differences into account when studying gender differences in procedural justice in close relationships. Van Prooijen, Van den Bos, and Wilke (2005) already showed the importance of status salience when studying procedural justice. I showed that not only status salience, but also the level of status influenced reactions to procedural justice when taking gender into account in the context of close relationships.

Relational Orientation

When looking at the different perspectives, it is noteworthy that from the meso-level perspective (Chapter 3), I could identify a condition under which men react in the same way as women toward procedural justice. When relational orientation is made salient, men and women do not differ in their reactions toward procedural justice, that is they are both very sensitive to procedural justice. At the macro and micro levels (Chapters 2 and 4), I could only find circumstances that serve as a buffer to procedural injustice for women. More

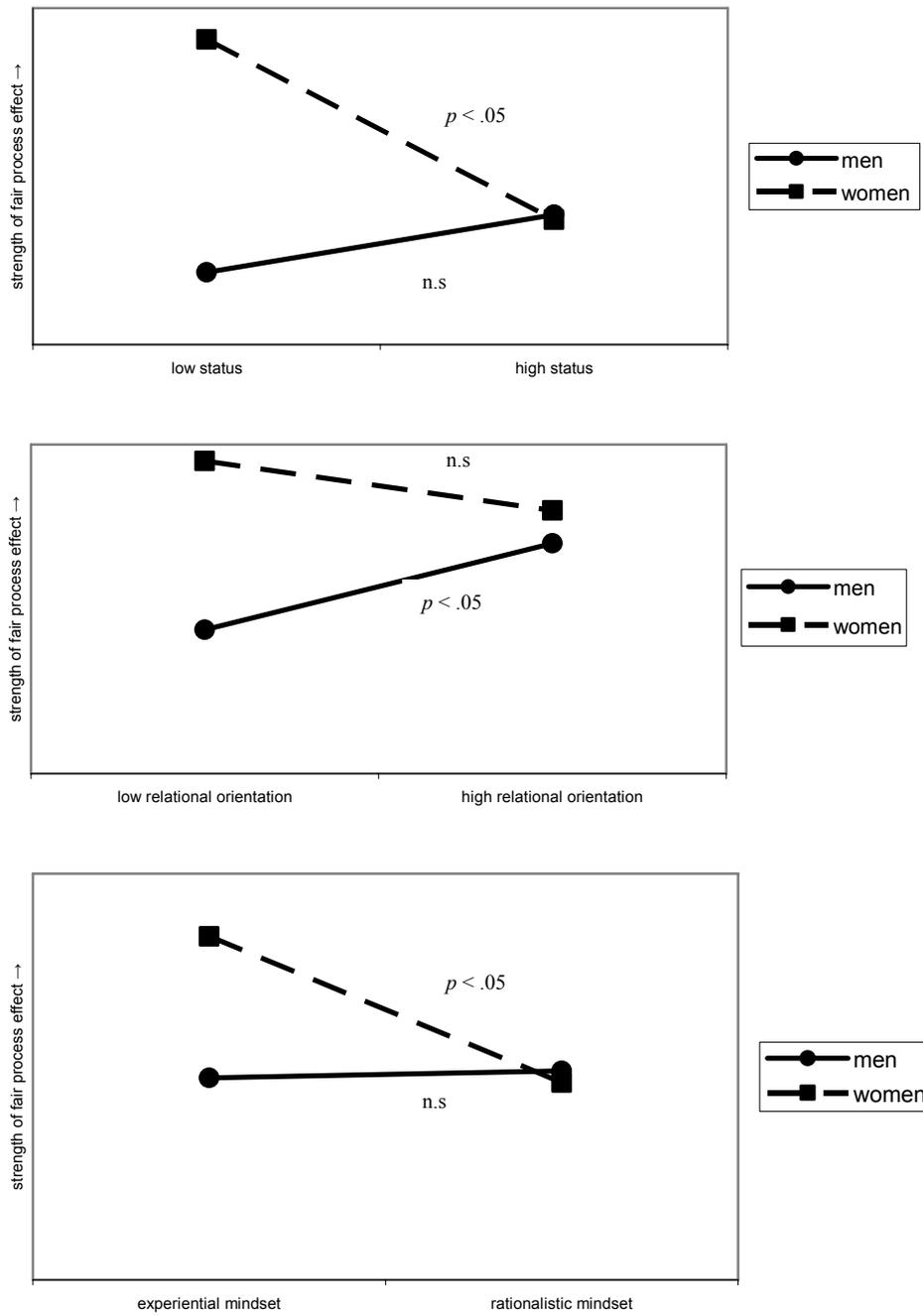
specifically, in Chapter 2, especially the combination of low status and female gender elicited strong reactions towards procedural justice, whereas the combination of high status and female gender elicited weaker reactions toward procedural justice. The same goes for Chapter 4, where especially the combination of experiential mindsets and female gender elicited strong reactions towards procedural justice, whereas the combination of rationalistic mindsets and female gender elicited weaker reactions towards procedural justice. In sum, high status and rationalistic mindsets seem to buffer the negative effects of procedural unfair treatment for women.

