

ABSTRACT

OAKLEY, SONIA LAUREN. Time Banditry as a Coping Mechanism: Emotion-Focused and Problem-Focused Pathways from Stressors to Counterproductive Work Behaviors. (Under the direction of Dr. Samuel Pond, III.)

This study investigated the mechanisms linking work stressors to time banditry, or unauthorized time-wasting at work. Integrating research on counterproductive work behavior and the stress process, I proposed that employees waste work time to cope with stressful situations. Specifically, I proposed that work stressors induce the formation of two instrumentality perceptions: the perception that time-wasting can help the individual feel better about the stressor (emotion-focused coping instrumentality), and the perception that time-wasting can help the individual resolve the stressor (problem-focused coping instrumentality). In Study 1, I developed two five-item scales for the two types of coping instrumentality, which can assess the usefulness of any behavior for coping with any stressor. In Study 2, I assessed coping instrumentality perceptions for six stressors, along with stressor intensity and time banditry frequency. Survey data from 259 full-time employees confirmed that for three of the six stressors, emotion-focused coping instrumentality mediated a positive relationship between the stressor and time banditry. For the other three stressors, stressor presence was unrelated to emotion-focused coping instrumentality; however, emotion-focused coping instrumentality positively predicted time banditry. These results suggest that employees use time-wasting behavior to ease the anxiety, anger, and other negative emotions associated with work stressors. In contrast, I found no evidence of mediation through problem-focused coping instrumentality for any of the stressors. Together these two studies suggest ways to enhance work productivity, and provide future directions for investigating time-wasting behavior as a coping response.

Time Banditry as a Coping Mechanism: Emotion-Focused and Problem-Focused Pathways
from Stressors to Counterproductive Work Behaviors

by
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Time Banditry as a Coping Mechanism: Emotion-Focused and Problem-Focused Pathways
from Stressors to Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Employees engage in a variety of counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs; Bennett & Robinson, 2000), ranging from minor acts of insubordination to serious offenses such as sabotage (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). One particularly common CWB involves the misuse of work time (Gruys & Sackett, 2003). Specifically, employees spend a significant portion of their work hours engaging in non-work-related behaviors such as taking unapproved breaks, making personal phone calls, or even leaving work early (Brock, Martin, & Buckley, 2013). Researchers have termed these off-task behaviors “time banditry”, likening them to theft from the organization (Ketchen, Craighead, & Buckley, 2008; Martin, Brock, Buckley, & Ketchen, 2010). Time banditry is a significant drain on organizations’ monetary resources (Martin et al., 2010); therefore, it is valuable to understand the factors that influence employee misuse of work time.

One stream of CWB literature takes a situational perspective by identifying work stressors as significant drivers of counterproductive work behaviors (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). However, there is a need for research that more fully examines the mechanisms linking stressors to CWBs such as time banditry. Some CWB models, either implicitly or explicitly, conceptualize CWB as a way to cope with organizational stressors. Affective CWB models (e.g., Fox et al., 2001) tend to frame CWB as an emotion-focused coping technique, or a way to manage the negative emotions that work stressors produce. However, cognitive models (e.g., Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002) help to illustrate an

alternative coping function; specifically, individuals may sometimes engage in CWB as a problem-focused coping technique, or a way to resolve work stressors. Although these divergent characterizations of CWB suggest different mediating mechanisms, no research has attempted to examine both emotion-focused and problem-focused CWB processes simultaneously. Thus, their relative contributions to the stressor-CWB link are unclear. Moreover, no research has considered that these processes may differ across stressors. That is, some stressors may have a stronger emotion-focused pathway, whereas other stressors may have a stronger problem-focused pathway to time banditry.

This study addresses these research gaps by testing a stress and coping-based conceptual model of time banditry (Figure 1). First, I first integrate time banditry with the larger CWB literature by examining the relationships between work stressors and time banditry. Second, I distinguish two mediating pathways that are rooted in existing CWB models: an emotion-focused pathway derived from affective frameworks (e.g., Fox et al., 2001) and a problem-focused pathway derived from cognitive frameworks (e.g., Martinko et al., 2002). Each pathway involves a *coping instrumentality* mediator, which encompasses individuals' perceptions that time-wasting could help them manage the negative emotions associated with stressors (emotion-focused coping instrumentality) or help them directly address stressors (problem-focused coping instrumentality). Third, I differentiate stressors according to their relative levels of emotion-focused and problem-focused links to time banditry. Together, these goals refine the theoretical understanding of how work stressors

contribute to the misuse of work time, and provide practical recommendations for enhancing work effort in the face of particular stressors.

Time Banditry

Time banditry is “the propensity of employees to engage in unsanctioned non-work related activities during work time” (Martin et al., 2010, p. 27). As a type of counterproductive work behavior, time banditry encompasses a variety of employee behaviors that conflict with organizational interests – for instance, taking extra breaks, using the Internet for personal activities, leaving work early, and putting minimal effort into work tasks. Although time banditry is a relatively new term, the concept is rooted in classic CWB frameworks. Time banditry is similar to production deviance (relatively minor behavior that harms the organization; Robinson & Bennett, 1995) and withdrawal (behaviors that reduce the amount of time spent working; Spector et al., 2006). However, Brock and colleagues (2013) distinguish time banditry from these constructs by span and intentionality. Production deviance has a wider span than does time banditry, as it includes the misuse of resources other than time. Additionally, researchers conceptualize production deviance as a purposeful attempt to harm the organization; in contrast, they conceptualize withdrawal as an attempt to protect oneself from stress rather than to cause harm (Spector et al., 2006). Time banditry lies somewhere between these two constructs, as it may constitute either a purposeful act of harm or an escape mechanism (Brock et al., 2013).

Despite their proposed differences to time banditry, many withdrawal and production deviance behaviors also fall under the category of time banditry. Most CWB research

relevant to time banditry has examined these facets, including withholding effort (Kidwell & Robie, 2003), cyberloafing (Blanchard & Henle, 2008), and absenteeism (Johns, 1997). Because less research has focused on time banditry as a whole, there is a need to examine this construct in its entirety. The research that does discuss time banditry as a whole has proposed a wide variety of antecedents. Some of these antecedents set time banditry apart from other CWBs; for instance, conceptualizing laziness (Martin et al., 2010) and boredom (Skowronski, 2012) as primary drivers of time banditry runs counter to models that propose specific situational antecedents to CWB (e.g., Fox et al., 2001; Martinko et al., 2002). Other proposed antecedents to time banditry (e.g., perceptions of workplace injustice; Martin et al., 2010) are more consistent with the general CWB literature, but remain untested. To place time banditry in its proper research context, it is necessary to determine whether widely used and well-supported theoretical frameworks for CWBs apply to the misuse of work time. This study provides such an integration by empirically examining stressors as potential drivers of time banditry.

Work Stressors as Antecedents of Time Banditry

Multiple CWB models have identified work stressors as primary antecedents of undesirable work behaviors. For instance, the stressor-emotion model (Fox & Spector, 2006; Fox et al., 2001; Spector, 1998; Spector & Fox, 2002) proposes that environmental threats to employee well-being produce behavioral strain in the form of CWB. Similarly, Martinko and colleagues' (2002) causal reasoning framework classifies a variety of work stressors as justice violations that stimulate CWBs. Empirical evidence provides strong support for these

models, with studies linking a variety of CWBs to stressors such as injustice (Ilie, Penney, Ispas, & Iliescu, 2012), work-family conflict (Ferguson, Carlson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2012), role ambiguity (Chen & Spector, 1992), and interpersonal conflict (Penney & Spector, 2005).

Studies linking stressors to facets of time banditry provide preliminary evidence that work stressors stimulate time-wasting behavior. For instance, one study found that work-family conflict predicted lateness and absenteeism (Hammer, Bauer, & Grandey, 2003), while another determined that role ambiguity and role conflict predicted cyberloafing (Henle & Blanchard, 2008). Drawing from this research, my first goal is to relate time banditry to three categories of work stressors: task-based stressors, work-life conflict, and injustice.

Thus, I predict:

Hypothesis 1: a) Task-based stressors, b) work-life conflict stressors, and c) injustice stressors will positively predict time banditry.

Time Banditry as a Coping Response

Given the evidence that stressors predict CWBs, researchers have attempted to identify the mechanisms that drive this relationship. In doing so, many models have either implicitly or explicitly characterized CWB as a coping response. According to the stress literature, *coping* is any effort of an individual to manage a stressful situation (Lazarus, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Thus, one can view CWB as an attempt – however harmful or ineffective – to manage work stressors that individuals perceive as potentially threatening to their well-being. One common coping framework distinguishes between emotion-focused and problem-focused coping functions (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Lazarus & Folkman,

1984). Emotion-focused coping is an individual's attempt to reduce the negative emotions that he or she experiences as the result of a stressor. This may involve active efforts such as seeking social support, or avoidance tactics such as disengaging from the stressful environment. In contrast, problem-focused coping is an individual's attempt to resolve the stressor by acting on the environment. This may involve forming a plan or taking action to get rid of the problem (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). Thus, these two coping functions differ mainly on the primary target of the coping behavior – the stressor itself (problem-focused) or emotional distress (emotion-focused).

Although other coping taxonomies exist, emotion-focused and problem-focused coping are most relevant to this study because they map clearly on to models of counterproductive work behavior. CWB models tend to fall into one of two categories: affective models, which focus on emotions as drivers of CWB; and cognitive models, which focus on reasoning processes that drive CWB. Affective models tend to cast CWB as emotion-focused coping, or a way to reduce the unpleasant emotions that stressors create. In contrast, cognitive models highlight CWB's problem-focused coping function, or its ability to resolve stressors. Despite differences between these two characterizations of CWB, no research has examined both functions simultaneously. Therefore, my second goal is to disentangle emotion-focused and problem-focused mechanisms by examining them as alternative explanations for why work stressors stimulate time banditry.

Affective Models: Time Banditry as Emotion-Focused Coping

The stressor-emotion model (Fox & Spector, 2006; Fox et al., 2001; Spector, 1998; Spector & Fox, 2002) provides an affect-based explanation for employee engagement in CWBs. Grounded in the stress literature (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), this model states that work stressors cause employees to experience negative emotions such as anger and anxiety at work (Spector & Fox, 2002). These negative emotions produce a strain response that manifests behaviorally as counterproductive work behavior. Research has supported the stressor-emotion model by providing evidence that negative affect mediates the relationship between work stressors and a variety of CWBs (Fida et al., 2015; Fox & Spector, 1999; Fox et al., 2001; Le Roy, Bastounis, & Poussard, 2012; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009).

By identifying negative emotions as the primary link between stressors and CWB, the stressor-emotion model highlights the emotion-focused coping function of CWB. According to this model, CWBs stem directly from negative emotional reactions to stressors; thus, much of the literature characterizes CWBs as attempts to manage these negative emotions. For instance, in explaining why negative emotions should lead to CWB, Spector and Fox (2002) stated that negative emotions motivate behavior to improve one's emotional state, and trigger avoidance tendencies to leave an unpleasant situation. Similarly, other researchers have characterized CWB as "a strategy to reduce the emotionally unpleasant condition derived from organizational frustrations" (Fida, Paciello, Tramontano, Barbaranelli, & Farnese, 2015, p. 480). Several researchers have explicitly characterized time banditry in particular as an emotion-focused coping strategy. For instance, Krischer, Penney, and Hunter (2010) framed

employee withdrawal as a way to reduce the negative psychological effects of organizational injustice by offering individuals a temporary escape from the stressful situation. Similarly, Henle and Blanchard (2008) conceptualized cyberloafing as an emotion-focused and avoidance coping mechanism that may help employees effectively manage the stress associated with role conflict and role ambiguity. In sum, withdrawing from work either physically (e.g., by leaving early) or psychologically (e.g., by making a personal phone call at work) allows employees to temporarily avoid dealing with stressful work situations, and to distract themselves from negative emotions such as anxiety. Affective frameworks tend to characterize this behavior not as an attempt to resolve stressors, but as an attempt to reduce the resulting negative emotions.

The work of Shoss, Jundt, Kobler, and Reynolds (2015) provides a way to test the proposition that employees engage in time banditry as a way to reduce the negative emotions associated with work stressors. These authors proposed that individuals form beliefs about whether engaging in CWBs will help them achieve the desired goal of coping with a stressor. They termed these beliefs *coping instrumentalities* for CWB. Individuals who have higher coping instrumentalities for CWB, who believe that CWBs are more effective for coping with a particular stressor, should be more likely to actually engage in CWBs. Although Shoss and colleagues (2015) discussed CWB as a means for coping in general, they actually measured the perceived likelihood that engaging in CWBs would help participants *feel* better about a specific stressor. To keep with my distinction between emotion-focused and problem-focused coping, I refer to this construct as *emotion-focused coping instrumentality*

for CWB, or the extent to which individuals believe that engaging in CWB will help them reduce the negative emotions associated with a stressor.

Shoss and colleagues (2015) found that individuals viewed a variety of CWBs, including production deviance, as a useful strategy for managing the negative emotions resulting from work stressors. These findings support the idea that work stressors stimulate conscious perceptions within employees that CWBs could ease negative emotions. However, because this study used hypothetical stressor scenarios, it did not relate the coping instrumentality of real work stressors to actual time banditry behavior. Thus, there is a need to extend this research to real work environments by examining whether emotion-focused coping instrumentality accounts for the positive relationship between stressors and CWBs.

The proposition that coping instrumentalities determine actual coping behavior stems directly from the stress literature, which states that individuals choose coping strategies based on what they believe will be most effective (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Specifically, coping instrumentality is similar to *secondary appraisal*, which is the cognitive evaluation of potential options for coping with a stressor, including the likelihood that a coping strategy will be effective (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). Secondary appraisal precedes coping behavior in the transactional stress model, suggesting that individuals are more likely to engage in a particular coping behavior when they feel that it is a viable and effective response to a stressor. Coupled with the evidence that individuals use CWB as an emotion-focused coping mechanism, this supports the idea that conscious perceptions of emotional benefit stimulate actual performance of CWBs.

Combining the stressor-emotion model of CWB with the work of Shoss and colleagues (2015), I argue that the misuse of work time partially represents an emotion-focused coping response to stressful work conditions. I expect work stressors to stimulate the perception that time banditry could reduce the associated negative emotions; in turn, these emotion-focused coping instrumentality perceptions should stimulate actual time banditry. Thus, I predict:

Hypothesis 2: Emotion-focused coping instrumentality will mediate the relationship between a) task-based stressors, b) work-life conflict stressors, and c) injustice stressors and time banditry.

Cognitive Models: Time Banditry as Problem-Focused Coping

While the stressor-emotion model takes a primarily affective approach to CWB, other models place cognitive evaluations as the primary determinants of CWBs. One integrative, cognition-based model of CWB is Martinko and colleagues' (2002) causal reasoning framework. According to this model, individuals actively process information in their environments to evaluate the quality of their outcomes. When individuals perceive that their outcomes are unfair or unacceptable (for instance, when stressors are present in their environments), they engage in an attribution process in an attempt to determine the causes of these unacceptable outcomes. The causal attributions that individuals form for undesirable outcomes determine whether a person chooses to engage in CWB as a response, and which type of CWB they choose.

By framing counterproductive work behavior as the outcome of a rational decision-making process, the causal reasoning framework illustrates the problem-focused coping function of CWB. First, individuals form perceptions of disequilibria based on evaluation of the work environment. Martinko and colleagues (2002) conceptualize these disequilibria as perceptions of injustice, inequity, or victimization. The key point here is that it is not stressful work conditions themselves, but perceptions that these conditions are *unjust*, that trigger the CWB process. This implies that the primary stressor in the causal reasoning framework is perceived injustice. Although injustice may stem from poor working conditions, abusive leadership, or other more distal stressors, it is the perception of injustice that stimulates individuals to respond with CWB.

Next, individuals form attributions for the cause of the perceived disequilibrium. For instance, when individuals perceive that an injustice occurred due to external causes, they engage in outwardly-focused CWBs (destructive behavior directed at others) rather than inwardly-focused CWBs (self-destructive behavior). In other words, the causal reasoning framework states that individuals choose to direct destructive behaviors at the perceived source of injustice. As such, the causal reasoning model characterizes outwardly-focused CWB as a form of retaliation that mitigates perceptions of injustice (Martinko et al., 2002). Engaging in behavior that targets the source of the stress and resolves the focal stressor is a key feature of problem-focused coping (Carver et al., 1989). Therefore, I argue that the causal reasoning framework is a problem-focused process because the primary stressor is

injustice, and the main function of the CWB is to directly resolve that injustice – not to temporarily distract employees from its presence.

Other justice models similarly view retaliation as an attempt to reduce perceptions of injustice – for instance, by righting a wrong or getting even (Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005; Bies & Tripp, 1996; Kelloway, Francis, Prosser, & Cameron, 2010; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Skarlicki and Folger (1997) stated that retaliation may involve not only violent behaviors, but also more subtle actions such as psychological withdrawal and effort reduction. In line with this view, Jones (2009) demonstrated that employees tend to direct CWBs toward the source of perceived injustice, and that the desire for “getting even” or “settling the score” partially mediates the relationship between injustice and CWBs such as withholding effort. Theories of distributive justice extend this principle beyond revenge behavior by stating that individuals may intentionally reduce their work effort to attain a more equitable ratio of inputs to outcomes (Adams, 1965). Like the causal reasoning model, these models all rely on cognitive evaluations of the stressor source, as individuals direct CWBs toward this source to restore justice perceptions. In doing so, these models suggest that individuals perceive CWB not merely as a way to feel better about injustice, but as a way to eliminate it. Indeed, Worthington and Scherer (2004) explicitly conceptualized justice restoration as a form of problem-focused coping.

Within the CWB literature, the characterization of time banditry as a problem-focused response to injustice is less explicit. For instance, researchers have proposed that individuals use time theft (Lorinkova and Perry, 2014) and production deviance (Krischer et al., 2010) to

restore justice at work; however, they did not label these behaviors as problem-focused coping. Nevertheless, I argue that these situations are consistent with problem-focused coping; if individuals intentionally alter their exchange relationship with the organization by engaging in time banditry, they are taking direct action to manage the source of injustice. Admittedly, any stressor resolution that CWB brings about is likely to be temporary, and to come at the cost of individual and organizational productivity. However, insofar as CWB is a conscious behavioral attempt to address the problem, it represents a form of problem-focused coping.

Injustice is not the only stressor for which CWB might serve a problem-focused coping function. Research on work-life conflict has drawn from conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which views the stress process from the perspective of resource allocation. According to this theory, individuals have a limited amount of personal resources (time, energy, etc.) that they can expend to meet demands. Because individuals view resource loss as threatening to their well-being, they strive to invest their resources efficiently to manage demands. Grawitch, Barber, and Justice (2010) applied COR theory to work-life conflict by suggesting that individuals allocate personal resources across life domains to manage tension between work and non-work activities. The authors stated that when individuals invest resources to respond directly to demands, they are engaging in problem-focused coping. Other work drawing from COR theory (Penney, Hunter, & Perry, 2011) described CWB as a resource investment strategy that individuals use when they lack more constructive ways to deal with stressful situations. Although these authors emphasized

the conservation of emotional resources through CWB, time banditry may also conserve other resources (e.g., time and energy) that directly resolve work-life conflict. Specifically, if employees intentionally misuse work time to accomplish personal goals that are part of their work-life tension, then time banditry becomes a form of problem-focused coping. In line with this view, Koslowsky (2000) suggested that employees who are forced to choose between fulfilling personal or work responsibilities may intentionally miss work to attend to their personal lives. For instance, an employee might leave work early without permission to pick his child up from daycare. In cases such as this, misusing work time resolves the tension between work and non-work domains by “stealing” work time for the benefit of one’s personal life. This is in contrast to a purely emotion-focused approach, where individuals may distract themselves from the stress of work-life conflict by avoiding work without also trying to accomplish personal goals (Grawitch et al., 2010).

