Team Justice as a Consequence of Demographic Faultlines: Climate Level and Strength

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Abstract

Team justice climate refers to group-level perceptions of fairness that teammates display toward one another. Despite its potential to promote performance, available empirical evidence is inconsistent and has remained in conceptual isolation from research on organizational climate and team-based models for analyzing group effectiveness. Hence, important questions have languished without an answer. First, organizational climate research suggests that climate strength, the extent to which team members share consensus as to their treatment, could moderate the effect of climate level, at least in some circumstances. If this is so, prior team justice research is misleading, given that climate strength has yet to be taken into account. Therefore, we examine whether the level (or amount) of team justice will have a greater effect on team performance to the extent that the climate is also strong. Second, despite the relevance of team *inputs* to better understand team *processes*, very little is known about the antecedents of team justice climate level and strength. This could be problematic as research on team effectiveness suggests that team faultlines, hypothetical dividing lines that may split a team into homogenous subgroups, can alter group processes and performance. Based on this research, we argue that demographic faultlines predict not only the climate level of team justice but also its strength. Two independent studies with teams from the healthcare industry showed that faultlines reduce the strength, but not the level, of team justice climate. These faultlines, in turn, lower the extent to which climate level translates into effective performance.

Keywords: team justice climate, climate strength, demographic faultlines, team performance, health care

Team Justice as a Consequence of Demographic Faultlines: Climate Level and Strength

Many organizations have moved away from top-down authority, laying emphasis on the use of work teams (Chan, 2019). In these settings, non-hierarchical relationships between peers take on greater significance than they have in the past. Justice research has responded to this challenge through *team justice climate,* defined as the collective perceptions of the general fairness with which teammates treat one another (Antino, Rico, & Thatcher, 2019; Kulkarni, & Ramamoorthy, 2017). Also labeled "peer justice" (Molina, Jakopec, Cropanzano, & Moliner, 2017) or "intraunit justice" (Cropanzano, Li, & Benson, 2011), team justice is an aspect of a work team's social climate. While initial investigations have been promising, serious obstacles remain (Li, Cropanzano, & Bagger, 2013) as these preliminary studies have been conducted in isolation from established research on organizational climate (Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013) and team-based models for analyzing group effectiveness (Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, & Jundt, 2005). As a result, our knowledge is incomplete and, in some cases, could even be misleading. To address this concern, we integrate team justice with these established literatures to provide deeper conceptual insights of the inner intricacies of team justice. Two issues stand out.

First, most research on team justice climate has only measured the mean level or amount of climate within a work unit or organization (Li & Cropanzano, 2009; Li, Cropanzano, & Molina, 2015). According to organizational climate researchers, an exclusive focus on *climate level* is inherently incomplete. As teammates are neither homogenous nor necessarily treated in the same way, coworkers will often disagree as to their (supposedly) shared climate (e.g., González-Romá, Peiró, & Tordera, 2002). This variability is referred to as *climate strength* or degree of agreement between teammates (Dawson, González-Romá, Davis, & West, 2008). At least for certain climate constructs, the level will be more strongly related to work outcomes when the level of agreement is high, and less strongly related when

the level of agreement is low (Perrigino, Chen, Dunford, & Pratt, 2021). Though, as we shall see, this interaction is likely for team justice climate, to date the justice literature has been quite silent on climate strength. The only empirical approach to this matter has been conducted with students working on classroom projects, suggesting that climate strength does not play a role in the relationship between the level of team justice and team performance (Cropanzano et al., 2011). Not only is this result contrary to much of the organizational climate literature, it also contradicts both team justice theorizing (Li et al., 2015) and previous meta-analytic evidence on hierarchical (or authority-based) justice climate (Whitman, Caleo, Carpenter, Horner, & Bernerth, 2012). Thus, our first aim is to ascertain whether team justice climate strength moderates the team justice climate level-team performance link in real work settings.

Second, most team justice research has disregarded an important insight from the literature on work team effectiveness. According to the input-mediator-outcome (IMO) framework (Ilgen et al., 2005), internal group processes – including but not limited to fair treatment – are impacted by antecedent conditions. Among these antecedents are the composition of the group (e.g., Kirkman & Harris, 2018). Despite this attention in the team effectiveness literature, justice climate researchers have been slow to investigate demographic antecedents of team justice. While it is conceptually likely that team composition will affect team justice climate, there is a dearth of both research and theory examining this issue. This is unfortunate, particularly as organizations are becoming more diverse (Harrison, 2023).

In these studies we seek to answer this question, advancing the intersection between team composition and team justice through the lens of demographic faultlines (Meyer, Schermuly, & Kauffeld, 2016). We consider key individual attributes (or social categories) such as age, gender, and education, that teammates use to classify themselves (Meyer et al.

2016; Tiede, Schultheis, & Meyer, 2021). By using this information, we can estimate hypothetical dividing lines that may split a team into subgroups and, in turn, alter team functioning (Choi & Sy, 2010). We believe these dividing lines may challenge team justice as subgroups might have different experiences or perceptions of the fairness with which they are treated, providing grounds for misunderstandings and mistrust. Demographic indicators not only trigger social categorization processes (Meyer et al., 2016) but also capture relationship-oriented attributes that align with the horizontal nature of team justice (Li & Cropanzano, 2009). Thus, our second aim is to examine whether demographic faultlines influence team justice climate, both climate level and climate strength.

The two studies included here seek to integrate team justice climate with both research on organizational climate and demographic group faultlines. Thus, we contribute to all three literatures by answering two basic questions. First, based on climate research (Schneider et al., 2013), we argue that a sole focus on team justice level offers a limited view of team justice and thereby hinders our understanding of how team fairness works. Consequently, we examine whether team justice climate strength moderates the relationship between team justice climate level and team supervisory-rated job performance. Apart from building our understanding of team justice climate, exploring this effect should also contribute to the organizational climate literature more broadly. Prior research as to the moderating effects of climate strength has been somewhat inconsistent (Ehrhart et al., 2013). We argue that the interaction may depend on the focal construct in question. Accordingly, team justice, which emphasizes synergetic interactions among teammates, is likely to lose its benefits when it is not broadly shared within a workgroup.

Second, we build on the team effectiveness literature to explore the antecedents of team justice climate. To do so, we consider demographic faultlines as a cause of both the level and strength of team justice climate. This is a highly relevant concern as researchers

usually estimate the effects of faultlines on the level of team processes but not on their strength. Beyond research on team justice, these studies also contribute to the faultlines literature, particularly as it pertains to team composition and processes (Carter, Mead, Stewart, Nielsen, & Solimeo, 2019). Prior research on faultlines and justice has emphasized a *moderator-effect approach*, whereby the fairness of authority figures interacts with the faultline within a team (Bezrukova, Spell, & Perry, 2010; Spell, Bezrukova, Haar, & Spell, 2011). These studies operationalize justice in a traditional manner, treating it as an individual-level variable pertaining to an assessment of an authority figure. While this research is significant, team justice refers to the fair treatment from coworkers (not from an authority figure) and is a shared evaluation (not an individual one). Besides, we address a different question. We examine how faultlines within teams impact justice among teammates. We therefore adopt a *direct-effect approach*, as team faultlines trigger ingroup favoritism and outgroup inequality that impacts team justice (Antino et al., 2019).

