Abstract

RAMIREZ, STEVEN ALEX. Impulsive and Premeditated Counterproductive Work Behaviors and the Moderating Effects of Self-Monitoring and Core Self-Evaluation. (Under the direction of Dr. Samuel B. Pond III.)

Using self-report data from 390 participants, this study expanded upon the counterproductive work behavior (CWB) literature in three specific ways. First, I incorporated concepts from the social psychology and aggression literatures to introduce a new categorization of different types of CWBs. Second, I examined the roles affect and cognition play in driving different CWBs. Finally, I tested how unique personality variables affect the mental processes leading to CWBs. The results of the study showed that CWBs can be categorized as impulsive in nature or premeditated in nature depending on the ultimate goal the behavior and whether emotions drive the behavior or cognition drives the behavior. Mediation analyses showed that negative affect partially mediated the relationship between organizational justice and impulsive CWBs. Similarly, cognitive reactions to injustice partially mediated the relationship between organizational justice and premeditated CWBs. The impulsive versus premeditated distinction for CWBs offers a new way forward for CWB researchers to examine the motivations behind different CWBs. Moderated mediation analyses showed that individual levels of self-monitoring and core self-evaluation moderated the indirect relationship between organizational justice and premeditated CWBs via cognitive reactions. Specifically, higher self-monitors tended to perform more premeditated CWBs via their cognitive reactions to injustice and individuals with higher core self-evaluations tended to perform fewer premeditated CWBs due to their cognitive reactions to injustice.

Impulsive and Premeditated Counterproductive Work Behaviors and the Moderating Effects
of Self-Monitoring and Core Self-Evaluation

by
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Biography

Steven Alex Ramirez was born on October 30th, 1988 in Houston Texas. He is the son of

Juan and Christina Ramirez and brother to Daniel Ramirez.

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Researchers have used many labels to describe the destructive behaviors employees

perform while at work (Barclay & Aquino, 2011). Popular broad labels include workplace

aggression (Hershcovis, Turner, Barling, Arnold, Dupré, Inness, LeBlanc, & Sivanathan,

2007), workplace deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), and counterproductive work

behaviors (CWBs; Spector & Fox, 2002). Labels for more specific behaviors are even more

varied, including: bullying (Hoel, Rayner, & Cooper, 1999), retaliatory behavior (Skarlicki &

Folger, 1997), revenge (Bies & Tripp, 2005), sabotage (Giacalone, Riordan, & Rosenfeld,

1997), theft (Kulas, McInnerney, DeMuth, & Jadwinski, 2007) and cyber loafing (Blanchard

& Henle, 2008). Each of these conceptualizations of CWBs describes intentional behaviors

that harm other employees in an organization or harm the organization itself (Spector & Fox,

2002). Researchers and practitioners alike agree that the presence of CWBs is a pervasive

problem within organizations (Diefendorff & Mehta, 2007). In fact, CWBs account for an

estimated 20% of failed businesses (Coffin, 2003) and cost corporations in the United States

nearly 24 billion dollars annually (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006). Furthermore, for

the victims of more interpersonal CWBs, these destructive behaviors result in outcomes such

as negative job attitudes and lowered psychological and physical well-being (Barclay &

Aquino, 2011).

Two specific goals guide much of the research on CWBs. First, researchers have tried

to identify environmental factors and individual personality factors that predict CWBs

(Hershcovis et al., 2007; Spector, 2011). The second goal has directed researchers to

differentiate between different types of CWBs and their antecedents and outcomes

(Hershcovis, 2011). Although these types of studies have furthered our knowledge of these

behaviors, there is ample room for additional exploration. For example, due to the large

amount of research conducted on the many different specific CWBs, the literature lacks

agreement on the important types or distinguishing characteristics of different CWBs. Yet

despite the conceptual linkages between the CWB literature and other areas, such as social

and developmental psychology, CWB research has yet to integrate concepts from outside the

field to help reorganize the literature (MacLane & Walmsley, 2010). In addition, the CWB

literature has developed largely without taking into account the different driving forces

behind different types of CWBs. Finally, most of the research has established direct

relationships between CWBs and personality predictors, whereas much less of it has

examined how personality affects the processes that lead to CWBs (Spector, 2011).

The purpose of this study is to begin to address each of these areas. First, I will

review popular models for predicting CWBs and propose that hostile attribution bias affects

how employees interpret environmental factors in their organizations. Hostile attribution bias

is an individual's tendency to attribute negative events to his or her environment or to other

individuals. Second, I will incorporate the concepts of impulsive and premeditated

aggression into the study of CWBs to examine how emotion and cognition drive different

CWBs. Impulsive aggression includes behaviors that are more reactionary and emotional in

nature, while premeditated aggressive behaviors are more calculated. Finally, I will examine

how the personality variables of self-monitoring and core self-evaluation moderate the

relationships between the different forms of aggression and CWBs.

Models Predicting CWBs

To date, researchers have used two popular theories or models to explain and predict CWBs (Matta, Erol-Korkmaz, Johnson, & Biçaksiz, 2014). The first is affective events theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). According to AET, work environments have stable contextual characteristics often determined by organizational climate and culture. These contextual characteristics cause emotional changes in employees that influence employee attitudes and behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The second and arguably more popular model used to understand CWBs is the emotion-centered model of voluntary work behavior (Spector & Fox, 2002). The emotion-centered model states that employees perceive and appraise the environmental features of their workplace. Then, based on those appraisals, employees experience negative emotions, which stimulate CWBs, or positive emotions, which stimulate organizational citizenship behaviors.

Numerous studies have supported the emotion-centered model that indicates that negative emotions (e.g., frustration) can be proximal predictors of CWBs. For example, Storms and Spector (1987) found employees who experienced organizational constraints also tended to experience frustration at work. Those employees who experienced frustration then tended to engage in more instances of interpersonal aggression, sabotage, and withdrawal behaviors. Fox and Spector (1999) tested their frustration-aggression framework and found that employee frustration levels mediated the relationship between employee perceptions of situational constraints and CWBs. Finally, Fox, Spector, and Miles (2001) tested CWBs as behavioral responses to job stressors. The authors found that employees responded to

organizational constraints, organizational justice, and interpersonal conflict with higher levels of CWBs due to their negative emotions.

Two of the most often tested contextual variables that cause emotional reactions in employees are organizational constraints and organizational justice. Organizational constraints are situations in the workplace that prevent employees from performing their jobs (Spector & Jex, 1998). Peters and O'Connor (1980) identified eleven areas of constraints that could interfere with job performance, including faulty equipment, lack of job-relevant information, inadequate training, distractions by others in the work environment, and restrictive organizational rules and procedures. Numerous studies have linked organizational constraints to CWBs either directly or indirectly (Hershcovis et al., 2007; O'Brien, 2009; Penny & Spector, 2005; Sprung & Jex, 2012).

Organizational justice is the perception employees have of the overall level of fairness of their organization. Researchers typically divide justice perceptions into three different categories. Distributive justice refers to perceived fairness of outcomes received by employees (Adams, 1965). Procedural justice refers to the fairness of the procedures and rules in place for arriving at outcome decisions (Thibuat & Walker, 1975). Finally, interactional justice refers to the extent to which the organization or its representatives treat employees with respect and dignity (Bies & Moag, 1986). In general, employees who experience higher levels of organizational justice engage in fewer CWBs (Sulea, Maricuţoiu, Dumitru, & Pitariu, 2010).

Although organizational constraints and organizational justice have been included simultaneously as predictors of CWBs in a number of studies (Fox et al., 2001; Hershcovis et

al., 2007; Sprung & Jex, 2012), surprisingly few studies have examined how these variables influence each other. Additionally, studies using the AET or emotion-centered model normally do not examine what events cause employee perceptions of injustice (Matta, Erol-Korkmaz, Johnson, & Biçaksiz, 2014). This study addresses these limitations by proposing that organizational constraints produce perceptions of organizational injustice among employees. Finally, studies based on the AET or emotion-centered model do not examine how individual differences affect how employees interpret negative work events. How employees interpret the events around them plays a vital role in determining whether they will perform CWBs (Spector, 2011; Spector & Fox, 2002). Therefore, this study extends the examination of CWB processes by proposing that hostile attribution bias may influence how employees interpret organizational constraints.

The Role of Hostile Attribution Bias in Organizational Justice

Individuals constantly monitor and appraise the events around them (Lazarus, 1991). Attributions are the interpretations individuals offer to explain why those events occurred (Chiu & Peng, 2008). Differences in personality lead individuals to use different attributional processes when appraising the events in their environment. One attributional bias, known as hostile attribution bias, is an individual's tendency to attribute responsibility for negative events in his or her environment to other individuals or entities (Douglas & Martinko, 2001). Researchers have studied how hostile attribution bias affects aggressive behavior in children (Crick & Dodge, 1996); however, only a limited number of studies have integrated this construct into the CWB literature (Spector, 2011).

Douglas and Martinko (2001) found that hostile attribution bias predicted incidences of workplace aggression beyond individual levels of negative affectivity and lack of self-control. Goh (2007) found that individuals with higher levels of hostile attribution bias tended to report experiencing more job stressors. Furthermore, hostile attribution bias levels moderated the relationship between job stressors and CWBs such that individuals with higher levels of hostile attribution bias engaged in more CWBs in response to job stressors. Finally, Chiu and Peng (2008) found similar interactive effects that showed that individuals with higher levels of hostile attribution bias tended to report higher levels of organizational deviance in response to perceptions of contract breach.

Across each of these studies, researchers used hostile attribution bias to help predict the performance of CWBs. However, by definition, hostile attribution bias is an individual difference in how people appraise and interpret the events happening around them. Therefore, it may be a more useful construct for explaining the earlier mental processes that initially lead to CWBs, rather than directly predicting CWBs. In a model proposed by Spector (2011), hostile attribution bias affected how individuals appraised their work environments, while other variables such as locus of control influenced the actual performance of CWBs. In this study, I test this proposition by examining how employee perceptions of organizational constraints influence employee perceptions of organizational justice. Specifically, I predict that employees will interpret organizational constraints as an indication of lower levels of organizational justice. Furthermore, I predict that individuals with higher levels of hostile attribution bias will interpret organizational constraints as within

the control of the organization, and therefore report even lower levels of organizational justice.