Finally, individuals may even use CWBs to reduce task-based stressors such as workload. For instance, the social loafing literature suggests that individuals may intentionally limit their productivity to avoid receiving more work (Comer, 1995). Alternatively, individuals may engage in counterproductive work behavior to draw attention to a stressor, thereby gaining instrumental support from coworkers to relieve the problem (Reynolds, Shoss, & Jundt, 2015). Misusing work time to navigate work-life conflict, alter work tasks, and restore perceptions of justice may appear to be very different. However, I argue that these potential purposes for time banditry all share one important characteristic:

because they involve intentionally regulating one's own behavior to resolve a work stressor, they represent problem-focused coping approaches.

Given that CWB may help individuals directly resolve work stressors, it is important to identify the mechanisms that account for this problem-focused link between stressors and CWBs such as time banditry. As with the emotion-focused coping pathway to CWB, I propose that conscious perceptions of the potential benefits of CWB serve a mediating role. To parallel Shoss and colleagues' (2015) concept of emotion-focused coping instrumentality, I propose that individuals also form perceptions of *problem-focused coping instrumentality* for CWB. This construct reflects the extent to which individuals believe that engaging in CWBs will help resolve or control a stressor.

Despite previous speculations about the problem-solving role of CWB, to my knowledge no research has measured problem-focused coping instrumentality for either CWBs in general or time banditry in particular. To fill this gap, this study integrates cognition-based models of CWB with the stress literature by examining the problem-focused coping function of time banditry. Specifically, I propose that time banditry in part represents a coping response that attempts to address work stressors at their source. The presence of stressors should trigger the formation of perceptions that time-wasting could help resolve these stressors; in turn, these problem-focused coping instrumentality perceptions should stimulate time banditry. Thus, I predict:

Hypothesis 3: Problem-focused coping instrumentality will mediate the relationship between a) task-based stressors, b) work-life conflict stressors, and c) injustice stressors and time banditry.

Emotion-Focused and Problem-Focused Processes as Independent Pathways

In separately examining emotion-focused and problem-focused processes, I characterize them as independent pathways to CWB. In other words, the emotion-focused pathway in the current study represents instances in which individuals misuse work time to cope with emotional distress, *regardless* of whether they consciously perceive their behavior as beneficial for resolving the stressor. Similarly, the problem-focused pathway represents instances in which individuals misuse work time to resolve the stressor, *regardless* of whether they believe it will ease their negative emotions. Disentangling the pathways allows me to examine the possibility that different stressors trigger different coping functions. However, although the two pathways to CWBs are independent, they are not necessarily mutually exclusive. In other words, it is possible for *both* emotion-focused and problem-focused instrumentality perceptions to drive the relationship between stressors and time banditry. This is consistent with the stress literature, which states that any single action may simultaneously serve both a problem-focused and emotion-focused coping function (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). However, because no research has examined both functions at the same time, it is unclear whether these two mechanisms do indeed operate simultaneously. By explicitly measuring both emotion-focused and problem-focused processes, the current study helps to clarify and integrate multiple CWB frameworks.

Differentiating Coping Responses by Stressor Type

I have demonstrated that time banditry can represent both an emotion-focused and problem-focused coping mechanism for task-based stressors, work-life conflict, and injustice. However, distinct literatures and theoretical bases suggest that the relative strengths of these two coping mechanisms may vary across the three stressor types. Therefore, comparing emotion-focused and problem-focused processes within the three stressor categories may yield a useful theoretical refinement of the well-supported stressor-CWB relationship. It is also practically useful to determine whether individuals primarily use time banditry to resolve a stressor or to reduce the resulting negative emotions, because organizations may require different interventions to disrupt these two pathways to CWB. For instance, an employee who wishes to merely feel better about a work stressor may refrain from engaging in time banditry when alternative emotion-focused coping resources such as social supports are available. However, an employee who wishes to resolve the stressor may continue to waste work time unless there are other ways to address the problem (for instance, speaking with one's supervisor to negotiate more favorable work conditions). Therefore, determining the dominant pathway for each stressor type could help organizations better understand and manage CWBs in the face of particular work stressors. Thus, my third goal is to compare the relative strength of emotion-focused and problem-focused pathways to time banditry for task-based stressors, work-life conflict, and injustice.

Task-based stressors. Task-based stressors are stressors that involve the nature of the work itself; for instance, workload (Spector & Jex, 1998), role conflict, and role

ambiguity (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970) all refer to either the quantity or quality of employees' formal work tasks. These stressors have a strong grounding in models of stress and job strain (e.g., Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). Thus, there is strong evidence that stressful task characteristics evoke the need to manage negative emotions such as anxiety and frustration (Spector & Jex, 1998). Additionally, because time banditry involves withdrawal from work tasks, it is by its very nature a temporary distraction from task-based stressors and the negative emotions they create. Therefore, greater presence of task-based stressors should produce stronger perceptions that misusing work time could help ease the associated negative emotions. In turn, emotion-focused coping instrumentality should be associated with more time-wasting behavior.

In contrast, employees are less likely to view time banditry as a way to resolve task-based stressors. Leaving work early does not generally reduce the amount of work one has to complete; on the contrary, it may exacerbate the problem as neglected work piles up over time. Similarly, taking extra breaks does not typically help clarify role responsibilities – it merely allows employees to avoid the issue until a later time. Therefore, I predict:

Hypothesis 4: For task-based stressors, the indirect effect on time banditry through emotion-focused coping instrumentality will be stronger than the indirect effect on time banditry through problem-focused coping instrumentality.

Work-life conflict. Work-life conflict involves incompatible role requirements between work and non-work domains (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Siegel, Post, Brockner, Fishman, & Garden, 2005). This may occur when the time demands, behavioral demands, or

strain associated with one domain interfere with an individual's ability to fulfill the demands of the other domain (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Like task-based stressors, work-life conflict creates negative emotions that individuals can temporarily escape through withdrawal (Penney et al., 2011; Rantanen, Mauno, Kinnunen, & Rantanen, 2011). However, this function seems secondary to the problem-focused function that time banditry serves for work-life conflict. Because work-life conflict involves tension between work and personal demands, resolving it requires mobilizing and allocating scarce resources such as time and effort (Grawitch et al., 2010). Because time banditry involves reallocating these scarce resources away from work and toward one's personal domain, it represents a way to directly control the interference of work with one's personal life. Thus, employees should be more likely to evaluate time banditry as a potential solution to this stressor than as a way to feel better about it.

Even if employees form perceptions that time banditry could help them cope emotionally with work-life conflict, the perceived problem-solving capabilities of time banditry should still more strongly drive their behavior. When coping with stressors, individuals are motivated to expend resources in ways that best prevent further resource loss (Hobfoll, 1989). Thus, they should be most likely to choose time banditry based on its ability to help them fulfill their personal obligations – an accomplishment that helps them retain important personal resources such as social relationships – rather than its ability to temporarily ease their negative emotions. For instance, an employee who needs to pick his child up from daycare is more likely to leave work early based on the perception that it will

allow him to fulfill his personal responsibilities (thereby temporarily resolving a conflict between work and personal life), rather than the perception that it will allow him to relax.

Therefore, I predict:

Hypothesis 5: For work-life conflict stressors, the indirect effect on time banditry through problem-focused coping instrumentality will be stronger than the indirect effect on time banditry through emotion-focused coping instrumentality.

Injustice. Injustice stressors involve perceived unfairness of situations and outcomes that individuals experience at work (Greenberg, 2011). This encompasses violations of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993), perceptions of inequity (Adams, 1965), and psychological contract violations (Rousseau, 2011). As I mentioned previously, these models take a clearly problem-focused approach to coping with injustice-based work stressors. For instance, equity theory (Adams, 1965) and justice theories (e.g., Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) suggest that individuals engage in a rational evaluation of work processes and outcomes. Violation of what the individual perceives as fair results in retaliation or intentional reduction of input (i.e., more time banditry) to restore balance. This is a problem-focused approach because individuals control the stressor itself – perceptions of injustice – by directing their behavior at the source of the injustice. Thus, the possibility of resolving injustice (problem-focused coping instrumentality) should strongly motivate time banditry.

In contrast, the possibility of merely feeling better about injustice (emotion-focused coping instrumentality) should play less of a role in driving time banditry. Although

emotional tension motivates individuals to react to injustice (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), the reduction of emotional tension is contingent on the elimination of the injustice. In contrast, true emotion-focused coping helps to reduce negative emotions regardless of whether it actually helps to control the stressor. Therefore, individuals should be relatively unlikely to use time banditry as a temporary escape from injustice, as this does not help to resolve the situation. Indeed, Paterson and Hartel (2002) suggested that due to its cognitive nature, the perception of justice should be more strongly linked to the selection of problem-focused rather than emotion-focused coping techniques. Thus, I predict:

Hypothesis 6: For injustice stressors, the indirect effect on time banditry through problem-focused coping instrumentality will be stronger than the indirect effect on time banditry through emotion-focused coping instrumentality.

Study 1: Scale Development

Although many scales capture specific coping behaviors, to my knowledge, no multi-item measures of the *instrumentality* of coping behaviors currently exist in the psychological literature. Therefore, testing my hypotheses required developing measures of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality for time banditry. The purpose of Study 1 was to develop these measures and provide preliminary evidence of their reliability and validity.

Method

Following Hinkin's (1998) recommendations for developing and validating survey measures, the scale development effort consisted of five major steps: 1) item development; 2)

data collection; 3) exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis; 4) confirmatory factor analysis; and 5) examination of validity evidence.

Item development. To develop items consistent with theories of stress and coping, I first defined the content domains of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality. This involved examining two streams of literature. First, within the general stress literature I reviewed current emotion-focused and problem-focused coping scales (Carver et al., 1989; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986), as well as theoretical descriptions of the two coping functions (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, 1987). The second stream of literature included research that conceptualized CWB as a form of coping (Fida et al., 2015; Grawitch et al., 2010; Henle & Blanchard, 2008; Kelloway et al., 2010; Krischer et al., 2010; Lorinkova & Perry, 2014; Shoss et al., 2015). Within this literature, I reviewed theoretical descriptions of counterproductive work behaviors as emotion-focused and problem-focused coping techniques. The literature review culminated in a comprehensive list of the goals involved in coping with stressors in an emotion-focused and problem-focused manner. For instance, the goals of emotion-focused coping involve reducing specific emotions such as anxiety, anger, and frustration, as well as generally avoiding unpleasant feelings stemming from a stressor. The goals of problem-focused coping involve directly controlling a stressor, ensuring a stressor does not occur again the future, and finding a solution to the stressor. Coping instrumentalities for time banditry involve the perceptions that misusing work time could help individuals achieve these goals in relation to a particular stressor.

After defining the content domains for emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality, I generated an initial pool of 40 items that captured all elements of the content domain (Table 1). Next, I ensured that these items adequately covered their respective content domains by conducting a content validity assessment. I recruited ten subject matter experts (i.e., advanced graduate students in industrial-organizational psychology) to review the pool of coping instrumentality items. After reading definitions of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality, the subject matter experts (SMEs) identified whether each item reflected emotion-focused coping instrumentality, problem-focused coping instrumentality, or neither/both. If less than 80% of SMEs correctly matched an item to its intended construct, I removed the item from further analysis. This content validity assessment method is consistent with commonly accepted scale development guidelines (Hinkin, 1998), as well as with previous scale development efforts within the stress literature (e.g., Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000). Subject matter experts also provided open-ended feedback on the items.

All 20 of the emotion-focused coping instrumentality items had a 100% rate of correct classification. However, eight of the problem-focused coping instrumentality items (items 32-39 in Table 1) were incorrectly classified in the “neither/both category” by more than 20% of the SMEs. Therefore, I removed these eight items from further analysis. I removed several more items based on open-ended feedback from the subject matter experts. Specifically, I removed three emotion-focused items (items 16-18) that SMEs suggested were overly vague or awkwardly worded. I removed two additional emotion-focused items (items

19 and 20) and one problem-focused item (item 4) that SMEs indicated were redundant with other items in the scale. This resulted in a final pool of 15 emotion-focused and 11 problem-focused coping instrumentality items, which are numbered in bold in Table 1.

Data collection: Participants and procedure. I collected responses through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk), an online marketplace that connects businesses and individuals with workers who complete small tasks. MTurk is source of quality data for survey research in the field of organizational psychology (Behrend, Sharek, Meade, & Wiebe, 2011). To qualify for the study, individuals had to be at least 18 years of age, from the United States, and employed full time (at least 35 hours per week) at a single job in a location other than their home. Individuals who met these requirements completed an online survey in return for a \$0.50 incentive.

As the first part of the survey, I asked participants to think about a stressful situation that they recently experienced at work that might cause them to want to misuse their work time. They then briefly wrote about this stressful situation, both to strengthen their recollection of the stressor and to allow me to verify that they chose an appropriate stressor scenario. The use of participant-selected stressor scenarios is consistent with previous scale development efforts within the stress literature (Carver et al., 1989; Searle & Auton, 2015). Referencing specific situations rather than stressful situations in general allowed for the measurement of situational coping strategies rather than dispositional coping styles (Carver et al., 1989). This aligns with my characterization of time banditry as a response to specific stressful situations, which may differ in purpose depending on the nature of the stressor.

Additionally, allowing participants to select their own stressful situations that might tempt them to misuse work time ensured that the stressors were relevant to potential time banditry behavior within real work contexts. Finally, this method ensured that participant responses represented a range of different stressor types. This should create variance in coping instrumentality ratings, as well as increase the chance that the final scale items generalize well to a range of work stressors.

The initial sample included 502 respondents. To obtain the final sample, I removed 68 respondents who: 1) did not provide a stressor; 2) provided a stressor relevant to personal rather than work life; 3) provided a vague description that made it difficult to determine the nature of the stressor; 4) described a stressor that made it impossible to complete work tasks (e.g., lack of work assignments); 5) indicated that the stressor increased rather than decreased motivation to complete work tasks; or 6) described a situation in which the organization sanctioned non-work behavior (e.g., having flexible work hours). Thus, the final sample included 434 respondents who provided appropriate work stressors. I randomly divided the final sample in half to create two independent samples of 217 participants each for the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). This fulfilled minimum recommendations for overall sample size in factor analysis (Hinkin, 1998), and exceeded common recommendations for a participants-to-items ratio of 4:1 in factor analysis (Hinkin, 1998).

Participant demographics were comparable between the two samples. Of the 217 Sample 1 participants for the EFA, 48% were women, 77% were white, and 61% had earned

a Bachelor's degree or higher. The mean age was 36.7 years ($SD = 10.5$ years), and average job tenure was 5.9 years ($SD = 5.3$ years). Of the 217 Sample 2 participants for the CFA, 54% were women, 76% were white, and 60% had earned a Bachelor's degree or higher. The mean age was 35.9 years ($SD = 10.9$ years), and average job tenure was 5.8 years ($SD = 5.9$ years).

Data collection: Measures. In addition to basic demographic information (age, race, gender, education, and job tenure), all participants completed the newly developed emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality items. These items captured the extent to which participants perceived that time banditry could help them reduce the negative emotions associated with their chosen stressor (emotion-focused coping instrumentality) or directly address the stressor (problem-focused coping instrumentality). Response options were presented on a seven-point Likert-type scale ($1 = \text{Not at all}$, $7 = \text{A great deal}$).

After completing the coping instrumentality items, participants completed measures of state negative affect and social desirability. Responses to these measures for Sample 2 provided preliminary tests of the convergent and discriminant validity of the coping instrumentality scales. For state negative affect, participants reported the negative emotions they felt as a result of the stressor using 14 items adapted from the job-related affective well-being scale (JAWS; Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000). Specifically, participants rated whether their chosen stressor caused them to experience 14 negative emotions (e.g., anger, anxiety, and frustration). Response options ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). Participants also completed a ten-item version of the

Marlowe-Crowne social desirability scale (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972). This scale asks participants to respond to true-false statements reflecting socially desirable behavior (e.g., “I’m always willing to admit it when I make a mistake”). Endorsing a greater number of statements indicates a higher desire to present oneself in a socially desirable manner.

Finally, participants completed the 31-item Time Banditry Questionnaire (Brock et al., 2013), which assesses time-wasting behavior at work (e.g., “I send nonwork-related e-mail at work”). Participants rated how frequently they engaged in each behavior in response to their chosen stressor ($1 = \text{Never}$, $5 = \text{Very often}$). This measure allowed me to examine the criterion-related validity of the coping instrumentality scales.

Results

Exploratory factor analysis and reliability. Using the first sample of 217 respondents, I conducted exploratory factor analysis using the psych package in R (Revelle, 2016). Because strong theoretical and empirical evidence supports the two-factor structure of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping, it was appropriate to begin by imposing a two-factor solution on the coping instrumentality items. However, I also examined objective criteria for factor extraction to determine whether they also supported a two-factor solution. First, I evaluated the Kaiser criterion; factors with eigenvalues greater than one are typically retained (Kaiser, 1960; Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). The first three factors had eigenvalues of 10.42, 6.46, and .40, suggesting a two-factor solution. Second, I conducted a scree test by examining a plot of the eigenvalues of each factor; factors preceding the first large drop in eigenvalue are typically retained (Cattell, 1966; Fabrigar et

al., 1999). The scree plot showed a steep drop in eigenvalue between the second and third factors, followed by a leveling off of eigenvalues for subsequent factors; again, this suggested a two-factor solution was most appropriate for the data. Finally, I conducted parallel analysis, which compares the actual eigenvalues to those expected from random data; factors with eigenvalues greater than those expected to occur by chance are typically retained (Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, 2004). Only the first two factors had eigenvalues larger than those expected to occur by chance; thus, consistent with the Kaiser criterion and the scree test, parallel analysis suggested a two-factor solution. Based on these results, I proceeded to impose a two-factor EFA solution.

To conduct the EFA, I used principal axis factoring with promax rotation on all 26 coping instrumentality items. Table 2 displays the factor loadings for this initial two-factor EFA solution. The factors clearly represented the two types of coping instrumentality. Additionally, each item had a strong loading (greater than .40) on its factor and a low cross-loading (less than .20) on the other factor. The two factors correlated at $r(215) = .22$. Factor 1 (the emotion-focused factor) accounted for 36% of the variance in the data, and Factor 2 (the problem-focused factor) accounted for 32% of the variance.

Because the loadings for all items fell well within the recommended cutoffs for exploratory factor analysis, I chose not to select final scale items based on factor loadings alone. Although choosing items with the highest factor loadings would maximize the internal consistency of the scales, it could also lead to scales with redundant items that provide poor content coverage (Stanton, 2002). Therefore, I incorporated additional criteria relevant to the

creation of short psychological scales. Specifically, I made the final item selections based on joint consideration of the items' factor loadings, distributional properties (mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis), content, and relationship to an external criterion (time banditry). I flagged items with undesirable properties for potential removal. Because it is problematic for scale items to display low variability and non-normal distributions (Stanton, 2002), I flagged items with relatively low standard deviations and high skewness or kurtosis values. Additionally, it is undesirable for items to have means near the upper or lower response limits (Stanton, 2002). Because the mean values for all emotion-focused coping instrumentality items tended to be high, I flagged emotion-focused items with especially high means; in contrast, because all problem-focused item means tended to be low, I flagged problem-focused items with especially low means. Due to the desire to have clear and concise items (Dillman, 2000), I flagged items that were overly wordy compared to other items in the scale. I also flagged items whose content or wording significantly overlapped with other items in the same scale. Finally, because coping instrumentality should theoretically relate to time banditry, I flagged items that failed to positively correlate with the time banditry scale.