Team Justice Climate

According to input-mediator-outcome (IMO) model (Ilgen et al., 2005), characteristics of the team members and the larger environmental context are *inputs* that affect team processes. These processes, in turn, impact team performance and other relevant criteria. This is especially true for team justice climate, which in terms of the IMO model is a process that can impact team effectiveness. Unlike prior work on organizational justice, team justice climate is explicitly oriented to the exigencies of work teams. It pertains to the unit-level of analysis – team justice judgements are presumed to be held in common – and the referent is the group. Team justice climate pertains to how much fairness coworkers perceive from one another. It is unique in that it deemphasizes authority while emphasizing the unit as a whole (Li & Cropanzano, 2009).

Historically, measures of dyadic justice have divided fairness into as many as four

dimensions, including distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice (e.g., Whiteman, 2009). However, when assessing team justice climate these traditional justice dimensions tend to load on a strong second-order factor (Li et al., 2013; Marcano & Castaño-Collado, 2020). In fact, team justice has been conceptualized as a single dimension assessing overall fairness (Molina et al., 2017).

Team Justice Climate and Job Performance

Researchers have anticipated positive relationships between team justice climate and team performance based on the idea that it creates teams with better communication and coordination, and more cohesion and support (Li & Cropanzano, 2009; Li et al., 2015). The evidence has been mixed, though promising. In a study of classroom student teams, Cropanzano et al. (2011) found that team procedural and interpersonal justice improved processes related to the task, such as communication and contribution, and to team relationships, such as boosting cohesion and support. As a result, justice was associated with higher student grades. Other findings have been less consistent. Li et al. (2013) also analyzed student teams and found that while team justice seemed to have a beneficial effect on cooperative behavior, it was unrelated to the teams' project grades. Molina, Moliner, Martínez-Tur, Cropanzano, and Peiró (2015) examined team justice within teams delivering services to persons with intellectual disabilities. They focused on two service outcomes and also reported mixed findings. More favorable results were reported by Antino et al. (2019). They observed that team justice climate was related to (lower) status conflict and indirectly to team performance. As these studies show, findings are not entirely consistent with respect to the team justice-performance link. We next explore one reason why we believe this to be so.

Team Justice Climate Strength

According to climate research, within-team variability can make climate level a weaker predictor, as it is difficult for a climate (e.g., justice, service, safety) to motivate those

workers who do not share it (González-Romá et al., 2002). This occurs because a strong climate creates a strong situation (Mischel, 1973). In strong situations, employees tend to appraise events in a similar fashion and thus respond in consistent ways. This is not the case when a climate is weak.

Despite its conceptual importance, team justice has disregarded climate strength or degree of agreement among teammates, typically operationalized by within-unit variability statistics (González- Romá & Peiró, 2014). This omission is unfortunate. When teams have a strong team justice climate, employees hold the same perceptions about the fairness shown among coworkers. When coworkers agree that peer fairness is high, then this should lead to higher quality work relationships, as well as a safe and predictable work environment (Li & Cropanzano, 2009). These team processes are consistent with effective performance. By contrast, dispersion in team justice perceptions signals a weak climate. Even when the level of team justice climate is high, this variability is problematic. When the climate is weak, team members disagree. Some will believe that teammates treat each other fairly, whereas others do not believe this to be the case. Because of this dissensus, such a variable climate does not have a strong and consistent effect on behavior.

Noteworthy, the moderator role of climate strength is not always straightforward. Within the organizational climate literature there is a "lack of consistency in findings of moderator effects across studies for climate strength" (Ehrhart et al., 2013, p. 102), as some studies have reported nonsignificant level x strength interactions (e.g., Dawson et al., 2008; Rafferty & Jimmieson, 2010; Zohar & Luria, 2004). While acknowledging the lack of consistency, which may be a reflection of a lack of consistency in operationalizations of climate strength, none of these prior studies have investigated team justice within real work settings. We anticipate that climate strength will be an important moderator of team justice, even if this is not always the case for other types of climates. The benefits of team justice, as

well as the costs of its absence, are not only individual matters. Rather, their effects are expected to cascade throughout the workgroup. When the team justice climate is strong, team members believe that everyone receives the same treatment, amplifying the benefits of team justice climate.

Hypothesis 1: Team justice climate strength moderates the team justice climate level-team performance relationship such that a strong climate strengthens the effect of team justice climate level on team performance.

Demographic Faultlines as Antecedent to Team Justice Climate

In keeping with the IMO model (Ilgen et al., 2005), research has yet to consider the composition of the team and how that might impact both climate properties (level and strength) of the team process known as team justice. Faultlines are intra-team boundaries, likely to form when differentiating characteristics are salient (Lau & Murnighan, 2005). When faultlines are based on relationship-oriented attributes such as age, gender, and education (Meyer et al. 2016; Tiede, et al., 2021), this can stimulate a social categorization process. From a social identity perspective, a shared identity within a subgroup may translate into bias when one looks across the faultlines (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010). Social identity theory also anticipates inter-subgroup distancing (Bezrukova, Jehn, Zanutto, & Thatcher, 2009; Bezrukova et al., 2010). Hence, some may regard their cluster as superior to others, unjustly favoring their own "members" at the expense of "outsiders."

In comparison to a team with fewer fractures, a divided unit may be more inclined to ingroup (or, more precisely, in-*sub*group) solidarity and outgroup differentiation, and thus, to blaming members of the outgroup(s) for challenges within the overall team. This would imply that a team with faultlines has an increased probability of reporting lower levels of team justice climate. Antino and colleagues (2019) reported results that are consistent with these premises. Based on a sample of 271 employees nested in 41 teams from a Spanish

healthcare organization, they showed that team faultlines reduced the level of team justice climate reported by the team. Building on this work, we pose the following prediction:

Hypothesis 2: Demographic faultlines are negatively related to team justice climate level.

We also argue that teams with strong faultlines have a high probability of reporting lower levels of team justice climate strength (agreement). This proposition is consistent with Perrigino et al.'s (2021) framework for understanding the link between stimuli and climate strength. Based on this framework, demographic faultlines will act as a discretionary stimulus triggering different experiences for each subgroup. This, in turn, will promote each subgroup to diverge their interpretations regarding group fairness.

Hypothesis 3: Demographic faultlines are negatively related to team justice climate strength.

We replicate our hypotheses in two studies. Each study used an independent sample, two informants (team members and supervisors), and a different measure of team justice climate and team performance.

Study 1

Method

Sample and procedure

We sampled 760 employees who were nested within 98 work teams. These teams were sampled from small healthcare organizations, all of whom were affiliated with Plena Inclusión (Spain), an industry-wide association that aims to help organizations defend the rights of persons with intellectual disability. Each team represented a different organization – i.e., teams were not nested within organizations. This was a strong sample for testing our theoretical model, as all teams shared a common objective – improving the quality of life for persons with intellectual disability. To be eligible for the study, participants were required to

be members of the core service delivery team. As part of their daily work, they were further required to interact with persons with intellectual disabilities. Core team members worked interdependently. In compliance with ethical guidelines, all participation was confidential and voluntary. The team members were informed that they were going to be asked for information about relevant attributes of the team in which they worked. They were further told that these attributes would be related to how the people within the team treat each other. Before they filled out the questionnaire, we also informed team members that these data collection were only for research purposes and that their ratings would be anonymous and confidential. There were no incentives for participation. However, Plena Inclusion (the organization with which the work teams were associated) recommended their participation.

Team performance ratings were collected from supervisors. Before they filled out the questionnaire, we told supervisors that their responses were confidential and that their performance ratings would not be reported to team members. We also informed them that data were only for research purposes and no one else would have access to their ratings. This helps to avoid leniency (Murphy, Jako, & Anhalt 1993).