Reis (2006) also realized that the relational context is of great importance when studying social psychology. He argues that nearly all social psychological processes are to some extent influenced by relationship contexts. Chapter 3 of the current thesis supports his line of reasoning, because the role of relational orientation is the only individual difference variable in this thesis that can let the gender difference in procedural justice disappear, that is men react like women toward procedural justice.

Experiential Mindsets

Chapter 4 also has important theoretical implications. The results of Chapter 4 can cast some light on the ancient debate between whether reactions towards events are made by the heart or by the mind. Philosophers like Kant argued that there is nothing higher than reason, whereas philosophers like Hume argued that justice judgments are derived from feelings and not reasoning (Beauchamp, 2001). The current research showed the influence of rationalistic versus experiential mindsets on justice judgments. Women showed stronger reactions toward procedural justice than men when adopting an experiential mindset. I did not find reliable gender by procedural justice effects within the rationalistic mindset condition (Study 4.1 is a possible exception to this latter statement, but I could not replicate these effects in Study 4.2, so perhaps it is

Figure 5.1 Major findings of Chapters 2, 3, and 4



wise to treat the effects found in the rationalistic mindset condition of Study 4.1 with caution). Taking the findings of Studies 4.1 and 4.2 together, this suggests that especially experiential mindsets play an important role in my search under what conditions women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men.

The most important contribution of the current thesis is that it provides more insight under which conditions gender differences in procedural justice in close relationships occur. In the current thesis, I showed that low status is an important condition under which men and women react differently to procedural justice in close relationships. Furthermore, I revealed that when situational conditions do not salientize relational orientation, men and women show different reactions to procedural justice. Finally, I showed that the role of experiential mindset is also an important condition under which gender differences in procedural justice in close relationships occur.

Practical Implications

Besides theoretical implications, the present findings may have important practical implications as well. Earlier studies already showed that procedural justice can buffer the negative effects of a conflict (e.g., Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992). When women feel they are treated unfairly by their partner, they will experience less positive affect after a conflict with their partner. When women are treated fairly by their partner, women will be more likely to commit to decisions that are rendered and feel less need to start new conflicts in the future (cf. Tyler & Lind, 1992). Thus, it is especially important for women to be treated in a fair way by their partners.

The present findings can also be applied to relationship therapy and counseling. Therapists and counselors should learn men to give more voice to women, especially in areas where women have low status in their relationship.

However, women should also realize that when men are high in relational orientation it is important for men to be treated in a fair way and to be able to voice their opinion as well.

When relationship therapy does not help and a couple enters into a divorce, couples are often encouraged to engage in divorce mediation. A mediator has to take into account that status differences are often present between ex-partners. For example, women generally have higher status concerning child custody than men, whereas men have higher financial status than women. Kitzmann and Emery (1993) showed that these status differences are important in divorce mediation and influence the way men and women react to procedural justice.

The results of this thesis may thus contribute to the knowledge of the conditions under which conflict has more or less severe consequences for close relationships.

Conflicts and procedural unfair treatment can have severe consequences for close relationships when women have low status, when women adopt an experiential mindset, or when men are high in relational orientation. What is more, the findings presented here outline relational orientation to be a crucial moderator of gender effects on reactions to procedural justice.