Table 3 displays the mean, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, and time banditry correlation values for each of the coping instrumentality items. I began by evaluating items from the emotion-focused coping instrumentality scale. I eliminated items 3 and 13 for their relatively high means, low standard deviations, and high skewness and kurtosis values. Both of these items also had relatively high negative loadings on the problem-focused coping

instrumentality factor (-.18 for item 3, -.14 for item 13). I removed items 4 and 10 because they were not significantly related to time banditry. I removed item 7 (“Let me avoid unpleasant feelings about the situation”) in favor of item 8 (“Take my mind off my negative feelings”), which was nearly identical in meaning while being more concise. Similarly, I removed items 14 (“Control my emotional distress over the issue”) and 15 (“Prevent the matter from wearing me down emotionally”) in favor of item 6 (“Keep the matter from upsetting me too much”). I removed items 1 and 5 due to their relatively high cross-loadings on the problem-focused factor (.15 and .14, respectively). I retained item 2 due to content considerations; despite its relatively low loading on the emotion-focused factor, it explicitly mentioned worrying about the stressful situation. Because worry and anxiety are central components of emotion-focused coping, it was important that at least one item captured this specific emotion. I retained item 9 because it framed emotion-focused coping in a positive manner (allowing relaxation rather than preventing stress); therefore, it represented a component of the emotion-focused content domain that the other remaining items failed to cover. Finally, I retained item 12 because it covered another specific emotion (anger) that the other items failed to cover. Although item 11 also covered a specific emotion (irritation), I excluded this item in favor of item 12, which had a slightly higher factor loading and better distributional properties. Thus, the final emotion-focused coping instrumentality scale contained items 2, 6, 8, 9, and 12.

Next, I evaluated the problem-focused items. I eliminated items 21 and 30 due to their high skewness and low means. Item 20 also had the lowest factor loading among the

problem-focused items. I eliminated item 31 due to its high kurtosis value. I eliminated item 24 (“Bring a resolution to the matter”) in favor of the similar but more concise item 26 (“Help me resolve the issue”). Similarly, I eliminated item 25 (“Confront the root of the problem”) in favor of item 28 (“Manage the source of the trouble”), which had more favorable distributional properties. I retained item 27 due to content considerations, as controlling a stressful situation is central to the concept of problem-focused coping (Carver et al., 1989; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Additionally, item 27 was one of only two problem-focused items that positively predicted time banditry; the other items were unrelated to time banditry. I also retained item 29 due to content considerations. While most items mentioned resolving the stressor, this item mentioned taking action to work around the stressor. This may better capture problem-focused coping for stressful situations that cannot be eliminated, but for which individuals can regulate their own behavior to ease any negative effects. Finally, of the two remaining items, I chose item 22 over item 23 due to its slightly higher mean and lower skewness value. Thus, the final problem-focused coping instrumentality scale contained items 22, 26, 27, 28, and 29.

I re-ran the EFA on these final ten items, again using principal axis factoring and promax rotation to achieve a two-factor solution. Table 4 displays the final items along with their factor loadings. The items formed two clear factors with strong loadings and minimal cross-loadings. Factor 1 (the problem-focused factor) accounted for 37% of the variance in the data, and Factor 2 (the emotion-focused factor) accounted for 31% of the variance in the data. The two factors correlated at $r(215) = .21$.

Using the items from the final EFA solution, I examined the internal consistency of each scale, including the Cronbach's alpha that would result from deleting an item.

Typically, items that substantially lower the internal consistency of the scale are removed (Hinkin, 1998). The emotion-focused coping instrumentality scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .88. Removing any of the items would either lower the internal consistency of the scale or raise it only slightly to $\alpha = .89$. Therefore, I chose to retain all five items for the final scale. The problem-focused coping instrumentality scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .93. Because removing any of the items would lower this internal consistency value, I chose to retain all five items for the final scale.

Confirmatory factor analysis. After choosing the final scale items, I used the second sample to confirm the factor structure of these items. Specifically, I conducted confirmatory factor analysis to test the fit of a model in which the five emotion-focused coping instrumentality items and the five problem-focused coping instrumentality items each loaded onto their respective latent factors. This model displayed excellent fit to the data according to Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria: $\chi^2(34) = 58.96, p = .01$; CFI = .99; TLI = .98; RMSEA = .06, 90% CI = [.03, .08]; SRMR = .05. Next, I compared the fit of this two-factor model to that of a one-factor model in which all items loaded onto a single latent factor for general coping instrumentality. This model displayed poor fit to the data: $\chi^2(35) = 608.16, p < .001$; CFI = .67; TLI = .58; RMSEA = .28, 90% CI = [.26, .29]; SRMR = .22. Additionally, a chi-square difference test indicated that the one-factor model fit the data significantly worse than

did the two-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 549.20, p < .001$), providing support for the distinctiveness of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality.

Validity evidence. After conducting the CFA, I examined simple correlations between coping instrumentalities and theoretically relevant variables for Sample 2. To establish convergent validity, state negative affect should positively correlate with both coping instrumentality scales, as negative emotions stimulate intentions to cope with stressful situations (Spector & Fox, 2002); however, it should more strongly correlate with emotion-focused coping instrumentality. I compared the strength of these two correlations using Williams' T2 statistic, which tests the significance of the difference between two correlations that share a common variable (Steiger, 1980). Neither emotion-focused coping instrumentality ($r(215) = .09, p = .17$) nor problem-focused coping instrumentality ($r(215) = .02, p = .78$) was significantly related to negative affect. Additionally, Williams' T2 statistic indicated that these two correlations did not differ from one another ($t(214) = -.92, p = .18$). This failed to establish convergent validity for the coping instrumentality scales. To establish discriminant validity, both coping instrumentality scales should have very low correlations with social desirability. Supporting the discriminant validity of the two scales, the emotion-focused scale was unrelated to social desirability ($r(215) = .05, p = .51$), and the problem-focused scale had a low correlation with social desirability ($r(215) = .14, p = .04$). Finally, to establish criterion-related validity, both types of coping instrumentality should positively predict time banditry. As expected, the emotion-focused scale significantly predicted time

banditry ($r(215) = .24, p < .001$). However, the problem-focused scale was unrelated to time banditry ($r(215) = .12, p = .07$).

Discussion

This study demonstrated the excellent internal psychometric properties of the two coping instrumentality scales. Specifically, the emotion-focused and problem-focused items formed two clear factors, each with high internal consistency. These results suggest that emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality are distinct cognitions that individuals form about stressful work events. However, evidence of the scales' convergent validity was limited. Contrary to the idea that negative emotions induce the desire to cope with stressful situations (Spector & Fox, 2002), neither form of coping instrumentality was related to the experience of negative emotions surrounding participants' chosen stressors. This may be because I prompted participants to choose a scenario that was stressful to them, and that might make them want to engage in time-wasting behavior. These instructions rendered it unlikely that participants would choose scenarios that did not cause them to experience negative emotions, and for which they would not deem time banditry a useful coping technique. Therefore, the study design may have restricted variance in negative affect and coping instrumentality perceptions, reducing the extent to which the variables could correlate.

The new scales also displayed limited criterion-related validity, as only emotion-focused coping instrumentality significantly predicted time banditry. It is possible that, because participants chose their own specific stressors, some of the time banditry items were

not relevant to solving participants' chosen stressor scenarios. This would reduce the correlation between problem-focused coping instrumentality and time banditry. Study 2 provided the opportunity to examine the link between time banditry and coping instrumentality in the context of more general stressors relevant to time-wasting behavior.

Study 2: Hypothesis Testing

Study 1 yielded measures of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality. The purpose of Study 2 was to use these measures to test formal hypotheses about the relationships between work stressors, coping instrumentalities, and time banditry.

Method

Participants and procedure. As with Study 1, I used Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) to collect survey responses from U.S. adults working full-time in a location other than their home. To reduce the influence of common method variance on observed correlations among the study variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), I administered the survey at two time points. At Time 1, participants completed the scales for work stressors and coping instrumentalities, along with demographic information. Three days later, participants received an invitation to complete the Time 2 survey containing the time banditry scale and scales for control variables. Participants received \$1.25 for completing the Time 1 survey, and \$0.75 for completing the Time 2 survey. At Time 1, I obtained responses from 338 full-time employees. Of these, 295 participants responded to the Time 2 survey (response rate = 87%).

To ensure data quality, I used three strategies to screen out participants who did not devote adequate attention to the survey. First, I included an attention check item in the Time 1 survey; because individuals who failed to correctly answer this item were not allowed to complete the remainder of the survey, the 338 Time 1 responses represent participants who passed the attention check. Second, I computed the LongString careless responding index (Johnson, 2005; Meade & Craig, 2011) for both the Time 1 and Time 2 surveys. LongString refers to the maximum number of consecutive items for which a participant chose the same response option. I screened out responses that fell more than two standard deviations above the mean LongString value for either of the two surveys. For the Time 1 survey, the average LongString value was 13.11, and the standard deviation was 13.53; this yielded a cutoff value of 40 (i.e., all participants with more than 40 consecutive responses for the Time 1 survey were excluded from the final sample). For the Time 2 survey, the average LongString value was 5.24, and the standard deviation was 2.46; this yielded a cutoff value of 10. Based on these values, I screened out 24 of the 295 respondents (16 based on the Time 1 survey, seven based on the Time 2 survey, and one based on both surveys). Third, I screened respondents based on completion time. For each survey, I estimated the minimum time required to read and respond to all survey items. This estimate was four minutes for Survey 1 and two minutes for Survey 2. I screened out participants whose completion times fell below this minimum estimate. Based on these completion time criteria, I screened out an additional 12 respondents (nine based on the Time 1 survey, two based on the Time 2 survey, and one based on both surveys). Thus, the final sample included 259 full-time employees.

Of the 259 employees in the final sample, 52% were women, 82% were white, and 54% had earned a Bachelor's degree or higher. The mean age was 37.0 years ($SD = 10.0$ years), and average job tenure was 6.5 years ($SD = 5.4$ years).

Measures. Below are descriptions of the items I administered for Study 2.

Work stressors. Participants completed two scales for each of the three stressor categories chosen for this study; thus, I examined a total of six stressors. First, stressors based on the work itself included workload and role ambiguity. I measured workload using the Quantitative Workload Inventory (QWI; Spector & Jex, 1998), which contains five items assessing the amount and pace of work (e.g., "How often does your job require you to work very fast?"). Response options were on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Very often). I measured role ambiguity using four items adapted from Rizzo and colleagues (1970) that reflect uncertainty about the nature of job responsibilities. Due to its positive wording, the original scale was a measure of role clarity. However, to provide proper context for the coping instrumentality items, it was important that the stressor items reflected the presence rather than the absence of stressful work characteristics. Therefore, to create a measure of role ambiguity, I re-worded the items to reflect lack of clarity. Thus, the final scale included the following items: "My job lacks clear planned goals and objectives", "I do not know what my job responsibilities are", "I do not know exactly what is expected of me at work", and "Explanation of what I have to do at work is unclear". Response options ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree).

I measured work-life conflict stressors using two scales from Carlson and colleagues (2000). Because the scales originally measured work-family conflict, I modified these items to assess the broader dimension of work-life conflict by replacing references to one's family and household with references to one's personal activities and responsibilities. Time-based work interference with life (three items) assesses the extent to which time spent at work keeps individuals from important life activities (e.g., "My work keeps me from my personal activities more than I would like"). Strain-based work interference with life (three items) assesses the extent to which the stress associated with work prevents individuals from participating in personal activities (e.g., "I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from completing my personal responsibilities"). Response options ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

To measure injustice stressors, I adapted Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) distributive and procedural justice scales. Specifically, I re-worded the items to reflect unfair rather than fair conditions. Additionally, I modified the items to reflect decisions made by the organization as a whole rather than by one's general manager. Distributive injustice (five items) involves perceptions of the unfairness of work outcomes (e.g., "I think that my level of pay is unfair"). Procedural justice (six items) involves perceptions of the unfairness of procedures used to determine work outcomes (e.g., "My organization ignores employee concerns when making job decisions"). Response options ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree).

Coping instrumentalities. I measured emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality for time banditry using the two five-item scales developed in Study 1. Consistent with Shoss and colleagues (2015), coping instrumentality items were specific to both the focal behavior (i.e., time banditry) and the focal stressor. Thus, participants completed one measure of emotion-focused coping instrumentality and one measure of problem-focused coping instrumentality for each of the six stressors in this study. To reduce the cognitive demands placed on participants, I presented the coping instrumentality items for a stressor immediately after they completed the scale for that stressor. Participants rated how much misusing work time could help them feel better about the focal stressor (emotion-focused) or resolve the stressor (problem-focused). Response options ranged from 1 (Not at all) to 7 (A great deal).

Time banditry. I measured time banditry using the Time Banditry Questionnaire (Brock et al., 2013). This scale includes 31 items assessing time-wasting behavior at work, including taking long or extra breaks, leaving work early, and making personal phone calls or sending personal email at work. Participants rated how frequently they engage in each behavior at their current job (1 = Never, 5 = Very often).

Control variables. In testing a stressor-based framework for time banditry, it is important to account for other potential time banditry antecedents such as boredom and pleasure-seeking motives. Regardless of the stressors they face, employees may sometimes misuse their work time because they would simply rather have fun on the job than complete their work tasks (Ketchen et al., 2008). These motives for time banditry may constitute

alternative explanations for the expected relationships among my study variables. For instance, neglecting one's job duties out of boredom or the desire to have fun may create high workload as unfinished tasks accumulate, producing a positive relationship between workload and time banditry. Alternatively, individuals may engage in time banditry due to pleasure-seeking motives, then try to form situational justifications for their behavior after the fact (e.g., by exaggerating perceptions of stressors and coping instrumentality). To rule out these potential explanations, I controlled for two individual differences that may drive non-stressor-related time banditry: boredom proneness and fun seeking. *Boredom proneness* is a dispositional tendency to experience feelings of boredom (Farmer & Sundberg, 1986), and reflects a lowered ability to maintain attention and become absorbed in activities (Skowronski, 2012). I measured this construct using six items from Farmer and Sundberg's (1986) boredom proneness scale. Vodanovich, Wallace, and Kass (2005) identified these items as representing external boredom proneness, or the tendency to perceive one's environment as under-stimulating. An example item is "Many things I have to do are repetitive and monotonous". Response options ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). *Fun seeking* is a facet of the behavioral activation system, and reflects the propensity to seek rewards in an impulsive manner (Carver & White, 1994). I measured this construct using Carver and White's (1994) four-item scale (e.g., "I will often do things for no other reason than that they might be fun"). Response options ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). For all hypotheses, I compared the results with and without these two control variables.

Results

Measurement model. To ensure that all items adequately captured their respective constructs, I used confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test the fit of the measurement model for each of the six stressors. Each model contained the focal stressor, emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality for that stressor, and time banditry. Individual items served as indicators for the stressor and coping instrumentality factors. It is difficult to confirm factor structures for very long scales (e.g., the time banditry scale used in this study), as error covariances among the many pairs of items can add up to create large differences between the specified factor structure and the actual data. For this reason, Floyd and Widaman (1995) suggested that it was unreasonable to expect long scales to display adequate fit when using items as indicators. Therefore, random parcels served as indicators for the 31-item time banditry factor. I randomly assigned each of the 31 time banditry items to one of five parcels, which I used for each of the six measurement models. Table 5 displays the χ^2 statistics and fit indices for all six measurement models. In general, the models displayed good fit according to Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria. Specifically, CFI ranged from .94 to .97; TLI ranged from .93 to .97; RMSEA ranged from .06 to .08; and SRMR ranged from .02 to .05.

Because parceling can obscure model misspecification (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002), I also examined the measurement models including all 31 time banditry items as indicators. This allowed me to verify that there were no problematic time banditry items that I should exclude from the final scale in the regression analyses. As expected, these

models displayed poor fit to the data (CFI ranged from .73-.79; TLI ranged from .72-.78; RMSEA = .09 for all six models; SRMR ranged from .08-.09). However, all 31 items had significant loadings on the time banditry factor across the six measurement models.

Additionally, the seven negatively worded items in the time banditry scale had negative loadings on the time banditry factor, as expected. Finally, the modification indices revealed that most fit problems stemmed from correlated error terms among the time banditry items, rather than cross-loadings of time banditry items on other latent factors. These results suggested that it was appropriate to retain all 31 time banditry items for hypothesis testing.

Hypothesis testing. I tested my hypotheses using the PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2013), which allows examination of multiple mediation models using a regression-based path analysis framework. I conducted analyses separately for each of the six work stressors. Additionally, I evaluated all hypotheses both with and without boredom proneness and fun seeking as control variables. To avoid redundancy, I discuss models without control variables only when the interpretations differ from the corresponding model with control variables; thus, all reported coefficients refer to the models with control variables unless otherwise stated. Finally, I chose to report unstandardized regression coefficients for all analyses. Because my hypotheses focus mainly on indirect effects, which are the products of unstandardized regression coefficients, reporting unstandardized coefficients draws a clearer connection between the indirect effects and the component paths. Indeed, Hayes (2013) recommends reporting unstandardized regression coefficients for mediation analyses. Table 6 displays the correlations and descriptive statistics for all study variables.

Stressors and time banditry. Hypothesis 1 stated that task-based stressors (H1a), work-life conflict stressors (H1b) and injustice stressors (H1c) would positively predict time banditry. To test this hypothesis, I regressed time banditry on each of the six stressors. Contrary to Hypothesis 1a, workload negatively predicted time banditry ($B = -.14$, $SE = .05$, $p = .01$). However, in support of Hypothesis 1a, role ambiguity positively predicted time banditry ($B = .09$, $SE = .03$, $p = .002$). Contrary to Hypothesis 1b, time banditry was unrelated to either time-based ($B = -.04$, $SE = .03$, $p = .20$) or strain-based work-life conflict ($B = -.03$, $SE = .03$, $p = .28$). In support of Hypothesis 1c, distributive injustice positively predicted time banditry without the control variables ($B = .06$, $SE = .03$, $p = .02$); however, this relationship disappeared after controlling for boredom proneness and fun seeking ($B = -.01$, $SE = .03$, $p = .72$). Finally, in support of Hypothesis 1c, procedural injustice positively predicted time banditry ($B = .05$, $SE = .02$, $p = .03$). Overall, these results provide limited support for Hypothesis 1, as only two of the six stressors positively predicted time banditry after controlling for dispositional factors.

Multiple mediation. Although some of the work stressors did not predict time banditry, researchers have stated that mediation can exist without the presence of a total effect (Hayes, 2009; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Therefore, I proceeded to test the mediation hypotheses (Hypotheses 2 and 3) for all six stressors in three steps. In Step 1, I evaluated the relationship between each stressor and the two mediators (emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality). In Step 2, I evaluated the relationships between each of the two mediators and time banditry, controlling for the focal stressor. In Step 3, I computed the

indirect effects of each stressor on time banditry through emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality. Using PROCESS, I constructed 95% bootstrap confidence intervals to evaluate the significance of each indirect effect; mediation is present if the confidence interval does not contain zero.

Table 7 displays the mediation regression results for the two task-based stressors. Workload was unrelated to emotion-focused coping instrumentality ($B = -.01$, $SE = .14$, $p = .93$); however, emotion-focused coping instrumentality positively predicted time banditry after controlling for workload ($B = .13$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$). Table 8 displays the indirect effects for all stressors. Contrary to Hypothesis 2a, the indirect effect of workload on time banditry through emotion-focused coping instrumentality was non-significant (*indirect effect* = $-.002$, 95% CI = $[-.04, .04]$). Although role ambiguity positively predicted emotion-focused coping instrumentality without the control variables ($B = .20$, $SE = .08$, $p = .02$), this relationship disappeared after adding the control variables ($B = .10$, $SE = .09$, $p = .25$). In turn, emotion-focused coping instrumentality positively predicted time banditry ($B = .11$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$). Thus, although the indirect effect of role ambiguity on time banditry was significant before adding the control variables (*indirect effect* = $.03$, 95% CI = $[.003, .06]$), it failed to remain significant after controlling for dispositional factors (*indirect effect* = $.01$, 95% CI = $[-.01, .04]$; Table 8). Overall, these results fail to support Hypothesis 2a. Additionally, neither of the task-based stressors predicted their corresponding problem-focused coping instrumentalities; similarly, neither of the problem-focused coping

instrumentalities predicted time banditry. Thus, contrary to Hypothesis 3a, problem-focused coping instrumentality did not act as a mediator for the task-based stressors.

