TILBURG ◆ UNIVERSITY

Tilburg University

A Matter of intragroup Status

De Cremer, D.; Tyler, T.R.

Published in:
Research on Managing Groups and Teams

Publication date:
2005

Link to publication in Tilburg University Research Portal

Citation for published version (APA):
De Cremer, D., & Tyler, T. R. (2005). A Matter of intragroup Status: The Importance of Respect for the Viability of Groups. In B. Mannix, M. Neal, & M. Thoman-Hunt (Eds.), *Research on Managing Groups and Teams* (pp. 1-21). (Status and groups; No. 7). Elsevier.

A MATTER OF INTRAGROUP STATUS: THE IMPORTANCE OF RESPECT FOR THE VIABILITY OF GROUPS

David De Cremer and Tom R. Tyler

ABSTRACT

Respect is an important indicator of intragroup status, and it can influence within-group behavior. Being respected by other group members indicates a positive standing within the group that is relevant to two important identity concerns: belongingness and social reputation. Belongingness refers to the extent to which a person feels included in the group, and social reputation refers to how other in-group members evaluate a person. We review a series of studies that show that respect indeed communicates information relevant to these identity concerns, and as such influences a person's sense of affiliation, self-esteem, and cooperation (all variables considered to be important for the viability of groups). In addition, we also discuss whether the source of respect (i.e., peers vs. authority), culture, and group size matter in influencing these group-related variables. Finally, some implications for research on groups are discussed.

1   In contemporary society, one of the aims of many organizations is to
     achieve a high status, relative to other organizations. Status derived from
3   interorganizational comparisons provides a company with economic ben-
     efits (i.e., having a competitive edge) and social benefits (i.e., being a proud
5   organization). Consequently, a great deal of research has been devoted to
     understanding the role of group status for group members. For example,
7   social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) states that people use their
     group memberships to define their social identity, as such implying that
9   people prefer to derive their sense of worth and identity from high-status
     groups. Individual employees prefer to belong to high-status and prestigious
11   organizations in which they can bask in reflected glory (cf., Cialdini et al.,
     1976).
13   Of course, the striving for high-status group memberships may complicate
     how members of different groups and organizations interact. For example,
15   the issue of intergroup-based status plays an important role in several in-
     dustries that rely heavily on employees from both their own company, but,
17   in addition, also from employees of other more marginal businesses (e.g.,
     hotels, retail establishments). In these situations, employees from the main
19   and high-status company (in-group) are more or less "forced" to work
     together with employees from related, but, more marginal businesses (out-
21   group). Research on such in-group vs. out-group interactions shows con-
     vincingly that status differences between such companies negatively influ-
23   ence working relationships and collaborative behavior between them
     (Stamper & Masterson, 2002).
25   However, in the present chapter we wish to argue that employees do not
     only derive a sense of their personal status from intergroup relations, but
27   also attend to their status within the group, and that such intragroup status
     has important consequences for group behavior. Surprisingly, social psy-
29   chology and management research has devoted little attention to the rela-
     tion between intragroup status, and the viability of groups and
31   organizations. In fact, assessing the impact of how people perceive their
     status (how they are perceived by themselves and others) within groups and
33   organizations has only recently attracted the attention of social scientists
     (e.g., Kramer, 2001; Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000).
35

THE IMPORTANCE OF INTRAGROUP STATUS

39   The recent interest in the issue of intragroup status emerges largely from
     several lines of inquiry examining how newcomers in groups and organi-

1 zations attend to social information. For example, Kramer (2001, p. 173) observed that newcomers in organizations are very motivated to engage in
3 the process of sense-making "to reduce uncertainty about standing." For these purposes, newcomers assign significant weight to relational informa-
5 tion, which communicates how others perceive their intragroup status. Thus, concerns about intragroup status could be expected to strongly in-
7 fluence newcomers' actions and attitudes, more so than those of old-timers in organizations. Such a perspective is indeed supported by recent research
9 conceptualizing the newcomer as an active participant in the socialization process, in which he or she actively seeks information to define his or her
11 role in a clear and stable way (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1994; Ashford & Black, 1996).
13   What social psychological motives underlie people's search for intragroup status information? In the present chapter, we argue that information about
15 one's status within the group or organization influences one's relational self, or, in other words, that aspect of their identity which is based on the quality
17 of their interactions with others (Tyler & Smith, 1999). One's relational self is based on personalized relationships with particular others and these re-
19 lationships include friendships, relationships with colleagues, and with su-pervisors (Sedikides & Brewer, 2001). This type of self relies on the process
21 of reflected appraisal, and this level of appraisal is, in turn, associated with how people evaluate interpersonal relatedness, intimacy, and interdepend-
23 ence within the relationship (see Baumeister & Leary, 1995).
     Thus, one's relational self is constructed within the context of intragroup
25 relationships and can be assessed by means of one's status within the group. Following from such a focus on the relational self, we reason that knowing
27 one's intragroup status provides information about two identity concerns: (1) whether one belongs or not (i.e., inclusion) and (2) whether one is eval-
29 uated positively by others (i.e., social reputation). Obtaining such diagnostic social information reduces uncertainty about one's social self (see cf., Van
31 den Bos & Lind, 2002; De Cremer & Sedikides, 2003). In line with this assumption, several lines of inquiry have indeed indicated that the attempt
33 to define one's relational self raises questions, such as: (a) "Can I define myself in terms of my relationships with others in the group?" (i.e., "Do I
35 belong to this group?") and (b) "Am I evaluated positively by the others (i.e., social reputation)?" Moreover, research on procedural fairness has also
37 defined the concept of intragroup status by referring to the process of in-clusion (Lind, 2001), and the process of social evaluation of one's position
39 within the group (Tyler, 1989): processes similar to the two identity concerns of belongingness and social reputation.

1   In the following sections, we will focus more closely on the meaning and
importance of both identity concerns, and will operationalize intragroup
3 status by using the concept of received respect.