Hypothesis 1: Employee perceptions of organizational constraints will be negatively related to perceptions of organizational justice.

Hypothesis 2: Hostile attribution bias will moderate the relationship between organizational constraints and organizational justice such that the negative relationship between constraints and justice will be stronger for individuals with higher levels of hostile attribution bias.

Impulsive and Premeditated Aggression

Work on CWBs has grown rapidly over the last two decades, with much of this work aimed at identifying different constructs or types of CWBs (Hershcovis, 2011). Some of the first work in this area started with Buss (1961), who proposed a framework of different types of aggression based on whether the behaviors were verbal or physical, passive or active, and direct or indirect. Later, Baron and Neuman (1996) found that employees reported experiencing and witnessing verbal, passive, and indirect workplace behaviors, rather than behaviors that were physical, active, or direct in nature. More recently, many researchers have adopted a different distinction that involves categorizing behaviors as targeted at organizations or as targeted at other individuals, each of which has different antecedents (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Beyond these broad conceptualizations, researchers have also investigated specific types of behaviors. Using self-report data and confirmatory factor analysis, Gruys and Sackett (2003) found evidence for eleven distinct types of CWBs. Similarly, Spector and

colleagues (2006) found evidence for five distinct but related categories of CWBs. Large amounts of research, and in fact entire literatures, have resulted from investigations of these more granular types of behaviors. This research has provided intriguing and important information pertaining to the types of individual differences that predict specific CWBs; however, it has also resulted in a CWB literature that is somewhat fractured (Bowling & Gruys, 2010).

Rather than distinguishing CWBs by the different types or targets of behaviors, an alternative way to categorize CWBs is by the driving force behind them. One such distinction comes from the social psychology and aggression literatures. These fields outline two different types of aggressive behaviors (i.e., impulsive aggression and premeditated aggression), each with different driving forces behind them and with different ultimate goals (Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Kingsbury, Lambert, & Hendrickse, 1997; Ramirez & Andreu, 2003). The ultimate goal of individuals who perform acts of impulsive aggression is to cause harm to another individual or entity. Impulsive aggression is driven by emotion, lacks behavioral control, is impulsive in nature, and is performed as an immediate reaction to a perceived provocation (Ramirez & Andreu, 2006). Conversely, some individuals might perform behaviors that entail premeditated aggression. In other words, individuals may engage in behaviors that are more cognitively driven, and carefully planned in order to solve a problem or complete objectives beyond just causing harm to another individual or entity (Ramirez & Andreu, 2006). Premeditated aggression is goal-oriented, purposeful, and does not necessarily require perceived provocation or anger (Berkowitz, 1993).

Research findings show that impulsive aggression and premeditated aggression are empirically distinct constructs. Across several different studies using three different measures, researchers consistently interpreted two factors representing impulsive and premeditated factors (Driscoll, Campbell, & Muncer, 2005; Ramirez & Andreu, 2006; Stanford et al., 2003). Additionally, different individuals may be more inclined to perform impulsive aggression over premeditated aggression or vice versa. For example, individuals who are less extroverted and more neurotic tend to perform premeditated aggression. On the other hand, individuals with higher levels of trait anger tend to perform impulsive aggression (Stanford et al., 2003).

This distinction helps move the CWB literature beyond the studying of specific individual CWBs and their targets. The impulsive and premeditated distinction gives researchers a basis for understanding why employees perform certain CWBs over others in response to different types of conflict or injustice. For example, an employee who experiences disrespectful treatment from his or her boss will likely have a strong negative emotional response to that interaction and respond impulsively by verbally abusing other employees or customers. On the other hand, an employee who feels he or she does not receive benefits he or she deserves from the organization will likely think of ways to recoup what he or she is owed and begin taking extra and longer breaks from work. The current state of the CWB literature shows what types of individuals might engage in these instances of verbal abuse or time wasting but the impulsive and premeditated distinction helps explain why and when such behaviors occur.

Research examining impulsive and premeditated forms of aggression traditionally takes place in the clinical and developmental fields of psychology; however, this distinction has begun to gain popularity with CWB researchers, most notably in the theoretical works. For example, Neuman and Baron (2005) proposed a general aggression framework that argued that employees could perform acts of CWBs either as reactions to provoking events or as a means to obtain a desired end. Douglas and colleagues (2008) proposed a model that predicted three different types of workplace aggression: premeditated, affect-driven, or attitude-driven behaviors. Finally, Fox and Spector (2010) proposed a model that combined premeditated CWBs with the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 2002).

Other researchers have also implied that some specific CWBs can have more premeditated origins. For example, employees may engage in sabotage behaviors as a response either to anger or for instrumental purposes such as drawing attention to organizational problems, bringing about organizational change, or gaining competitive advantage over peers (Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002). Neuman and Baron (1998) suggested that employees might perform theft without conceptualizing it as an aggressive act at all, but rather, as a purely economic act. Some employees might perform withdrawal behaviors as a way to cope with the emotional stressors and strains from their organization (Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010). Finally, Spector et al. (2006) found that employees with higher levels of negative emotion tended to perform more acts of abuse against others, production deviance, and work withdrawal behaviors, but not acts of sabotage and theft. This finding showed that emotions could be a strong driving force for some, but not all, types of CWBs. Based on these findings I propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a-b: Organizational justice levels will be negatively related to (a) impulsive forms of CWBs and (b) premeditated forms of CWBs.

Hypothesis 4: Negative affective reactions to organizational injustice will mediate the relationship between organizational justice and impulsive CWBs.

Hypothesis 5: Cognitive reactions to organizational injustice will mediate the relationship between organizational justice and premeditated CWBs.

The Moderating Role of Self-Monitoring and Core Self-Evaluation

Research shows that certain personality variables are useful for predicting CWBs (Spector, 2011). The most popular traits examined in research linking personality variables with CWBs have been individual levels of integrity and the dimensions of the five-factor model of personality. Individual integrity levels have proven to be quite effective at predicting CWBs such that individuals with more integrity perform fewer CWBs (Berry, Sackett, & Wiemann, 2007; Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 1993). Several of the dimensions of the five-factor model also predict CWBs directed at both specific individuals and the overall organization. Specifically, individuals who are more emotionally stable, more agreeable, and more conscientious tend to perform fewer deviant behaviors (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007). Studies such as these are critical for validating potential selection tools and, therefore, are extremely useful to practitioners implementing selection systems. Nevertheless, they have failed to examine the role that individual differences play in the processes that lead to CWBs. Incorporating variables such as self-monitoring and core self-evaluation may help investigate these processes.

Individual levels of self-monitoring reflect the extent to which people are able to observe, regulate, and control the words and behaviors they display in social settings and interpersonal relationships (Snyder, 1987). Individuals who engage in high levels of self-monitoring are more likely to change their words and actions to produce favorable impressions on others; in contrast, those low in self-monitoring are less concerned with making such impressions, and therefore are more likely to act consistently with their actual attitudes and values (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). Self-monitoring is a reliable and valid predictor of several organizationally relevant attitudes and behaviors, including job performance, leadership emergence, organizational commitment, and job involvement (Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002; Day & Schleicher, 2006). However, the predictive role of self-monitoring has received less attention in the CWB literature. One study, though, found that high levels of self-monitoring promoted chameleonic behaviors and either amplified or mitigated the relationship between personality and CWBs depending on whether the situation was public or private (Oh, Charlier, Mount, & Berry, 2014). In order to maintain a positive public image, high self-monitors performed fewer CWBs in social situations. Conversely, in private situations high self-monitors were more concerned with self-enhancement and therefore were more likely to perform CWBs when such behaviors benefited them.

I argue that self-monitoring levels can also be useful in predicting the strength of the mediating processes connecting injustice perceptions to impulsive and premeditated CWBs. The nature of impulsive aggression dictates that those who perform these behaviors are less inhibited in social situations and more likely to act on their immediate inclinations and urges.

On the other hand, individuals who are more skilled in controlling their impulses perform premeditated aggression to reach their goals in a more deliberate and calculated manner (Ramirez & Andreu, 2006). Because low self-monitors are less concerned with maintaining a positive self-image, they should be more likely to act on their initial reactions. Therefore, low self-monitors should perform more impulsive CWBs due to their negative affective reactions to organizational injustice. In contrast, high self-monitors are more skilled in controlling and adjusting their behavior. Therefore, they should perform more premeditated CWBs as a result of their cognitive reactions to organizational injustice.

> *Hypothesis 6a-b*: a) The negative indirect effect of organizational justice on impulsive CWBs through negative affective reactions will be stronger for lower self-monitors; b) The negative indirect effect of organizational justice on premeditated CWBs through cognitive reactions will be stronger for higher self-monitors.

Unlike self-monitoring, one personality variable that researchers examine more often in relation to CWBs is locus of control. Locus of control is the extent to which individuals feel they can control the events around them (Rotter, 1966). Individuals high in locus of control (internals) believe that they determine the rewards or outcomes in their lives, whereas individuals low in locus of control (externals) believe that outside forces determine their outcomes. Research shows that externals are more likely to report engaging in CWBs than internals (Fox & Spector, 1999; Peng, 2012). Individuals also react differently to negative work situations based on their level of locus of control. For example, Storms and Spector (1987) found that externals were more likely to react to organizational frustration with CWBs than internals. A similar interactive effect existed between work locus of control and

organizational stressors such that externals performed more CWBs in response to organizational constraints than did internals (Sprung & Jex, 2012). Finally, Wei and Si (2013) found that externals responded with higher levels of sabotage, production deviance, and theft in response to abusive supervision than did internals.

One way to expand upon research that has already examined the relationship between locus of control and CWBs is to incorporate a concept known as core self-evaluation (CSE). CSE is a higher order construct composed of both motivational and emotional variables that determine how individuals perceive themselves and their environment (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). Specifically, CSE is composed of individual levels of locus of control, general self-efficacy, self-esteem, and emotional stability. By incorporating CSE rather than only locus of control individually, this study adds an emotional element (self-esteem and emotional stability) that may differentially predict impulsive and premeditated CWBs.