Since estimates of group faultlines are likely to be distorted when teams have missing data, we only selected groups with three of more members and a 100% response rate (Choi & Sy, 2010). After applying these criteria, the final sample consisted of 274 employees and 38 supervisors. These were nested in 38 teams, which ranged from three to 12 members (mean = 7.21, SD = 2.64). The average age of employees was 35.69 years (SD = 9.41), 73.85% were women and 58.01% had earned a university degree.

Measures

Demographic Faultlines. We computed demographic faultlines using the average silhouette width (ASW) measure developed by Meyer and Glenz (2013). The ASW is a cluster-based approach. It classifies team members into subgroups based on their similarity.

The resulting subgroups have maximum internal homogeneity and maximum between-subgroup heterogeneity (Meyer & Glenz, 2013). Among the many approaches for calculating group faultlines, the ASW algorithm has been identified as the most robust and versatile method (Meyer, Glenz, Antino, Rico, & González-Romá, 2014). The calculations were performed with the asw.cluster package in R Statistics (Meyer & Glenz, 2013). The higher the ASW value, the stronger the faultline in the team. ASW achieves its maximum possible value (1.0) when the faultline separates a team into two or more homogeneous subgroups based on perfect alignment of attributes, while a value of 0 would indicate that no faultline exists (Meyer & Glenz, 2013).

In line with Meyer et al. (2016), we calculated group faultlines across three demographic relationship-oriented attributes relevant to our sample: age, gender, and educational level. These attributes are typically used by individuals to classify themselves and others into social categories (e.g., female, older, high school graduate; Harrison & Klein, 2007) and thus are among the most commonly used in empirical studies on demographic faultlines (Thatcher & Patel, 2012). In fact, gender (van Dijk, Engen, & van Knippenberg, 2012), age (Joshi & Roh, 2009), and educational level (Meyer et al., 2016) are salient features of team members that has been largely associated with stereotypes and categorization processes within teams.

Team Justice Climate. Team members reported about team justice climate. We assessed team justice climate using a scale based upon Li and Cropanzano (2009), which was adapted for and validated within the target sample by Molina, Moliner, Martínez-Tur, Cropanzano, and Peiró (2016). This scale measures overall team justice climate based on the referent-shift consensus method (Chan, 1998), which has been shown to present superior psychometric properties (Bashshur, Rupp, & Christopher, 2004). The scale comprised 12 items referring to procedural, interpersonal, and informational statements and responses were

reported on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).[1] An example item is "We express our views and feelings about the way decisions are made within the team." All aggregation indices were within the expected thresholds. The average deviation index (ADI) was .49 (SD = .15), the average rwg was .86 (SD = .12), the ICC(1) was .36, the ICC(2) was .80, and the results obtained by an ANOVA showed a significant degree of between-team discrimination [$F(37, 244) = 5.082$, $p < .01$] (Chan, 1998), providing support for the appropriateness of working with aggregated data. The aggregated Cronbach α was .97. The level of team justice climate was operationalized by computing the team's average score on the scale. The strength of team justice climate was operationalized by means of the average deviation index (Burke, Finkelstein, & Dusig, 1999) multiplied by –1, so that higher scores represented stronger climates (higher agreement) (González-Romá et al., 2002).

Team Performance. Supervisors assessed teams' performance. We used the three-item scale developed by Peccei and Rosenthal (2001) and validated by Cheung and To (2010). Instead of asking employees for their individual self-report performance though, we asked the supervisor of each team to assess their unit's performance. All items were scored on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*completely agree*) to 7 (*completely disagree*). An example item is "The employees know how to solve the problems that may arise when working with persons with intellectual disability." The Cronbach α was .71.

Controls. Team size was controlled because larger teams have a greater potential for subgroup formation (Shaw, 2004) and the impact of faultlines depends on the number of subgroups that they create (Carton & Cummings, 2012). Age, gender, and educational level diversity were controlled for two reasons. First, "to isolate the unique effects of faultlines associated with a specific member alignment" (Bezrukova, Thatcher, Jehn, & Spell , 2012, p.83). Second, "to compare the utility of the traditional diversity approach with that of the

faultline model" (Lau & Murnighan, 2005, p. 649). Age diversity was computed using the standard deviation (Harrison & Klein, 2007), while we used Blau's (1977) heterogeneity index to operationalize gender diversity and Blair and Lacy's (2000) ordinal dispersion index to operationalize educational level diversity.

Data Analysis

The proposed model and hypotheses focus entirely on variables conceptualized at the same level of analysis, the team level. Thus, we modeled all variables at the group level. To examine the measurement model, we took into consideration the Root Mean Square Residual (RMSEA), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). As chi-square is dependent on sample size (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002), we used three modelling rationale criteria to compare models: $\Delta RMSEA < .015$; $\Delta SRMR < .030$ (Chen, 2007), and $\Delta CFI > .010$ (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). Differences below these cutoffs are indicative of negligible practical differences (e.g., Martínez-Córcoles, Gracia, Tomás, Peiró, & Schöbel, 2013).

To test the proposed hypotheses we used the latent moderated structural equations (LMS; Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000) method built into Mplus 8.5 and maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). This novel structural equation modeling (SEM) technique is particularly relevant for research including latent moderators (Paciello, Fida, Skovgaard-Smith, Barbaranelli, & Caprara, 2023; Sun, Lee, & Yun, 2023) as it takes into account the nonnormality of interactions, providing unbiased estimates of the relationships between variables (Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017). We standardized the data prior to conducting the analysis to obtain standardized parameter estimates (Maslowsky, Jager, & Hemken, 2015) and to facilitate the comparison of results between Study 1 and 2.

Results and Discussion

Below, we present our results, beginning with tests of our measurement model and some preliminary analyses. We then turn to our three hypotheses. We begin in the "middle" of Figure 1, examining the team justice level and team justice strength interaction, which is central to our thinking (Hypothesis 1). To this end, we test whether team justice level is more strongly related to performance when climate strength is strong (i.e., when there is agreement among team members). Finding support for this prediction, we then step back in our model, investigating whether demographic faultlines, as antecedent to team justice climate, lower team justice level (Hypothesis 2) and team justice strength (Hypothesis 3).

Testing the Measurement Model

Before testing the hypotheses, we conducted two confirmatory factor analyses to test the proposed measurement model including our two reported variables. The first model included two-factors: team justice climate and team performance. This model revealed an acceptable fit to the data: $\chi 2 = 105.51$, $df = 88$; RMSEA = .072; CFI = .968; SRMR = .055. The second model included only one factor (all items loaded onto a single factor), revealing not only a poor fit to the data, with an RMSEA above.10 and SRMR above .80 ($\chi 2 = 128.43$, $df = 46$; RMSEA = .108; CFI = .928; SRMR = .083) but also significant practical differences against the former two-factor model ($\Delta RMSEA > .015$; $\Delta CFI > .010$), confirming the appropriateness of the proposed measurement model.

Preliminary Analyses

To test our hypotheses, we estimated a model which included both latent and observed variables. The observed variables were team size, gender diversity, age diversity, educational diversity, demographic faultlines, and team justice climate strength. The latent variables were team justice climate and team performance. Based on Sardeshmukh and Vandernberg (2017) and the computational intensity required by latent moderated structural equations (LMS), the latent variable team justice climate, which had more than three items,

was defined by using item parceling (Coffman & MacCallum, 2005; Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002). Following previous guidelines (Little, Rhemtulla, Gibson, & Schoemann, 2013), each parcel consisted of an aggregation (average) of items of a different justice dimension (i.e., the first parcel was the average of procedural justice items, the second parcel was the average of interpersonal justice items, the third parcel was the average of informational justice items). The latent variable team performance was estimated by using its three items. The latent interaction term was the product of the latent construct team justice climate level and the observed variable team justice climate strength.