5

7   *Belongingness and Reputation as Identity Concerns*

9 Owing to our focus on the relational self, we will examine both the identity
concerns at the interpersonal level. Why? First, the *need to belong* implies
11 that people wish to form positive and potentially continuous social rela-
tionships, and, therefore, they focus strongly on what happens at the in-
13 terpersonal level (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; De Cremer & Leonardelli,
2003). Second, evidence exists that particularly within *interpersonal rela-*
15 *tionships* people seek social approval and wish to convey favorable images of
themselves through others (Baumeister, 1982; Leary & Kowalski, 1990). We
17 will explore the implications of these two identity concerns at the interper-
sonal level.
19   With respect to belongingness needs, several lines of research point to the
conclusion that people are social beings in that they use their relationships
21 with other individuals or groups to define their social self (Aron & Aron,
1986; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). A crucial aspect in this process is that people
23 thus pursue a sense of inclusion for self-definitional purposes, a tendency
that is believed to be inherent in human beings in general (Kurzban & Leary,
25 2001).
      Research on the need to belong (e.g., Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Gardner,
27 Pickett, & Brewer, 2000b; Twenge, Baumeister, Tice, & Stucke, 2001;
Twenge, Catanese, & Baumeister, 2002), indeed demonstrates that people
29 are fundamentally motivated to belong to groups and relationships con-
sidered to be important to the self. As a result, people are very attentive
31 toward any type of relational information communicated by others, but
particularly so when their need to belong is unfulfilled. The importance and
33 pervasiveness of this need to belong has been shown by research demon-
strating that a lack of positive social relationships has detrimental effects on
35 the physical, cognitive, and behavioral level (Baumeister & Leary, 1995;
Reis, Collins, & Berscheid, 2000). For example, not feeling accepted by
37 others influences well-being negatively, reinforces selective memory for so-
cially relevant information and undermines intrinsic motivation (e.g., Be-
39 rscheid & Reis, 1998; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Gardner, Gabriel, & Diekman,
2000a; Gardner et al., 2000b), whereas fulfilling the need to belong positively

1 influences cooperative behavior within groups (De Cremer & Leonardelli, 2003).

3   We are also interested in social reputation. As early as the writings of James (1890), researchers acknowledge that one's social self is, at least

5 partly, determined by one's social reputation. Indeed, because social evaluation is an important element in the process of constructing the self (cf.,

7 Tice, 1992), people are, by their very nature, motivated to obtain a positive image or reputation (e.g., the extensive literature on people's public self-

9 presentation skills; Baumeister, 1982; Leary, 2001). In fact, social reputations largely determine how one's behaviors are recognized and rewarded

11 (e.g., Johnson, Erez, Kiker, & Motowidlo, 2002). As a result, one's social self clearly entails a concern about social evaluation and consequently a

13 concern about one's reputation within the group. The powerful effects of social reputation in groups has, for example, been demonstrated by recent

15 research showing that people exhibit more cooperative behavior when their reputation is threatened, help others more easily when they have a positive

17 image, and are more likely to develop positive and enjoyable relationships with others if they possess a positive reputation (e.g., Gächter & Fehr, 1999;

19 De Cremer, & DeWitte, 2001; Milinski, Semmann, & Krambeck, 2002).

    Of course, we acknowledge that due to their connection to identity issues,

21 concerns about inclusion and about social reputation are strongly related to one another. In fact, research suggests that belongingness needs and concern

23 for reputation share a common ground. That is, a lack of social connections (e.g., being abandoned by others, being a peripheral member of society, etc.)

25 and feelings of having a deprived status (i.e., a low social reputation), often seem to go hand in hand in negatively influencing a person's mental well-

27 being, emotions, cognitions, and actions (e.g., Baumeister, 1991; Baumeister & Leary, 1995). For example, youth lacking social bonds frequently join

29 gangs to feel included, just as they join them to get a positive social reputation from those gangs (Jankowski, 1991). All of these suggest that a lack

31 of belongingness and a low social reputation, or deprived social status are often linked, with both making people focus more on relational informa-

33 tion, such as their intragroup standing (e.g., Forsyth, 1991) or how they are treated by others (Tyler & Smith, 1999). Although they may be related at

35 some conceptual level, it is important to note that the aim of the present chapter is not to outline which factor determines the other, but to stress that

37 information about both belongingness and reputation is communicated by information about one's intragroup status.

39

1   *Respect as an Indicator of Intragroup Status*

3   What type of intragroup information is related to these identity concerns?
     One specific type of information that indicates one's position and status
5   within the group, and as such influences one's self-definition, is whether one
     feels *respected* by the other group members. In the present chapter, respect is
7   seen as social information including one's relational value within the group,
     which is communicated by others via the way they treat the person in
9   question (see also Tyler & Smith, 1999). Why should respect be particularly
     relevant to intragroup status?
11   In the present chapter, we start from the assumption that people attend to
     cues about their relationships within their group to derive information
13   about their social self and self-regard (see Tyler & Smith, 1999; De Cremer,
     2002b). Following relational models of justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler &
15   Lind, 1992), one important type of information that provides us with such
     cues is the fairness of procedures enacted by the group and its members.
17   Research on procedural fairness has indeed shown that the use of fair pro-
     cedures positively influences people's self-regard and identity (e.g., Koper,
19   van Knippenberg, Bouhuijs, Vermunt, & Wilke, 1993). The reason for this is
     that fair procedures communicate to people that they are perceived as hav-
21   ing a respected position within the group. Thus, in these relational models,
     respect is seen as an important indicator of intragroup status. In line with
23   this proposition, research indeed shows that people's judgments about their
     standing within the group, and their associated feelings of self-regard, are
25   enhanced when they receive respectful treatment by the group and its au-
     thorities (Tyler, Degoey, & Smith, 1996; Boeckman & Tyler, 2002). As such,
27   we consider respect not as something that people simply intuit by them-
     selves, but rather as a judgment that emerges from the treatment they receive
29   from others.
         Thus, Tyler and colleagues (e.g., Tyler & Smith, 1999; Tyler, 2001) argue
31   that whether people feel that others treat them with respect shape their
     judgments about their acceptance within their group (inclusion) and about
33   their status within the group (reputation). Based on this, we predict that the
     respect given by in-group members can be seen as an important means to tell
35   people whether: (a) they belong to the relationships within their group and
     (b) they have a positive social reputation within those relationships. There-
37   fore, we perceive respect as an indicator of intragroup status communicating
     identity-relevant information, which, in turn, will influence important group
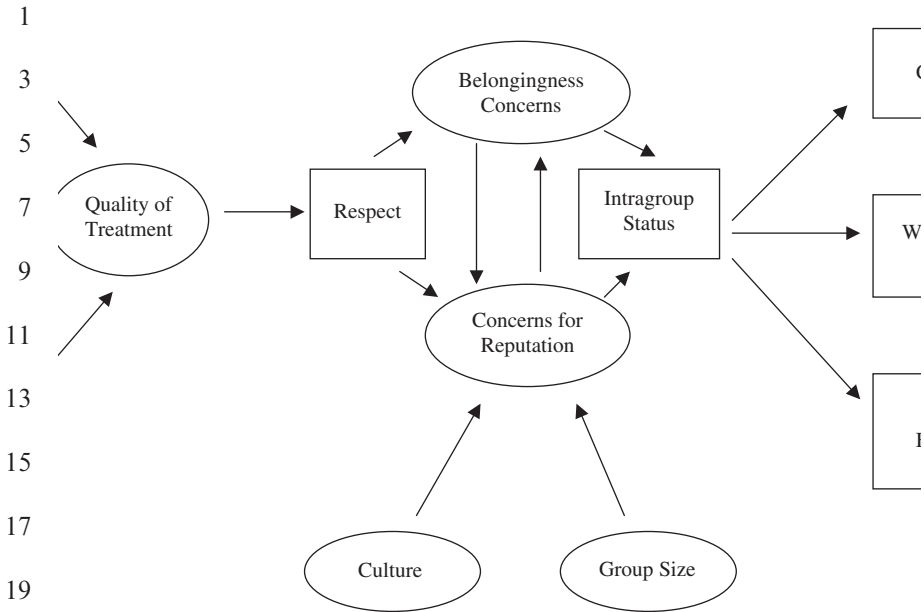39   outcomes (see Fig. 1).