I predict that CSE levels will also change the strength of the mediating processes between organizational justice and impulsive and premeditated CWBs. Individuals with low levels of CSE have higher feelings of helplessness when dealing with problems, lower levels of self-efficacy and self-esteem, and higher levels of emotional reactivity. Therefore, the negative affective reactions resulting from injustice should produce higher instances of impulsive CWBs for individuals with lower levels of CSE. On the other hand, individuals with higher levels of CSE should have a more problem-focused approach when dealing with negative work situations. Those individuals are more likely to believe that they have control over outcomes around them, to have confidence in their abilities to plan and perform CWBs successfully, and to wait to respond to negative work situations due to their emotional

stability. Therefore, the cognitive reactions to organizational injustice should result in higher instances of premeditated CWBs for individuals with higher levels of CSE.

Hypothesis 7a-b: a) The negative indirect effect of organizational justice on impulsive CWBs through negative affective reactions will be stronger for individuals with lower levels of CSE; b) The negative indirect effect of organizational justice on premeditated CWBs through cognitive reactions will be stronger for individuals with higher levels of CSE.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants volunteered to complete an online survey for this study via Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk), an online crowdsourcing website. Those who completed the online survey in its entirety received $1.00 for their participation. Collecting survey data via MTurk is rapidly growing as a method for psychological researchers to collect valid work-related data (Azzam & Jacobson, 2013; Behrend, Sharek, Meade, & Wiebe, 2011; Casler, Bickel, & Hackett, 2013; Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2013).

For this study, I recruited only MTurk users who met the following criteria: were 18 years or older in age, had an MTurk approval rating of 95% or higher, and were located in the United States only. Of the 468 initial respondents who participated in the study, I deleted several for the following reasons: 63 were missing data on over half the items in the survey, 7 inaccurately responded to two of the three attention check items in the survey, 7 were self-employed, and 1 selected the same response option for every item in the survey. After those

deletions, the final sample included 390 respondents; Table 1 displays demographic information for the study sample in more detail.

Measures

      Organizational Constraints. To measure participant perceptions of organizational constraints, I used an 11-item scale created by Spector and Jex (1998). This scale assessed the 11 dimensions identified by Peters and O'Connor (1980) and asked participants to indicate how often they found it difficult or impossible to do their job because of certain situations (e.g. "Poor equipment or supplies"). Respondents rated each item on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=*less than once per month or never*, 5=*several times per day*).

      Organizational Justice. To measure participant perceptions of organizational justice, I used the 20-item scale created by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). The scale consists of three subscales measuring distributive (e.g., "I think that my level of pay is fair"), procedural (e.g., "Job decisions are made by my organization in an unbiased manner"), and interactional justice (e.g., "My organization treats me with kindness and consideration"). Respondents rated each item on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1=*strongly disagree*, 7=*strongly agree*). I combined the three subscales to create just one measure of general organizational justice.

      Hostile Attribution Bias. To measure participant levels of hostile attribution bias, I used a 5-item scale created by Michel, Pace, Edun, Sawhney, and Thomas (2014). An example item includes "Other people gain others' trust to betray them." Participants indicated the extent to which they agreed with each statement on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1=*strongly disagree*, 7=*strongly agree*).

Negative Affect. To measure participant levels of negative affect in reaction to organizational injustice, I used the 14 negative items from the Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS) created by Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, and Kelloway (2000). Respondents rated each item on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1=*strongly disagree*, 7=*strongly agree*) to indicate the extent to which they would feel negative emotions (e.g., annoyed, discouraged, furious) in response to unfair or disrespectful treatment in their organizations. An example item includes "If my organization or one of my coworkers treated me unfairly or disrespectfully I would likely feel annoyed."

Cognitive Reactions to Injustice. To measure participant levels of cognitive reactions to organizational injustice, I created a new 8-item scale for this study. Respondents rated each item on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1=*strongly disagree*, 7=*strongly agree*) to indicate the extent to which they would have certain reactions in response to unfair or disrespectful treatment in their organizations. Table 2 displays all the cognitive reactions items used in this study.

Self-Monitoring. To measure participant levels of self-monitoring, I used the 18-item scale created by Snyder and Gangestad (1986). An example item includes "I'm not always the person I appear to be." Respondents rated each item on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1=*strongly disagree*, 7=*strongly agree*).

Core Self-Evaluation. To measure participant levels of CSE, I used the 12-item Core Self-Evaluation Scale created and validated by Judge, Erez, Bono, and Thoresen (2003). Respondents rated each item on a 5-point Likert type scale (1=*strongly disagree*, 5=*strongly agree*). An example item includes "When I try, I generally succeed."

Impulsive and Premeditated CWBs. To measure participant levels of counterproductive work behaviors, I used the Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C; Spector et al., 2006). The CWB-C asks participants to indicate how often they perform certain behaviors while at work (e.g., "Purposely did work incorrectly", "Daydreamed rather than did work"). Participants rated each item on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=*never*, 5=*every day*).

Prior to data collection, I solicited help from 11industrial/organizational psychology doctoral students to serve as subject matter experts (SMEs) to help distinguish between hostile and instrumental CWB items. I gave the SMEs definitions for impulsive aggression and premeditated aggression and asked them to indicate the category within which each item from the CWB-C best fit. To classify an item as either impulsive or premeditated, I set an agreement threshold of 80% across all SMEs. Of the 45 items from the CWB-C, SMEs classified 14 as impulsive and 12 as premeditated in nature. Table 3 displays the impulsive and premeditated CWB scales.

Results

Measurement Model

For the first step in data analysis, I performed confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) to evaluate the proposed measurement model. I ran an initial CFA to evaluate the following study variables: organizational constraints, organizational justice, hostile attribution bias, negative affect, and cognitive reactions to injustice. The initial CFA of this model showed mediocre fit; however, the modification indices provided by Mplus showed that better fit was possible by eliminating poorly performing items from the analysis. After cutting 16 of the 88

total items from the original analysis, adequate fit was obtained for the measurement model

(χ^2(798, $N = 390$) = 1711.19, $p < .05$, $\chi^2/df = 2.14$, CFI = .90, SRMR = .06, RMSEA = .05,

90% C.I. = 0.05-0.06). I also eliminated the cut items from all subsequent analyses. To obtain

this level of fit I allowed the error terms for two items on the organizational constraints scale

(both dealing with organizational supplies) to covary. I also used composite indicators for

two of the latent variables in the CFA. For the organizational justice latent variable, I used

three composite indicators: one made up of procedural justice items, one made up of

distributive justice items, and one made up of interactional justice items. For the negative

affect latent variable, I used a single composite indicator made up of all the negative affect

items.

I did not include the impulsive and premeditated scales in the CFA for two reasons

also cited by Spector et al. (2006). First, the CWB-C is a causal indicator scale with items

that are not interchangeable measures for a single latent construct (Bollen & Lennox, 1991;

Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000); therefore, they do not form factors that more typical effect

indicator scales produce (Spector et al., 2006). Second, the items on the CWB-C ask

respondents to report their frequency of engagement on typically low base rate behaviors.

This often leads to items with low endorsement levels. Those response patterns produce

differential skews and differences in the item distributions, which can distort factor structures

(Spector, Van Katwyk, Brannick, & Chen, 1997).

Table 4 displays the means, standard deviations, reliability estimates, and

intercorrelations of study variables. There are several notable findings presented in Table 4.

First, as initially supported by the CFA, the two proposed mediators of this study are distinct

variables that have different relationships with other variables in the study. Therefore, using these variables to measure different mental and emotional processes in participants appears to be appropriate. Second, negative affect has a significant relationship with impulsive CWBs (r = .16, $p < .05$), but does not relate to premeditated CWBs. This supports the idea that impulsive CWBs have a more emotional quality to them relative to premediated CWBs.

Main Effect Hypotheses

I used hierarchical regression to test all main effect hypotheses in this study. In all regression analyses throughout the study, I controlled for the effects of age, gender, and tenure. Past research shows that these descriptive variables have an effect on CWBs (Krischer et al., 2010; Sprung & Jex, 2012). Hypothesis 1 proposed that perceptions of organizational constraints would relate negatively to perceptions of organizational justice. To test this, I regressed organizational justice onto organizational constraints. A significant negative relationship existed between these two variables (β = -.50, $p < .05$), supporting Hypothesis 1. Hypotheses 3a and 3b proposed that perceptions of organizational justice would relate negatively to impulsive and premeditated forms of CWBs. To test these hypotheses, I regressed impulsive CWBs onto organizational justice, and in a separate model regressed premeditated CWBs onto organizational justice. Significant negative relationships existed between organizational justice perceptions and impulsive CWBs (β = -.27, $p < .05$) and premeditated CWBs (β = -.17, $p < .05$), providing supporting evidence for Hypotheses 3a and 3b. Table 5 displays the results for Hypotheses 1 and 3 in more detail.

Moderation Hypothesis

To test the moderation hypotheses of this study, I used the PROCESS macro add-on for SPSS (Hayes, 2013). Specifically, I used Model 1 of the PROCESS macro, which follows the same three-step regression procedure described by Baron and Kenney (1986) to test for moderation effects. To aid in interpretability, the macro mean-centers the variables used to create the interaction term.