Strengths and Limitations

A particular strength of this thesis is that I conducted the present research from three different perspectives. Relatively little was known about whether and under what conditions women place more value on procedural justice than men in close relationships. Therefore, I systematically investigated the reactions of men and women toward procedural justice. I showed that when gender differences in procedural justice are studied systematically, robust

gender effects can be found. Another strength of the reported studies is that I used different methods (scenario studies, experimental designs, and internet surveys) to test my hypotheses concerning gender differences in procedural justice. Related to this strength is that I used a diverse pool of participants: Visitors of a fair, visitors of different websites on the internet, students of Utrecht University, and students of Delft University of Technology. This has important implications because the use of diverse participants enhances the external validity of the results of the current thesis. Furthermore, I studied participants in different stages of their relationships (individuals with a dating relationship, individuals who are cohabiting, and individuals who are married).

Of course, the reported studies also have limitations, most of which are already covered in the discussion sections of the different chapters, such as the issue of self-report data and the reliance on scenario-studies. Perhaps the main limitation of my thesis is that I have not invited couples into the lab. In this way I could investigate the reactions of both partners to procedural injustice under controlled conditions. Future research could test whether the results reported in the current thesis can also be found in close relationships in which both partners participate. However, one could question whether asking individuals to treat their partner in a procedural unfair way is ethical. Another way to study gender differences in close relationships is to conduct diary-studies. The advantage of diary studies is that individuals are in their natural environment and reactions are directly tapped after a certain event (e.g., a conflict) has taken place.

Another interesting avenue for future research would be to study under what conditions individuals put themselves in a vulnerable position and become sensitive to procedural justice. For example, under what conditions do women adopt an experiential mindset and under what conditions do women adopt a rationalistic mindset? Or under what conditions will men become high in relational orientation? To have an answer to these questions would make reactions toward procedural justice more predictable.

Concluding Remarks

In the present thesis, I have studied the social psychology of gender differences in procedural justice in close relationships. By means of three different perspectives, I have gained more insight in why and when women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men. We now know that under conditions of low status and when adopting experiential mindsets (possibly coupled with high levels of affect intensity) women will show stronger fair process effects than men. Furthermore, I showed that the gender effect in procedural justice disappears when men are high in relational orientation.

In this way, I have tried to shed light on processes underlying gender differences in fair process effects. The results suggest that men should take into account that women under conditions of low status or experiential states are especially sensitive to procedural justice. Nevertheless, women should also take into account that when their partner is high in relational orientation, he can also be sensitive to procedural justice.

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Summary

One of the most fundamental needs for human beings is the need to belong (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Close relationships fulfil this need to belong. For many people, close relationships yield valuable outcomes, such as companionship, intimacy, support and love. Conflicts in close relationships can be a threat to the existence of an intimate relationship and research has shown that relationship conflict can have profound negative effects on an individual's mental and physical well-being (for an overview, see Fincham & Beach, 1999). The way couples interact and handle their conflicts is seen as a central determinant of marital quality (for reviews, see Bradbury, Fincham, & Beach, 2000; Fincham & Beach, 1999; Holmes & Murray, 1996; Karney & Bradbury, 1995). For example, when individuals feel their partner does not treat them with dignity and respect, this has a negative effect on their relationship satisfaction (Kluwer, Tumewu & Van den Bos, 2007, Study 2).

Treating a person with dignity and respect is a key component of procedural justice, which refers to the fairness of procedures that precede the outcomes. Procedural justice has a great impact on feelings, attitudes, and behavioral responses (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Several studies have shown that individuals who are treated fairly react more positively than individuals who are treated unfairly (e.g., Brockner et al., 1998; Folger, Rosenfield, Grove, & Corkran, 1979). Procedural justice provides important relational information.

When an individual is treated procedurally just, this indicates that this individual is respected. In spite of the importance of relational information, little research has been done to the influence of procedural justice on the reactions of men and women in close relationships. In this dissertation I focus on the influence of procedural justice on the reactions of men and women in close relationships.

Some studies have shown that women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men (Kluwer, Heesink en Van der Vliert, 1997; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997). Results of other studies (Lee & Farh, 1999; Tata, 2000) could not find support for gender differences in procedural justice. An explanation why women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men could be that women are relationally oriented than men (Cross & Madson, 1997). In general, women view their partner and their relationships more as part of their identity than men. Therefore it is assumed that women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men. Another explanation for the fact that women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men could be that women generally have a lower socio-economical status than men. Tyler and Lind (1992) showed that low-status individuals are more sensitive to procedural justice than high-status individual. Another possible explanation could lie in the way individuals process information. Women generally process information in an affective way. Men generally process information in a rationalistic way (Pacini & Epstein, 1999). The affective way of information processing could cause women to react more sensitive to an affective experience, like procedural justice than men.