1

3

5

7

9

11

13

15

17

19

21

Fig. 1.   Respect as Intragroup Status Model.

23   The implication of these predictions, as derived from our respect model, is that once people's need for belongingness and positive social reputation are
25   satisfied, they will care less strongly about issues of respect. However, we hasten to say that this latter assumption only implies that people will be less
27   likely to use information about respect to satisfy the above-mentioned identity needs. They may still be strongly motivated to use respect for other
29   purposes associated with their high(er) intragroup status. For example, Chen, Brockner, and Greenberg (in press) showed that both high- and low-   QA :1
31   status members of work organizations (in terms of their management position) valued relational information like procedural fairness, but for dif-
33   ferent purposes. Those high in status were interested in affirming existing power differences. Thus, this data suggests that those with high intragroup
35   status positions may still value and process respect information, but we argue that they will do so for reasons that have less to do with identity
37   concerns, but rather for reasons associated with power and legitimacy (e.g., Jost & Major, 2001).

39

1   **RESPECT AND THE VIABILITY OF GROUPS**

3 What behavioral, cognitive, and affective outcomes does respect influence
   by addressing identity concerns, and why is respect important for the vi-
5 ability of groups? In the present chapter, we will focus on three such out-
   comes that are of relevance toward the group and its members –
7 cooperation, feelings of affiliation, and members' self-esteem (see Fig. 1).
      Groups fare well if their members are willing to devote extra time, energy,
9 and effort to interdependent tasks and actions that benefit the group or
   organization. This contribution of individual effort, time, and resources to
11 collective projects is referred to as *cooperation* (e.g., cf., Katz, 1964; Smith,
   Carroll, & Ashford, 1995; Van Vugt, Snyder, Tyler, & Biel, 2000). For a
13 variety of reasons, cooperation has long been deemed necessary to the sur-
   vival of groups. For example, cooperation by the group members leads to
15 improved coordination of activities and interdependent tasks, a factor con-
   sidered important to the success of groups in reaching their goals (e.g.,
17 Smith et al., 1995; Wagner II, 1995). Further, promoting cooperation re-
   duces non-cooperative tendencies like free riding and social loafing (e.g.,
19 Olson, 1965; Kerr & Bruun, 1983).
      Further, for groups to remain viable and long lasting, their members also
21 have to identify with the group and feel that they are part of it. If no sense of
   affiliation exists, group members are likely to leave, leading to the group's
23 demise. In addition, the nature of work (e.g., role definition, organizational
   goals) can change rapidly, and only group members who feel a strong sense
25 of affiliation may be intrinsically motivated to adapt to these changes. In-
   deed, having affiliations with others is a fundamental psychological need,
27 and as Deci and Ryan (2000, p. 233) argue "intrinsic motivation will be
   facilitated by conditions that conduce toward psychological need satisfac-
29 tion." Moreover, expressing strong group identification is also believed to
   motivate people to pursue the group goals, sacrifice own interests, and to
31 express loyalty to the group (e.g., De Cremer & Van Vugt, 1999; De Cremer
   & Van Dijk, 2002).
33   Finally, because of changing business conditions, which have been char-
   acterized by an increasing trend toward employee involvement in decision
35 making, group research has begun to devote more attention to the role
   members' *self-esteem* plays in terms of group functioning (e.g., Pfeffer, 1998;
37 McAllister & Bigley, 2002). More precisely, in the last decade it has become
   increasingly clear that self-esteem is not only an important psychological
39 need, but also an important economic need (Branden, 1998). That is, self-

1 esteem plays a role in how people evaluate themselves and how efficacious they feel. These feelings, in turn, are of major importance in the process of
3 how employees, at different levels in the organization, reason, decide, and regulate action (e.g., Wiesenfeld, Brockner, & Thibault, 2000). Moreover,
5 research has also demonstrated that individuals with high and low self-esteem react differently toward conflict situations and task interdependence,
7 and perceive relationships with others in the group as serving different functions (Brockner, 1988; Duffy, Shaw, & Stark, 2000; Leary & Baumeis-
9 ter, 2000).

In the following section, we will review our research on the extent to
11 which belongingness needs and concerns for reputation account for the effect of respect on the above-mentioned group outcomes.