Since to date the LMS method does not provide traditional SEM fit indices (e.g., RMSEA, CFI), we followed a two-step estimation procedure (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000, Maslowsky et al., 2015, Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017)). To obtain traditional fit indices we first estimated Model 0, a null model that included all the variables (including control variables) with the exception of the interaction term. After observing that Model 0 showed an acceptable fit ($\chi 2 = 34.09$, $df = 32$; RMSEA = .041, CFI = .988, SRMR = .053), we estimated Model 1. This later model, which included the—latent—interaction, did not supply the traditional fit indices. Thus, we used the log-likelihood ratio test to determine whether the more parsimonious Model 0 represents a significant loss in fit relative to Model 1 (Maslowsky et al., 2015, Satorra & Bentler, 2010). This test resulted significant, Δlog-likelihood (1) = 9.01, $p < .01$, indicating that the Model 0 (null model) represents a significant loss in fit relative to Model 1 (with the interaction effect). Noteworthy, adding the interaction term to the null model increased the variance explained of team performance from 31% to 50%. These results provide support for Model 1, which modeled all parameter estimates, including those related to control varialbes as well as the latent interaction. Thus, all hypotheses were simultaneously tested using this model.

Also as part of the preliminary results, Table 1 presents the means, standard

deviations, and correlations among variables, revealing some interesting relationships, as well as some interesting non-relationships. Even though the correlation between demographic faultlines and team justice climate level was in the expected direction, the relation between these variables was nonsignificant (r = -.27, p > .05). By contrast, demographic faultlines were significantly correlated with climate strength (r = -.47, p < .01). Finally, team performance was negatively associated with gender diversity (r = -.41, p < .05). Table 2 presents the standardized estimates of all the parameters tested in the model, including the effects of each control variable on team justice climate level, team justice climate strength, and team performance. Below we present the results for the the proposed hypotheses.

Hypotheses Tests

Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 postulated that a strong climate strengthens the relationship between team justice climate level and team performance. None of the control variables had a significant effect on team performance. The latent interaction between climate level and strength was marginally significant, just above the standard p value of .05 (b = .22, SE = .11 p =.052).

Although Hypothesis 1 was not technically supported, we plotted the interaction since it approaches statistical significance closely and can provide us with relevant information. To do so, we plotted the interaction at one standard deviation above and below the mean as the higher (stronger climate) and lower (weaker climate) value of the moderator (Aiken & West, 1991). As shown in Figure 2, the pattern of the slopes is in line with the proposed hypothesis, as a strong climate seems to strengthen the effect of team justice climate level on team performance. We also conducted a simple slope test at one standard deviation above and below the mean (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2002). The results of this test indicated that the direction and magnitude of the slopes were once more in line with our expectations, as the slope for strong team justice climate was positive while the slope for weak team justice

climate was negative. Even though none of these slopes resulted significant (strong climate: b = .30, SE = .22, p > .05; weak climate: b = -.14, SE = .12 p > .05), some evidence of moderation was found nonetheless, providing partial support for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 2 predicted that demographic faultlines are negatively related to team justice climate level. As shown in Table 2, none of the variables, including demographic faultlines (b = -.21, SE = .17 p > .05), had a significant effect on team justice climate level. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 3 predicted that demographic faultlines would be negatively associated with team justice climate strength. With the exception of gender diversity, which presented a significant negative effect (b = -.41, SE = .16 p < .05), none of the remaining control variables had a significant effect. Even after controlling for all other variables, the results indicated in Table 2 showed that demographic faultlines were significantly and negatively related to team justice climate strength (b = -.43, SE = .17 p < .05), supporting Hypothesis 3.

Post hoc Analysis

Even though we did not explicitly propose it, our hypotheses imply a negative indirect effect from demographic faultlines to team performance. The results so far support this logic. However, the indirect effect would not take place through climate level but through climate strength, though they both interacted to predict team performance. We conducted a *post hoc* analysis to test this logic. This analysis is not directly relevant to the proposed model, but it may highlight the complex mechanisms underlying the effects of faultlines on performance (e.g., Bezrukova et al., 2009; Cooper, Patel, & Thatcher, 2014). Thus, we computed the index of moderated mediation (Hayes, 2015). Using 5,000 bootstrapped samples, the index was negative (-.10, SE = .07; *90% BCCI:* -.27, -.01), showing that the indirect effect from faultlines to performance through team justice strength tends to decrease as the level

increases. This shows the complexity of examining the relation between a team input, such as team composition (demographic faultlines), and a team process, such as team justice, when we do not limit the operationalization of such process to its level or amount but extend it to its strength or degree of agreement. It also clarifies the mechanism (strength, not level) through which, in this case, faultlines altered performance.

Despite this *post hoc* observation, we conducted a second study with a larger sample of teams to further examine the role played by climate strength and the lack of support for the link between demographic faultlines and climate level.

Study 2

Method

Sample and procedure

Data were again collected from organizations affiliated with "Plena Inclusión." The collection however took place over a different time period and none of the work teams included in Study 2 participated in Study 1. We followed the same procedures, eligibility criteria, ethical standards, and data cleaning strategy as in Study 1. Again, the team members were informed that they were going to be asked for information about relevant attributes of the team in which they worked and that these were related to how teammates treated each other. Likewise, we informed team members that this data collection was only for research purposes and that their ratings would be anonymous and confidential. As in Study 1, there were no incentives for responding to our measures, but Plena Inclusion recommended their participation.

With respect to supervisors, data collection procedures were also identical to those in Study 1. We informed supervisors that they would evaluate the performance of their collaborators in the team. Likewise, they were told that their responses were confidential and that their collaborators on the team would never know the performance ratings. We also

informed them that data were only for research purposes and that no one else would have access to their ratings.

The population of Study 2 consisted of 937 employees, nested within 118 work teams. The final sample consisted of 443 employees and 59 supervisors. These were nested in 59 teams, which ranged from three to 24 members (mean = 7.51, SD = 3.32). The average age of employees was 37.28 years (SD = 9.02), 73.81% were women and 51.92% had earned a university degree.

Measures

Study 2 included the same constructs as in Study 1. However, we made two changes. First, we used a different measure of team justice. We implemented this change since the lack of consistency in findings of moderator effects for climate strength might be the result of different researchers using different measures (Ehrhart et al., 2013). Second, after presenting the first set of results to Plena Inclusion we decided to also change the way in which we operationalized the outcome. Rather than using the generic approach to team performance appraisal used in Study 1, Study 2 included an industry-specific indicator: "team service quality." As in Study 1, team members reported about team justice climate, while supervisors assessed team performance (i.e., team service quality).

Team Justice Climate. We used Ambrose and Schminke's (2009) three-item overall justice scale approach to ask participants to focus on their team overall justice experience. An example item is "Most of the people who work in this team would say they are often treated unfairly (reversed item)." Again, all aggregation indices were within the expected thresholds. The ADI was .48 (SD = .21), the average rwg was .79 (SD = .15), the ICC(1) was .27, the ICC(2) .73, and the results obtained by an ANOVA showed a significant degree of between-team discrimination [$F(58, 382) = 3.741$, $p < .01$]. Thus, we proceeded to aggregate the data. The aggregated Cronbach α was .95. To operationalize the *level* and *strength* of team justice

climate we followed the same procedures applied in Study 1.