Hypothesis 2 proposed that individual levels of hostile attribution bias would moderate the negative relationship between organizational constraints and organizational justice perceptions. To test this, the PROCESS macro ran a two-step regression analysis. In the first step, organizational justice was regressed onto organizational constraints and hostile attribution bias. In the second step, the interaction term between organizational constraints and hostile attribution bias was added to the model. The results from step two of the regression analysis showed that the interaction term was not a significant predictor ($\beta = -.002$, $p = .99$) of justice perceptions. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Mediation Hypotheses

To test the mediation hypotheses, I used Model 4 of the PROCESS macro for SPSS. This model follows the four-step regression procedure outlined by Baron and Kenney (1986) to determine whether mediation has occurred. In Step 1, the outcome variable (CWB) is regressed on the predictor variable (organizational justice). In Step 2, the mediator variable (negative affect or cognitive reactions) is regressed on the predictor variable (organizational justice). In Step 3, the outcome variable (CWB) is regressed on the mediator variable (negative affect or cognitive reactions) while controlling for the predictor variable

(organizational justice). Finally, in Step 4, the reduction in the magnitude of the predictor coefficient after controlling for the mediator is evaluated. Partial mediation occurs when the predictor term is reduced in magnitude, but still significant, after controlling for the mediator, whereas full mediation occurs when the predictor term becomes non-significant after controlling for the mediator.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that negative affect would mediate the relationship between organizational justice perceptions and impulsive CWBs. Fulfilling Step 1 of the mediation analysis, a significant relationship existed between justice perceptions and impulsive CWBs (β = -.27, p < .05). Fulfilling Step 2, a significant relationship existed between justice perceptions and negative affect (β = -.21, p < .05). Fulfilling Step 3, a significant relationship existed between negative affect and impulsive CWBs (β = .11, p < .05) when controlling for justice perceptions. Finally, evaluation of Step 4 showed that the effect of justice perceptions on impulsive CWBs was reduced, although not eliminated, when negative affect was added to the model; therefore, there was evidence for partial mediation. Table 6 displays these results in more detail. The 95% bootstrapped confidence interval showed that the effect of justice perceptions on impulsive CWBs via negative affect was significantly different from zero (*indirect effect* = -.02, 95% CI = -.04, -.01), and a Sobel test showed evidence of partial mediation (z = -1.97, p < .05). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 5 proposed that cognitive reactions to injustice would mediate the relationship between organizational justice perceptions and premeditated CWBs. Fulfilling Step 1 of the mediation analysis, a significant relationship existed between justice perceptions and premeditated CWBs (β = -.17, p < .05). Fulfilling Step 2, a significant

relationship existed between justice perceptions and cognitive reactions (β = -.17, $p < .05$).

Fulfilling Step 3, a significant relationship existed between cognitive reactions and

premeditated CWBs (β = .23, $p < .05$) when controlling for justice perceptions. Finally,

evaluation of Step 4 showed that the effect of justice perceptions on premeditated CWBs was

reduced, although not eliminated, when cognitive reactions was added to the model;

therefore, there was evidence for partial mediation. Table 6 displays these results in more

detail. The 95% bootstrapped confidence interval showed that the effect of justice

perceptions on impulsive CWBs via cognitive reactions was significantly different from zero

(β = -.01, 95% CI = -.03, -.01), and a Sobel test showed evidence of partial mediation (z = -

2.76, $p < .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was partially supported.

Moderated Mediation Hypotheses

To test the hypotheses that predicted a moderated mediation effect, I used Model 14

of the PROCESS macro for SPSS. This model tests for moderating effects in the path from

the mediator variable to the outcome variable. To test for moderated mediation, PROCESS

uses a path analytic framework to calculate the indirect effect through a mediator at one

standard deviation below the mean, at the mean level, and at one standard deviation above

the mean level of a moderator. PROCESS also produces 95% bias-corrected bootstrapped

confidence intervals to evaluate the significance of the indirect effect at each level of the

moderator. Additionally, PROCESS computes an index of moderated mediation to evaluate

the differences among these indirect effects. If the confidence interval for the index of

moderated mediation does not contain zero, the magnitude of the indirect effect differs

depending on the moderator, indicating the presence of moderated mediation.

Hypothesis 6a predicted that the indirect relationship between justice perceptions and impulsive CWBs though negative affect would be stronger for individuals with lower levels of self-monitoring. Table 7 displays the results of the test of this hypothesis. The bootstrapped confidence intervals indicated that negative affect did not mediate the relationship between justice perceptions and impulsive CWBs at low levels of self-monitoring, but did mediate the relationship between justice perceptions and impulsive CWBs at mean and high levels of self-monitoring. This ran contrary to Hypothesis 6a, which predicted a stronger indirect effect at lower levels of self-monitoring. However, the estimate of the *index of moderated mediation* was not significant (*index of moderated mediation* = -.003, 95% CI = [-.01, .0002]), indicating that these indirect effects were not significantly different from each other; therefore Hypothesis 6a was not supported.

Hypothesis 6b predicted that the indirect relationship between justice perceptions and premeditated CWBs through cognitive reactions would be stronger for individuals with higher levels of self-monitoring. Table 7 displays the results of the test of this hypothesis. The results of the analysis showed that at one standard deviation below the mean for self-monitoring, cognitive reactions did not mediate the relationship between justice perceptions and premeditated CWBs (i.e., the confidence interval for the indirect effect contained zero). However, at the mean level of self-monitoring and at one standard deviation above the mean, cognitive reactions did mediate the relationship between justice perceptions and premeditated CWBs. The change in the magnitude of the indirect effect from the mean level to one standard deviation above the mean level of self-monitoring was in the predicted direction. Additionally, the confidence interval around the estimate of the *index of moderated*

mediation did not contain zero (*index of moderated mediation* = -.01, 95% CI = [-.02, -.004]), showing that the indirect effects were significantly different across levels of the moderator. Therefore, Hypothesis 6b was supported.

Hypothesis 7a predicted that the indirect relationship between justice perceptions and impulsive CWBs through negative affect would be stronger for individuals with lower levels of CSE. Table 7 displays the results of the test of this hypothesis. The confidence interval for the indirect effect of justice perceptions on impulsive CWBs contained zero at each level of CSE. Additionally, the confidence interval around the estimate of the *index of moderated mediation* also contained zero (*index of moderated mediation* = -.00, 95% CI = [-.004, .005]). Therefore, Hypothesis 7a was not supported.

Hypothesis 7b predicted that the indirect relationship between justice perceptions and premeditated CWBs through cognitive reactions would be stronger for individuals with higher levels of CSE. Table 7 displays the results of the test of this hypothesis. The results of the analysis showed that the indirect effect of justice perceptions on premeditated CWBs via cognitive reactions was significant at each level of CSE. However, the indirect effect was greater in magnitude at lower levels of CSE than at higher levels of CSE. Also, the estimate of the *index of moderated mediation* indicated that the indirect effect was significantly different across levels of CSE (*index of moderated mediation* = -.005, 95% CI = [-.002, -.010]). Because the differences in indirect effects at varying levels of CSE were in the opposite direction of that predicted, Hypothesis 7b was not supported.

Summary

Overall, I found mixed support for the proposed hypotheses. As predicted, organizational constraints had a strong negative relationship with organizational justice perceptions; however, hostile attribution bias had no moderating effect on this relationship. As predicted, organizational justice perceptions had negative relationships with impulsive and premeditated CWBs, and these relationships differed from each other, showing support for two distinct CWB variables. Negative affect partially mediated the relationship between organizational justice and impulsive CWBs. Similarly, cognitive reactions partially mediated the relationship between organizational justice and premeditated CWBs. Although I found evidence supporting the mediation hypotheses, the effects were weaker than anticipated. Finally, for the moderated mediation hypotheses, self-monitoring and CSE did not moderate the indirect effects of organizational justice on impulsive CWBs, but did moderate the indirect effects of organizational justice on premeditated CWBs. Self-monitoring moderated this indirect relationship in the predicted direction. Specifically, the indirect effect of justice on premeditated CWBs grew stronger at higher levels of self-monitoring. In contrast, CSE moderated the relationship in the opposite of the predicted direction. Specifically, at higher levels of CSE, the indirect effect of justice on premeditated CWBs became weaker.

<div align="center">

Discussion

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The financial and emotional consequences of CWBs make these destructive behaviors a serious problem for both organizations and employees. In order to understand and try to prevent these behaviors, researchers and practitioners alike have developed a wide-ranging literature on the subject; yet, some areas of the literature still need further examination. For

example, although the CWB literature has developed in a fragmented way (Bowling &

Gruys, 2010), researchers have not incorporated concepts from other areas of psychology that

could help reorganize the literature (MacLane & Walmsley, 2010). Relatedly, the CWB

literature has developed largely without taking into account the driving forces behind

different CWBs. Finally, few studies have examined how personality affects the mental

processes that lead to CWBs (Spector, 2011). This study made several unique contributions

to the CWB literature by beginning to address each of these areas.

The first contribution of this study was the introduction of the impulsive and

premeditated CWBs distinction. Although not definitive, this study provides initial evidence

that this distinction might be useful going forward. This approach to categorizing CWBs as

impulsive or premeditated in nature represents a potentially new direction for organizing the

CWB literature. Rather than classifying CWBs by type (i.e., theft, sabotage, withdrawal

behaviors etc.) or target, this study introduced a distinction between CWBs that emphasizes

the different possible goals and purposes of CWBs. Employees choose to engage in

behaviors solely to cause harm to another employee or the organization, or they engage in

behaviors that reach a more distal goal. An employee who feels disrespected can express his

or her frustration immediately by damaging company property or yelling at a coworker. On

the other hand, an employee who feels disrespected may react in a more calculated manner

by working slowly or sabotaging company processes, thereby allowing himself or herself to

work less while also harming the organization.

The impulsive versus premeditated distinction seems to offer some explanation to one

of the most popular categorizations of CWBs in the literature: interpersonally directed versus

organizationally directed behaviors (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). The majority of impulsive

CWB items for this study describe behaviors that primarily affect other people, whereas the

majority of premeditated CWB items describe behaviors that mostly affect the organization.

Although the differences in items parallel the distinction found by Bennett and Robinson

(2000), the impulsive versus premeditated distinction differs in that it offers a possible

account for why certain behaviors target other individuals or the organization. The items

categorized by SMEs for this study support this linkage, as do the analyses that involved

these items. By taking into account the different possible goals when performing CWBs as

well as the different driving forces of emotion and cognition, the impulsive versus

premeditated distinction helps to clarify the motivations behind different CWBs. The

interpersonally directed versus organizationally directed categorization does not address this

motivational component. The motivation behind CWBs is an area of the literature that

researchers have ignored (Diefendorff & Mehta, 2007), but the impulsive versus

premeditated distinction gives researchers a route for exploring an area that past

categorizations have not.