13

15 # EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE

17 To examine whether concerns for belongingness and reputation explain why group members attend carefully to respect information, we conducted sev-
19 eral experimental and field studies. These studies used a moderator approach to examine more closely whether respect indeed communicates
21 information relevant to belongingness and social reputation. That is, in our line of research, we assessed whether respect influences a person's affect,
23 cognition, and behavior more strongly when concerns for belongingness and social reputation were high rather than low. Finding this type of evidence
25 would indicate that respect communicates information relevant to both identity concerns. Thus, a moderator approach informs us about the proc-
27 esses underlying both the hypothesized moderator (i.e., identity concerns) and the relevant social domain (i.e., respect information) (Snyder & Cantor,
29 1998; De Cremer, 2002a). Below, we will provide an overview of some of these studies. More precise evidence will be presented that the interactive
31 effect between respect and belongingness needs influences cooperation, and that the interactive effect between respect and social reputation influences
33 affiliation and reports of self-esteem.

35

Belongingness as Moderator

37

In order to examine the interactive effect of belongingness needs and respect
39 on cooperation experimentally, we conducted a study in which we employed the public good paradigm (De Cremer, 2002b). Public good dilemmas rep-

1 resent the conflict between personal and collective interests (as often ob-
served in-group and organizational settings), and as such provide a useful
3 tool to assess the degree of cooperation group members are willing to engage
in. More precisely, in this paradigm group members are asked to contribute
5 toward the establishment of a public good (e.g., contributing time and effort
to a team project, investing departmental money to achieve a higher out-
7 come for the company, etc.). Provision of the good provides each group
member with a (monetary) bonus. Once the public good is provided, how-
9 ever, every group member can benefit, regardless of his or her contributions.
This *impossibility of exclusion* (Olson, 1965) leads individuals to think about
11 whether it is possible to consume the good even without contributing sub-
stantially to its provision. It is thus in one's personal interest not to con-
13 tribute (Dawes, 1980). However, if all people adopt such a self-interest
perspective, nobody will contribute, and the public good will not be pro-
15 vided. In other words, the emergence of cooperation may be problematic,
because the pursuit of personal self-interest may lead to non-cooperation.
17   Participants took part in this study in groups of three. Before starting
with this study, participants were required to fill out a questionnaire as-
19 sessing different personality types, referred to as Type O or P personality.
Then, the structure of the dilemma game was explained. Each participant
21 received an endowment of 300 ¢ (Dutch) (approximately U.S. $1.20) and
was free to choose any amount they wanted to contribute (ranging from 0 to
23 300 ¢). The total amount contributed by the group would be multiplied by
two and then divided equally amongst all group members, regardless of their
25 contribution. The amount one decided not to contribute would accrue to-
tally to oneself.
27   Thereafter, participants were told that the members in their group were all
classified as personality P types. The Type P personality was made relatively
29 *attractive* (compared to the Type O personality) by pointing out the positive
traits that are usually exhibited by those with a P personality. This was done
31 because it is assumed that people are more motivated to gain acceptance by
desired groups. Then, the manipulation of need to belong was introduced.
33 In the *peripheral* membership condition (i.e., high need to belong; see Noel,
Wann, & Branscombe, 1995), participants were told that their questionnaire
35 responses placed them just inside the Type P category. If they had responded
slightly different, they would not have been a Type P personality but an O
37 personality. Participants in the *core* membership condition (i.e., low need to
belong) were told that their responses were clear examples of a core member
39 of the Type P category. That is, they could be considered as a near-perfect
example of a person with a Type P personality.

1   Thenceforth, participants received a message from the other two group
members expressing their opinion about the group and its members. This
3   was the respect manipulation. Respect was operationalized by using self-
identified criteria in the interactional justice scale of Moorman (1991). More
5   specifically, based on this scale the summarizing message included a refer-
ence to the extent that: (a) the group would accept feedback or not about
7   group decisions and its implications; (b) the viewpoint of others would be
considered or not; and (c) others would be treated in a friendly and kind way
9   or not. In the respect condition, participants were informed that the other
group members would appreciate the opinions of others, would be willing to
11 discuss important issues, and pay respect to what others say. In the dis-
respect condition, the message said exactly the opposite.
13   The most important result was a significant interaction, showing that the
respect manipulation influenced cooperation among peripheral group mem-
15 bers (respect vs. disrespect: $Ms = 145.23\,\cent$ vs. $83.00\,\cent$), but not among core   QA :2
members (respect vs. disrespect: $Ms = 128.05\,\cent$ vs. $119.95\,\cent$). These results
17 clearly point out that peripheral group members contributed the most when
they received respect (although this level of cooperation was not signifi-
19 cantly different from the levels reported by core group members), and con-
tributed the least when disrespect was shown. Thus, levels of cooperation
21 were only a function of respect when the need to belong was high. If the
need to belong was low, respect did not matter.
23   In addition, we also found the same interaction pattern in a public good
dilemma study (see De Cremer & Tyler, 2003) in which the desire to belong
25 was not manipulated, but directly assessed by means of the individual dif-
ference scale of need to belong (see Leary, Kelly, Cottrell, & Schreindorfer,
27 2001 for the use of this scale). In this study (dis)respect was also commu-
nicated by the other in-group members. Finally, in a field study including
29 employees working with chemicals (in a German company; De Cremer &
Tyler, 2003), again we found that respect from coworkers was significantly
31 and positively correlated with organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)
among employees high in need to belong, but not among employees low in
33 need to belong. We considered OCB to be an example of the organizational
cooperative behavior Katz (1964) and others alluded to (Organ, 1988).
35   To summarize, within groups, respect information influenced decisions
about cooperating. This effect, however, only occurred when group mem-
37 bers had a strong need to belong. As such, this moderating approach pro-
vides evidence that respect communicates information relevant to people's
39 identity concern of belongingness, and in this process influences cooperation
within groups.