Team Service Quality. To assess the service quality delivered by the team, we used the seven-item scale validated by Molina et al. (2015). We asked each team's supervisor to assess their unit's performance in terms of the quality of the service they deliver as a team. Again, we informed supervisors that data were only for research purposes and no one would have access to their performance ratings. All items were scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*completely agree*) to 7 (*completely disagree*). An example item is "The employees of this team help people with intellectual disabilities as quickly as necessary." The Cronbach α was .89.

Results and Discussion

In testing the model presented in Figure 1, we proceed as we did in the first study. We first examine our measurement model and conduct some preliminary analyses, and we then turn to our three predictions. We again start in the "middle" of Figure 1, examining the interaction between team justice level and team justice strength, which is central to our thinking (Hypothesis 1). We then step back in our model, examining demographic faultlines as antecedent to team justice climate level (Hypothesis 2) and strength (Hypothesis 3). As we shall see, findings for Study 2 were highly consistent with those of Study 1.

Testing the Measurement Model

As in Study 1, all hypotheses focus on variables conceptualized at the same level of analysis, the team level. Thus, we modeled all variables at the group level. We ran two confirmatory factor analyses. The first model, which included two-factors, team justice climate and team service quality, revealed an acceptable fit to the data: $\chi 2 = 43.81$, $df = 34$; RMSEA = .070; CFI = .970; SRMR = .053. The second model, with all the items loading onto the same latent construct, revealed a poor fit to the data ($\chi 2 = 167.00$, $df = 30$; RMSEA = .253; CFI = .602; SRMR = .150) and negligible practical

differences against the two-factor model ($\Delta RMSEA < .015$; $\Delta CFI < .010$).

Preliminary Analyses

As in Study 1, Study 2 also tested a SEM model which included both latent and observed variables. The observed variables were the same as in Study 1 (team size, gender diversity, age diversity, educational diversity, demographic faultlines, and team justice climate strength). We estimated the latent variable team justice climate level using the three items used to measure this construct. Similarly, we estimated the latent variable team service quality using its sevent items. Again, the latent interaction term was the product of the latent construct team justice climate level and the observed variable team justice climate strength.

As before, we followed the same two-step estimation procedure (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000, Maslowsky et al., 2015). First we estimated Model 0, a null model that did not include the interaction term, and examined its fit indices ($\chi 2 = 121.80$, $df = 82$; RMSEA = .091, CFI = .918, SRMR = .073). Even though the RMSEA was not below the typical .08 cutoff, it was still below.10, similar to previous SEM models examining team justice (Li et al., 2013). Thus, after observing an acceptable fit, we estimated Model 1, which included the latent interaction but did not supply the traditional fit indices. The log-likelihood ratio test (Satorra & Bentler, 2010) produced a significant result, Δlog-likelihood (1) = 9.53, $p < .01$. This indicates that the Model 0 (null model) represents a significant loss in fit relative to Model 1 (with the interaction effect). Adding the interaction term to the null model increased the variance explained of team performance from 29% to 47%. Once more, these results provide support for Model 1.

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations among the variables. Team demographic faultlines were significantly correlated with team justice climate level ($r = -.27$, $p < .05$) and strength ($r = -.40$, $p < .01$). Team justice climate level was significantly associated with team service quality ($r = .30$, $p < .05$). As before, Table 2 presents the

standardized estimates of all the parameters tested, including the effects of all control variables. Below we report the results for the the proposed hypotheses.

Hypotheses Tests

Hypothesis 1. Team size and team justice climate level showed significant positive effects on team team service quality (labeled as team performance in Table 2); $b = .23$, $SE = .10$, $p < .05$; $b = .51$, $SE = .18$, $p < .01$, respectively. None of the remaining control variables were significant. The relationship between team justice climate level and team service quality was significantly moderated by climate strength ($b = .26$, $SE = .08$, $p < .01$). As in Study 1, we also plotted the interaction (Figure 2) and conducted a simple slope test at one standard deviation above and below the mean. This time both the plot and the simple slope test provided support for Hypothesis 1, as they showed that the relation between team justice climate level and team service quality remained positive when the climate was strong ($b = .76$, $SE = .24$, $p < .01$) but became nonsignificant when the climate was weak ($b = .25$, $SE = .15$, $p > .05$). These results replicate our earlier findings.

Hypothesis 2. As in Study 1, with the exception of gender diversity, which presented a significant negative effect ($b = -.30$, $SE = .11$ $p < .01$), none of the remaing variables, including demographic faultlines ($b = -.29$, $SE = .18$ $p > .05$), had a significant effect on team justice climate level. That is, even though the preliminary analysis showed a significant ($p < .05$) correlation between faultlines and climate level, this effect became nonsignificant when we considered other variables in the model. Once more, while disappointing, Hypothesis 2 was not supported as demographic faultlines failed to predict team justice climate level.

Hypothesis 3. None of the control variables had a significant effect on climate strength. Similarly to Study 1, however, demographic faultlines was significantly and negatively related to team justice climate strength ($b = -.39$, $SE = .16$ $p < .05$), supporting once again Hypothesis 3.

The findings of Study 1 and 2 are summarized in Figure 3. The results are promising as both studies showed very similar patterns. As anticipated by our third hypothesis, climate level was more strongly related to team performance when the climate was strong and less strongly related to performance when the climate was weak (Figure 2). Contrary to Hypothesis 2, demographic faultlines did not predict team justice climate level. However, consistent with Hypothesis 3, faultlines were indeed related to team justice climate strength.

Post hoc Analysis

Again, the results suggested a conditional negative indirect effect through climate strength, not level. Using 5,000 bootstrapped samples, the index of moderated mediation was negative (-.10, *SE* = .06, *90% BCCI* = -.24, -.03), replicating the results of Study 1.

Discussion

Our studies make three contributions to understanding justice within teams (Li et al., 2009). First, we found that team justice climate strength – the extent to which teammates shared a common view of their climate – moderated the relationship between justice climate level and unit performance. When team justice climates were weak, the benefits of high levels of team justice were blunted. Second, demographic faultlines lowered climate strength and thereby stymied team effectiveness. Research on team justice should be attentive to the role of climate strength. Third, the impact of demographic faultlines on team performance was through its effect on climate strength, though the mechanism is complex as it involves an interaction between both climate level and climate strength. In our studies, demographic faultlines did not consistently lower the level (or amount) of team justice. Rather, faultlines seem to have exerted their effect by making climate less consistent across team members.

Theoretical Implications and Future Research Needs

Justice Climate and Demographic Faultlines

It is worth considering why our two studies failed to replicate Antino et al.'s (2019)

findings regarding the relationship between demographic faultlines and team justice climate level. Respondents tended to view their climates as fair, with means above 4.0 on a five-point scale. This range restriction may have reduced the size of the observed relationship. However, there remains a more interesting possibility. Unlike the present investigation, Antino and his colleagues did not include climate strength in their analysis. This is an important observation as our two studies showed a substantial correlation between climate strength and level (r = .67, p < .01, in Study 1 and r = .69, p < .01, in Study 2). Even though both studies showed relevant correlations between team faultlines and climate level (although this effect was only significant in Study 2; r = -.27, p > .05, in Study 1 and r = -.27, p < .05, Study 2), none of these effects were significant in the SEM model, when both climate strength and climate level were included simultaneously. Given these findings, it could be that the principal impact of faultlines is that they reduce climate strength but have smaller (if any) effects on climate levels. Though not planned, this conclusion was further buttressed by our *post hoc* tests of mediated moderation. In both studies, faultlines had an indirect effect on performance through climate strength, which was conditional on the level (not mediated by it).