In this dissertation, I take three different perspectives on the conditions in which women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men in close relationships. In Chapter 2, I study gender differences in procedural justice from a *macro-level perspective*. In this chapter, I focus on the effects of status differences between men and women and how they affect their reactions toward procedural justice. In two scenario studies, participants read a scenario in which status and procedural justice (i.e., voice) were varied. These two studies showed

that women with low status were more sensitive to procedural justice than men with low status and men and women with high status. In a third experiment, status and procedural justice (i.e., voice) were manipulated. As predicted, the results showed that especially women with low status were more sensitive to procedural justice. Women with low status showed stronger fair process effects than men with low status and men and women with high status. These results support the idea that status moderates the relationship between gender and procedural justice.

In Chapter 3, I took a *meso-level perspective* on gender differences in procedural justice in close relationships. In the previous chapter, I assumed that women are more sensitive to procedural justice than men. However, earlier studies showed inconclusive results about gender differences in procedural justice. Assuming that women are more relationally oriented than men, I studied gender differences in procedural justice in the context of close relationships. In two questionnaire studies, participants were asked to describe a conflict and were asked to answer questions concerning the described conflict. In support of the hypothesis, women were more sensitive to procedural justice than men in the context of close relationships. If this gender difference is due to relational orientation, then men with high relational orientation should be equally sensitive to procedural justice as women (who are already high in relational orientation on a dispositional level). In a third study, I studied whether men who were relationally oriented were equally sensitive to procedural justice as women (who are relationally oriented on a dispositional level). Results supported the hypothesis and showed that men who were high in relational orientation (both measured and manipulated) reacted equally strong to procedural justice as women.

In Chapter 4, I discuss gender differences in procedural justice from a *micro-level perspective*. Studies of Epstein (1994) showed that men and women can process information in different ways: in a rationalistic way and in an

experiential way. Pacini and Epstein (1999) showed that women prefer to process information in an experiential manner, which refers to an automatic and affective way of information processing. Men prefer to process information in a rationalistic way, which is an analytical and logical way of information processing. A study of Maas and Van den Bos (2006) showed that individuals who process information in an experiential way are more sensitive to procedural justice than individuals who process information in a rationalistic way. I conducted two studies to test whether women who process information in an experiential way are more sensitive to procedural justice than men who process information in an experiential way. In both studies, participants were explained either an experiential way or a rationalistic way of information processing. Next, participants read a story and were asked to react to the story in the explained (experiential or rationalistic) way. Results supported the hypothesis that women who reacted in an experiential way showed stronger reactions toward procedural justice than men who reacted in an experiential way.

Finally, in Chapter 5, I recapitulate the main findings of this dissertation and discuss the results from different perspectives. I discuss the theoretical and practical implications of the findings and end with suggestions for future research. Concluding, this thesis provides more insight in the processes underlying gender differences in procedural justice in the context of close relationships.

Samenvatting

Een van de meest fundamentele behoeftes voor mensen is de behoefte om erbij te horen (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Intieme relaties vervullen deze behoefte. Zij bieden liefde, vriendschap, intimiteit en ondersteuning. Conflicten binnen intieme relaties kunnen een bedreiging zijn voor het voortbestaan van de relatie. Onderzoek heeft laten zien dat relatieconflicten negatieve effecten hebben op de mentale en fysieke gezondheid van mensen (voor een overzicht, zie Fincham & Beach, 1999). De manier waarop echtparen omgaan met hun conflicten kan worden gezien als een belangrijke voorspeller van de kwaliteit van het huwelijk (voor reviews, zie Bradbury, Fincham, & Beach, 2000; Fincham & Beach, 1999; Holmes & Murray, 1996; Karney & Bradbury, 1995). Wanneer individuen bijvoorbeeld het gevoel hebben dat hun partner hen niet met waardigheid en respect behandelt kan dit een negatief effect hebben op hun relatietevredenheid (Kluwer, Tumewu & Van den Bos, 2007, Studie 2).