Table 9 displays the mediation regression results for work-life conflict. Time-based work-life conflict positively predicted emotion-focused coping instrumentality ($B = .20$, $SE = .08$, $p = .02$); in turn, emotion-focused coping instrumentality positively predicted time banditry ($B = .13$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$). Thus, in support of Hypothesis 2b, emotion-focused coping instrumentality mediated a positive relationship between time-based work-life conflict and time banditry (*indirect effect* = .03, 95% CI = [.005, .06]; Table 8). Strain-based work-life conflict was unrelated to emotion-focused coping instrumentality ($B = .04$, $SE = .09$, $p = .66$); however, emotion-focused coping instrumentality significantly predicted time banditry ($B = .10$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$). Contrary to Hypothesis 2b, the indirect effect of strain-based work-life conflict on time banditry through emotion-focused coping instrumentality was non-significant (*indirect effect* = .004, 95% CI = [-.01, .02]; Table 8). Overall, these results provide partial support for Hypothesis 2b. Neither of the work-life conflict stressors predicted their corresponding problem-focused coping instrumentalities; similarly, neither of the problem-focused coping instrumentalities predicted time banditry. Thus, contrary to Hypothesis 3b, problem-focused coping instrumentality did not act as a mediator for either of the work-life conflict stressors.

Table 10 displays the mediation regression results for the injustice stressors. Distributive injustice positively predicted emotion-focused coping instrumentality ($B = .19$, $SE = .08$, $p = .01$). In turn, emotion-focused coping instrumentality positively predicted time

banditry ($B = .10$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$). In support of Hypothesis 2c, the indirect effect of distributive injustice on time banditry through emotion-focused coping instrumentality was significant (*indirect effect* = .02, 95% CI = [.005, .04]; Table 8). Procedural injustice positively predicted emotion-focused coping instrumentality ($B = .25$, $SE = .07$, $p < .001$). In turn, emotion-focused coping instrumentality positively predicted time banditry ($B = .10$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$). In support of Hypothesis 2c, the indirect effect of procedural injustice on time banditry through emotion-focused coping instrumentality was significant (*indirect effect* = .03, 95% CI = [.01, .05]; Table 8). These results provide full support for Hypothesis 2c. In contrast, neither of the injustice stressors predicted their corresponding problem-focused coping instrumentalities; similarly, neither of the problem-focused coping instrumentalities predicted time banditry. Thus, contrary to Hypothesis 3c, problem-focused coping instrumentality did not act as a mediator for either of the injustice stressors.

Comparing indirect effects. To compare the strength of mediation through emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality for each stressor (Hypotheses 4-6), I used PROCESS to construct a bootstrap confidence interval for the difference between the two mediating effects (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). The point estimate for the difference between the mediating effects is simply the difference between the two indirect effect estimates obtained in the evaluation of Hypotheses 2 and 3. PROCESS computes a bootstrap confidence interval around this point estimate by using a re-sampling strategy to construct a sampling distribution for the difference between the two indirect effects. The difference

between the two indirect effects is significant if the bootstrap confidence interval does not contain zero.

Hypothesis 4 stated that mediation would be stronger through emotion-focused coping instrumentality than through problem-focused coping instrumentality for task-based stressors. Contrary to this hypothesis, there was no significant difference between the two indirect effects for workload (*indirect effect difference* = .002, 95% CI = [-.04, .05]). For role ambiguity, mediation was stronger through emotion-focused coping instrumentality in the model without control variables (*indirect effect difference* = .03, 95% CI = [.004, .06]). However, this difference disappeared after controlling for dispositional factors (*indirect effect difference* = .01, 95% CI = [-.01, .04]). These results largely fail to support Hypothesis 4.

Hypothesis 5 stated that mediation would be stronger through problem-focused coping instrumentality than through emotion-focused coping instrumentality for work-life conflict stressors. Contrary to this hypothesis, mediation was stronger through emotion-focused coping instrumentality for time-based work-life conflict (*indirect effect difference* = .03, 95% CI = [.005, .06]). There was no difference between the two mediating effects for strain-based work-life conflict (*indirect effect difference* = .004, 95% CI = [-.01, .02]). These results fail to support Hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 6 stated that mediation would be stronger through problem-focused coping instrumentality than through emotion-focused coping instrumentality for injustice stressors. Contrary to this hypothesis, mediation was stronger through emotion-focused

coping instrumentality for both distributive injustice (*indirect effect difference* = .02, 95% CI = [.01, .04]) and procedural injustice (*indirect effect difference* = .02, 95% CI = [.01, .05]).

These results fail to support Hypothesis 6.

Discussion

This study integrated work on counterproductive work behaviors and the stress process to examine time banditry as a potential coping response to work stressors. The first goal was to replicate previous findings linking work stressors to increased time-wasting behavior. This effort was only partially successful, as only two of the six stressors (role ambiguity and procedural injustice) positively predicted time banditry after controlling for dispositional factors. Distributive injustice and both types of work-life conflict were unrelated to time banditry, running counter to previous work linking these stressors to CWBs such as work withdrawal (Hammer et al., 2003; Spector et al., 2006) and production deviance (Spector et al., 2006). Several factors could explain these inconsistent findings. First, by including dispositional controls and a time lag between the stressors and time banditry, the current study reduced some sources of common method variance that might drive spurious correlations between the variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Thus, other studies that included only a single time point may have overstated the relationships between stressors and time-wasting CWBs. Alternatively, the current study's broad measure of time banditry might explain the null findings. Rather than using a broad measure with many time-wasting behaviors, most previous studies examined specific facets of time-wasting behavior such as cyberloafing (Henle & Blanchard, 2008) and lateness (Hammer et al., 2003). Future studies

should attempt to link stressors to specific facets of time banditry as well as the general time banditry construct to reconcile these conflicting findings.

Interestingly, workload *negatively* predicted time banditry. This runs contrary to the general finding that individuals facing greater work-related stressors tend to engage more frequently in CWBs such as time banditry. However, it is consistent with previous research indicating individuals often forego work breaks due to lack of time (Strongman & Burt, 2000), as well as Henle and Blanchard's (2008) finding that role overload negatively predicted cyberloafing. Combined with the current study's results, these findings suggest that there is simply not enough time for employees to complete large amounts of required work while also engaging in off-task behaviors. Thus, the costs of wasting work time may outweigh the stress-reducing benefits for employees with high workloads. In addition to examining the perceived benefits of time banditry, future research could expand the exploration of the stressor-time banditry link by evaluating the perceived costs of time banditry, as well as the perceived opportunity to engage in time-wasting behaviors at work.

The second goal of this study was to examine emotion-focused and problem-focused pathways from stressors to time banditry. To my knowledge, this was the first study to examine both coping functions of CWB empirically. Drawing from models of CWB and the stress process (Fox et al., 2001; Shoss et al., 2015), I predicted that perceptions of emotion-focused coping instrumentality would drive a positive relationship between stressors and time banditry. In other words, I proposed that individuals confronting a stressful work situation form perceptions that wasting their work time could help them reduce the negative

emotions surrounding the stressor; in turn, these instrumentality perceptions cause individuals to engage in more time-wasting behavior. The results supported this process for three of the six stressors: time-based work-life conflict, distributive injustice, and procedural injustice. Mediation for the other three stressors failed at the first stage, as these stressors were unrelated to perceptions of emotion-focused coping instrumentality. In other words, a more severe work stressor did not necessarily translate into stronger perceptions that time banditry could help the individual feel better about that stressor. It may be the case that as stressor intensity increases, the realization that ignoring the problem will only make it worse offsets the emotional benefit of removing oneself from the stressful work situation. For example, taking extra breaks to avoid a high workload will likely increase an employee's workload, and the resulting anxiety, as tasks pile up. Therefore, while time banditry may be a useful form of short-term emotional relief from one's workload, it does not become *more* useful as workload increases. Future work should investigate these relationships for a variety of stressors and attempt to identify patterns in the stressors that relate and do not relate to emotion-focused coping instrumentality.

Although the first stage of the mediation model did not succeed for all stressors, I did find full support for the second stage of the mediation model: perceptions of emotion-focused coping instrumentality for all six stressors positively predicted time banditry. In other words, in all cases individuals who perceived more emotion-focused coping benefits of time banditry tended to engage in more time-wasting behavior at work. Consistent with affect-based CWB research (e.g., Fox et al., 2001; Henle & Blanchard, 2008; Krischer et al., 2010;

Shoss et al., 2015), these results largely support the idea that time banditry is an emotion-focused coping response to work stressors. That is, individuals who face uncomfortable work situations such as role ambiguity or injustice turn to time-wasting behaviors as a way to relieve the associated anxiety, anger, or other negative emotions. In these cases, time banditry may constitute a form of avoidance, as it allows individuals to remove themselves psychologically from the stressful situation (Henle & Blanchard, 2008).

In contrast, the relevance of problem-focused coping instrumentality for time banditry remains unsupported. I predicted that the presence of a work stressor would stimulate perceptions that wasting time at work could help deal with or eliminate that stressor; in turn, these perceptions of problem-focused coping instrumentality should predict actual time-wasting behavior. Contrary to these predictions, problem-focused coping instrumentality did not play a role in linking stressors to time banditry in this study. These findings seem to contradict CWB models that frame time banditry as a way to rebalance unequitable work arrangements (Jones, 2009; Martinko et al., 2002), resolve conflicts between work and personal life (Koslowsky, 2000), or gain instrumental support to resolve other work stressors (Reynolds et al., 2015). It is possible that problem-focused coping requires a more nuanced measurement approach than does emotion-focused coping. Emotion-focused coping is broad in that any behavior that disengages the individual from work should help relieve work-related distress. In contrast, problem-solving implies a match between the stressor (the problem) and the time banditry behavior (the attempt to solve the problem). For instance, chatting with coworkers is unlikely to resolve work-life conflict; however, taking an

unauthorized break could resolve work-life conflict if the employee uses the free time to accomplish important personal tasks. It is also possible that individuals did not interpret the problem-focused coping instrumentality items as intended. For instance, individuals may indeed use time-wasting behavior as a way to get back at the organization for perceived injustice, or to balance competing work and life responsibilities; however, they may not see this behavior as controlling or resolving the stressful situation. To address these potential issues, future research should investigate time banditry from a problem-focused coping perspective by capturing not only the time-wasting behavior itself, but also the purpose of that behavior. This may require a more qualitative measurement approach. For instance, researchers could ask individuals about instances in which they misused work time to resolve a specific work-related stressor. This could better test the viability of time banditry as a problem-focused coping response to work stressors, and set the stage for more focused quantitative studies.

Measurement issues aside, problem-focused coping may simply be inconsequential compared to emotion-focused coping in linking stressors to time banditry. Note that the mean level of problem-focused coping instrumentality for each stressor was lower than the mean of its emotion-focused counterpart; this implies that individuals saw time banditry more as a way to feel better about stressors than as a way to resolve them. Because time banditry can constitute a form of avoidance (Henle & Blanchard, 2008), it may be primarily driven by impulsive, affective mechanisms (i.e., the desire to escape and feel better about a stressful situation) rather than by more deliberate problem-solving mechanisms. Future research

should investigate different measurement techniques, stressor scenarios, and boundary conditions in an attempt to identify instances in which problem-focused coping instrumentality plays a role in linking stressors to time banditry.

The third and final goal of this study was to differentiate stressors according to the relative strength of their emotion-focused and problem-focused pathways. I proposed that task-based stressors such as workload and role ambiguity would drive time banditry primarily through affective mechanisms, whereas work-life conflict and injustice stressors would drive time banditry primarily through problem-focused mechanisms. Because none of the problem-focused pathways received empirical support, the current study failed to confirm these distinctions. Nevertheless, the theoretical bases of these stressor types still suggest differences in how they relate to time-wasting behavior at work. For instance, the emotion-focused coping function of time banditry seems most relevant to stressors involving work tasks, as time banditry can temporarily remove the individual from the stressful work task without actually resolving the issue. In contrast, the problem-focused coping function of time banditry seems most relevant to work-life conflict (i.e., employees waste work time to accomplish personal tasks; Koslowsky, 2000) and injustice (i.e., employees waste work time to rebalance their exchange relationship with the organization; Lorinkova & Perry, 2014). As I mentioned earlier, the lack of support for the problem-focused pathways in this study may reflect difficulties measuring instances in which individuals used time banditry for these types of problem-focused purposes. Perhaps a more refined examination of the problem-

focused coping function of time banditry would reveal differences in the pathways linking different stressor types to time-wasting behaviors.

Practical Implications

The results of this study suggest that the opportunity to feel better about work stressors drives employee time-wasting behavior. Although limiting stressful aspects of the work context should improve many aspects of employee behavior and well-being, it is not always feasible to completely eliminate the presence of work stressors. Therefore, workplace interventions that reduce the perceived emotion-focused coping benefits of time-wasting behavior provide a more realistic option for boosting employee productivity in the face of stressful work situations. One way to accomplish this might be to provide employees with more productive ways to relieve emotional distress at work. For instance, seeking social support is an emotion-focused coping strategy that may help individuals gain reassurance about the stressors they face, and encourage them to find solutions (Carver et al., 1989). Indeed, time-wasting behaviors such as taking extra breaks and socializing at work may reflect employees' attempts to obtain such support from their coworkers. To prevent employees from resorting to unauthorized support-seeking behaviors, organizations might strengthen social support networks among coworkers by designing team-building exercises or encouraging group-based work projects. Similarly, Krischer and colleagues (2010) suggested that organizations encourage stress-reducing activities such as exercise programs and work breaks for employees who feel overwhelmed by work-related stressors. Although they would still take time away from work tasks, these organization-sanctioned coping

strategies should lead to less covert time banditry, and send the message that the organization values employee well-being. Therefore, providing opportunities for employees to manage their negative work-related emotions could create a more open and honest work environment while strengthening employees' sense of organizational justice.

Limitations and Future Directions

Because of the time lag between the stressor perceptions and time banditry measure, this study guarded against some types of common method variance. For instance, it is unlikely that short-term mood and contextual influences (Podsakoff et al., 2003) produced spurious correlations between stressor perceptions and time banditry, as a three-day time lag separated these two measurements. Additionally, controlling for two dispositional variables helped ensure that individuals' general tendencies to experience boredom or seek pleasure did not drive relationships among the study variables. Although these elements of the study design and analyses helped to rule out some alternative explanations for the findings, some limitations remain. For instance, it is possible that long-term dispositional traits such as positive and negative affectivity produced spurious correlations among the study variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Additionally, despite the three-day time lag between the two measurement points, this was still a cross-sectional study. Therefore, it was not possible to establish that perceptions of emotion-focused coping instrumentality caused individuals to engage in time banditry. A longitudinal research design could help rule out the influence of broad dispositional traits, as well as help establish temporal ordering, which is a requirement for causality. Therefore, future studies should examine stressors, coping instrumentality, and

time banditry over time to determine whether work stressors induce the formation of instrumentality perceptions, which then drive time-wasting behavior.

Another limitation of the current study is its reliance on self-reports of time banditry. Because many counterproductive work behaviors are not visible to others, employees are best equipped to report their own time-wasting behavior (Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012; Fox & Spector, 1999). However, researchers have raised several concerns about self-reports of counterproductive work behaviors, including social desirability bias and inflated correlations with other self-report variables due to common method variance (Berry et al., 2012). Although temporal separation of the time banditry scale and the inclusion of two dispositional control variables helped reduce concerns about common method variance, future studies should attempt to replicate the current study's findings using peer or supervisor reports of time banditry.

In addition to the self-report format, the nature of this study's sample could have influenced the relationships among the study variables. Including participants from many different occupations and organizations helped to ensure that the findings would apply to a variety of work settings. However, the use of a broad sample meant that it was not possible to tailor the examination of time banditry to the organizational context. The work context likely plays a large role in which time-wasting behaviors employees have the opportunity to perform. For instance, participants in a highly controlled work environment with close supervision may not have the ability to take an unauthorized break or leave work early. This would attenuate the correlations among coping instrumentality and time-wasting behaviors;

in other words, even if participants believed it would be useful to waste work time, these beliefs would not translate into actual behavior if it that behavior was impossible (or highly costly) to perform. Therefore, the correlations reported in this study might underestimate the relationships between coping instrumentality and time banditry compared to a more focused, context-specific investigation.

Finally, it is important to note the high correlations among the perceptions of coping instrumentality across the six stressors. For instance, many of the problem-focused coping instrumentality perceptions for different stressors correlated around $r = .70$. This calls into question whether this study captured stressor-specific perceptions of coping instrumentality. The high correlations may indicate that individuals form more general perceptions of the benefits of time banditry. For instance, individuals may see time-wasting as a generally useful way to deal with problems, and may therefore employ this behavior to deal with all stressful work situations. This is consistent with the idea of dispositional rather than situational coping styles (Carver et al., 1989). Alternatively, this study may have failed to capture true differences in coping instrumentality perceptions across stressors. The coping instrumentality scales required participants to keep in mind the focal behavior and the focal stressor while completing the survey items. This may have been too cognitively demanding for participants, resulting in poor differentiation in coping instrumentality perceptions across stressors. Future studies could determine whether simplifying the measurement process improves the differentiation among coping instrumentality perceptions across stressors.

Conclusions

Overall, this study provides preliminary evidence that individuals use time-wasting behavior as a way to feel better about the stressful situations they encounter while at work. Furthermore, this study provides a psychometrically sound measure that effectively captures perceptions of emotion-focused coping instrumentality, and can be adapted to reflect any stressor and any focal behavior. Further use of this emotion-focused scale, along with additional investigation of the potential problem-solving benefits of time banditry, can help shed light on the coping processes that link work stressors to employee time-wasting behavior.

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Table 1
Initial Pool of Coping Instrumentality Items

Emotion-Focused	Problem-Focused
1. Ease my anxiety about the issue	21. Get rid of the problem
2. Prevent me from worrying about the problem	22. Give me a chance to face the issue head-on
3. Give me a chance to calm down	23. Address the problem
4. Stop me from stressing out about the situation	24. Bring a resolution to the matter
5. Make me feel better about the problem	25. Confront the root of the problem
6. Keep the matter from upsetting me too much	26. Help me resolve the issue
7. Let me avoid unpleasant feelings about the situation	27. Allow me to take control of the situation
8. Take my mind off my negative feelings	28. Manage the source of the trouble
9. Allow me to relax despite the issue	29. Let me take direct action to get around the problem
10. Help me recover from the emotional pressure	30. Make sure the issue does not happen again
11. Lessen my irritation over the problem	31. Let me find a solution to the problem
12. Help me feel less angry about the issue	32. Make the situation better
13. Provide an escape from the stress	33. Let me try to work through the difficulties
14. Control my emotional distress over the issue	34. Restore balance to the situation
15. Prevent the matter from wearing me down emotionally	35. Make sure that things turn out all right
16. Reduce my negative emotions about the problem	36. Do something to change the situation
17. Relieve my emotional tension from the situation	37. Let me take the matter into my own hands
18. Make the stress more bearable	38. Help me meet the demands of the situation
19. Help me feel less stressed about the matter	39. Help me deal with the matter
20. Limit the emotional strain of the situation	40. Bring an end to the issue

Note. Items numbered in bold were retained for the exploratory factor analysis.