While we anticipated that demographic faultlines would lower the level of team justice climate, there is a retrospective argument against our position. In two studies of workplace teams, Berzukova and her colleagues (2010) found that faultlines protected employees from psychological distress. When individuals were treated unfairly, they responded less negatively when they were in a well-defined subgroup. These findings are not directly comparable to the present studies. For example, Berzukova et al. did not measure unit-level fairness. However, this earlier work is important. Individuals may find justice among their subgroup members even when this is lacking in the team as a whole.

This possibility raises an intriguing theoretical challenge. Suppose that demographic

diversity decreases climate strength but leaves climate level roughly unchanged. If team justice was altered for any subgroup, then the overall climate level could only be maintained if an offsetting change occurred in some other group(s). Consequently, for climate strength to weaken, the subgroups would likely become more polarized, if climate level were held constant. Put differently, if demographic faultlines lower climate strength but not climate level, subgroups would move in different directions with respect to team justice. This process might afford some protection to workers, as found by Bezrukova et al. (2010). However, the resulting polarization could make it more difficult for the overall team to work effectively.

This is a counterintuitive possibility, as it implies that demographic faultlines move climate levels in different directions, depending on the particular subgroup. Surprising as this may be, it is theoretically defensive. If some groups are privileged and other groups are disadvantaged, then the former will benefit from a favorable comparison, perhaps viewing the uneven treatment as especially fair. The latter group will be frustrated by an unfavorable comparison, likely viewing matters as especially unfair. In this scenario, demographic faultlines would fail to predict the level (or amount) of team justice climate, because the faultlines may make some feel better and others feel worse. The increased polarization would boost variability and thereby lower climate strength. Future research should test this by analyzing each informal (sub)groups within units (Götz, Bollmann, & O'Boyle, 2019) or non-uniform justice climate patterns and its effects (González-Romá & Hernández, 2014; Molina et al., 2017).

Demographic Faultiness and Team Justice Climate

Demographic faultlines sometimes have negative effects on team processes (Lau & Murnighan, 1998; 2005), but there are potential benefits related to demographic diversity as well (Roberson, 2019). In learning to manage the challenges and opportunities offered by demographic faultlines, it might be helpful to take a closer look at precisely when and why do

demographic faultlines influence the level and strength of team justice climate. We share some conjectures that may help guide future research and practice.

Our results did not support the link from demographic faultlines to team justice climate. One explanation may lie in the sector in which the teams in our sample operate. Relative to other sectors, such as manufacturing or construction, the service sector and particularly the healthcare care sector, are characterized by frequent and close interactions with customers (Datta et al., 2005). In these industries, where quality of service and customer satisfaction are highly relevant indicators of performance, having a diverse demographic workforce is sometimes considered a strategic asset, as it allows to better empathize with customers and understand their needs (Joshi & Roh, 2009). Therefore, when diversity is valued by the team and/or the organization, subgroup categorization based on demographic attributes could be less likely to lead to biases, and even contributive positively to team processes (Hentschel et al., 2013; Valls et al., 2016). Future research could benefit from examining these differences, or even broader industries' differences.

We have discussed that demographic faultlines may alter the interpretation of the teams' social reality. Two avenues might be useful to further address this challenge. On the one hand, the examination of shared mental models. The "shared, organized understanding and mental representation of knowledge about key elements of the team's relevant environment" (Mohammed & Dumville, 2001, p. 90) among subgroups may help to better understand faultlines' impact on team processes such as team justice climate (level and strength), and subsequent team performance (Lim et al., 2013). For instance, under certain circumstances, like when team members are extremely diverse, teammates will make an effort to develop a new shared understanding of their group's norms (Earley & Mosakowski, 2000). This contribution to the teams' social reality may translate into healthier and more effective team processes such as team justice climate.

On the other hand, different demographic groups may not always judge fairness by the same standards (Liao & Rupp, 2005). For instance, an older employee might be more formal, objecting innocent displays of informality from their younger coworkers. If this were the case, then the subgroups may be judging the same objective events, even when they have similar levels of fairness overall. Hence, it may not be that demographic groups are treated differently. Rather, there may be conditions under which the same objective treatment is viewed as more or less fair. This is speculative, though it is an intriguing possibility that has yet to be investigated by team justice climate researchers.

These observations raise a final issue that is worth considering in this context. Groups of people can differ in myriad respects, and this diversity can be a source of positive synergy at work. However, moral diversity seems to be a different nature. Three studies by Haidt, Rosenberg, and Hom (2003) found that college students often desired diverse interactions, but not with indivdiuals who differed on important moral values. As justice, including workplace justice, involves moral considerations, then intransigence with respect to fairness could create especially intense team faultlines. Coworkers may find it very difficult to compromise on these issues. This possibility should be investigated by future research.

Team Justice Climate Strength and Its Origins

Even though several studies have examined the antecedents of authority-based justice (e.g., Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Roberson, 2006), we know very little about the way teams develop team justice climates. As in other types of climates, scholars generally assumed that team members develop a shared perception about the typical way they treat one another (e.g., Cropanzano et al., 2011; Molina et al., 2015). In this regard, scholars have considered different types of mechanisms to explain the emergence of shared justice perceptions, including social interaction (team members have more opportunities for interaction and discussion of justice events) and the exposure of teams to similar policies, practices, and

procedures (e.g., Li et al., 2015; Whitman et al., 2012). All these factors promote consensual interpretations of justice.

While these are important possibilities, our findings suggest that the internal life of groups is more complex. Researchers must first take a view of emergence that includes variability and dispersion theory (Brown & Kozowski, 1999), which provides a richer portrait of teams. When subgroups show variability as to fairness, some team members tend not to see themselves as fairly treated and, as a result, are less likely to act in ways that benefit the group. When the task is interdependent, this loss of motivation could be harmful to everyone. Something like this may have occurred in the present studies. From a dispersion theory (Brown & Kozlowski, 1999) standpoint, this observation suggests that a convergence type of climate emergence is not sufficient to explain the nature of organizational climate.

In turn, the role of climate strength raises new questions about its own origins. Our findings suggest that demographic faultlines are antecedents to climate strength. The team itself is a context for people of different gender, age, and educational level to work together, creating conditions for subgrouping and variability (Meyer et al., 2014). Explanations for the formation of team justice climate need to take these differences into account.

Practical Recommendations

Some managers may not consider fair relationships between team members as part of their responsibility (Pless, Maak, & Waldman, 2012). They may focus more on structural or procedural aspects (e.g., salary, promotion) that can be interpreted as (un)fair, as well as on their own behavior (Naumann & Bennett, 2000). However, research increasingly provides evidence that team justice is a relevant factor in predicting performance (Cropanzano et al., 2011; Li et al., 2013). One important challenge is the management of subgrouping related to faultlines within teams because it is a source of variability that may hinder performance (Antino et al., 2019). Diversity is becoming increasingly common within teams (van

Knippenberg & Mell, 2016), facilitating different ways to interpret how team members treat one another. Accordingly, actions need to be taken to prevent diversity from being translated into sub-optimal performance. Team cohesion is more necessary now than ever, given the increasingly diversity of the workforce.