  A possible explanation for why interpersonal CWBs tend to be impulsive and

organizational CWBs tend to be premeditated may be due to the proximity of the offender

and the differences in affective and cognitive processing. In the case of interpersonal conflict,

the offender is in close physical and psychological proximity to the victim, making it obvious

to the victim who should be the target of their retaliation. Conversely, in cases of

organizational conflict, there is usually no one obvious person to whom the victim can point

to as the offender. This makes it difficult for the victim to know immediately who to react

against when performing CWBs aimed at the organization. Literature indicates that affective processes possess many features of automatic mental processes (De Houwer & Hermans, 2010) and affective reactions occur prior to and without interference from cognitive processes (Zajonc, 1980). Therefore, in the case of impulsive CWBs, if the offender is apparent and easily accessible (i.e. another individual) to the victim of interpersonal conflict, the victim is more able to act quickly based on his or her emotions before cognitive processes mitigate the strong emotional response. In the case of organizational conflict, when the offender is less apparent (i.e. an organization), the heighted emotional state has a chance to subside before the victim reacts. This situation perhaps allows cognitive processes to take place and therefore the victim has an opportunity to plan his or her retaliation. These explanations are speculative in nature and I encourage future researchers to seek empirical evidence to confirm or refute these claims.

Another contribution made by this study was the demonstration of the different driving forces behind impulsive and premeditated CWBs. Before this study, the different possible motivations behind CWBs had not received much attention in empirical research (Diefendorff & Mehta, 2007). The present study explicitly examined the different motives behind CWBs and showed that these destructive behaviors can differ based on those driving forces. Although it is impossible to separate cognition and emotion from one another completely, the results of this study show that certain CWBs may have either more emotionally driven or cognitively driven origins. Negative affect drove employee performance of impulsive CWBs, whereas cognitive reactions drove employee performance

of premeditated CWBs however, employee justice perceptions still played a significant role in determining CWBs

The relatively small effects of both mediators were somewhat surprising, especially in the case of negative emotion. Fox and colleagues (2001) also employed the JAWS measure of negative affect and measured CWBs with the CWB-C; however, in contrast to the present findings, they found that negative emotion fully mediated the effects of organizational justice on CWBs. The discrepant findings are likely the result of subtle differences between the two studies. In the Fox et al. (2001) study the researchers used the full CWB-C measure as their outcome variable whereas the present study only used 26 CWB-C items that SMEs were able to clearly classify as either impulsive or premeditated. Second, this study asked participants to rate their negative affect levels in response to organizational injustice. The Fox et al. (2001) study measured negative affect on the job in general, not specifying a source of the emotions.

This study also provided evidence that unique personality variables affect the mental processes that lead to CWBs. For example, high self-monitors performed more premeditated CWBs because of their cognitive reactions to injustice compared to low self-monitors. Individuals more concerned with adjusting their behavior to maintain a favorable public image responded to organizational injustice with higher levels of planned and thoughtful CWBs. These findings align with those of Oh et al. (2014), where the researchers found that self-monitoring had a chameleonic effect on individuals performing CWBs. In that case, high self-monitors performed fewer CWBs in social situations where their public image would suffer, but performed more CWBs in private situations. An individual who cares about the

public image he or she displays in social situations will not refrain from performing CWBs completely; instead, that individual will perform the appropriate type of CWB or wait until the situation is right to avoid damaging his or her public image.

This study also examined an additional personality variable not extensively studied in previous CWB research: CSE. Due to their higher levels of self-efficacy, self-esteem, locus of control, and emotional stability, individuals with higher CSE did not perform CWBs in response to low organizational justice levels. I predicted that premeditated CWBs would provide individuals with higher CSEs an outlet for retribution against an unjust organization. Specifically, I proposed that higher CSE would give individuals more confidence in their ability to plan and carry out premeditated CWBs, and their greater emotional stability would drive them to perform premeditated CWBs rather than impulsive CWBs. However, the results showed that higher CSE helped individuals avoid performing CWBs in response to their cognitive reactions to injustice. Participants with higher CSEs still experienced negative cognitive reactions to injustice; however, they were less likely to perform CWBs due to those cognitive reactions. These findings echo the findings of past research that found that individuals with high levels of locus of control performed fewer CWBs in response to negative work situations (Fox & Spector, 1999; Peng, 2012; Sprung & Jex, 2012; Storms & Spector, 1987; Wei & Si, 2013). Adding the three other factors (self-esteem, self-efficacy, and emotional stability) to locus of control to create the higher order CSE construct did not change this pattern of results. Krischer et al. (2010) found that employees use withdrawal behaviors and production deviance as coping mechanisms for dealing with emotional exhaustion from organizational stressors. Perhaps higher CSE can prevent employees from

ever reaching the point of using CWBs as coping mechanisms. Future research should examine this relationship further to understand under what circumstances CSE is most and least effective at guarding employees from engaging in CWBs in response to negative work situations.

Unlike self-monitoring and CSE, employees with differing levels of hostile attribution bias did not have different mental processes leading to CWBs. Employees in this study interpreted organizational constraints as indications of lower levels of fairness within the organization. I predicted that those who perceived their organizations to be hostile places would then interpret those organizational constraints even more severely. Past research shows that employees with higher rather than lower levels of hostile attribution bias do interpret negative situations more severely and, in turn, are more likely to perform CWBs (Chiu & Peng, 2008; Goh, 2007). However, in this study, employees holding hostile attribution biases did not interpret organizational constraints differently. This was a surprising finding given that hostile attribution bias is a more appropriate moderator of the appraisal processes leading to CWBs, rather than of the actual performance of CWBs (Spector, 2011). The unexpected results of this study may be due to the scale used to measure hostile attribution bias. I used an explicit measure of hostile attribution bias with a high level of face validity that may have been susceptible to social desirability bias. Perhaps using a more implicit measure of hostile attribution bias such as the CRT-A (James et al., 2005), in which the measured variable is not so apparent, would allow respondents to feel more comfortable endorsing hostile items. This might have produced results more consistent with past research.

Limitations and Future Directions

As with any study, this one is not without its limitations. For example, although the cognitive reactions scale created for this study functioned as expected, more research needs to establish it as a valid measure. During a thorough literature search, I was unable to find a scale that adequately measured the cognitive reactions to injustice that drive premeditated CWBs. Therefore, I created a new measure that performed well in this study. I would advise, however, that researchers collect more validity evidence for the scale before using it extensively in the future.

Similar to the cognitive reactions scale, the CWB literature lacks a measure of impulsive or premeditated behaviors. This is not surprising given that this study is the first to test this distinction empirically. Therefore, in order to measure these different behaviors I repurposed a reliable and valid measure of CWBs. I used the CWB-C as a starting point for the measure because it addresses a variety of CWBs that differ in severity, target, and purpose. Of the 45 total items on the CWB-C, SMEs could only clearly classify 26, meaning that approximately 57% of the items were not classified. A truly useful new distinction for classifying CWBs would have classified all of the behaviors presented on the CWB-C. Refinement of the definitions of the impulsive and premeditated categories is necessary in future work. Although SMEs were able to classify different items from the CWB-C as either impulsive or premeditated, researchers need to develop a more specific measure of these different behaviors. If the impulsive vs. premeditated CWBs distinction is to make a significant contribution to the CWB literature, a reliable and valid measure of these different types of behaviors is necessary.

This study could also improve in regards to its design. Due to the self-report method used for the survey of this study, I cannot eliminate common method variance as a potential contributor to the present findings. Ratings from multiple sources within the organization such as supervisors or coworkers would help strengthen the study design. Additionally, because of the cross-sectional design of the study I cannot infer causality for any of the relationships found. Examining the study variables over multiple time points would help in this regard, especially in finding differences between impulsive and premeditated CWBs. By definition, impulsive CWBs are more reactionary in nature and happen more immediately after provocation, while premeditated CWBs require self-control and planning before execution. A multiple time point study could help researchers establish what types of behaviors occur more immediately after provocation and which behaviors occur after time passes.

Finally, I acknowledge the limitations of this study's findings, specifically in regards to their strength. The presence of only partial mediation effects for affective and cognitive reactions as well as the high correlation between the impulsive and premeditated CWB factors show that based on this study alone, this distinction is not perfectly clean. However, the current results trend in the predicted direction and show that the impulsive versus premeditated CWB distinction or one similar to it is still worth exploring in subsequent research.

Conclusions

The present study contributed to the CWB literature in several distinct ways. Most importantly, this study explored the concepts of impulsive and premeditated CWBs and

found some tentative evidence supporting this distinction among the negative organizational behaviors. Additionally, this study provided evidence that different mechanisms (emotion or cognition) seem to drive employee performance of impulsive and premeditated CWBs. This study also showed that individual differences shape the mediating processes connecting injustice to CWBs; specifically, high self-monitors are more likely than low self-monitors to perform premeditated CWBs in response to injustice, and employees with higher CSE are better able to avoid performing CWBs in response to organizational injustice than those with lower CSE. Finally, the results showed that employee interpretations of organizational constraints play a significant role in determining the fairness levels employees perceive in their organization. I encourage future researchers to replicate the findings of this study and to continue to examine the impulsive and premeditated nature of different CWBs.

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Table 1

Descriptive Information for the Study Sample

Males	54% (209)
Females	46% (181)
White	76% (297)
Hispanic or Latino	5% (21)
Black or African American	6% (25)
Native American or American Indian	1% (3)
Asian/Pacific Islander	7% (28)
Other Ethnicity	5% (16)
Mean Age	33.75 ($SD = 10.96$)
Mean Hours worked per week	39.17 ($SD = 10.03$)
Mean months worked at current job	51.67 ($SD = 64.46$)
Industry	
Accommodation and Food Services	4% (16)
Administrative and Support Services	6% (23)
Arts, Entertainment, Recreation	9% (36)
Construction	2% (9)
Educational Services	10% (39)
Finance and Insurance	7% (27)
Government	4% (14)
Health Care and Social Assistance	8% (32)
Information	6% (25)
Management	2% (8)
Manufacturing	6% (22)
Professional, Scientific, and Tech Services	9% (33)
Real Estate and Rental and Leasing	2% (9)
Retail Trade	14% (54)
Transportation and Warehousing	2% (8)
Unclassified	9% (35)

Table 2

Cognitive Reactions to Injustice Scale Items

If my organization or one of my coworkers treated me unfairly or disrespectfully, I would likely...
think of ways to even the score between me and the offending party.
think of how I would reestablish my control of the situation.
plan on giving less than 100% on the job to even the score.
think that I deserved some kind of retribution from the offending party.
be inclined to treat the offending party the same way in return.
control my immediate reactions until the time was right to even the score.
start thinking of ways to get back at the offending party.
start to think of ways the offending party could make it up to me.