1   *Social Reputation as Moderator*

3 To examine whether people's concern about their social reputation mod-
   erated the effect of respect, we first conducted several studies assessing in-
5 dividual differences in the extent to which people cared about their
   reputation (De Cremer & Tyler, 2003). These studies showed that respect
7 influenced affective reactions and feelings of affiliation when people's con-
   cerns about reputation were high, relative to low. In addition, we also at-
9 tempted to manipulate people's concern about their social reputation.
      To manipulate concern for social reputation, it was reasoned that if the
11 way you are evaluated or how you act is identifiable to others, people
   become concerned about conforming to normative social influences (De-
13 utsch & Gerard, 1955), and as a consequence are concerned about their
   social reputation. For example, if people are evaluated negatively and others
15 are aware of this, those under scrutiny will fear for their social reputation.
   Therefore, concern for reputation was operationalized by means of identifi-
17 ability of evaluations or actions (see also Sedikides, Herbst, Hardin, &
   Dardis, 2002).
19   In this study, participants were given a scenario that asked them to im-
   agine that they were part of a workforce at their university, and that they
21 would defend their own proposal to the university council. Then, the ma-
   nipulation of respect was introduced. In the *disrespect* condition, partici-
23 pants read that the university council did not respect their proposal and the
   presentation of it, whereas in the respect condition the university council did
25 respect all of these. Thereafter, the identifiability manipulation was intro-
   duced. In the identifiability condition, participants were told that the out-
27 come of their meeting with the university council would be communicated to
   the rest of the university community, whereas this would not be the case in
29 the no identifiability condition.
      With respect to the affiliation data, the results revealed a significant in-
31 teraction showing that feelings of affiliation were more strongly influenced
   by our respect manipulation when their actions were identifiable (respect vs.
33 disrespect: $Ms = 5.30\cent$ vs. $2.85\cent$) than when they were not identifiable (re-
   spect vs. disrespect: $Ms = 3.84\cent$ vs. $2.75\cent$). With respect to the self-esteem
35 data, a similar interaction pattern was found. Participants' self-esteem in the
   identifiability condition (respect vs. disrespect: $Ms = 5.37\cent$ vs. $2.67\cent$) was
37 more strongly influenced than in the no identifiability condition (respect vs.
   disrespect: $Ms = 4.15\cent$ vs. $2.79\cent$).
39   To summarize, variations in respect influenced group members' sense of
   affiliation and self-esteem, but particularly so when they were concerned

1 about their social reputation. Thus, these data support our assertion that respect (as an indicator of intragroup status) exerts significant influence
3 because it communicates information relevant to group members' social reputation.
5

7 *Does It Matter Who Respects? Authority or Peers as Source*

9 To date, most research on respect and the importance of intragroup status was motivated by assumptions derived from the relational model of au-
11 thority (Tyler & Lind, 1992). As a consequence, the impact of this group variable has been examined mostly in hierarchical relationships. However,
13 authorities are not the only group members serving as the source for respect. Indeed, recent research has demonstrated that one's peers or own group
15 members can also be seen as the source that communicates this type of relational information (see e.g., Branscombe, Spears, Ellemers, & Doosje,
17 2002; De Cremer, 2002b; Simon & Stürmer, 2003). For example, the earlier reported studies by De Cremer (2002b) showed that respect from the other
19 in-group members or coworkers significantly influenced cooperation within groups.
21 In fact, this non-hierarchical perspective on respect fits well with recent suggestions by social justice researchers. For example, Smith and Tyler
23 (1997, p. 157) reasoned that "respect is an important aspect of group membership even when there is no clear authority structure." More recently,
25 Lind (2001, p. 222), in discussing the importance of feelings of inclusiveness and belongingness in fair process effects, mentioned that "The … threat of
27 exclusion (i.e., not belonging) manifests itself very starkly in hierarchical contexts … but it can be just as strong in close equal-power relations." In
29 line with these recent suggestions, Tyler and Blader (2003) suggested that respect from both authorities and others in the group are relevant to one's
31 identity. Future research, however, is urgently needed to examine this proposition in greater detail.
33 Thus, both authorities and in-group members may function as a source of respect. The question, of course, is which relational aspect people evaluate
35 to conclude whether they are respected or not? We suggest that both sources communicate respect via the quality of how they treat others. In other
37 words, the quality of treatment people receive is considered to be a main communication channel of respect (Tyler & Blader, 2000). This perspective
39 suggests that people not only evaluate authorities and in-group members in terms of the quality of the decisions they make (e.g., "Formal rules have

been followed, so I should be happy about my group membership.''), but also in terms of how they are treated when making these decisions (e.g., ''When following formal procedures, I also felt that I was really being valued and treated well.'').

These arguments suggest that quality of treatment is linked to the specific type of information that signals how one is perceived and evaluated in terms of his or her dealings, and relationships with the group, and as such, closely resembles our treatment of respect as an indicator of intragroup status. Thus, the concept of quality of treatment has no association with the outcomes that people receive, but more with the quality of treatment that accompanies the communication of outcomes. For example, if employees have to be fired because of economic reasons, a respectful and fair treatment is beneficial when communicating the bad personal outcome of being fired because it mitigates the negative interpersonal message. Indeed, being treated with respect and dignity signals to the fired employee that he or she is not excluded from the group due to judgments about them as a person. To be fired due to external problems that a company is having does not necessarily reflect on a person. To be fired due to perceived incompetence does reflect on the person. To conclude, based on our studies, it appears to be the case that group members will assign more weight to quality of treatment when they are in need of belongingness and social reputation information.

SITUATIONAL MODERATORS OF THE RELATIONSHIP RESPECT IDENTITY: CULTURE AND GROUP SIZE

Of course, treating respect as a major impetus to the identity concerns of belongingness and social reputation also invites suggestions as to when this relationship will be the strongest. Two situational features that have received considerable attention in the literature on groups, teams, and organizations are the influence of culture and the size of the group one operates in (Thomas & Fink, 1963; Steiner, 1972; Hofstede, 1980; Kim, Park, & Suzuki, 1990). In a similar vein, we think that these two situational influences will also matter in determining the extent to which respect satisfies belongingness and social reputation concerns. To the degree that this is true, these situational influences need to be included in future research examining the impact of respect in group settings.