Our findings also have implications for managing work teams. While research on faultlines often reports that diversity has negative effects, this is not always the case (Jehn, Jehn, Bezrukova, & Thatcher, 2008). In fact, demographic diversity brings considerable benefits when it is effectively managed (Roberson, 2019). Responding to diversity adequately, organizations should strive to treat everyone fairly (Whitman et al., 2012) but this lesson should extend to the way in which peers treat one another.

Strengths and Limitations

Four main strengths are noteworthy. First, all the variables were created based on different measurement strategies (e.g., two sources of information, ASW algorithm, ADI multiplied by -1, ordinal dispersion index). This drastically reduced common method variance issues, increasing our confidence in the observed results. Second, unlike previous studies on team justice climate, which were often based on student samples (Cropanzano et al., 2011; Li et al., 2013), we focused on actual work teams. Despite the challenges of working with real teams, this helped us to improve the external validity about team justice and its impact on performance. Third, we considered two sources of data. Performance evaluation by supervisors is appropriate itself. It also helps to reduce common method variance concerns. Finally, our research was driven by strong theoretical arguments as we combined faultlines, team justice level, and climate strength, providing a richer picture about the nature of team justice climate. Previously, these ideas have only been treated in isolation. Nevertheless, the present studies have limitations, three of which strike us as especially important.

First, despite the merits of cross-sectional studies (Spector, 2019) and the wide spectrum of measurement strategies we used, our design provides a static view. Future studies should enrich our results by considering longitudinal processes.

Second, it is worth observing that some of our variables such as team performance showed evidence of range restriction, with mean scores on the high side. This is not uncommon in real-world performance appraisal practices (Murphy et al., 1993). Anticipating that these variables would be on the high side, we took steps to reduce leniency. We stressed to participants that all responses were confidential and that only the research group would have access to them (Cleveland et al., 1989; Murphy et al., 1993), which was the case of this study. Range restriction tends to reduce the size of correlation coefficients (Muchinsky, 1996). In this case our conclusions would be somewhat conservative. However, there are situations where range restriction could inflate a relationship (Huck, 1992). This could occur, for instance, if the restriction were on one variable and not on the other. Even though this does not seem to have transpired in our results, as the restriction is to both the predictor (team justice climate) and the criteria (team performance and team service quality), it is important that future studies address this concern.

A third limitation has to do with our integrative theoretical position. When combining these different conceptual models, it is difficult to measure every possible mediator in a small number of studies. For this reason, some of the proposed processes are implicit but not actually measured in these studies. For example, the argument that the existence of faultlines decreases justice strength implies that these individuals may be treated differently than their younger coworkers. This process could be tested explicitly in future studies.

Fourth, despite the merits of operationalizing demographic faultlines based on previous research (Meyer et al., 2016; Tiede, et al., 2021) and using a robust algorithm (Meyer et al., 2014), this does not constitute an objective measure of actual faultlines.

Moreover, despite the efforts put in the data collection process, the final sample size of Study 1 and 2 were smaller than would have been preferred. Both studies manifested very similar results, which is an indicator that our findings describe the role of faultlines and team justice well. While this is good news, the findings are in need of replication, as the results of small samples will not always replicate. Future research with larger sample sizes would greatly benefit this area of study. Of course, as the unit of analysis is the team and not the individual, such work will often be practically difficult to conduct. To this extent that this occurs, the smaller sample studies could still prove useful, as they could later be combined into a comprehensive meta-analysis, which could aggregate findings across studies (Schmidt, 1992; 1996).

Conclusion

Team justice continues to contribute to our understanding of non-hierarchical collaborative settings. We contribute to this literature by focusing attention on the role of demographic faultlines and climate strength. Faultlines increase the variability of perceptions of team justice. This variability prevents team justice level from being translated into effective unit performance. From an IMO logic, research examining team composition indicators (e.g., demographic faultlines) as *inputs* of team *processes* (whether team justice or else) should not focus solely on the level or amount of such processes but also on their strength or the degree of agreement among teammates.

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Endnote

[1] We excluded distributive justice because individual distributive judgments do not tend to emerge as a team-level construct within the Spanish healthcare industry. Team members within this context do not hold the power to allocate work resources since these are strongly regulated by industry protocols and collective bargaining agreements. This is consistent with previous concerns raised by Ambrose and Schminke (2007) who pointed out that coworkers typically do not allocate resources and, more important, empirical evidence showing that distributive judgments within this same industry do not result in sufficient within-unit agreement for researchers to appraise it as a unit phenomenon (see Molina et al., 2016).

Table 1
Means, standard deviations, and inter-correlations of unit-level and individual-level variables

	M	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
Study 1									
1. Team size	7.21	2.64							
2. Gender diversity	.28	.20	.34 *						
3. Age diversity	8.19	2.85	.21	-.36 *					
4. Educational diversity	.37	.15	-.03	-.38 *	.61 **				
5. Team faultlines	.46	.13	.46 **	.07	.15	.36 *			
6. Team justice climate level	4.04	.44	-.22	-.27	.05	-.08	-.27		
7. Team justice climate strength	-.49	.15	-.31	-.36 *	-.06	-.11	-.47 **	.67 **	
8. Team performance	6.09	.49	-.06	-.41 *	.07	.10	.08	.16	.25
Study 2									
1. Team size	7.47	3.32							
2. Gender diversity	.33	.16	-.02						
3. Age diversity	7.67	2.31	.15	.03					
4. Educational diversity	.37	.15	.26 *	.31 *	.31 **				
5. Team faultlines	.46	.15	.48 **	-.43 **	.26 *	-.12			
6. Team justice climate level	4.19	.49	-.43 **	-.16	.02	-.09	-.27 *		
7. Team justice climate strength	-.48	.21	-.46 **	-.09	-.13	-.16	-.40 **	.69 **	
8. Team service quality	5.74	.74	.13	-.04	.20	.16	.14	.30 *	.05

Team performance and team service quality were measured by supervisors. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 2
Results of the proposed model

	Team justice climate level		Team justice climate strength		Team performance	
	b	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*
Study 1						
Team size	.01	.16	.04	.18	.06	.09
Gender diversity	-.29	.16	-.41 *	.16	-.16	.12
Age diversity	-.14	.16	-.02	.15	.01	.09
Educational diversity	.04	.15	-.14	.13	.14	.11
Team faultlines	-.21	.17	-.43 *	.17	.06	.13
Team justice climate level					.08	.14
Team justice climate strength					.06	.13
Team justice climate level x strength					.22 †	.11
R^2		.17		.35 **		.50 *
Study 2						
Team size	-.30	.20	-.26	.18	.23 *	.10
Gender diversity	-.30 **	.11	-.23	.14	.13	.10
Age diversity	.16	.11	.04	.10	.14	.11
Educational diversity	-.01	.13	-.09	.12	.02	.09
Team faultlines	-.29	.18	-.39 *	.16	.19	.12
Team justice climate level					.51 **	.18
Team justice climate strength					-.01	.14
Team justice climate level x strength					.26 **	.08
R^2		.28 *		.30 **		.47 *

All parameter estimates were modeled in the same model. Standardized parameter estimates are reported. Team performance was operationalized in Study 1 based on a generic approach to team performance appraisal and in Study 2 based on the industry-specific indicator team service quality; on both studies team performance was reported by the supervisor. $^{\dagger}p = .052$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Figure 1