Table 3

Impulsive and Premeditated CWB Scale Items

Impulsive CWB Items
Complained about insignificant things at work.
Told people outside the job what a lousy place I work for.
Been nasty or rude to a client or customer.
Insulted someone about their job performance.
Made fun of someone's personal life.
Ignored someone at work.
Started an argument with someone at work.
Verbally abused someone at work.
Made an obscene gesture (the finger) to someone at work.
Threatened someone at work with violence.
Threatened someone at work, but not physically.
Said something obscene to someone at work to make them feel bad.
Hit or pushed someone at work.
Insulted or made fun of someone at work.

Premeditated CWB Items
Purposely did my work incorrectly.
Stayed home from work and said I was sick when I wasn't.
Stolen something belonging to my employer.
Purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done.
Purposely came late to an appointment or meeting.
Failed to report a problem so it would get worse.
Purposely failed to follow instructions.
Put in to be paid for more hours than I worked.
Took money from my employer without permission.
Withheld needed information from someone at work.
Did something to make someone at work look bad.
Stole something belonging to someone at work.

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability Estimates, and Correlations of the Study Sample

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Org. Constraints	2.11	0.81	.90								
2. Org. Justice	4.71	1.26	-.48*	.93							
3. Hostile Attribution Bias	2.33	0.91	.21*	-.17*	.91						
4. Negative Affect	4.39	1.35	.17*	-.20*	.14*	.70					
5. Cognitive Reactions	3.48	1.24	.19*	-.16*	.24*	.40*	.87				
6. Self-Monitoring	3.47	1.17	.24*	-.11*	.19*	.21*	.31*	.76			
7. Core Self-Evaluation	4.67	1.34	-.33*	.35*	-.22*	-.38*	-.27*	-.45*	.90		
8. Impulsive CWBs	1.40	0.48	.46*	-.26*	.29*	.16*	.32*	.27*	-.29*	.90	
9. Premeditated CWBs	1.29	0.44	.41*	-.16*	.34*	.10	.30*	.31*	-.29*	.83*	.90

Note. Coefficient alpha reliability estimates are on the diagonal.
*p < .05.

Table 5

Main Effect Hypotheses Test Results (Hypotheses 1, 3a, & 3b)

	Outcome Variable		
Predictor Variable	Org. Justice	Impulsive CWBs	Premeditated CWBs
Age	-.07	-.20*	-.20*
Gender	-.06	-.16*	-.09
Tenure	-.03	.03	.03
Org. Constraints	-.50*	-	-
Org. Justice	-	-.27*	-.17*
R^2	.24	.13	.09

Note. All values reported are standardized regression coefficients.
Gender. 1 = male, 2 = female.
*$p < .05$.

Table 6

Mediation Hypotheses Test Results (Hypotheses 4 and 5)

Predictor Variable	Outcome Variable			
	Impulsive CWBs		Premeditated CWBs	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Age	-.20*	-.18*	-.20*	-.15*
Gender	-.16*	-.17*	-.09	-.08
Tenure	.03	.02	.03	-.03
Org. Justice	-.27*	-.25*	-.17*	-.13*
Negative Affect		.11*		
Cog. Reactions				.23*
R^2	.13	.14	.09	.13

Note. All values reported are standardized regression coefficients.
*$p < .05$.

Table 7

Conditional Indirect Effects of Organizational Justice on Impulsive and Premeditated CWBs (Hypotheses 6 and 7)

	Moderator		Impulsive CWBs		Premeditated CWBs	
Mediator	Self-Monitoring	CSE	Estimate (*SE*)	95% BC CI	Estimate (*SE*)	95% BC CI
Negative Affect	-1 *SD*		-.002(.003)	-.009, .003		
	Mean		-.006*(.004)	-.016, -.0004		
	+1 *SD*		-.010*(.006)	-.026, -.001		
Cog. Reactions	-1 *SD*				.0001(.002)	-.004, .006
	Mean				-.011*(.004)	-.023, -.004
	+1 *SD*				-.022*(.009)	-.046, -.008
Negative Affect		-1 *SD*	-.005(.006)	-.020, .006		
		Mean	-.004(.004)	-.014, .002		
		+1 *SD*	-.004(.003)	-.010, .001		
Cog. Reactions		-1 *SD*			-.018*(.007)	-.038, -.008
		Mean			-.012*(.005)	-.024, -.005
		+1 *SD*			-.005*(.003)	-.013, -.001

Note. Results based on 5,000 bootstrap samples.
BC CI = bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals.
CSE = Core Self-Evaluation.
*p < .05.

Appendix

Dissertation Study Proposal

Throughout the years researchers have used many labels to describe manifestations of personal aggression while at work (Barclay & Aquino, 2011). Popular broad labels include workplace aggression (Hershcovis et al., 2007), workplace deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), and counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs; Spector & Fox, 2002). Labels for more detailed and specific aggressive behaviors are even more varied, including: bullying (Hoel, Rayner, & Cooper, 1999), retaliatory behavior (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), revenge (Bies & Tripp, 2005), sabotage (Giacalone, Riordan, & Rosenfeld, 1997), theft (Kulas, McInnerney, DeMuth, & Jadwinski, 2007) and cyber loafing (Blanchard & Henle, 2008). While each of these conceptualizations and specific behaviors have their own subtle variations in their definitions, generally, CWBs include any behaviors that intentionally harm other employees in an organization or the organization itself (Bowling & Gruys, 2010). Researchers and practitioners alike agree that CWBs are a pervasive problem within organizations (Diefendorff & Mehta, 2007). In fact, CWBs are blamed for an estimated 20% of failed businesses (Coffin, 2003) and these behaviors cost corporations in the United States nearly $24 billion dollars annually (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006). Furthermore, CWBs result in negative outcomes such as negative job attitudes and lowered psychological and physical well-being for the victims of more interpersonal CWBs (Barclay & Acquino, 2001).

Much of the research regarding CWBs has revolved around two specific goals. First, identifying environmental factors and individual personality factors that predict CWBs (Hershcovis et al., 2007; Spector, 2011) as well how environmental and personality factors

interact to predict CWBs. The second goal revolves around differentiating between different types of CWBs and their antecedents and outcomes (Hershcovis, 2011). Although these types of studies have furthered our knowledge of these behaviors, there is ample room for further exploration. For example, most of the research has established direct relationships between CWBs and personality predictors but much less has examined how personality affects the processes that lead to CWBs (Spector, 2011). In addition, despite the conceptual linkages between the CWB literature and other domains such as developmental and social psychology, CWB research has yet to fully integrate some the concepts from other areas (MacLane & Walmsley, 2010). Finally, the CWB literature has developed largely without taking into account an employee's motivation behind CWBs (Diefendorff & Mehta, 2007).

The purpose of this study is to begin to address each of these areas. First, I will examine how hostile attribution bias affects how employees interpret environmental factors in their organizations. Hostile attribution bias is an individual's tendency to attribute negative events to their environment or other individuals. I predict hostile attribution bias will affect employee perceptions of organizational fairness. Second, I will integrate the concepts of impulsive and premeditated aggression to examine how different motivations for aggressive behaviors predict different CWBs. Impulsive aggression includes behaviors that are more reactionary and emotional in nature while premeditated aggressive behaviors are more calculated and less emotional in nature. I predict that impulsive and premeditated forms of aggression will predict different types of CWBs. Finally, I will examine how the personality variables of self-monitoring and core self-evaluation moderate the relationships between aggression and CWBs. Figure 1 displays the predicted relationships in more detail.

Models Predicting CWBs

To date, there have been two popular theories or models used to explain and predict CWBs (Matta, Erol-Kormaz, Johnson, & Bicaksiz, 2014). The first is affective events theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). According to AET, work environments have stable contextual characteristics such as organizational climate and culture that make certain work events more or less likely. In this context, work events are occurrences in the work environment which change the emotions an employee is experiencing and the nature of the contextual characteristics determine the nature of the specific work events (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). For example, an organization with a more supportive culture may lead to more instances of supervisor support and a positive emotional change while an organization with a more competitive culture may lead to more instances of coworker incivility and a negative emotional change. The subsequent emotional changes within employees then influence employee attitudes and behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

The second and arguably more popular model used to understand CWBs is the emotion-centered model of voluntary work behavior (Spector & Fox, 2002). This model is conceptually similar to AET and states that employees perceive and appraise the environmental features of their workplace. The employee appraisals then lead to either negative or positive emotions that produce either CWBs or organizational citizenship behaviors which then cycle back to influence the workplace environment. Additionally, employee personality variables and control perceptions influence the processes throughout the model.

Numerous studies have found evidence supporting the emotion-centered model with negative emotions (e.g. frustration) as proximal predictors of CWBs. For example, Storms and Spector (1987) initially found a positive relationship between employee perceptions of organizational constraints and employee frustration, which positively related to interpersonal aggression, sabotage, and withdrawal behaviors. Fox and Spector (1999) tested their frustration-aggression framework and found that employee frustration levels mediated the relationship between employee perceptions of situational constraints and CWBs. Finally, Fox, Spector, and Miles (2001) tested CWBs as a behavioral strain response to job stressors. In their study the researchers conceptualized organizational constraints, organizational justice, and interpersonal conflict as job stressors and negative emotions mediated the relationship between all three job stressors and CWBs aimed at the organization or other individuals.