1   Regarding the influence of culture, it could be the case that respect from others, as a function of cultural differences, is more or less relevant to
3 identity. That is, an interesting finding emerging from cross-cultural research is that the importance of one's interaction partner for one's self-
5 definition varies with cultural values (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Markus, Kitayama, & Heiman, 1996). Findings have shown that people in collecti-
7 vistic cultures are more likely to use the social norms adopted by the members of their groups to shape their behavior, self-esteem, and personal
9 attitudes (e.g., Abrams, Ando, & Hinkle, 1998). People in individualistic cultures, however, tend to think of themselves as autonomous individuals
11 and as such do not use their interdependent relationships as input for their attitudes, self-esteem, and feelings (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Conse-
13 quently, recent procedural fairness research has suggested that differences in terms of the collectivistic–individualistic dimension will determine whether
15 much attention is devoted to relational information (De Cremer, Brockner, Van den Bos, & Chen, in press). Following from these findings, we suggest QA :3
17 that cultural differences in terms of individualism vs. collectivism may moderate the extent to which respect satisfies belongingness and social rep-
19 utation needs (see Fig. 1).
    Another cultural difference variable that may impact the influence of
21 respect on identity concerns is whether one lives in a high-power vs. low-power society, or, also referred to as masculine vs. feminine cultures, re-
23 spectively (Hofstede, 1980). Hofstede (1991, p. 93) argued that "Organizations in a masculine society stress results and want to reward on the basis of
25 equity, organizations in a feminine society, however, are more likely to reward people on the basis of equality." Thus, in contrast to masculine
27 cultures, feminine cultures stress the importance of solidarity and equality. As a result, feminine cultures, or low-power societies, may regard respect as
29 more important than masculine or high-power societies, because due to its identity potential of communication belongingness information, people in
31 those cultures will regard respect as more important of the viability of their groups, organizations, and societies. Similarly, Tyler, Lind, and Huo (2000)
33 found that people in high-power distance cultures were less strongly influenced by relational information than were those in low-power distance cul-
35 tures.
    Another important situational feature that may moderate the relationship
37 between respect and identity is how the group or organization is structured, or, in other words, are you a member of a small or large group? Research,
39 for example, has shown that group size has a significant influence on potential productivity and on process loss (Steiner, 1972). Also, cooperation

1 mostly decreases in groups because social constraints like identifiability, a strong sense of social responsibility, and so forth are not present anymore.
3 For these reasons, De Cremer and Leonardelli (2003) argued that when such social constraints that promote cooperation are absent (or at least present to
5 a lesser degree), cooperation might depend on psychological needs, such as the need to belong. In line with this prediction, they found that group
7 members high in the need to belong were more cooperative than those low in the need to belong, but only in large groups. In small groups, no such
9 difference was found. Deriving from this finding, one could suggest that the need to belong may be a more salient motive in larger groups, and as such,
11 respect can be expected to have a stronger influence in larger groups than in smaller groups where the need to belong is not so strongly activated (see
13 Fig. 1).

15
CONCLUDING REMARKS
17
Several researchers have noted that throughout our society (e.g., organiza-
19 tions, teams, close relationships, customer relationships, etc.) there is an increasing demand for respect (Tyler & Lind, 1992; Hill Jr., 2000; O'Conn-
21 ell, 2000), leading people to constantly worry about whether such respect has been granted. Our present chapter suggests that one important reason
23 for this concern is that respect can be considered an indicator of one's intragroup status, and as such, communicates information about two im-
25 portant identity concerns. As a result, contributing positively to these iden-tity concerns by means of respectful treatment leads to outcomes that are
27 relevant to group productivity and the well-being of its members – coop-eration, affiliation, and self-esteem. For these reasons, it is essential that
29 contemporary organizations, societies, and groups recognize that success does not solely depend on how well one performs relative to economic
31 competitors (Dosi, 1995), but also on the extent to which one devotes at-tention to how the quality and trustworthiness of relationships are devel-
33 oped and maintained.
On a final note, it is interesting to acknowledge that from the perspective
35 of the group, this demand for respect (to infer one's intragroup status) and its related outcomes is not easy to understand, because it is generally as-
37 sumed that the group and its norms influence the behavior of its members. However, our studies show that group members actively seek individual
39 attention before they engage in group-promoting activities. As such, this observation signals a certain rise of individualism in group settings. That is,

group members seem to be active participants that contribute to group life and productivity as a function of how they have been treated by the group (see also Simon & Stürmer, 2003). In a similar vein, Heuer, Penrod, Hafer, and Cohn (2002) also noted that "People care about respect, because of what it conveys about others evaluation of their worth as individuals rather than its group-based connotations."

All these observations align well with the recent debate in the literature on self and identity; that is, whether the personal self or the self derived from the collective or group is primary in determining people's actions in social settings. A recent meta-analysis by Gaertner, Sedikides, Vevea, and Luzzini (2002) demonstrates that the personal self seems most primary, suggesting that indeed the individual needs and motives of group members may dictate group outcomes to a large extent.

UNCITED REFERENCE

Richardson & Manaster (2003).

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

REFERENCES

Abrams, D., Ando, K., & Hinkle, S. (1998). Psychological attachment to groups: Cross-cultural differences in organizational identification and subjective norms as predictors of workers' turnovers intentions. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *24*, 1027–1039.

Aron, A., & Aron, N. E. (1986). *Love as the expansion of self: Understanding attraction and satisfaction*. New York: Hemisphere.

Ashford, S. J., & Black, J. S. (1996). Proactivity during organizational entry: The role of desire for control. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *81*, 199–214.

Bauer, T. N., & Green, S. G. (1994). Effect of newcomer involvement in work-related activities: A longitudinal study of socialization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *79*, 211–223.

Baumeister, R. F. (1982). A self-presentational view of social phenomena. *Psychological Bulletin*, *91*, 3–26.

Baumeister, R. F. (1991). *Meanings of life*. New York: Guilford Press.