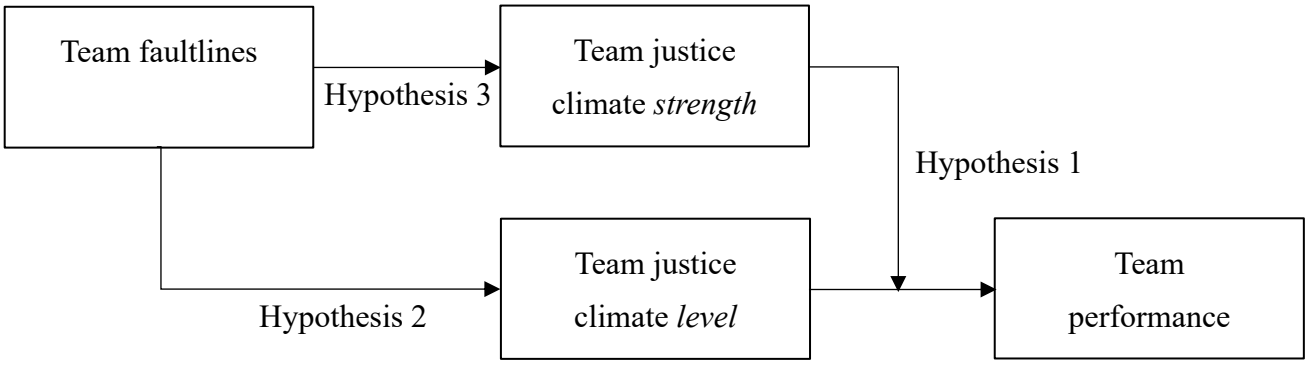

Figure 1. Proposed model.

Figure 2

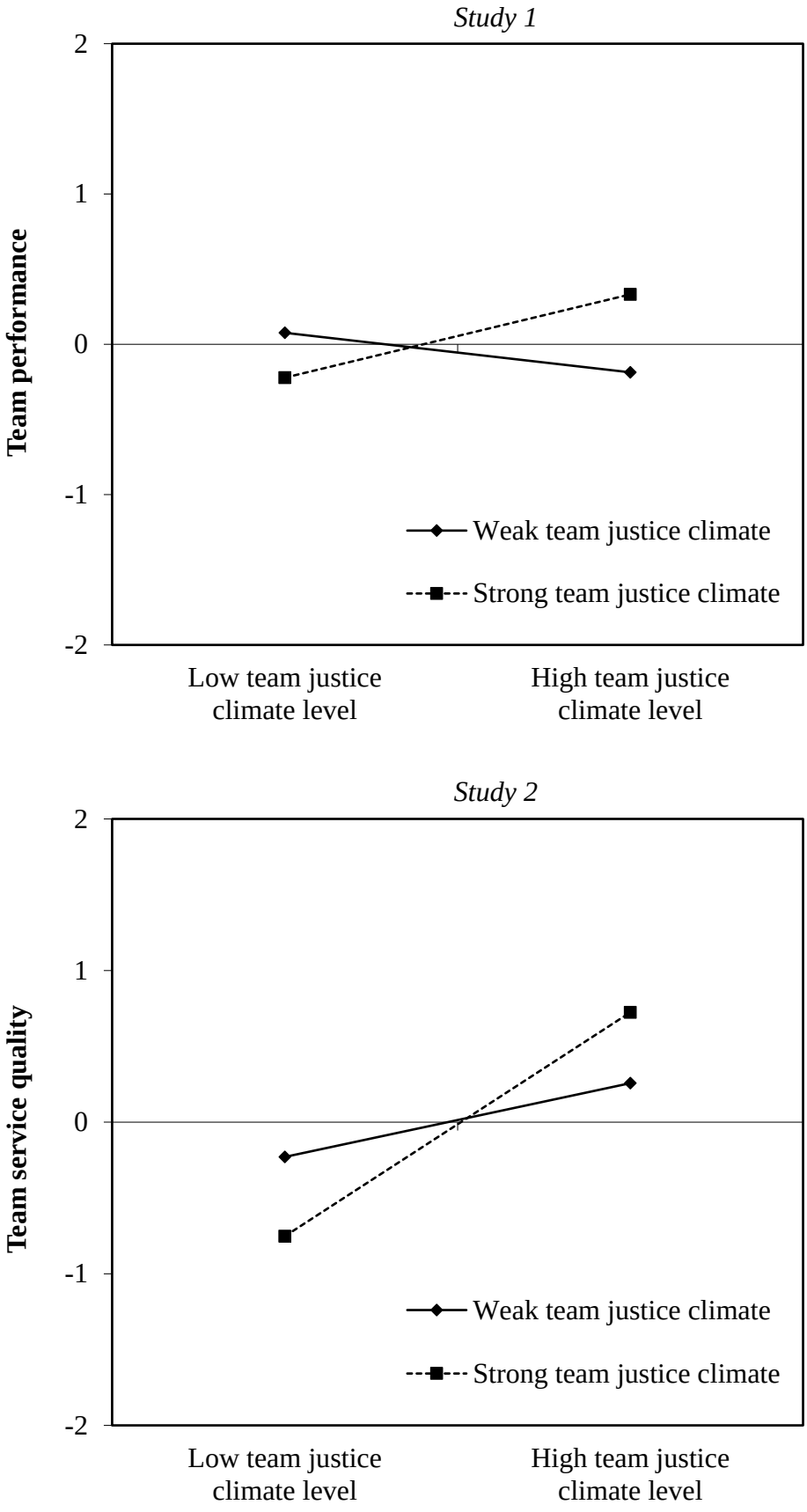

Figure 2. Interaction plots of Study 1 and 2.

Figure 3

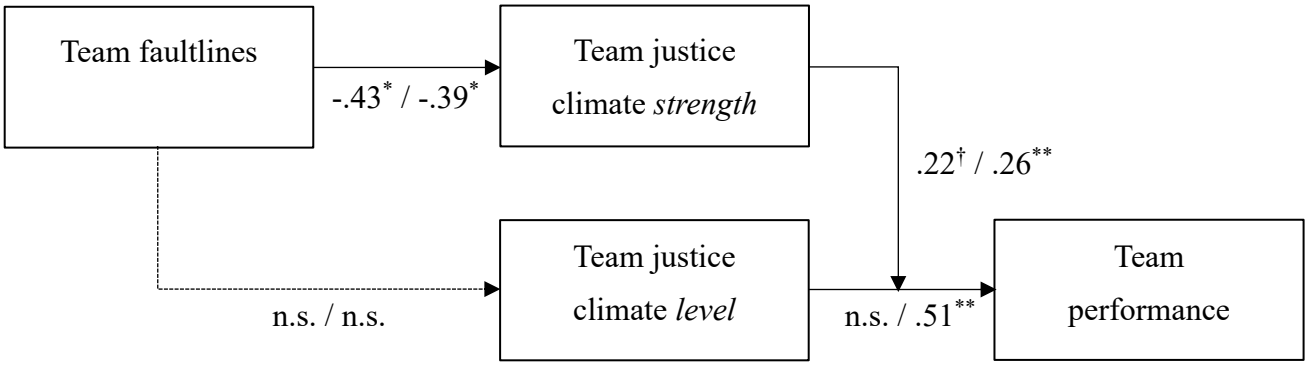

Figure 3. Standardized parameter estimates to the left refer to Study 1 and to the right to Study 2. $^{\dagger}p = .052$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.