Een persoon met waardigheid en respect behandelen is een belangrijk aspect van procedurele rechtvaardigheid. Procedurele rechtvaardigheid verwijst naar de eerlijkheid van procedures die voorafgaan aan uitkomsten. Procedurele rechtvaardigheid heeft een grote invloed op gevoelens, attitudes and gedragingen (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Een aantal studies heeft laten zien dat individuen die eerlijk zijn behandeld positiever reageren dan individuen die oneerlijk zijn behandeld (zie bijvoorbeeld, Brockner et al., 1998; Folger,

Rosenfield, Grove, & Corkran, 1979). Procedurele rechtvaardigheid biedt belangrijke relationele informatie. Wanneer een individu procedureel rechtvaardig is behandeld betekent dit dat dit individu wordt gerespecteerd. Ondanks de relationele informatie is naar de invloed van procedurele rechtvaardigheid in intieme relaties nauwelijks onderzoek gedaan. In dit proefschrift richt ik me op de invloed van procedurele rechtvaardigheid op de reacties van mannen en vrouwen in intieme relaties.

Sommige studies hebben laten zien dat vrouwen gevoeliger zijn voor procedurele rechtvaardigheid dan mannen (Kluwer, Heesink en Van der Vliert, 1997; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997). Andere studies kunnen echter geen sekseverschillen in procedurele rechtvaardigheid aantonen (Lee & Fahr, 1999; Tata, 2000). Van vrouwen wordt verondersteld dat zij meer relationeel georiënteerd zijn dan mannen (Cross & Madson, 1997). Over het algemeen zien vrouwen hun partner en relatie als deel van hun eigen identiteit. Hierdoor wordt verondersteld dat vrouwen gevoeliger zijn voor procedurele rechtvaardigheid dan mannen. Andere factoren die mogelijk verklaren waarom vrouwen gevoeliger zijn voor procedurele rechtvaardigheid dan mannen, zijn dat vrouwen over het algemeen een lagere sociaal-economische status hebben dan mannen. Tyler en Lind (1992) lieten zien dat personen met een lage status gevoeliger zijn voor procedurele rechtvaardigheid dan personen met een hoge status. Een andere mogelijke factor is de manier van informatieverwerking: van vrouwen wordt gezegd dat zij op een affectieve manier informatie verwerken, terwijl mannen op een rationalistische manier informatie verwerken (Pacini & Epstein, 1999). De affectieve manier van informatie verwerken kan ertoe leiden dat vrouwen gevoeliger reageren op een affectief geladen gebeurtenis, zoals procedurele rechtvaardigheid, dan mannen.

In dit proefschrift laat ik op drie niveaus zien onder welke omstandigheden vrouwen gevoeliger voor procedurele rechtvaardigheid zijn dan mannen in intieme relaties. In Hoofdstuk 2 behandel ik vanuit een *macroperspectief* sekseverschillen in procedurele rechtvaardigheid. In dit

hoofdstuk bespreek ik het effect van statusverschillen tussen mannen en vrouwen en hoe deze verschillen van invloed zijn op hun reactie op procedurele rechtvaardigheid. In twee studies reageerden deelnemers op een scenario waarin zowel de status als de procedurele rechtvaardigheid (in de vorm van inspraak) werd gevarieerd. Uit deze twee studies kwam naar voren dat vrouwen in een lage statuspositie gevoeliger waren voor procedurele rechtvaardigheid dan vrouwen in een hoge status positie en mannen in een lage en een hoge status positie. In een derde experiment werden status en procedurele rechtvaardigheid (in de vorm van inspraak) daadwerkelijk gemanipuleerd . Zoals voorspeld lieten de resultaten zien dat met name vrouwen in een lage statuspositie gevoelig zijn voor procedurele rechtvaardigheid. Vrouwen met een lage status lieten sterkere eerlijk-proceseffecten zien vergeleken met mannen met een lage status en mannen en vrouwen met een hoge status. Deze resultaten bevestigden het idee dat status een moderator is voor sekseverschillen in procedurele rechtvaardigheid.