Table 2
Factor Loadings for the Initial EFA Solution

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
Emotion-Focused		
1. Ease my anxiety about the issue	.67	.15
2. Prevent me from worrying about the problem	.63	.11
3. Give me a chance to calm down	.76	-.18
4. Stop me from stressing out about the situation	.78	.01
5. Make me feel better about the problem	.74	.14
6. Keep the matter from upsetting me too much	.84	.07
7. Let me avoid unpleasant feelings about the situation	.76	.04
8. Take my mind off my negative feelings	.84	-.09
9. Allow me to relax despite the issue	.80	-.12
10. Help me recover from the emotional pressure	.79	.00
11. Lessen my irritation over the problem	.80	.02
12. Help me feel less angry about the issue	.82	-.02
13. Provide an escape from the stress	.82	-.14
14. Control my emotional distress over the issue	.84	.06
15. Prevent the matter from wearing me down emotionally	.83	-.02
Problem-Focused		
21. Get rid of the problem	.01	.73
22. Give me a chance to face the issue head-on	.00	.85
23. Address the problem	-.02	.89
24. Bring a resolution to the matter	.01	.93
25. Confront the root of the problem	-.05	.90
26. Help me resolve the issue	-.01	.90
27. Allow me to take control of the situation	.09	.78
28. Manage the source of the trouble	-.01	.90
29. Let me take direct action to get around the problem	-.02	.86
30. Make sure the issue does not happen again	-.04	.87
31. Let me find a solution to the problem	.01	.82

Table 3
Item Distributional Properties and Correlations

Item	Mean	SD	Skew-ness	Kurt-osis	TB Cor-relation
Emotion-Focused					
1. Ease my anxiety about the issue	4.80	1.74	-.80	-.16	.19*
2. Prevent me from worrying about the problem	4.26	1.87	-.30	-.98	.19*
3. Give me a chance to calm down	5.49	1.50	-1.12	.88	.10
4. Stop me from stressing out about the situation	5.05	1.64	-.82	.03	.06
5. Make me feel better about the problem	4.69	1.64	-.61	-.23	.20*
6. Keep the matter from upsetting me too much	4.90	1.60	-.81	.26	.20*
7. Let me avoid unpleasant feelings about the situation	4.83	1.66	-.67	-.20	.22*
8. Take my mind off my negative feelings	5.01	1.66	-.85	.10	.25*
9. Allow me to relax despite the issue	5.22	1.59	-.99	.48	.17*
10. Help me recover from the emotional pressure	5.14	1.53	-.83	.26	.12
11. Lessen my irritation over the problem	5.12	1.63	-.94	.30	.22*
12. Help me feel less angry about the issue	4.86	1.68	-.67	-.25	.19*
13. Provide an escape from the stress	5.45	1.52	-1.22	1.32	.26*
14. Control my emotional distress over the issue	4.90	1.60	-.70	.02	.18*
15. Prevent the matter from wearing me down emotionally	5.15	1.58	-.99	.62	.19*
Problem-Focused					
21. Get rid of the problem	2.31	1.86	1.28	.34	.18*
22. Give me a chance to face the issue head-on	2.90	1.96	.69	-.81	.03
23. Address the problem	2.76	1.96	.78	-.76	.01
24. Bring a resolution to the matter	2.72	1.97	.84	-.68	.07
25. Confront the root of the problem	2.60	1.84	.90	-.34	.06
26. Help me resolve the issue	2.87	1.99	.69	-.94	.10
27. Allow me to take control of the situation	3.34	1.96	.26	-1.22	.15*
28. Manage the source of the trouble	2.82	1.96	.74	-.82	.07
29. Let me take direct action to get around the problem	2.80	1.95	.74	-.79	.06
30. Make sure the issue does not happen again	2.52	1.93	1.04	-.21	.06
31. Let me find a solution to the problem	3.14	2.08	.50	-1.13	.04

Notes. TB = Time banditry.

* $p < .05$

Table 4
Factor Loadings for the Final EFA Solution

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
Emotion-Focused		
2. Prevent me from worrying about the problem	.11	.63
6. Keep the matter from upsetting me too much	.09	.83
8. Take my mind off my negative feelings	-.08	.90
9. Allow me to relax despite the issue	-.08	.76
12. Help me feel less angry about the issue	-.01	.78
Problem-Focused		
22. Give me a chance to face the issue head-on	.85	-.04
26. Help me resolve the issue	.88	-.03
27. Allow me to take control of the situation	.82	.07
28. Manage the source of the trouble	.90	-.01
29. Let me take direct action to get around the problem	.85	-.03

Table 5
Fit Statistics for the Measurement Models

Model	$\chi^2(df)$	CFI	TLI	RMSEA [90% CI]	SRMR
Workload	416.58 (164)	.94	.93	.08 [.07, .09]	.05
Role ambiguity	344.00 (146)	.96	.96	.07 [.06, .08]	.03
Time work-life conflict	294.19 (129)	.97	.96	.07 [.06, .08]	.04
Strain work-life conflict	300.23 (129)	.97	.96	.07 [.06, .08]	.02
Distributive injustice	373.91 (164)	.96	.96	.07 [.06, .08]	.04
Procedural injustice	367.58 (183)	.97	.97	.06 [.05, .07]	.03

Table 6
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations ($N = 259$)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1. Boredom proneness	3.43	1.14	(.77)																				
2. Fun seeking	3.11	.95	.27*	(.86)																			
3. Workload	3.44	.71	-.08	-.04	(.83)																		
4. EFCI workload	3.68	1.55	.13*	.10	-.02	(.91)																	
5. PFCI workload	2.85	1.71	.02	.08	.05	.45*	(.97)																
6. Role ambiguity	1.98	1.29	.34*	.17*	-.06	.10	-.03	(.91)															
7. EFCI role ambiguity	3.29	1.71	.22*	.14*	.02	.65*	.34*	.15*	(.95)														
8. PFCI role ambiguity	2.48	1.62	.12	.09	.11	.32*	.78*	.06	.45*	(.97)													
9. Time work-life conflict	2.79	1.25	.22*	.09	.45*	-.03	-.10	.22*	.03	-.01	(.93)												
10. EFCI time work-life conflict	3.34	1.69	.17*	.23*	.01	.57*	.31*	.15*	.66*	.32*	.19*	(.96)											
11. PFCI time work-life conflict	2.73	1.68	.05	.05	.12*	.29*	.65*	.09	.33*	.75*	.06	.47*	(.97)										
12. Strain work-life conflict	2.59	1.27	.28*	.00	.38*	-.03	-.13*	.28*	-.02	-.07	.69*	.10	-.01	(.94)									
13. EFCI strain work-life conflict	3.64	1.81	.17*	.20*	.00	.58*	.29*	.16*	.55*	.23*	.08	.77*	.35*	.06	(.97)								
14. PFCI strain work-life conflict	2.82	1.70	.07	.12*	.05	.31*	.66*	.11	.28*	.68*	.03	.40*	.81*	-.02	.46*	(.97)							
15. Distributive injustice	3.21	1.56	.40*	.10	.31*	-.03	-.09	.46*	.04	-.04	.57*	.16*	.01	.64*	.07	-.03	(.89)						
16. EFCI distributive injustice	3.38	1.84	.24*	.19*	.01	.53*	.22*	.18*	.62*	.26*	.14*	.72*	.32*	.07	.67*	.29*	.23*	(.97)					
17. PFCI distributive injustice	2.53	1.62	.12	.13*	.14*	.38*	.67*	.10	.42*	.70*	.04	.43*	.72*	.01	.37*	.72*	.04	.42*	(.97)				
18. Procedural injustice	3.51	1.77	.43*	.11	.08	.10	-.10	.49*	.10	-.01	.35*	.11	.02	.43*	.11	-.02	.60*	.25*	.08	(.95)			
19. EFCI procedural injustice	3.32	1.79	.19*	.17*	-.03	.55*	.20*	.18*	.55*	.22*	.10	.63*	.28*	.03	.71*	.34*	.10	.77*	.41*	.29*	(.97)		
20. PFCI procedural injustice	2.41	1.62	.07	.13*	.11	.32*	.66*	.08	.35*	.68*	.04	.35*	.70*	.01	.36*	.73*	.01	.32*	.86*	.09	.47*	(.97)	
21. Time banditry	2.38	.64	.40*	.25*	-.19*	.34*	.08	.31*	.36*	.10	.02	.39*	.16*	.04	.36*	.19*	.14*	.38*	.22*	.29*	.40*	.22*	(.93)

Note. Coefficient alpha reliability estimates are on the diagonal.

* $p < .05$

EFCI = Emotion-focused coping instrumentality. PFCI = Problem-focused coping instrumentality.

Table 7
Regression Results for Task-Based Stressors

Predictor	Step 1 DV: Emotion-Focused CI		Step 1 DV: Problem-Focused CI		Step 2 DV: Time Banditry	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
Workload						
Boredom proneness	.16	.09	.00	.10	.18***	.03
Fun seeking	.11	.10	.15	.12	.09*	.04
Workload	-.01	.14	.12	.15	-.13**	.05
Emotion-focused CI					.13***	.02
Problem-focused CI					-.03	.02
<i>R</i> ²	.02		.01		.29***	
Role Ambiguity						
Boredom proneness	.26**	.10	.13	.10	.15***	.03
Fun seeking	.14	.11	.11	.11	.08*	.04
Role ambiguity	.10	.09	.02	.08	.08**	.03
Emotion-focused CI					.11***	.02
Problem-focused CI					-.03	.02
<i>R</i> ²	.06**		.02		.28***	

Note. **p* < .05, ***p* < .01, ****p* < .001.

DV = Dependent variable.

CI = Coping instrumentality.

Table 8
Indirect Effects of Stressors on Time Banditry through Coping Instrumentality

Mediator	Indirect Effect	SE	95% BC Confidence Interval	
			Lower	Upper
Workload				
Emotion-focused CI	-.002	.02	-.04	.04
Problem-focused CI	-.004	.01	-.02	.004
Role Ambiguity				
Emotion-focused CI	.01	.01	-.01	.04
Problem-focused CI	-.001	.004	-.01	.005
Time-Based Conflict				
Emotion-focused CI	.03*	.01	.01	.06
Problem-focused CI	-.0003	.003	-.01	.004
Strain-Based Conflict				
Emotion-focused CI	.004	.01	-.01	.02
Problem-focused CI	-.001	.003	-.01	.003
Distributive Injustice				
Emotion-focused CI	.02*	.01	.005	.04
Problem-focused CI	-.0002	.002	-.01	.004
Procedural Injustice				
Emotion-focused CI	.03*	.01	.01	.05
Problem-focused CI	.001	.003	-.002	.01

Note. BC Confidence Interval = bias-corrected bootstrapped confidence interval.

Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.

CI = Coping instrumentality.

*significant indirect effect.

Table 9
Regression Results for Work-Life Conflict Stressors

Predictor	Step 1 DV: Emotion-Focused CI		Step 1 DV: Problem-Focused CI		Step 2 DV: Time Banditry	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
Time-Based Conflict						
Boredom proneness	.13	.09	.05	.10	.20***	.03
Fun seeking	.34**	.11	.06	.11	.06	.04
Time-based conflict	.20*	.08	.06	.09	-.06*	.03
Emotion-focused CI					.13***	.02
Problem-focused CI					-.01	.02
<i>R</i> ²	.09***		.01		.29***	
Strain-Based Conflict						
Boredom proneness	.18	.10	.07	.10	.20***	.03
Fun seeking	.33**	.12	.20	.12	.07	.04
Strain-based conflict	.04	.09	-.04	.09	-.04	.03
Emotion-focused CI					.10***	.02
Problem-focused CI					.01	.02
<i>R</i> ²	.06**		.02		.26***	

Note. **p* < .05, ***p* < .01, ****p* < .001.

DV = Dependent variable.

CI = Coping instrumentality.

Table 10
Regression Results for Injustice Stressors

Predictor	Step 1 DV: Emotion-Focused CI		Step 1 DV: Problem-Focused CI		Step 2 DV: Time Banditry	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
Distributive Injustice						
Boredom proneness	.22*	.11	.13	.10	.19***	.03
Fun seeking	.26*	.12	.17	.11	.07	.04
Distributive injustice	.19*	.08	-.01	.07	-.03	.02
Emotion-focused CI					.10***	.02
Problem-focused CI					.02	.02
<i>R</i> ²	.10***		.02		.26***	
Procedural Injustice						
Boredom proneness	.07	.11	.00	.10	.16***	.03
Fun seeking	.25*	.12	.20	.11	.07	.04
Procedural injustice	.25**	.07	.07	.06	.02	.02
Emotion-focused CI					.10***	.02
Problem-focused CI					.02	.02
<i>R</i> ²	.10***		.02		.28***	

Note. **p* < .05, ***p* < .01, ****p* < .001.

DV = Dependent variable.

CI = Coping instrumentality.

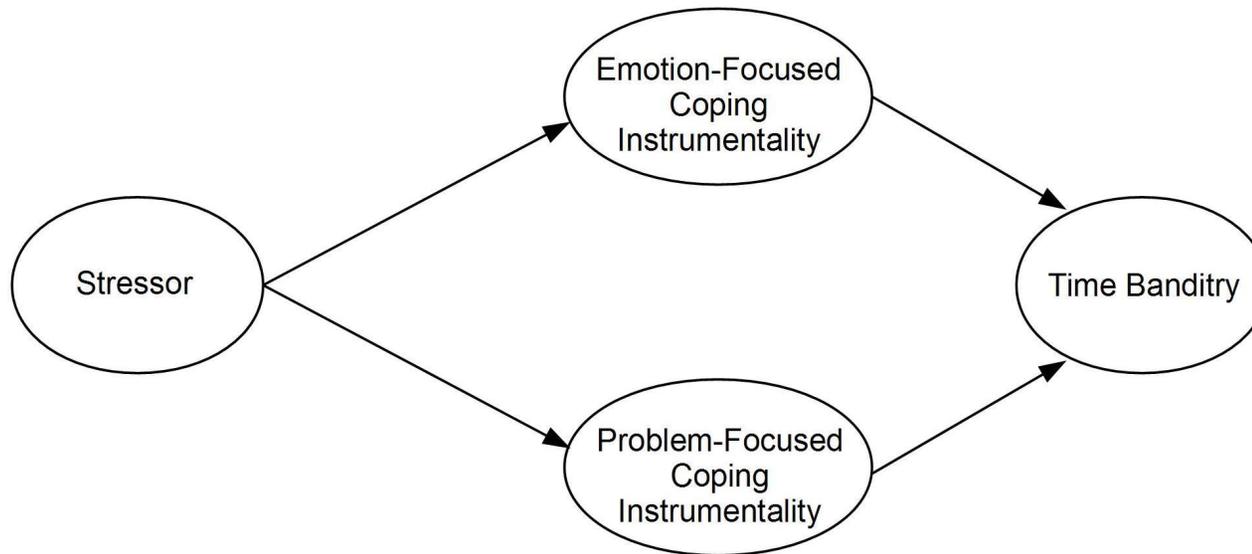


Figure 1. Conceptual model of the relationships among stressors, coping instrumentalities, and time banditry.

APPENDIX

Time Banditry as a Coping Mechanism: Emotion-Focused and Problem-Focused Pathways
from Stressors to Counterproductive Work Behaviors

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Time Banditry as a Coping Mechanism: Emotion-Focused and Problem-Focused Pathways
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Employees engage in a variety of counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs; Bennett & Robinson, 2000), ranging from minor acts of insubordination to serious offenses such as sabotage (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). One particularly common CWB involves the misuse of work time (Gruys & Sackett, 2003). Specifically, employees spend a significant portion of their work hours engaging in non-work-related behaviors such as taking unapproved breaks, making personal phone calls, or even leaving work early (Brock, Martin, & Buckley, 2013). Researchers have termed these off-task behaviors “time banditry”, likening them to theft from the organization (Ketchen, Craighead, & Buckley, 2008; Martin, Brock, Buckley, & Ketchen, 2010). Time banditry is a significant drain on organizations’ monetary resources (Martin et al., 2010); therefore, it is valuable to understand the factors that influence employee misuse of work time.

One stream of CWB literature takes a situational perspective by identifying work stressors as significant drivers of counterproductive work behaviors (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). Although evidence supports the relationship between stressors and specific facets of time banditry (e.g., Henle & Blanchard, 2008), little research has tested this model for the time banditry construct as a whole. Therefore, time banditry lacks integration with existing theoretical frameworks for CWB.

Additionally, there is a need for research that more fully examines the mechanisms linking stressors to CWBs such as time banditry. Some CWB models, either implicitly or

explicitly, conceptualize CWB as a way to cope with organizational stressors. Affective CWB models (e.g., Fox et al., 2001) tend to frame CWB as an emotion-focused coping technique, or a way to manage the negative emotions that work stressors produce. However, cognitive models (e.g., Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002) help to illustrate an alternative coping function; specifically, individuals may sometimes engage in CWB as a problem-focused coping technique, or a way to directly resolve work stressors. Although these divergent characterizations of CWB suggest different mediating mechanisms, no research has attempted to examine both emotion-focused and problem-focused CWB processes simultaneously. Thus, the relative contributions of the two coping processes to the stressor-CWB link are unclear, either for CWBs in general or for time banditry in particular. Moreover, no research has considered that these processes may differ across stressors. In other words, some stressors may have a stronger emotion-focused pathway, whereas other stressors may have a stronger problem-focused pathway to time banditry.

This study addresses these research gaps by testing a stress and coping-based conceptual model of time banditry (Figure 1). First, I first integrate the time banditry construct with the larger CWB literature by examining the relationships between work stressors and time banditry. Second, I distinguish two independent mediating pathways that are rooted in existing CWB models: an emotion-focused pathway derived from affective frameworks (e.g., Fox et al., 2001) and a problem-focused pathway derived from cognitive frameworks (e.g., Martinko et al., 2002). Each pathway involves a distinct *coping instrumentality* mediator, which encompasses individuals' explicit perceptions that engaging

in time banditry could help them manage the negative emotions associated with stressors (emotion-focused coping instrumentality) or help them directly address stressors (problem-focused coping instrumentality). Third, I differentiate categories of stressors according to their relative levels of emotion-focused and problem-focused links to time banditry.

Together, these goals refine the theoretical understanding of how work stressors contribute to the misuse of work time, and provide practical recommendations for enhancing work effort in the face of particular stressors.

Time Banditry

Time banditry is “the propensity of employees to engage in unsanctioned non-work related activities during work time” (Martin et al., 2010, p. 27). As a type of counterproductive work behavior, time banditry encompasses a variety of employee behaviors that conflict with organizational interests – for instance, taking extra breaks, using the phone or Internet for personal activities, arriving to work late, leaving work early, and putting minimal effort into work tasks. Because time banditry is a relatively new construct, it is important to place it in the context of other CWB frameworks. Time banditry is most similar to the construct of production deviance, which Robinson and Bennett’s (1995) two-dimensional typology categorizes as relatively minor behavior that harms the organization. However, Brock and colleagues (2013) distinguish time banditry from production deviance by its span and intentionality. Production deviance includes behaviors (e.g., wasting resources) that involve the misuse of resources other than time, and thus do not constitute time banditry. Additionally, researchers conceptualize production deviance as an aggressive

act that intends to harm the organization (Spector et al., 2006). Although time banditry behaviors have the *potential* to harm the organization, employees do not necessarily perform them with the *intent* to harm the organization (Brock et al., 2013).

Time banditry also holds similarities to the CWB of withdrawal, which involves behaviors that reduce the amount of time spent working (Spector et al., 2006). However, time banditry includes a broader range of behaviors than does withdrawal, as it encompasses reduced effort on work tasks in addition to avoidance of work tasks. The two constructs also differ according to purpose and intentionality. Specifically, researchers conceptualize withdrawal as an effort to avoid a stressful situation rather than a purposeful attempt to cause harm to the organization (Spector et al., 2006). In contrast, time banditry is not necessarily an escape mechanism, and *may* involve (but does not *necessarily* involve) intent to harm.