1   Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal at-
        tachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, *117*, 497–529.
3   Berscheid, E., & Reis, H. T. (1998). Attraction and close relationships. In: , 4th edD. T. Gilbert,
        S. T. Fiske & G. Lindzey (Eds), *The handbook of social psychology*, (Vol. 2, pp. 193–281).
        New York: McGraw-Hill.
5   Boeckman, R. J., & Tyler, T. R. (2002). Trust, respect, and the psychology of political en-
        gagement. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *32*, 2067–2088.
7   Branden, N. (1998). *Self-esteem at work*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
    Branscombe, N. R., Spears, R., Ellemers, N., & Doosje, B. (2002). Intragroup and intergroup
9   evaluation effects on group behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *28*,
        744–753.
    Brockner, J. (1988). *Self-esteem at work*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
11 Chen, Y., Brockner, J., & Greenberg, J. (in press). When is it "a pleasure to do business with
        you?" The effects of relative status, outcome favorability, and procedural fairness. *Or-*
13   *ganizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*.   QA :7
    Cialdini, R. B., Borden, R. J., Thorne, A., Walker, M. R., Freeman, S., & Sloan, L. R. (1976).
15   Basking in reflected glory: Three (football) field studies. *Journal of Personality and Social*
        Psychology, *34*, 366–375.
    Dawes, R. M. (1980). Social dilemmas. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *31*, 169–193.
17 Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The what and why of goal pursuits: Human needs and the
        self-determination of behaviour. *Psychological Inquiry*, *11*, 227–268.
19 De Cremer, D. (2002a). Exploring the instrumental versus non-instrumental aspects of pro-
        cedural fairness: The usefulness of a person x situation approach. In: F. Columbus (Ed.),
21   *Advances in psychology research*, (Vol. 15, pp. 157–172). New York: NOVA Science
        Publishers.
    De Cremer, D. (2002b). Respect and cooperation in social dilemmas: The importance of feeling
23   included. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *28*, 1335–1341.
    De Cremer, D., & Leonardelli, G. (2003). Individual differences in need to belong and coop-
25   eration in social dilemmas: The moderating effect of group size. *Group Dynamics: The-*
        ory, Research, and Practice, *7*, 168–174.
    De Cremer, D., & Sedikides, C. (2003). Self-uncertainty and responsiveness to procedural
27   justice. Manuscript submitted for publication.   QA :4
    De Cremer, D., & Tyler, T. R. (2003). Am I respected or not? Inclusion and reputation as issues
29   in group membership. *Manuscript submitted for publication*.   QA :5
    De Cremer, D., & Van Dijk, E. (2002). Reactions to group success and failure as a function of
31   identification level: A test of the goal-transformation hypothesis in social dilemmas.
        Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, *38*, 435–442.
    De Cremer, D., & Van Vugt, M. (1999). Social identification effects in social dilemmas: A
33   transformation of motives. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *29*, 871–893.
    De Cremer, S., & De Witte (2001). The less I trust, the less I contribute (or not?): The effects of
35   trust, accountability, and self-monitoring in social dilemmas. *European Journal of Social*   QA :8
        Psychology, *31*, 93–107.
    De Cremer, D., Brockner, J., Van den Bos, K., & Chen, Y. (in press). To whom does the
37   relational model of procedural fairness apply? The moderating influences of interde-
        pendent self-construal. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*.
39 Deutsch, M., & Gerard, H. B. (1955). A study of normative and informational social influences
        upon individual judgment. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *51*, 629–636.

1 Dosi, G. (1995). Hierarchies, markets, and power: Some foundational issues on the nature of contemporary economic organization. *Industrial and Corporate Change*, 4, 1–19.

3 Duffy, M. K., Shaw, J. D., & Stark, E. M. (2000). Performance and satisfaction in conflicted interdependent groups: When and how does self-esteem make a difference. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43, 772–782.

5 Forsyth, D. R. (1991). Change in therapeutic groups. In: C. R. Snyder & D. R. Forsyth (Eds), *Handbook of social and clinical psychology* (pp. 664–680). New York: Pergamon Press.

7 Gächter, S., & Fehr, E. (1999). Collective action as a social exchange. *Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization*, 39, 341–369.

9 Gaertner, L., Sedikides, C., Vevea, J. L., & Luzzini, J. (2002). The "I," the "We," and the "When": A meta-analysis of motivational primacy in self-definition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83, 574–591.

11 Gardner, W. L., Gabriel, S., & Diekman, A. (2000a). Interpersonal processes. In: L. Tassinary, J. Cacioppo & G. Berntson (Eds), *The Handbook of psychophysiology* (pp. 643–664). Cambridge, MA: Cambridge Press.

13 Gardner, W. L., Pickett, C. L., & Brewer, M. B. (2000b). Social exclusion and selective memory: How the need to belong influences memory for social events. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26, 486–496.

15 Heuer, L., Penrod, S., Hafer, C. L., & Cohn, I. (2002). The role of resource and relational concerns for procedural justice. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 28, 1468–1482.

17 Hill, T. E., Jr. (2000). *Respect, pluralism, and justice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

19 Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

21 Hofstede, G. (1991). *Culture and organizations: Software of the mind*. London: McGraw-Hill.
    James, W. (1890). *The principles of psychology*. New York, NY: Holt.

23 Jankowski, M. S. (1991). *Islands in the street: Gangs and American urban society*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

25 Johnson, D. E., Erez, A., Kiker, D. S., & Motowidlo, S. J. (2002). Liking and attributions of motives as mediators of the relationships between individuals' reputations, helpful behaviors, and raters' reward decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 808–815.

27 Jost, J. T., & Major, B. (2001). *The psychology of legitimacy*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

29 Katz, D. (1964). The motivational basis of organizational behavior. *Behavioral Science*, 9, 131–146.

31 Kerr, N. L., & Bruun, S. E. (1983). Dispensability of member effort and group motivation losses: Free-rider effects. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 44, 78–94.

33 Kim, K. I., Park, H. J., & Suzuki, N. (1990). Reward allocations in the United States, Japan, and Korea: A comparison of individualistic and collectivistic cultures. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33, 188–198.

35 Koper, G., van Knippenberg, D., Bouhuijs, F., Vermunt, R., & Wilke, H. (1993). Procedural fairness and self-esteem. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 23, 313–325.

37 Kramer, R. M. (2001). Identity and trust in organizations: One anatomy of a productive but problematic relationship. In: M. A. Hogg & D. J. Terry (Eds), *Social identity processes in organizational contexts* (pp. 167–180). Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.

39 Kurzban, R., & Leary, M. R. (2001). Evolutionary origins of stigmatization: The functions of social exclusion. *Psychological Bulletin*, 127, 187–208.

Leary, M. (2001). The self as a source of relational difficulties. *Self and Identity*, *1*, 137–142.

Leary, M. R., & Baumeister, R. F. (2000). The nature and function of self-esteem: Sociometer theory. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, *32*, 1–62.

Leary, M. R., & Kowalski, R. M. (1990). Impression management: A literature review and two-factor model. *Psychological Bulletin*, *107*, 34–47.

Leary, M. R., Kelly, K. M., Cottrell, C. A., & Schreindorfer, L. S. (2001). Individual differences in the need to belong. Unpublished manuscript, Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, NC.

Lind, E. A. (2001). Thinking critical about justice judgments. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *58*, 220–226.

Lind, E. A., & Tyler, T. R. (1988). *The social psychology of procedural justice*. New York: Plenum Press.

Markus, H., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and involvement. *Psychological Review*, *98*, 224–253.