In Hoofdstuk 3 onderzoek ik vanuit een *mesoperspectief* sekseverschillen in procedurele rechtvaardigheid in intieme relaties. In het voorgaande hoofdstuk werd uitgegaan van de veronderstelling dat vrouwen gevoeliger zijn voor procedurele rechtvaardigheid dan mannen. Echter, eerder onderzoek naar sekseverschillen in procedurele rechtvaardigheid had geen eenduidige resultaten laten zien. Ervan uitgaande dat vrouwen gevoeliger zijn voor procedurele rechtvaardigheid omdat zij meer relationeel georiënteerd zijn, had ik sekseverschillen in procedurele rechtvaardigheid in de context van intieme relaties onderzocht. In twee vragenlijststudies waarin deelnemers gevraagd werd een conflict te beschrijven en aan de hand van dat conflict vragen over procedurele rechtvaardigheid te beantwoorden, liet ik zien dat in de context van intieme relaties vrouwen overeenkomstig met de hypothese gevoeliger zijn voor procedurele rechtvaardigheid dan mannen. Indien dit sekseverschil te wijten was aan relationele oriëntatie, dan zouden mannen die

relationeel georiënteerd zijn eveneens gevoelig voor procedurele rechtvaardigheid moeten zijn. In een derde studie onderzocht ik daarom of mannen die relationeel georiënteerd waren even gevoelig waren voor procedurele rechtvaardigheid als vrouwen (die van nature al relationeel georiënteerd zijn). De resultaten bevestigden de hypothese en lieten zien dat mannen die relationeel georiënteerd zijn (zowel gemeten als gemanipuleerd) even sterk reageren op procedurele rechtvaardigheid als vrouwen.

In Hoofdstuk 4 bespreek ik vanuit een *microperspectief* sekseverschillen in procedurele rechtvaardigheid in intieme relaties. Studies van Epstein (1994) lieten zien dat mannen en vrouwen op twee verschillende manieren informatie kunnen verwerken, namelijk op een rationalistische manier en op een experiëntiële manier. Pacini en Epstein (1999) lieten zien dat vrouwen de voorkeur geven aan een experiëntiële manier van informatie verwerken, wat neerkomt op een automatische en affectieve manier van informatie verwerken. Mannen geven de voorkeur aan een rationalistische manier van informatie verwerken; dit is een analytische en logische manier van informatie verwerken. Onderzoek van Maas en Van den Bos (2006) liet zien dat mensen die op een experiëntiële manier informatie verwerken gevoeliger zijn voor procedurele rechtvaardigheid dan mensen met een rationalistische manier van informatie verwerken. In twee studies onderzocht ik of vrouwen met een experiëntiële manier van informatie verwerken gevoeliger zijn voor procedurele rechtvaardigheid dan mannen die op een experiëntiële manier informatie verwerken. In beide studies werd aan deelnemers ofwel de experiëntiële manier van informatieverwerking ofwel de rationalistische manier van informatieverwerking uitgelegd. Deelnemers werd vervolgens gevraagd om vervolgens op een bepaald verhaal volgende de uitgelegde manier (experientieel of rationalistisch) te reageren. Resultaten ondersteunden de verwachting dat vrouwen die experientieel reageerden gevoeliger zijn voor procedurele rechtvaardigheid dan mannen die experientieel reageren.

Ten slotte vat ik in Hoofdstuk 5 de belangrijkste bevindingen van dit proefschrift samen en bespreek ik de resultaten vanuit verschillende perspectieven. Ik behandel de theoretische en praktische implicaties van de gevonden resultaten en eindig met suggesties voor toekomstig onderzoek. Concluderend kan gezegd worden dat dit proefschrift meer inzicht geeft in de onderliggende processen die een rol spelen bij sekseverschillen in procedurele rechtvaardigheid in de context van intieme relaties.

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Maureen

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Curriculum Vitae

Maureen Tumewu werd op 15 mei 1979 geboren te Amsterdam. Op 1-jarige leeftijd verhuisde ze naar Hoorn, waar ze opgroeide en de basisschool en middelbare school doorliep. Vervolgens ging ze in haar geboorteplaats Amsterdam psychologie studeren aan de Universiteit van Amsterdam. Nadat ze was afgestudeerd in de arbeids- en organisatiepsychologie begon zij in 2003 als promovenda op de Capaciteitsgroep Sociale en Organisationspsychologie aan de Universiteit Utrecht. Sinds februari 2007 is zij werkzaam bij het Wetenschappelijk Onderzoeks- en Documentatiecentrum te Den Haag.

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