Despite their proposed differences to time banditry, many of the behaviors that constitute production deviance and withdrawal also fall under the category of time banditry. Most of the CWB research directly relevant to time banditry has examined these specific facets; for instance, researchers have examined withholding effort (Kidwell & Robie, 2003), cyberloafing (Blanchard & Henle, 2008), and absenteeism (Johns, 1997). Because less research has focused on time banditry as a whole, there is a need for research that examines this construct in its entirety.

The research that does discuss time banditry as a whole has proposed a wide variety of antecedents. Some of these antecedents set time banditry apart from other CWBs; for instance, conceptualizing laziness (Martin et al., 2010) and boredom (Skowronski, 2012) as

primary drivers of time banditry runs counter to models that propose more specific individual (e.g., Penney & Spector, 2002; Salgado, 2002) or situational (e.g., Fox et al., 2001; Martinko et al., 2002) antecedents to CWB. Other proposed antecedents to time banditry (e.g., perceptions of workplace injustice; Martin et al., 2010) are more consistent with the general CWB literature, but remain untested. To place time banditry in its proper research context, it is necessary to determine whether widely used and well-supported theoretical frameworks for CWBs apply to the misuse of work time. This study provides such an integration by empirically testing an explanation for time banditry that is consistent with the larger body of CWB research. Specifically, this study examines stressors as potential drivers of time banditry.

Work Stressors as Antecedents of Time Banditry

Multiple CWB models have identified work stressors as primary antecedents of undesirable work behaviors. For instance, the stressor-emotion model (Fox & Spector, 2006; Fox et al., 2001; Spector, 1998; Spector & Fox, 2002) proposes that features of the work environment that represent threats to employee well-being produce behavioral strain in the form of counterproductive work behavior. Similarly, Martinko and colleagues' (2002) causal reasoning framework classifies a variety of work stressors (e.g., poor leadership, undesirable work conditions, and justice violations) as situational variables that stimulate CWBs. Empirical evidence provides strong support for these models, with studies linking a variety of CWBs to stressors such as injustice (Ilie, Penney, Ispas, & Iliescu, 2012), work-family conflict (Ferguson, Carlson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2012), role ambiguity (Chen & Spector,

1992), interpersonal conflict (Penney & Spector, 2005), and situational constraints (Hershcovis et al., 2007).

To my knowledge, no research has examined the relationship between work stressors and time banditry as a whole. However, studies linking stressors to facets of time banditry provide preliminary evidence that time banditry is no different from other CWBs in its relationship with work stressors. For instance, one study found that work-family conflict predicted lateness and absenteeism (Hammer, Bauer, & Grandey, 2003), while another determined that role ambiguity and role conflict predicted cyberloafing (Henle & Blanchard, 2008). To fully apply existing CWB frameworks to the misuse of work time, it is important to examine the relationships between various stressors and time banditry. Therefore, my first goal is to relate time banditry to three categories of work stressors: task-based stressors, work-life conflict stressors, and injustice stressors. These three broad categories do not constitute an exhaustive list of stressor types; rather, they represent some of the most commonly-studied work stressors that have clear theoretical implications for time banditry. Thus, I predict:

Hypothesis 1: a) Task-based stressors, b) work-life conflict stressors, and c) injustice stressors will positively predict time banditry.

Time Banditry as a Coping Response

Given the evidence that stressors predict CWBs, researchers have attempted to identify the mechanisms that drive this relationship. In doing so, many models have either implicitly or explicitly characterized CWB as a coping response. According to the stress

literature, *coping* is any effort of an individual to manage a stressful situation (Lazarus, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Thus, one can view counterproductive work behavior as an attempt – however harmful or ineffective – to manage work stressors that individuals perceive as potentially threatening to their well-being. One common coping framework distinguishes between emotion-focused and problem-focused coping functions (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Emotion-focused coping is an individual's attempt to reduce the negative emotions that he or she experiences as the result of a stressor. This may involve active efforts such as seeking social support, or avoidance tactics such as disengaging from the stressful environment. In contrast, problem-focused coping is an individual's attempt to directly resolve the stressor by acting on the environment. This may involve forming a plan, setting aside other obligations to focus on the problem, or taking action to get rid of the problem (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). Thus, these two coping functions differ mainly on the primary target of the coping behavior – the stressor itself (problem-focused) or emotional distress (emotion-focused).

Although other coping taxonomies exist, emotion-focused and problem-focused coping are most relevant to the current study because they map clearly on to models of counterproductive work behavior. CWB models tend to fall into one of two categories: affective models, which identify emotions as the primary stressor response that drives CWBs; and cognitive models, which focus on the conscious reasoning processes that lead to CWBs. Affective models tend to cast CWB as an emotion-focused coping response, or a way to reduce the negative emotions associated with work stressors. In contrast, cognitive models

highlight CWB's problem-focused coping function, or its ability to resolve work stressors. Despite clear differences between these two characterizations of CWB, no research has examined both coping functions simultaneously to evaluate their independent contributions to the CWB process. Therefore, my second goal is to disentangle emotion-focused and problem-focused mechanisms by examining them as alternative explanations for why work stressors stimulate time banditry.

Affective Models: Time Banditry as Emotion-Focused Coping

The stressor-emotion model (Fox & Spector, 2006; Fox et al., 2001; Spector, 1998; Spector & Fox, 2002) provides an affect-based explanation for employee engagement in CWBs. Grounded in the stress literature (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), this model states that work stressors cause employees to experience negative emotions such as anger and anxiety at work (Spector & Fox, 2002). These negative emotions produce a strain response that manifests behaviorally as counterproductive work behavior. Research has supported the stressor-emotion model by providing evidence that negative affect (i.e., the experience of negative emotions) mediates the relationship between work stressors and a variety of CWBs (Fida et al., 2015; Fox and Spector, 1999; Fox et al., 2001; Le Roy, Bastounis, & Poussard, 2012; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009).

By identifying negative emotions as the primary link between stressors and CWB, the stressor-emotion model highlights the emotion-focused coping function of CWB. According to this model, CWBs stem directly from negative emotional reactions to stressors; thus, much of the literature characterizes CWBs as attempts to manage these negative emotions. For

instance, in explaining why negative emotions should lead to CWB, Spector and Fox (2002) stated that negative emotions motivate behavior to improve one's emotional state, and trigger avoidance tendencies to leave an unpleasant situation. Similarly, other researchers have characterized CWB as "a strategy to reduce the emotionally unpleasant condition derived from organizational frustrations" (Fida, Paciello, Tramontano, Barbaranelli, & Farnese, 2015, p. 480).

Some researchers have framed this type of emotion-focused CWB as harmful and ineffective. For instance, researchers drawing from the stress literature have described CWB as a failure to effectively deal with work stressors (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010). This reflects not only the potential for organizational harm inherent in CWBs, but also the fact that emotion-focused coping techniques are generally less effective at enhancing individual well-being than are problem-focused coping techniques (Penley et al., 2002). However, other researchers have discussed the misuse of work time as a potentially useful way of dealing with negative emotions at work. For instance, Krischer, Penney, and Hunter (2010) framed employee withdrawal as a way to reduce the negative psychological effects of organizational injustice by offering individuals a temporary escape from the stressful situation. Similarly, Henle and Blanchard (2008) conceptualized cyberloafing as an emotion-focused and avoidance coping mechanism that may help employees effectively manage the stress associated with role conflict and role ambiguity. In sum, withdrawing from work either physically (e.g., by leaving early) or psychologically (e.g., by making a personal phone call at work) allows employees to temporarily avoid dealing with stressful work situations, and to

distract themselves from negative emotions such as anxiety. Whether viewed as harmful or beneficial, affective frameworks tend to characterize this behavior not as an attempt to resolve stressors, but as an attempt to reduce the resulting negative emotions.

The stressor-emotion model helps to *illustrate* the idea that individuals sometimes engage in counterproductive work behaviors to reduce anger, anxiety, or other negative emotions. However, it was not intended to directly *investigate* this emotion-focused coping function of CWB. The fact that negative emotions precede CWBs does not necessarily mean that individuals are performing those CWBs solely to manage their negative emotions. Thus, although strong empirical support exists for the stressor-emotion model, this evidence alone is not enough to confirm the emotion-focused coping function of CWB. The work of Shoss, Jundt, Kobler, and Reynolds (2015) provides a way to test more directly whether employees engage in time banditry as a way to reduce the negative emotions associated with work stressors. These authors proposed that individuals form beliefs about whether engaging in CWBs will help them achieve the desired goal of coping with a stressor. They termed these beliefs *coping instrumentalities* for CWB. Individuals who have higher coping instrumentalities for CWB, who believe that CWBs are more effective for coping with a particular stressor, should be more likely to actually engage in CWBs. Although Shoss and colleagues (2015) discussed CWB as a means for coping in general, they actually measured the perceived likelihood that engaging in CWBs would help participants *feel* better about a specific stressor. To keep with my distinction between emotion-focused and problem-focused coping, I refer to this construct as *emotion-focused coping instrumentality* for CWB, or the

extent to which individuals believe that engaging in CWB will help them reduce the negative emotions associated with a stressor.

Shoss and colleagues (2015) found that individuals viewed a variety of CWBs, including production deviance, as a useful strategy for managing the negative emotions resulting from work stressors. They also found that emotion-focused coping instrumentality for CWBs varied between individuals based on characteristics such as locus of control, as well as within individuals based on features such as the perceived controllability of the stressor. These findings support the idea that work stressors stimulate conscious perceptions within employees that CWBs could ease negative emotions. However, because this study used hypothetical stressor scenarios, it did not relate the coping instrumentality of real work stressors to actual time banditry behavior. Thus, there is a need to extend this research to real work environments by examining whether emotion-focused coping instrumentality accounts for the positive relationship between stressors and CWBs.

The proposition that coping instrumentalities determine actual coping behavior stems directly from the stress literature, which states that individuals choose coping strategies based on what they believe will be most effective (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Specifically, coping instrumentality is similar to *secondary appraisal*, which is the cognitive evaluation of potential options for coping with a stressor, including the likelihood that a particular coping strategy will be effective (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). Secondary appraisal precedes coping behavior in the transactional stress model, suggesting that individuals are more likely to engage in a particular coping behavior when they feel that it is a viable and effective

response to a stressor. Coping instrumentality is also consistent with expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), which states that individuals choose their behavior based in part on the perceived likelihood that performing a behavior will lead to desired outcomes. Coupled with the evidence that individuals use CWB as an emotion-focused coping mechanism, these theories support the idea that conscious perceptions of emotional benefit stimulate actual performance of CWBs.

Despite its focus on affect rather than cognition, the stressor-emotion model of CWB is also compatible with the idea that individuals form conscious perceptions of coping instrumentality. Spector and Fox (2002) stated that negative emotions rarely produce the kind of unconscious, impulsive reactions that would render cognitions meaningless for predicting behavior. Instead, experiencing negative emotions in response to a stressful situation helps individuals form conscious intentions to respond in certain ways. For instance, an employee may feel anxious after receiving an unmanageable amount of work. Over time, she may adopt time banditry as an emotion-focused coping mechanism as she discovers that taking unauthorized breaks temporarily distracts her from anxiety about her workload. By investigating common work stressors that should repeatedly produce negative emotions over time, this study can capture the explicit emotion-focused coping benefits that employees have come to associate with time banditry behaviors. Therefore, combining the stressor-emotion model of CWB with the work of Shoss and colleagues (2015), I argue that the misuse of work time partially represents an emotion-focused coping response to stressful work conditions. I expect work stressors to stimulate the perception that time banditry could reduce

the negative emotions associated with work stressors; in turn, these emotion-focused coping instrumentality perceptions should stimulate actual time banditry behavior. Thus, I predict:

Hypothesis 2: Emotion-focused coping instrumentality will mediate the relationship between a) task-based stressors, b) work-life conflict stressors, and c) injustice stressors and time banditry.

Cognitive Models: Time Banditry as Problem-Focused Coping

While the stressor-emotion model takes a primarily affective approach to CWB, other models place cognitive evaluations as the primary determinants of CWBs. One integrative, cognition-based model of CWB is Martinko and colleagues' (2002) causal reasoning framework. According to this model, individuals actively process information in their environments to evaluate the quality of their outcomes. When individuals perceive that their outcomes are unfair or unacceptable (for instance, when stressors are present in their environments), they engage in an attribution process in an attempt to determine the causes of these unacceptable outcomes. The causal attributions that individuals form for undesirable outcomes determine whether a person chooses to engage in CWB as a response, and which type of CWB they choose.

By framing counterproductive work behavior as the outcome of a rational decision-making process, the causal reasoning framework illustrates the problem-focused coping function of CWB. First, individuals form perceptions of disequilibria based on evaluation of the work environment. Martinko and colleagues (2002) conceptualize these disequilibria as perceptions of injustice, inequity, or victimization. The key point here is that it is not stressful

work conditions themselves, but perceptions that these conditions are *unjust*, that trigger the CWB process. This implies that the primary stressor in the causal reasoning framework is perceived injustice. Although injustice may stem from poor working conditions, abusive leadership, or other more distal stressors, it is the perception of injustice itself that stimulates individuals to respond with CWB.

Next, individuals form attributions for the cause of the perceived disequilibrium. For instance, they evaluate whether the source is internal or external to themselves. When individuals perceive that an injustice occurred due to external causes (e.g., an employee's supervisor unfairly denied the employee a raise), they engage in outwardly-focused CWBs (destructive behavior directed at others) rather than inwardly-focused CWBs (self-destructive behavior such as drug and alcohol abuse). In other words, the causal reasoning framework states that individuals choose to direct destructive behaviors at the perceived source of injustice. As such, the causal reasoning model characterizes outwardly-focused CWB as a form of retaliation that mitigates perceptions of injustice (Martinko et al., 2002). Engaging in behavior that targets the source of the stress and resolves the focal stressor is a key feature of problem-focused coping (Carver et al., 1989). Therefore, I argue that the causal reasoning framework is a primarily problem-focused process because the primary stressor is injustice, and the main function of the CWB is to directly resolve that injustice – not to temporarily distract employees from its presence.

Other justice models similarly view retaliation as an attempt to directly reduce perceptions of injustice – for instance, by righting a wrong or getting even with the perceived

source of the injustice (Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005; Bies & Tripp, 1996; Kelloway, Francis, Prosser, & Cameron, 2010; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Skarlicki and Folger (1997) stated that retaliation may involve not only violent behaviors, but also more subtle actions such as psychological withdrawal and effort reduction. In line with this view, Jones (2009) demonstrated that employees tend to direct CWBs toward the source of perceived injustice, and that the desire for “getting even” or “settling the score” partially mediates the relationship between injustice and CWBs – including CWBs that involve withholding effort. Theories of distributive justice extend this principle beyond revenge behavior by stating that individuals may intentionally reduce their work effort to attain a more equitable ratio of inputs to outcomes (Adams, 1965). Like the causal reasoning model, these models all rely on cognitive evaluations of the stressor source, as individuals direct counterproductive behaviors toward this source to restore perceptions of justice. In doing so, these models suggest that individuals perceive counterproductive work behavior not merely as a way to feel better about injustice, but as a way to actually eliminate or resolve it. Indeed, Worthington and Scherer (2004) explicitly conceptualized justice restoration strategies as a form of problem-focused coping.

Within the CWB literature, the characterization of time banditry as a problem-focused response to injustice is less explicit. For instance, Lorinkova and Perry (2014) proposed that individuals use time theft to rebalance their exchange relationship with the organization when confronted with stressful situations. However, they did not label this coping technique as problem-focused. Similarly, Krischer and colleagues (2010) characterized production

deviance as an attempt to restore justice by intentionally lowering work input; however, they characterized this as a form of emotion-focused coping. Again, I argue that this situation is more consistent with problem-focused coping; if individuals intentionally alter their exchange relationship with the organization by engaging in time banditry, they are taking direct action to manage the source of injustice. Reluctance to acknowledge CWB as a direct resolution to injustice stressors reflects the fact that the stress literature generally casts problem-focused coping as constructive; this seems incompatible with the destructive nature of CWBs. Admittedly, any stressor resolution that CWB brings about is likely to be temporary, and to come at the cost of individual and organizational productivity. However, insofar as CWB is a conscious behavioral attempt to address the problem, it represents a form of problem-focused coping.

Although justice violations are central to many cognitive models of CWB, injustice is not the only stressor for which CWB might serve a problem-focused coping function. Research on work-life conflict has drawn from conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which views the stress process from the perspective of resource loss, mobilization, and allocation. According to this theory, individuals have a limited amount of personal resources (time, energy, etc.) that they can expend to meet demands. Because individuals view resource loss as threatening to their well-being, they strive to invest their resources efficiently to manage demands while also conserving resources for the future. Grawitch, Barber, and Justice (2010) applied COR theory to work-life conflict by suggesting that individuals allocate personal resources across life domains to manage tension between

work and non-work activities. The authors stated that when individuals invest resources to respond directly to demands, they are engaging in problem-focused coping. Other work drawing from COR theory (Penney, Hunter, and Perry, 2011) described CWB as a resource investment strategy that individuals use when they lack more constructive ways to deal with stressful situations. Although these authors emphasized the conservation of emotional resources through CWB, time banditry may also conserve other resources (e.g., time and energy) that directly resolve work-life conflict. Specifically, if employees intentionally misuse work time to accomplish personal goals that are part of their work-life tension, then time banditry becomes a form of problem-focused coping. In line with this view, Koslowsky (2000) suggested that employees who are forced to choose between fulfilling their personal obligations or their work responsibilities may intentionally miss work to attend to their personal lives. Spector and colleagues (2006) characterized this as an instrumental coping behavior that helps to manage conflicting demands. For instance, an employee might leave work early without permission to pick his child up from daycare. Similarly, employees may consciously limit their work effort to conserve their energy for after-work personal activities. In cases such as these, misusing work time resolves the tension between work and non-work domains by “stealing” work time for the benefit of one’s personal life. This is in contrast to a purely emotion-focused approach, where individuals may distract themselves from the stress of work-life conflict by avoiding work without also trying to maximize the accomplishment of personal goals (Grawitch et al., 2010).

Finally, individuals may even use CWBs to reduce task-based stressors such as workload. For instance, the social loafing literature suggests that individuals may intentionally limit their productivity to avoid receiving more work (Comer, 1995). Alternatively, individuals may engage in counterproductive work behavior to draw attention to a stressor, thereby gaining instrumental support from coworkers to relieve the problem (Reynolds, Shoss, & Jundt, 2015). Misusing work time to navigate work-life conflict, alter work tasks, and restore perceptions of justice may appear to be very different. However, I argue that these potential purposes for time banditry all share one important characteristic: because they involve intentionally regulating one's own behavior to reduce or resolve a work stressor, they represent problem-focused coping approaches.

Given that CWB may help individuals directly resolve work stressors, it is important to identify the mechanisms that account for this problem-focused link between stressors and CWBs such as time banditry. As with the emotion-focused coping pathway to CWB, I propose that conscious perceptions of the potential benefits of CWB serve a mediating role. To parallel Shoss and colleagues' (2015) concept of emotion-focused coping instrumentality, I propose that individuals also form perceptions of *problem-focused coping instrumentality* for CWB. This construct reflects the extent to which individuals believe that engaging in CWBs will help directly resolve or control a stressor. This is consistent with justice models, which state that the desire for justice restoration drives counterproductive work behavior in response to perceived injustice (Jones, 2009). Problem-focused coping instrumentality is also consistent with models of work-life conflict. For instance, Grawitch and colleagues (2010)

proposed that individuals evaluate the possible outcomes of investing resources to meet demands; this evaluation then influences actual resource allocation behavior. This suggests that individuals evaluate the likelihood that engaging in time banditry (i.e., allocating time and energy away from one's work domain and toward one's personal domain) could successfully reduce tension between work and life demands.