As evidenced by the cited studies, two of the most often tested contextual variables that cause emotional reactions in employees are organizational constraints and organizational justice. Organizational constraints are situations in the workplace that prevent employees from performing their jobs (Spector & Jex, 1998). Peters and O'Connor (1980) identified eleven areas of constraints that could interfere with job performance such as faulty equipment, lack of job relevant information, lack of or inadequate training, distractions by others in the work environment, and limiting organizational rules and procedures. Numerous studies have linked organizational constraints to CWBs either directly or indirectly (Hershcovis, Turner, & Barling, 2007; O'Brien, 2009; Penny & Spector, 2005; Sprung & Jex, 2012).

Organizational justice levels are employee perceptions of the overall level of fairness of their organization, typically divided into three different categories. Distributive justice refers to perceived fairness of outcomes received by employees (Adams, 1965). Procedural justice refers to the fairness of the procedures and rules in place for arriving at outcome decisions (Thibuat & Walker, 1975). Finally, interactional justice refers to the extent to which the organization or its representatives treat employees with respect and dignity (Bies & Moag, 1986). Lower levels of organizational justice lead to higher incidences of CWBs (Chang & Smithikrai, 2010). Additionally, the different forms of justice interact with one another to predict CWBs such that higher levels of interactional justice can mitigate the negative effects of low distributive and procedural justice (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1998).

Although organizational constraints and organizational justice have been included simultaneously as predictors of CWBs in a number of studies (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Hershcovis, Turner, Barling, 2007; Sprung & Jex, 2012) few studies have examined how these variables influence each other. Additionally, studies using the AET and the emotion centered model normally do not examine what events cause employee perceptions of injustice (Matta et al., 2014) or how employees appraise and attribute those events. How employees appraise and attribute situations play a vital role in determining whether they will perform CWBs (Spector, 2011; Spector & Fox, 2002).

Hostile Attribution Bias' Role in Organizational Justice

People constantly monitor and appraise the events around themselves (Lazarus, 1991) and attributions are the explanations people assign to those events (Chiu & Peng, 2008).

Individual differences in personality lead individuals to use different attributional processes when appraising the events in their environment. One attributional bias is called hostile attribution bias. Hostile attribution bias is an individual's tendency to attribute negative events in their environment to other individuals or entities and to believe that those negative events were stable, intentional, and controllable by those entities (Douglas & Martinko, 2001). Researchers have studied how hostile attribution bias affects aggressive behavior in children (Crick & Dodge, 1996) but only a limited number of studies have integrated this construct into the CWB literature (Spector, 2011).

Douglas and Martinko (2001) found that hostile attribution bias predicted incidences of workplace aggression beyond negative affectivity and self-control. Goh (2006) found a positive relationship between hostile attribution bias and job stressors and that hostile attribution bias moderated the relationship between job stressors and CWB. Specifically, individuals with higher levels of hostile attribution bias engaged in more CWBs when they perceived more job stressors. Finally, Chiu and Peng (2008) found that hostile attribution bias moderated the relationship between workplace deviance (interpersonal and organizational) and perceptions of psychological contract breach such that for individuals with higher levels of hostile attribution bias the relationship between contract breach and deviance was more positive.

Across each of these studies, researchers linked hostile attribution bias to the outcome CWB variable. However, by definition hostile attribution bias is an individual difference in how people appraise and attribute events around them. Therefore it may be a more useful construct for explaining the earlier mental processes that lead to CWBs rather than as a direct

predictor of CWBs. Spector (2011) proposed a model of CWB which integrated personality variables into the different mental processes involved in performing CWBs. In this model, hostile attribution bias affected how individuals appraised their work environments while other variables such as locus of control influenced the actual performance of CWBs. In this study, I test this proposition by examining how employee perceptions of organizational constraints influence employee perceptions of organizational justice. Specifically, I predict that organizational constraints will predict perceptions of organizational justice. Furthermore, individuals with higher levels of hostile attribution bias will interpret organizational constraints as within the control of the organization and therefore report even lower levels of organizational justice.

> *Hypothesis 1*: Employee perceptions of organizational constraints will be negatively
>
> related to perceptions of organizational justice.
>
> *Hypothesis 2*: Hostile attribution bias will moderate the relationship between
>
> organizational constraints and organizational justice such that the negative
>
> relationship between constraints and justice will be stronger for individuals with
>
> higher levels of hostile attribution bias.

Impulsive and Premeditated Aggression

Over the last two decades, work on CWBs has grown rapidly with much of this work aimed at identifying different constructs or types of CWBs (Hershcovis, 2011). Some of the first work in this area started with Buss (1961) who proposed a framework of different types of aggression based on whether the behaviors were verbal or physical, passive or active, and direct or indirect. Later, Baron and Neuman (1996) found that employees reported

experiencing and witnessing more behaviors that were verbal, passive, and indirect in nature in the workplace rather than behaviors that were physical, active, or direct in nature. More recently, many researchers have adopted a different distinction that involves categorizing behaviors as either targeted at organizations or as targeted at other individuals, each of which has different antecedents (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Beyond these broad conceptualizations, more researchers have investigated specific types of behaviors as well. Using self-report data and confirmatory factor analysis, Gruys and Sackett (2003) found evidence for eleven distinct types of CWBs: theft, destruction of property, misuse of information, misuse of time and resources, unsafe behavior, poor attendance, poor quality work, alcohol use, drug use, inappropriate verbal actions, and inappropriate physical actions. Similarly, Spector and colleagues (2006) found evidence for five distinct but related categories of CWBs as well: abuse toward others, production deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal.

Large amounts of research and in fact entire literatures have grown as a result of investigations of these more granular and specific types of behaviors. This research has provided vital information pertaining to individual differences that predict specific CWBs however it has resulted in a CWB literature that is somewhat fractured with isolated work being done on highly overlapping constructs rather than as a part of a broader CWB construct and literature (Bowling & Gruys, 2010). Some researchers have questioned whether this fractured development of the literature has reached the height of its utility, and whether it may actually be limiting the growth of the field in the future. Calls for a restructuring and reconciling of the CWB literature have begun to grow louder (Hershcovis, 2011).

An alternative way to study CWBs may be to examine the different motivations behind behaviors in addition to the targets or types of behaviors. Diefendorff and Mehta (2007) found evidence linking several different motivational constructs to both interpersonal and organizational deviance. Specifically, they found that employee personal mastery motivation related negatively to interpersonal and organizational deviance, employee avoidance motivation related positively to organizational deviance, and employee behavioral activation system sensitivity related positively to interpersonal and organizational deviance. Evidence has also shown that employees perform CWBs to cope with emotional exhaustion that results from low organizational justice (Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010). Specifically, the relationship between organizational justice and emotional exhaustion was mitigated for employees who reported higher levels of withdrawal and production deviance. Aside from these two studies, work linking employee motivation and CWBs has been lacking but the initial evidence shows that motivation does affect what types of CWBs employees perform and the purpose behind those behaviors.

One motivational distinction that could be useful in predicting CWBs comes from the social psychology and aggression literatures. These fields outline two different types of aggressive behaviors performed with different ultimate goals in mind: impulsive aggression and premeditated aggression (Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Kingsbury, Lambert, & Hendrickse, 1997; Ramirez & Andreu, 2003). Impulsive aggression is aggressive behavior whose ultimate goal is to cause harm to another individual or entity and characterized as lacking behavioral control, being impulsive in nature, emotionally charged, and performed as a reaction to a perceived provocation (Ramirez & Andreu, 2006). Conversely, premeditated

aggression is behavior that is more thought out and performed as a problem solving tool or as a means to complete a variety of objectives beyond merely causing harm to another individual or entity (Ramirez & Andreu, 2006). This type of behavior is goal-oriented and performed with a purpose. Therefore, it does not require perceived provocation or anger (Berkowitz, 1993).

Research findings show that impulsive and premeditated aggression are empirically distinct constructs. Across several different studies using three different measures, principal component analyses and confirmatory factor analyses consistently show two distinct factors interpreted in each case as representing impulsive and premeditated forms aggression (Driscoll, Campbell, & Muncer, 2005; Ramirez & Andreu, 2006; Stanford et al., 2003). Impulsive and premeditated forms of aggression also show differential relationships with several variables such as extraversion, neuroticism, anger, hostility, and impulsivity (Ramirez & Andreu, 2006; Stanford et al., 2003).

Research examining impulsive and premeditated forms of aggression traditionally takes place in the clinical and developmental fields but this distinction has begun to gain popularity with CWB researchers as well, most notably in the realm of theory building. For example, Neuman and Baron (2005) proposed a general aggression framework that argued that employees could perform acts of CWBs as reactions to provocation events or as a means to obtain a desired end. Douglas and colleagues (2008) also proposed a model predicting premeditated, affect-driven, and attitude-driven behaviors. This model outlines in detail how work environment features combine with personality to direct employees down different emotional, cognitive, or attitudinal processing routes. Each of these routes vary in cognitive

processing speed and lead to different CWBs. Fox and Spector (2010) also proposed a model that combined premeditated CWBs with the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 2002). In this model, a positive attitude towards premeditated CWBs, normative beliefs regarding premeditated CWBs, and perceived behavioral control all predicted employee behavioral intentions to perform premeditated CWBs. Although these theoretical works help bring attention to this distinction, empirical work integrating impulsive and premeditated aggression with CWBs is still severely lacking and researchers continue to call for its integration as a possible way to help reconcile the field (Bowling & Gruys, 2010; Spector, 2011).

Preliminary evidence shows that impulsive or premeditated motives may underlie different types of CWBs. For example, employees engage in sabotage behaviors as a response to anger or for instrumental purposes such as to draw attention to organizational problems, bring about organizational change, or to gain competitive advantage over peers (Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002). Neuman and Baron (1998) suggested that employees might perform theft without conceptualizing it as an aggressive act at all but rather as a purely economic act to balance the inequity they perceive between and employee and an organization. Withdrawal behaviors can also carry instrumental motives and act as a coping mechanism (Krischer et al., 2010). Consistent with these propositions Spector et al. (2006) found that abuse against others, production deviance, and withdrawal behaviors related positively to negative emotions while sabotage and theft behaviors were not, showing that emotions are a stronger driving force for some but not all CWBs. To continue the

integration of impulsive and premeditated motives with the CWB literature I propose the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 3a-b: Organizational justice levels will be negatively related to (a) impulsive forms of CWBs and (b) premeditated forms of CWBs.