Markus, H., Kitayama, S., & Heiman, R. J. (1996). Culture and the basic psychological principles. In: E. T. Higgins & A. W. Kruglanski (Eds), *Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles*. New York: The Guilford Press.

McAllister, D. J., & Bigley, G. A. (2002). Work context and the definition of self: How organizational care influences organization-based self-esteem. *Academy of Management Journal*, *45*, 894–904.

Milinski, M., Semmann, D., & Krambeck, H. J. (2002). Reputation helps solve the "tragedy of commons". *Nature*, *415*, 424–426.

Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *76*, 845–855.

Noel, J. G., Wann, B. L., & Branscombe, N. R. (1995). Peripheral ingroup membership status and public negativity toward outgroups. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *68*, 127–137.

O'Connell, L. J. (2000). The worlds of religion and psychiatry: Bioethics as arbiter of mutual respect. In: J. K. Boehnlein (Ed.), *Psychiatry and religion: The convergence of mind and spirit* (pp. 145–157). Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Press, Inc.

Olson, M. (1965). *The logic of collective action*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Pfeffer, J. (1998). Understanding organizations: Concepts and controversies. In: D. Gilbert, S. Fiske & G. Lindzey (Eds), *The handbook of social psychology*, (4th ed.) (pp. 733–777). New York: Oxford University Press.

Reis, H. T., Collins, W. A., & Berscheid, E. (2000). The relationship context of human behavior and development. *Psychological Bulletin*, *126*, 844–872.

Richardson, F. C., & Manaster, G. J. (2003). Social interest, emotional, well-being and the quest for civil society. *Journal of Individual Psychology*, *59*, 123–135.

Sedikides, C., & Brewer, M. B. (2001). *Individual self, relational self, collective self*. Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.

Sedikides, C., Herbst, K. C., Hardin, D. P., & Dardis, G. J. (2002). Accountability as a deterrent to self-enhancement: The search for mechanisms. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *83*, 592–605.

QA :6

1 Simon, B., & Stürmer, S. (2003). Respect for group members: Intragroup determinants of collective identification and group-serving behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *29*, 183–193.
3 Smith, H. J., & Tyler, T. R. (1997). Choosing the right pond: The impact of group membership on self-esteem and group-oriented behavior. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *33*, 146–170.
5 Smith, K. G., Carroll, S. J., & Ashford, S. J. (1995). Intra- and interorganizational cooperation: Toward a research agenda. *Academy of Management Journal*, *38*, 7–23.
7 Snyder, M., & Cantor, N. (1998). Understanding personality and social behavior: A functionalist strategy. In: D. Gilbert, S. Fiske & G. Lindzey (Eds), *Handbook of social psychology*, (Vol. 1, pp. 635–679). New York: McGraw-Hill.
9 Stamper, C. L., & Masterson, S. S. (2002). Insider or outsider? How employee perceptions of insider status affect their work behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *23*, 875–894.
11 Steiner, I. D. (1972). *Group process and productivity*. New York: Academic Press.
13 Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In: S. Worchel (Ed.), *Psychology of intergroup relations*. Chicago: Nelson Hall.
15 Tice, D. M. (1992). Self-presentation and self-concept change: The looking glass self as magnifying glass. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *63*, 435–451.
17 Thomas, E. J., & Fink, C. F. (1963). Effects of group size. *Psychological Bulletin*, *60*, 371–384.
Twenge, J. M., Baumeister, R. F., Tice, D. M., & Stucke, T. S. (2001). If you can't join them, beat them: Effects of social exclusion on aggressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *81*, 1058–1069.
Twenge, J. M., Catanese, K. R., & Baumeister, R. F. (2002). Social exclusion and self-defeating behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *83*, 606–615.
Tyler, T. R. (1989). The psychology of procedural justice: A test of the group value model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *57*, 333–344.
Tyler, T. R. (1999). Why people cooperate with organizations: An identity-based perspective. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *21*, 201–246.
Tyler, T. R. (2001). Cooperation in organizations: A social identity perspective. In: M. A. Hogg & D. J. Terry (Eds), *Social identity processes in organizational contexts* (pp. 149–166). Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.
Tyler, T. R., & Blader, S. (2000). *Cooperation in groups: Procedural justice, social identity, and behavioral engagement*. Philadelphia: Taylor & Francis.
Tyler, T. R., & Blader, S. (2003). Procedural justice, social identity, and cooperative behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *7*, 349–361.
Tyler, T. R., & Lind, E. A. (1992). A relational model of authority in groups. In: M. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology*, (Vol. 25, pp. 115–191). New York: Academic Press.
Tyler, T. R., & Smith, H. J. (1999). Justice, social identity, and group processes. In: T. R. Tyler, R. M. Kramer & O. P. John (Eds), *The psychology of the social self* (pp. 223–264). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
Tyler, T. R., Degoey, P., & Smith, H. (1996). Understanding why the justice of group procedures matter: A test of the psychological dynamics of the group-value model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *70*, 913–930.
Tyler, T. R., Lind, E. A., & Huo, Y. J. (2000). Cultural values and authority relations. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law*, *6*, 1138–1163.

Van den Bos, K., & Lind, E. A. (2002). Uncertainty management by means of fairness judgments. In: M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology*, (Vol. 34, pp. 1–60). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Van Vugt, M., Snyder, M., Tyler, T. R., & Biel, A. (2000). *Cooperation in modern society: Dilemmas and solutions*. London: Routledge.

Wagner, J. A., II (1995). Studies of individualism–collectivism: Effects on cooperation in groups. *Academy of Management Journal*, *38*, 152–172.

Wiesenfeld, B. M., Brockner, J., & Thibault, V. (2000). Procedural fairness, managers' self-esteem and managerial behaviors following a layoff. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *83*, 1–32.

AUTHOR QUERY FORM

ELSEVIER

Status and Groups

JOURNAL TITLE:	RMGT
ARTICLE NO:	7001

Queries and / or remarks

Query No	Details required	Author's response
AQ1	Please update.	
AQ2	Please confirm the usage.	
AQ3	Please update.	
AQ4	Please update.	
AQ5	Please update.	
AQ6	Please note that this reference is not cross-referred in the text.	
AQ7	Please confirm the name of the journal in ref. Chen et al., in press	
AQ8	Please provide initials of the author DeWitte in ref. De Cremer and DeWitte 2001	