Despite previous speculations about the problem-solving role of CWB, to my knowledge no research has directly measured problem-focused coping instrumentality for either CWBs in general or time banditry in particular. To fill this gap, this study integrates cognition-based models of CWB with the stress literature by examining the problem-focused coping function of time banditry. Specifically, I propose that time banditry in part represents a problem-focused coping response that attempts to directly address work stressors at their perceived source. The presence of work stressors should trigger the formation of perceptions that time banditry could help resolve these stressors; in turn, these problem-focused coping instrumentality perceptions should stimulate actual time banditry. Thus, I predict:

Hypothesis 3: Problem-focused coping instrumentality will mediate the relationship between a) task-based stressors, b) work-life conflict stressors, and c) injustice stressors and time banditry.

Emotion-Focused and Problem-Focused Processes as Independent Pathways

Thus far I have explained that affective models illustrate the emotion-focused coping function of CWB, whereas cognitive models illustrate the problem-focused coping function of CWB. However, it is important to clarify that no CWB model presents itself as purely

affective or cognitive. Consistent with the general stress literature (e.g., Lazarus, 1982), the stressor-emotion model of CWB acknowledges that cognitive evaluation of the environment plays a role in forming affective responses to stressors. Similarly, researchers recognize that emotions such as anger may help motivate problem-focused efforts to respond to organizational stressors (Martinko et al., 2002; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Spector & Fox, 2002). Thus, I am not proposing that the emotion-focused and problem-focused coping pathways to CWB are fully affective and cognitive, respectively. Indeed, because I place conscious instrumentality perceptions as the most proximal antecedents of CWB, both the emotion-focused and problem-focused pathways in this study are cognitive in nature.

However, both affective mechanisms (e.g., anxiety related to work stressors) and cognitive mechanisms (e.g., attributions and perceptions of threat) likely interact to produce both types of coping instrumentality. Because the primary goal in this study is to disentangle the two coping functions for time banditry, I do not explicitly measure these potentially overlapping antecedents. Instead, I focus on the proposition that emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality are two distinct cognitions that link the same stressors to the same types of counterproductive work behaviors.

In separately examining emotion-focused and problem-focused processes, I characterize them as independent pathways to CWB. In other words, the emotion-focused pathway in the current study represents instances in which individuals misuse work time to cope with emotional distress, *regardless* of whether they consciously perceive their behavior as beneficial for resolving the stressor. Similarly, the problem-focused pathway represents

instances in which individuals misuse work time to resolve the stressor, *regardless* of whether they believe it will ease their negative emotions. Disentangling the pathways allows me to examine the possibility that different stressors trigger different coping functions. However, it is important to note that although the two pathways to CWBs are independent, they are not necessarily mutually exclusive. In other words, it is possible for *both* emotion-focused and problem-focused instrumentality perceptions to drive the relationship between stressors and time banditry. This is consistent with the stress literature, which states that any single action may simultaneously serve both a problem-focused and emotion-focused coping function (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). However, because no research has examined both functions at the same time, it is unclear whether these two mechanisms do indeed operate simultaneously. By explicitly measuring both emotion-focused and problem-focused processes, the current study helps to clarify and integrate multiple CWB frameworks.

Differentiating Coping Responses by Stressor Type

I have demonstrated that time banditry can represent both an emotion-focused and problem-focused coping mechanism for task-based stressors, work-life conflict, and injustice. However, the relative strengths of these two coping mechanisms may vary across the three stressor types. This possibility is likely, as the distinct literatures and theoretical bases for these types of stressors suggest that they have important qualitative differences. I argue that these qualitative differences influence the relative extent to which employees perceive and use time banditry to directly resolve these stressors or to reduce their negative emotions. Therefore, comparing emotion-focused and problem-focused processes within the three

stressor categories may yield a useful theoretical refinement of the well-supported stressor-CWB relationship. This possibility is also practically relevant, because organizations may require different interventions to disrupt emotion-focused and problem-focused pathways to CWB. For instance, an employee who wishes to merely feel better about a work stressor may refrain from engaging in time banditry when alternative emotion-focused coping resources such as social supports are available. However, an employee who fully desires to resolve the stressor may continue to engage in time banditry unless there are other ways to directly address the problem (for instance, speaking with one's supervisor to negotiate more favorable work conditions). Additionally, CWBs may have different implications for individual health and well-being depending on which coping function they serve. Therefore, determining the dominant pathway for each stressor type could help organizations better understand and manage CWBs in the face of particular work stressors. Thus, my third goal is to compare the relative strength of emotion-focused and problem-focused pathways to time banditry for task-based stressors, work-life conflict, and injustice.

Individuals tend to use problem-focused coping techniques for stressors they perceive as controllable (Carver et al., 1989; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Therefore, primarily problem-focused mechanisms should drive time banditry for work stressors that individuals believe they can control by misusing work time. In contrast, individuals tend to use emotion-focused coping techniques for stressors they perceive as uncontrollable and requiring acceptance (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). In this case time banditry would likely constitute avoidance, as it helps to ease employees' negative emotions by allowing them to physically

or psychologically disengage from the source of the stressor. Therefore, emotion-focused mechanisms for time banditry should predominate for work stressors that individuals cannot easily control by misusing work time. Using this reasoning, one can predict the relative contributions of the two coping instrumentalities by determining whether individuals are more likely to perceive time banditry as a way to directly control a stressor or a way to avoid it.

Task-based stressors. Task-based stressors are stressors that involve the nature of the work itself; for instance, workload (Spector & Jex, 1998), role conflict, and role ambiguity (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970) all refer to either the quantity or quality of employees' formal work tasks. These stressors have a strong grounding in models of stress and job strain (e.g., Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). Thus, there is strong evidence that stressful task characteristics evoke the need to manage negative emotions such as anxiety and frustration (Spector & Jex, 1998). Additionally, because time banditry involves withdrawal from work tasks, it is by its very nature a temporary distraction from task-based stressors and the negative emotions they create. Therefore, greater presence of task-based stressors should produce stronger perceptions that misusing work time could help ease the associated negative emotions. In turn, this emotion-focused coping instrumentality should be associated with higher time banditry behavior, regardless of whether individuals perceive that time banditry could actually resolve the stressor. In contrast, employees are less likely to view time banditry as a way to resolve task-based stressors. Leaving work early does not generally reduce the amount of work one has to complete; on the contrary, it may

exacerbate the problem as neglected work piles up over time. Similarly, taking extra breaks does not typically help clarify role responsibilities – it merely allows employees to avoid the issue until a later time. Although employees may perceive to some degree that misusing work time could resolve task-based stressors (for instance, by helping individuals avoid additional responsibilities or gain instrumental support from coworkers), time banditry is unlikely to serve a *primarily* problem-focused coping function for task-based stressors. Therefore, I predict:

Hypothesis 4: For task-based stressors, the indirect effect on time banditry through emotion-focused coping instrumentality will be stronger than the indirect effect on time banditry through problem-focused coping instrumentality.

Work-life conflict. Work-life conflict stressors involve incompatible role requirements between work and non-work domains (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Siegel, Post, Brockner, Fishman, & Garden, 2005). This may occur when the time demands, behavioral demands, or strain associated with one domain interfere with an individual's ability to fulfill the demands associated with the other domain (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Like task-based stressors, work-life conflict creates negative emotions that individuals can temporarily escape through withdrawal behaviors (Penney et al., 2011; Rantanen, Mauno, Kinnunen, & Rantanen, 2011). However, this function seems secondary to the problem-focused function that time banditry serves for work-life conflict. Because work-life conflict involves tension between work and personal demands, resolving it requires mobilizing and allocating scarce resources such as time and

effort (Grawitch et al., 2010). Because time banditry involves reallocating these scarce resources away from work and toward one's personal domain, it represents a way to directly control the interference of work with one's personal life. Thus, employees should be more likely to evaluate time banditry as a potential solution to this stressor than as a way to feel better about it. Even if employees form perceptions that time banditry could help them cope emotionally with work-life conflict, the perceived problem-solving capabilities of time banditry should still more strongly drive their actual behavior. When coping with stressors, individuals are motivated to expend resources in ways that best prevent further resource loss (Hobfoll, 1989). Thus, they should be most likely to choose time banditry based on its ability to help them fulfill their personal obligations – an accomplishment that helps them retain important personal resources such as social relationships – rather than merely its ability to temporarily ease their negative emotions. For instance, an employee who needs to pick his child up from daycare during work hours is more likely to leave work early based on the perception that it will allow him to fulfill his personal responsibilities (thereby temporarily resolving a conflict between work and personal life), rather than the perception that it will allow him to relax. Therefore, I predict:

Hypothesis 5: For work-life conflict stressors, the indirect effect on time banditry through problem-focused coping instrumentality will be stronger than the indirect effect on time banditry through emotion-focused coping instrumentality.

Injustice. Injustice stressors involve perceived unfairness of situations and outcomes that individuals experience at work (Greenberg, 2011). This encompasses violations of

distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993), perceptions of inequity (Adams, 1965), and psychological contract violations (Rousseau, 2011). As I mentioned previously, these models take a clearly problem-focused approach to coping with injustice-based work stressors. For instance, equity theory (Adams, 1965) and justice theories (e.g., Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) suggest that individuals engage in a rational evaluation of work processes and outcomes. Violation of what the individual perceives as fair results in retaliation or intentional reduction of input (i.e., more time banditry) to restore balance. This is a problem-focused approach because individuals control the stressor itself – perceptions of injustice – by directing their behavior at the source of the injustice. On the other hand, theories of justice also emphasize that emotional tension motivates individuals to react to injustice (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Because restoring justice perceptions results in the reduction of this emotional tension, emotion-focused and problem-focused coping techniques are intertwined in justice models. However, I argue that time banditry represents a primarily problem-focused approach to injustice stressors. Emotion-focused coping helps to reduce negative emotions regardless of whether it actually helps to control the stressor. However, justice models frame reduction of emotional tension as contingent on the elimination of perceived injustice – for instance, by “getting even” with the source of the stressor or balancing the ratio of inputs to outcomes. Individuals might respond to injustice with purely emotion-focused time banditry by physically or psychologically disengaging from work. In this case, they would not perceive their behavior as a way to get back at the organization or restore justice; rather, they would perceive it as a temporary escape from an uncomfortable

work situation. However, justice models suggest that the more likely scenario is that individuals will consciously perceive the misuse of work time as a way to restore justice and control the situation. Indeed, Paterson and Hartel (2002) suggested that due to its cognitive nature, the perception of justice should be more strongly linked to the selection of problem-focused rather than emotion-focused coping techniques. Based on the strong grounding of injustice stressors in problem-focused theoretical frameworks, I predict:

Hypothesis 6: For injustice stressors, the indirect effect on time banditry through problem-focused coping instrumentality will be stronger than the indirect effect on time banditry through emotion-focused coping instrumentality.

Study 1: Scale Development

Although many scales capture specific coping behaviors, to my knowledge, no multi-item measures of the *instrumentality* of coping behaviors currently exist in the psychological literature. Therefore, testing my hypotheses requires first developing appropriate measures of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality for time banditry. The purpose of Study 1 is to develop these measures and provide preliminary evidence of their reliability and validity.

Method

Following Hinkin's (1998) recommendations for developing and validating survey measures, the scale development effort will consist of five major steps: 1) item development; 2) data collection; 3) exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis; 4) confirmatory factor analysis; and 5) examination of validity evidence.

Item development. To develop items consistent with theories of stress and coping, I will first define the content domains of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality. This will involve examining two streams of literature. The first is the general stress literature (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Within this literature, I will review current emotion-focused and problem-focused coping scales, as well as theoretical descriptions of the two coping functions. The second stream of literature includes research that specifically conceptualizes CWB as a form of coping (e.g., Krischer et al., 2010; Shoss et al., 2015). Within this literature, I will review theoretical descriptions of counterproductive work behaviors as emotion-focused and problem-focused coping techniques. The literature review will culminate in a comprehensive list of the goals involved in coping with stressors in an emotion-focused and problem-focused manner. For instance, the goals of emotion-focused coping may involve reducing specific emotions such as anxiety, anger, and frustration, as well as generally avoiding unpleasant feelings stemming from a stressor. In contrast, the goals of problem-focused coping may involve directly controlling a stressor, ensuring a stressor does not occur again the future, and finding a solution to the stressor. Coping instrumentalities for time banditry will involve the perceptions that misusing work time could help individuals achieve these goals in relation to a particular stressor.

Once I have defined the content domains for emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality, I will generate an initial pool of items that capture all elements of these content domains. I will follow best practices for item writing, including simplicity, specificity, and clarity (Dillman, 2000). Hinkin (1998) recommends developing at least twice

the number of items desired for the final scale. Because I want each final scale to consist of four to six items, I will generate at least 12 items for each type of coping instrumentality.

Next, I will ensure that the items adequately cover their respective content domains by conducting a content validity assessment. I will recruit at least five subject matter experts (e.g., advanced graduate students in industrial-organizational psychology) to review the pool of coping instrumentality items. After reading definitions of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality, the subject matter experts (SMEs) will identify whether each item reflects emotion-focused coping instrumentality, problem-focused coping instrumentality, or neither/both. I will retain each item if at least 80% of SMEs correctly match it to its intended construct. This content validity assessment method is consistent with commonly accepted scale development guidelines (Hinkin, 1998), as well as with previous scale development efforts within the stress literature (e.g., Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000). Subject matter experts will also have the opportunity to provide feedback on item structure and wording.

Data collection: Participants and procedure. I will collect responses through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk), an online marketplace that connects businesses and individuals with workers who are willing to complete small tasks. MTurk is source of quality data for survey research in the field of organizational psychology (Behrend, Sharek, Meade, & Wiebe, 2011). To qualify for the study, individuals must be at least 18 years of age, from the United States, and report working full time (at least 35 hours per week) at a single job in a location other than their home. Individuals who meet these requirements will complete an

online survey in return for a small monetary incentive. The sample will include at least 400 full-time employees. I will divide this sample in half to create two independent samples of at least 200 participants each for the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). This fulfills minimum recommendations for overall sample size in factor analysis (Hinkin, 1998). Additionally, assuming that about 25 items reach the data collection stage, a sample size of 200 represents a ratio of eight participants per item. This exceeds common recommendations for a participants-to-items ratio of 4:1 in factor analysis (Hinkin, 1998).

As the first part of the survey, I will ask participants to think about a stressful situation that they have recently experienced at work that might cause them to want to misuse their work time. They will then briefly write about this stressful situation, both to strengthen their recollection of the stressor and to allow me to verify that they chose appropriate stressor scenarios. The use of participant-selected stressor scenarios is consistent with previous scale development efforts within the stress literature (Carver et al., 1989; Searle & Auton, 2015). Referencing specific situations rather than stressful situations in general allows for the measurement of situational coping strategies rather than dispositional coping styles (Carver et al., 1989). This aligns with my characterization of time banditry as a response to specific stressful situations, which may differ in purpose depending on the nature of the stressor. Additionally, allowing participants to select their own stressful situations that might tempt them to misuse work time ensures that the stressors are relevant to potential time banditry behavior within real work contexts. Finally, this method ensures that participant responses

represent a range of different stressor types. This should create variance in coping instrumentality ratings, as well as increase the chance that the final scale items will generalize well to a range of work stressors.

Data collection: Measures. Appendix A contains the items that I will administer for Study 1. In addition to basic demographic information (age, race, gender, education, industry, and job tenure), all participants will complete the newly developed emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality items. These items will capture the extent to which participants perceive that time banditry could help them reduce the negative emotions associated with the stressor (emotion-focused coping instrumentality) or directly address the stressor (problem-focused coping instrumentality). Response options will be presented on a seven-point Likert-type scale (*1* = Not at all, *7* = A great deal).

After completing the coping instrumentality items, participants will complete measures of state negative affect and social desirability. Responses to these measures for the second half of the sample will provide preliminary evidence for the convergent and discriminant validity of the coping instrumentality scales. Participants will report the negative emotions they feel as a result of the stressor using 14 items adapted from the job-related affective well-being scale (JAWS; Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000). Specifically, participants will rate whether their chosen stressor causes them to experience 14 negative emotions (e.g., anger, anxiety, and frustration). Response options will range from *1* (Strongly disagree) to *5* (Strongly agree). Participants will also complete a ten-item version of the Marlowe-Crowne social desirability scale (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972). This scale asks

participants to respond to true-false statements reflecting socially desirable behavior (e.g., “I’m always willing to admit it when I make a mistake”). Endorsing a greater number of statements indicates a higher desire to present oneself in a socially desirable manner.

Finally, participants will report the frequency with which they use time banditry to deal with their chosen stressor. Specifically, they will complete the 31-item Time Banditry Questionnaire (Brock et al., 2013), which assesses time-wasting behavior at work.

Participants will rate how frequently they engage in each behavior in response to their chosen stressor ($1 = \text{Never}$, $5 = \text{Very often}$). This measure will allow me to examine the criterion-related validity of the coping instrumentality scales.

Proposed Analyses

Exploratory factor analysis and reliability. Using the first sample, I will conduct exploratory factor analysis using the `psych` package in R. Strong theoretical and empirical evidence supports the two-factor structure of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping; therefore, it is appropriate to begin by imposing a two-factor solution on the coping instrumentality items. However, I will also examine objective criteria for factor extraction to determine whether they also support a two-factor solution. First, I will evaluate the Kaiser criterion; factors with eigenvalues greater than one are typically retained (Kaiser, 1960; Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). Second, I will conduct a scree test by examining a plot of the eigenvalues of each factor; factors preceding the first large drop in eigenvalue are typically retained (Cattell, 1966; Fabrigar et al., 1999). Finally, I will conduct parallel analysis, which compares the actual eigenvalues to those expected from random data;

factors with eigenvalues greater than those expected to occur by chance are typically retained (Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, 2004). If most of these criteria support a two-factor solution, I will proceed with the EFA by extracting two factors; however, if they consistently suggest a different number of factors, I will compare the two-factor solution to alternative solutions based on interpretability.

I will use a common factor extraction method (e.g., maximum likelihood) and an oblique rotation method (e.g., promax) to conduct the EFA. After examining the factor loadings, I will remove items with low factor loadings (less than .40) or high cross-loadings (greater than .20) and re-run the EFA without these items. I will repeat this process until I reach a conceptually interpretable solution that displays simple structure (i.e., each item has a high loading on one factor and a low cross-loading on the other factor; Fabrigar et al., 1999). This should result in one emotion-focused coping instrumentality factor and one problem-focused coping instrumentality factor. Using the items from the final EFA solution, I will examine the internal consistency of each scale separately, including the “alpha if item deleted” value. I will remove items that substantially lower the internal consistency of the scale (Hinkin, 1998).

Confirmatory factor analysis. Once I have determined the final scale items, I will use the second sample to confirm the factor structure of these items. Specifically, I will conduct confirmatory factor analysis to test the fit of a model in which the emotion-focused coping instrumentality items and the problem-focused coping instrumentality items each load onto their respective latent factors. I will evaluate model fit according to Hu and Bentler’s

(1999) criteria for fit indices such as CFI, TLI, and RMSEA. Additionally, I will use a chi-square difference test to compare the fit of this two-factor model to that of a one-factor model in which all items load onto a single latent factor for general coping instrumentality. A significant chi-square difference value will indicate that the two-factor model fits the data significantly better than does the one-factor model, providing support for the distinctiveness of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality.

Validity evidence. In addition to conducting the CFA, I will examine simple correlations between coping instrumentalities and theoretically relevant variables for the second half of the sample. First, to establish convergent validity, state negative affect should be positively related to both coping instrumentality scales; however, it should be more strongly related to emotion-focused coping instrumentality than to problem-focused coping instrumentality. I will compare the strength of these two correlations using Williams' T2 statistic, which tests the significance of the difference between two correlations that share a common variable (Steiger, 1980). Second, to establish discriminant validity, both coping instrumentality scales should have very low correlations with social desirability. Third, to establish criterion-related validity, both types of coping instrumentality should positively predict time banditry.

Study 2: Hypothesis Testing

Study 1 will yield psychometrically sound measures of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality. The purpose of Study 2 is to use these measures to

test my formal hypotheses about the relationships between work stressors, coping instrumentalities, and time banditry.

Method

Participants and procedure. As with Study 1, I will use Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) to collect survey responses from U.S. adults who work full-time in a location other than their home. The final sample will include at least 250 full-time employees. To reduce the influence of common method variance on observed correlations among the study variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), I will administer the survey at two time points. At Time 1, participants will complete the scales for work stressors and coping instrumentalities, along with demographic information. Three days later, participants will receive an invitation to complete the Time 2 survey containing the time banditry scale and scales for control variables. To encourage full participation, participants will receive a bonus payment after completing both surveys.

Measures. Appendix B contains the items I will administer for Study 2.

Work stressors. Participants will complete two scales for each of the three stressor categories chosen for this study; thus, I will examine a total of six stressors. First, stressors based on the work itself will include workload and role ambiguity. I will measure workload using the Quantitative Workload Inventory (QWI; Spector & Jex, 1998), which contains five items assessing the amount and pace of work (e.g., “How often does your job require you to work very fast?”). Response options will be on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Very often). I will measure role ambiguity using four items adapted from Rizzo

and colleagues (1970) that reflect uncertainty about the nature of job responsibilities. Due to its positive wording, the original scale was a measure of role clarity. However, to provide proper context for the coping instrumentality items, it is important that the stressor items reflect the presence rather than the absence of stressful work characteristics. Therefore, to create a measure of role ambiguity, I will re-word the items to reflect lack of clarity. Thus, the final scale will include the following items: “My job lacks clear planned goals and objectives”, “I do not know what my job responsibilities are”, “I do not know exactly what is expected of me at work”, and “Explanation of what I have to do at work is unclear”. Response options will range from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree).

I will measure work-life conflict stressors using two scales from Carlson and colleagues (2000). Because the scales originally measured work-family conflict, I will modify these items to assess the broader dimension of work-life conflict by replacing references to one’s family and household with references to one’s personal activities and responsibilities. Time-based work interference with life (three items) assesses the extent to which time spent at work keeps individuals from important life activities (e.g., “My work keeps me from my personal activities more than I would like”). Strain-based work interference with life (three items) assesses the extent to which the stress associated with work prevents individuals from participating in personal activities (e.g., “I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from completing my personal responsibilities”). Response options will range from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

To measure injustice stressors, I will adapt Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) distributive and procedural justice scales. Specifically, I will re-word the items to reflect unfair rather than fair conditions. Additionally, the items will reflect decisions made by the organization as a whole rather than by one's general manager. Distributive injustice (five items) involves perceptions of the unfairness of work outcomes (e.g., "I think that my level of pay is unfair"). Procedural justice (six items) involves perceptions of the unfairness of procedures used to determine work outcomes (e.g., "My organization ignores employee concerns when making job decisions"). Response options will range from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree).

Coping instrumentalities. I will measure emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality for time banditry using the scales I developed in Study 1. Each scale will contain approximately four to six items. Consistent with Shoss and colleagues (2015), coping instrumentality items will be specific to both the focal behavior (in this case, time banditry) and the focal stressor. Thus, participants will complete one measure of emotion-focused coping instrumentality and one measure of problem-focused coping instrumentality for each of the six stressors in this study. To reduce the cognitive demands placed on participants, I will present the coping instrumentality items for a stressor immediately after they complete the scale for that stressor. Participants will rate how much misusing work time could help them feel better about the focal stressor (emotion-focused) or resolve the stressor (problem-focused). Response options will range from 1 (Not at all) to 7 (A great deal).

Time banditry. I will measure time banditry using the Time Banditry Questionnaire (Brock et al., 2013). This scale includes 31 items assessing time-wasting behavior at work, including taking long or extra breaks, leaving work early, and making personal phone calls or sending personal email at work. Participants will rate how frequently they engage in each behavior at their current job (*1* = Never, *5* = Very often).

Control variables. In testing a stressor-based framework for time banditry, it is important to account for other potential time banditry antecedents such as boredom and pleasure-seeking motives. Regardless of the stressors they face, employees may sometimes misuse their work time because they would simply rather have fun on the job than complete their work tasks (Ketchen et al., 2008). These motives for time banditry may constitute alternative explanations for the expected relationships among my study variables. For instance, neglecting one's job duties out of boredom or the desire to have fun may create high workload as unfinished tasks accumulate, producing a positive relationship between workload and time banditry. Alternatively, individuals may engage in time banditry due to pleasure-seeking motives, then try to form situational justifications for their behavior after the fact (e.g., by exaggerating perceptions of stressors and coping instrumentality). To rule out these potential explanations, I will control for two individual differences that may drive non-stressor-related time banditry: boredom proneness and fun seeking. *Boredom proneness* is a dispositional tendency toward experiencing feelings of boredom (Farmer & Sundberg, 1986), and reflects a lowered ability to maintain attention and become absorbed in activities (Skowronski, 2012). I will measure this construct using six items from Farmer and

Sundberg's (1986) boredom proneness scale. Vodanovich, Wallace, and Kass (2005) identified these items as representing external boredom proneness, or the tendency to perceive one's environment as under-stimulating. An example item is "Many things I have to do are repetitive and monotonous". Response options will range from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). *Fun seeking* is a facet of the behavioral activation system, and reflects the propensity to seek rewards in an impulsive manner (Carver & White, 1994). I will measure this construct using Carver and White's (1994) four-item scale (e.g., "I will often do things for no other reason than that they might be fun"). Response options will range from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). For all hypotheses, I will compare the results with and without these two scales as control variables.

Analyses

To ensure that all items adequately capture their respective constructs, I will use confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test the fit of the measurement model for each of the six stressors. Each model will contain the focal stressor, emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality for that stressor, and time banditry. The χ^2 statistic and fit indices such as CFI, TLI, and RMSEA will indicate how well each measurement model fits the data (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

I will test my hypotheses using the PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2013), which allows examination of multiple mediation models using a regression-based path analysis framework. I will conduct analyses separately for each of the six work stressors. To test Hypothesis 1, I will evaluate the relationship between each stressor and time banditry. To test

the mediation hypotheses (Hypotheses 2 and 3), I will: 1) evaluate the relationship between each stressor and the two mediators (emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality); 2) evaluate the relationships between each of the two mediators and time banditry, controlling for the focal stressor; and 3) compute the indirect effects of each stressor on time banditry through emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality. Using PROCESS, I will construct 95% bootstrap confidence intervals to evaluate the significance of each indirect effect; mediation is present if the confidence interval does not contain zero.

To compare the strength of mediation through emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality for each stressor (Hypotheses 4-6), I will use PROCESS to construct a bootstrap confidence interval for the difference between the two mediating effects (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). The point estimate for the difference between the mediating effects is simply the difference between the two indirect effect estimates obtained in the evaluation of Hypotheses 2 and 3. PROCESS computes a bootstrap confidence interval around this point estimate by using a re-sampling strategy to construct a sampling distribution for the difference between the two indirect effects. The difference between the two indirect effects is significant if the bootstrap confidence interval does not contain zero.

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Study 1 Survey Items

1. Demographic items

What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

What is your age in years?

What is your race or ethnicity?

- White (Non-Hispanic)
- Black or African-American
- Hispanic or Latino
- Asian/Pacific Islander
- Native American
- Other (please specify) _____

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- Some high school
- High school diploma or GED
- Some college
- Associate degree
- Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree
- Doctoral degree
- Professional degree (MD, JD)

Which best describes your current employment situation?

- Full-time (35 or more hours a week)
- Part-time (less than 35 hours a week)
- Homemaker
- Full-time student
- Retired
- Not currently employed

Which of the following best describes your primary work place for your current job?

- I usually work from home
- I usually work in a location other than my home
- I split my work time evenly between home and non-home locations

Of the industries listed below, which one would you say your current job belongs to?

- Management
- Business and Financial Operations
- Computer and Mathematical
- Architecture and Engineering
- Life, Physical, and Social Science
- Community and Social Service
- Legal
- Education, Training, and Library
- Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports, and Media
- Healthcare Practitioners and Technical
- Healthcare Support
- Protective Service
- Food Preparation and Serving Related Occupations
- Building and Grounds Cleaning and Maintenance
- Personal Care and Service
- Sales and Related Occupations
- Office and Administrative Support
- Farming, Fishing, and Forestry
- Construction and Extraction
- Installation, Maintenance, and Repair
- Production
- Transportation and Material Moving
- Military Specific Occupations
- Other (please specify)

How long have you been employed at your current job?

____ years and ____ months

2. Stressful situation

Few people spend their entire work day actually doing work. Instead, many people misuse their work time by performing non-work activities during work hours. Misusing work time might involve: taking extra breaks; coming to work early or leaving work late; doing personal activities (phone, email, Internet, socializing, etc.) at work; and even working very slowly or putting little effort into work tasks. Sometimes, stressful situations make people want to misuse their work time. **Think of a stressful situation that you frequently**

experience at your current job that might make you want to misuse your work time. In the space below, please describe this stressful situation.

3. Emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality (Approximately 20-25 items developed in Study 1)

Think about the stressful situation you just described. How much could misusing your work time help you accomplish the following for this situation? Again, misusing work time might involve: taking extra breaks; coming to work early or leaving work late; doing personal activities (phone, email, Internet, socializing, etc.) at work; and working very slowly or putting little effort into work tasks.

Misusing my work time could:

Emotion-focused example item: Help me feel better about the problem

Problem-focused example item: Help me resolve the problem

Response options: 1 (Not at all) to 7 (A great deal)

4. Negative affect (Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000)

Thinking about the stressful situation you just described, please indicate how this situation makes you feel at work.

This situation makes me feel:

Annoyed	Depressed
Disgusted	Discouraged
Frustrated	Frightened
Gloomy	Furious
Angry	Fatigued
Anxious	Intimidated
Confused	Miserable

Response options: 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree)

5. Social desirability (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972)

I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake
 I always try to practice what I preach
 I never resent being asked to return a favor
 I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own
 I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings
 I like to gossip at times
 There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone
 I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget
 At times I have really insisted on having things my own way
 There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things

Response options: True or False

6. Time banditry (Brock, Martin, & Buckley, 2013)

Think about the stressful situation you described. How often do you do each of the following behaviors in response to this situation?

I spend more time than necessary on tasks
 I pretend to work through lunch to leave early, even though I still take a break to eat

 I take long coffee/smoke breaks without approval
 I tell my boss/colleague a task will take longer than I know I can finish it in, so I can take my time
 I use sick days in order to catch up on personal things
 If I finished a project 20 min before the end of the work day, I would not start working on anything new
 If I didn't feel like going to work, I would call in sick, even if I wasn't
 I start working as soon as I arrive at work
 I go to the restroom even if I don't have to
 I purposely take longer in the restroom than necessary
 I take breaks at my desk to catch up on a bestseller or to read a magazine
 I put less effort into my work than I know I can
 I take longer lunch breaks than I am supposed to
 When given a task, I finish it faster than the expected timeframe and use the remaining time for personal use
 I daydream while at work
 If my boss is gone for the day, I will leave early
 I always put 100% effort into my work task
 When I arrive at work in the morning, I get coffee and/or eat breakfast before I start working

I never check nonwork-related e-mail during work hours
I receive nonwork-related e-mail at work
While at work, the only e-mail use I engage in is work related
I check nonwork-related e-mail at work
I send nonwork-related e-mail at work
I spend time on the Internet for reasons not related to work
I use the Internet for work-related business only
I take time out of my day to talk with my boss about nonwork-related topics

I talk to coworkers about their families during work hours
I only take the required amount of break time allowed in my organization
I never make personal phone calls at work
I receive personal phone calls at work
I spend time in and out of the office engaging in leisure activities (e.g., golfing, going to lunch, drinks, and/or dinner) with clients

Response options: 1 (Never) to 5 (Very often)

Study 2 Survey Items

1. Demographic items

What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

What is your age in years?

What is your race or ethnicity?

- White (Non-Hispanic)
- Black or African-American
- Hispanic or Latino
- Asian/Pacific Islander
- Native American
- Other (please specify) _____

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- Some high school
- High school diploma or GED
- Some college
- Associate degree
- Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree
- Doctoral degree
- Professional degree (MD, JD)

Which best describes your current employment situation?

- Full-time (35 or more hours a week)
- Part-time (less than 35 hours a week)
- Homemaker
- Full-time student
- Retired
- Not currently employed

Which of the following best describes your primary work place for your current job?

- I usually work from home
- I usually work in a location other than my home
- I split my work time evenly between home and non-home locations

Of the industries listed below, which one would you say your current job belongs to?

- Management
- Business and Financial Operations
- Computer and Mathematical
- Architecture and Engineering
- Life, Physical, and Social Science
- Community and Social Service
- Legal
- Education, Training, and Library
- Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports, and Media
- Healthcare Practitioners and Technical
- Healthcare Support
- Protective Service
- Food Preparation and Serving Related Occupations
- Building and Grounds Cleaning and Maintenance
- Personal Care and Service
- Sales and Related Occupations
- Office and Administrative Support
- Farming, Fishing, and Forestry
- Construction and Extraction
- Installation, Maintenance, and Repair
- Production
- Transportation and Material Moving
- Military Specific Occupations
- Other (please specify)

How long have you been employed at your current job?

____ years and ____ months

2. Workload (Spector & Jex, 1998)

How often does your job require you to work very fast?

How often does your job require you to work very hard?

How often does your job leave you with little time to get things done?

How often is there a great deal to be done?

How often do you have to do more work than you can do well?

Response options: 1 (Never) to 5 (Always)

3. Role ambiguity (adapted from Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970)

My job lacks clear planned goals and objectives
 I do not know what my job responsibilities are
 I do not know exactly what is expected of me at work
 Explanation of what I have to do at work is unclear

Response options: 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree)

4. Time-based work interference with life (adapted from Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000)

My work keeps me from my personal activities more than I would like
 The time I must devote to my job keeps me from completing my personal responsibilities
 I have to miss personal events due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities

Response options: 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree)

5. Strain-based work interference with life (adapted from Carlson et al., 2000)

When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in personal activities
 I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from completing my personal responsibilities
 Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy

Response options: 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree)

6. Distributive injustice (adapted from Niehoff & Moorman, 1993)

My work schedule is unfair
 I think that my level of pay is unfair
 I consider my work load to be quite unfair
 Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite unfair
 I feel that my job responsibilities are unfair

Response options: 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree)

7. Procedural injustice (adapted from Niehoff & Moorman, 1993)

My organization makes job decisions in a biased manner

My organization ignores employee concerns when making job decisions

To make job decisions, my organization collects inaccurate and incomplete information

My organization fails to clarify decisions and fails to provide additional information when requested by employees

Job decisions are applied inconsistently across all affected employees

Employees are not allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the organization

Response options: 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree)

8. Emotion-focused and problem-focused coping instrumentality for each of the six stressors (Approximately 8-12 items to be developed in Study 1)

The survey items above refer to [focal stressor]. [Focal stressor] occurs when [brief description of focal stressor]. Sometimes, stressful situations like this make people want to misuse their work time, or perform non-work activities during work hours. Misusing work time might involve: taking extra breaks; coming to work early or leaving work late; doing personal activities (phone, email, Internet, socializing, etc.) at work; and working very slowly or putting little effort into work tasks. **Think about the [focal stressor] you experience at your job. How much could misusing your work time help you accomplish the following for this situation?**

Misusing my work time could:

Emotion-focused example item: Help me feel better about the problem

Problem-focused example item: Help me resolve the problem

Response options: 1 (Not at all) to 7 (A great deal)

9. Time banditry (Brock, Martin, & Buckley, 2013)

At your current job, how often do you do each of the following behaviors?

I spend more time than necessary on tasks

I pretend to work through lunch to leave early, even though I still take a break to eat

I take long coffee/smoke breaks without approval

I tell my boss/colleague a task will take longer than I know I can finish it in, so I can take my time

I use sick days in order to catch up on personal things

If I finished a project 20 min before the end of the work day, I would not start working on anything new

If I didn't feel like going to work, I would call in sick, even if I wasn't

I start working as soon as I arrive at work

I go to the restroom even if I don't have to

I purposely take longer in the restroom than necessary

I take breaks at my desk to catch up on a bestseller or to read a magazine

I put less effort into my work than I know I can

I take longer lunch breaks than I am supposed to

When given a task, I finish it faster than the expected timeframe and use the remaining time for personal use

I daydream while at work

If my boss is gone for the day, I will leave early

I always put 100% effort into my work task

When I arrive at work in the morning, I get coffee and/or eat breakfast before I start working

I never check nonwork-related e-mail during work hours

I receive nonwork-related e-mail at work

While at work, the only e-mail use I engage in is work related

I check nonwork-related e-mail at work

I send nonwork-related e-mail at work

I spend time on the Internet for reasons not related to work

I use the Internet for work-related business only

I take time out of my day to talk with my boss about nonwork-related topics

I talk to coworkers about their families during work hours

I only take the required amount of break time allowed in my organization

I never make personal phone calls at work

I receive personal phone calls at work

I spend time in and out of the office engaging in leisure activities (e.g., golfing, going to lunch, drinks, and/or dinner) with clients

Response options: 1 (Never) to 5 (Very often)

10. Boredom proneness: External stimulation (Farmer & Sundberg, 1986)

Having to look at someone's home movies or travel slides bores me tremendously
Many things I have to do are repetitive and monotonous
It would be very hard for me to find a job that is exciting enough
Unless I am doing something exciting, even dangerous, I feel half-dead and dull
It seems that the same old things are on television or the movies all the time; it's getting old
When I was young, I was often in monotonous and tiresome situations

1 (Strongly disagree) to *7* (Strongly agree)

11. Behavioral activation system: Fun seeking (Carver & White, 1994)

I will often do things for no other reason than that they might be fun
I crave excitement and new sensations
I'm always willing to try something new if I think it will be fun
I often act on the spur of the moment

1 (Strongly disagree) to *5* (Strongly agree)

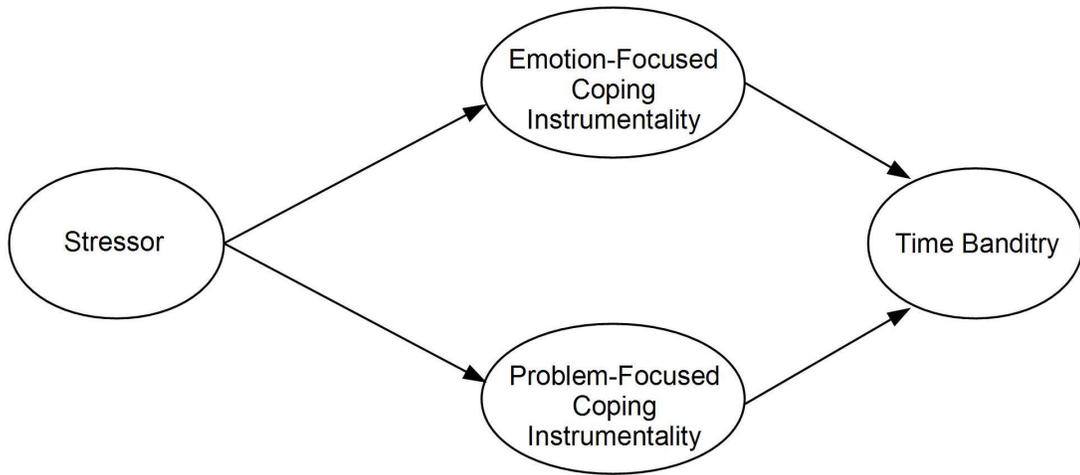


Figure 1. Conceptual model of the relationships among stressors, coping instrumentalities, and time banditry.