Hypothesis 4a: Individual levels of impulsive aggression will mediate the relationship between organizational justice and impulsive CWBs.

Hypothesis 4b: Individual levels of premeditated aggression will mediate the relationship between organizational justice and premeditated CWBs.

The Moderating Role of Self-Monitoring and Core Self-Evaluation

Research shows that certain personality variables are useful in predicting CWBs (Spector, 2011). The most popular traits examined in research linking personality variables with CWBs have been individual levels of integrity and the dimensions of the five-factor model of personality. Integrity tests have proven to be quite effective at predicting CWBs (Berry, Sackett, Wiemann, 2007; Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 1993). Several of the dimensions of the five-factor model also predict deviance directed at both the organization and individuals. Organizational deviance is negatively related to emotional stability, agreeableness, and conscientiousness while interpersonal deviance is negatively related to emotional stability, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007). Some researchers have even begun to expand beyond the traditional five-factor model of personality. Gonzalez-Mulé, DeGeest, and Mount (2013) found that the circumplex model of personality accounted for significant incremental variance over the five-factor model in predicting CWBs. Studies such as these are vital in validating potential

selection tools and therefore might be extremely useful to practitioners implementing selection systems, but they fail to examine the role that individual differences play in the processes that lead to CWBs. Incorporating individual levels of self-monitoring and core self-evaluation may help address this gap.

Individual levels of self-monitoring reflect the extent to which individuals observe, regulate, and control the words and behaviors they display in social settings and interpersonal relationships (Snyder, 1987). Individuals with high levels of self-monitoring are more likely to change their words and actions to produce favorable impressions on others while those low in self-monitoring are less concerned with making such impressions and therefore act more in line with their actual attitudes and values (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). Self-monitoring is a reliable and valid predictor of several organizationally relevant attitudes and behaviors such as job performance, leadership emergence, organizational commitment, and job involvement (Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002; Day & Schleicher, 2006) however it has received less attention in the CWB literature. One study found that high levels of self-monitoring can promote chameleonic behaviors and either amplify or mitigate the relationship between personality and CWBs depending on whether a situation is public or private (Oh et al., 2014). In order to maintain a positive public image high self-monitors performed fewer CWBs in social situations. Conversely, in private situations high self-monitors were more concerned with self-enhancement and therefore were more likely to perform CWBs when such behaviors benefited them.

I argue that self-monitoring levels can also be useful in predicting impulsive and premeditated CWBs. The nature of impulsive aggression dictates that those who perform

these behaviors are less inhibited in social situations and more likely to act on their natural attitudes and impulses. On the other hand, individuals who are more skilled in controlling their impulses perform premeditated aggression to reach a more distal goal (Ramirez & Andreu, 2006). Individuals with low levels of self-monitoring who are less concerned with maintaining a positive self-image and therefore less likely to adjust their behavior should react to organizational injustice based on their initial negative reactions and react with impulsive aggression. Individuals with high levels of self-monitoring are more skilled in controlling and adjusting their behavior, therefore they should react to organizational injustice in more purposeful, thoughtful, and discrete ways with premeditated aggression.

Hypothesis 5a-b: a) The indirect relationship between organizational justice and impulsive CWBs through impulsive aggression will be stronger for low self-monitors.

b) The indirect relationship between organizational justice and premeditated CWBs through premeditated aggression will be stronger for high self-monitors.

Locus of control is the extent to which individuals feel they can control the events around them (Rotter, 1966). Individuals high in locus of control (internals) feel they determine the rewards or outcomes in their lives and individuals low in locus of control (externals) feel that outside forces determine their outcomes. CWB researchers more frequently study work locus of control. A positive relationship exists between work locus of control and CWBs such that individuals with higher levels of externality are more likely to report engaging in CWBs (Fox & Spector, 1999; Peng, 2012). Work locus of control also functions as a moderator in the CWB context. For example, Storms and Spector (1987) found that externals were more likely to react to organizational frustration with CWBs than

internals. A similar interactive effect exists between work locus of control and organizational stressors such that externals perform more CWBs in response to organizational constraints than internals (Sprung & Jex, 2012). Finally, Wei and Si (2013) found that externals responded with higher levels of sabotage, production deviance, and theft in response to abusive supervision than did internals.

One way to expand upon research that has already examined locus of control as a moderator is to incorporate a concept known as core self-evaluation (CSE). CSE is a higher order construct composed of both motivational and emotional variables that determine how individuals perceive themselves and their environment (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). Specifically, CSE is composed of individual levels of locus of control, general self-efficacy, self-esteem, and emotional stability.

Theoretically, individuals with lower levels of CSE respond to negative work situations with CWBs due to their higher feelings of helplessness when dealing with problems (Hiroto, 1974), lower levels of self-efficacy and self-esteem, and higher levels of emotional reactivity. On the other hand, individuals with higher levels of CSE should take a more problem focused approach to problem solving (Sprung & Jex, 2012). Based on the findings of previous research examining only locus of control, I predict that individuals with lower levels of CSE will respond to organizational injustice in the expected way with higher levels of impulsive CWBs. Conversely, I predict that individuals with higher levels of CSE will be more likely to respond to organizational injustice by performing premeditated CWBs. Those individuals are more likely to believe that they have control over outcomes around them, have more confidence in their abilities to successfully perform CWBs, and be less

emotionally reactive to negative work situations. Therefore they should perform premeditated CWBs as a reaction to perceived injustice in order to regain control of the relationship with their organization or rebalance the equity between them.

> *Hypothesis 6a-b*: a) The indirect relationship between organizational justice and impulsive CWBs through impulsive aggression will be stronger for individuals with lower levels of CSE. b) The indirect relationship between organizational justice and premeditated CWBs through premeditated aggression will be stronger for individuals with higher levels of CSE.

Method

Participants and Procedure

I will recruit a minimum of 300 participants for this study using online crowdsourcing. Specifically I will employ Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) website which allows researchers to post online surveys as Human Intelligence Tasks (HITs) which MTurk members can complete for compensation. Collecting survey data via MTurk is rapidly growing as a method for psychological researchers to collect valid work-related data (Azzam & Jacobson, 2013; Behrend, Sharek, Meade, & Wiebe, 2011; Casler, Bickel, & Hackett, 2013; Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2013).

MTurk allows researchers to set several inclusion and exclusion criteria to filter out certain MTurk members. For this study I will recruit only MTurk users who meet the following criteria: 18 years or older in age, work a minimum of 20 hours a week in a job other than MTurk, an MTurk approval rating of 95% or higher, and located in the United States only. All of the scales I will use in this study were authored in the United States.

Therefore limiting the sample to only those MTurk members located in the United States will encourage the highest possible comprehension of the online survey questions and in turn higher quality data. Once MTurk members sign up for this study's HIT, a link will direct them to the online survey. The first page of the online survey will be an informed consent form. Participants who agree to the specifications outlined in the informed consent form will continue on to the survey and participants who do not agree will move directly to the final page of the survey without answering any questions. Upon completion of the survey I will thank participants for their time and participants who provide quality data will be compensated $1.00 through the MTurk website.

Measures

Demographics. I will use several brief demographic items to gather descriptive information on the participants who complete the online survey: age, gender, race, hours worked per week, number of months in current job, and work industry.

Organizational Justice. To measure participant perceptions of organizational justice I will use a 20-item scale created by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). The scale consists of three subscales measuring distributive (e.g. "I think that my level of pay is fair."), procedural (e.g. "Job decisions are made by my organization in an unbiased manner."), and interactional justice (e.g. "My organization treats me with kindness and consideration."). Each item is rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1=*strongly disagree*, 7=*strongly agree*). Reported coefficient alpha reliability estimates for the three subscales are .74, .85, and .92 respectively.

Organizational Constraints. To measure participant perceptions of organizational constraints I will use the 11 item scale created by Spector and Jex (1998). This scale assesses

the 11 dimensions identified by Peters and O'Connor (1980) and asks participants to indicate how often they find it difficult or impossible to do their job because of certain situations (e.g. "Poor equipment or supplies."). Each item is rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=*less than once per month or never*, 5=*several times per day*). The reported coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the scale is .85.

Hostile Attribution Bias. To measure participant levels of hostile attribution bias I will use a 10-item scale created by O'Brien and Vandello (2005). Each item is rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1=*strongly disagree*, 7=*strongly agree*). An example item includes, "Coworkers deliberately make my job more difficult." The reported coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the scale is .72.

Impulsive and Premeditated Aggression. To measure participant levels of hostile and instrumental aggression I will use the Impulsive/Premeditated Aggression Scales (Stanford et al., 2003). The scale asks participants to reflect on their aggressive acts during the last 6 months and then answer items reflecting impulsive reasoning (e.g. "I consider the acts to have been impulsive.") or premeditated reasoning (e.g. "The act led to power over others or improved social status for me."). Each item is rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=*strongly disagree*, 5=*strongly agree*). Reported coefficient alpha reliability estimates for the scales are .77 and .82 respectively.

Self-Monitoring. To measure participant levels of self-monitoring I will use the 18-item scale created by Snyder and Gangestad (1986). Each item is rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1=*strongly disagree*, 7=*strongly agree*). An example item includes "I'm not

always the person I appear to be." Across two different samples Oh et al. (2014) reported coefficient alpha reliability estimates of .82 and .85.

Core Self-Evaluation. To measure participant levels of CSE I will use the Core Self-Evaluation Scale created and validated by Judge, Erez, Bono, and Thoresen (2003). Each item is rated on a 5-point Likert type scale (1=*strongly disagree*, 5=*strongly agree*). An example item includes "When I try, I generally succeed." Judge et al. (2003) reported internal consistency reliability values in four different samples ranging from .81-.87 as well as a test-retest reliability value of .81.

Impulsive and Premeditated CWBs. To measure participant levels of counterproductive work behaviors I will use the Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C; Spector et al., 2006). The CWB-C asks participants to indicate how often they perform certain behaviors while at work (e.g. "Purposely did work incorrectly;" "Daydreamed rather than did work."). Each item is rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=*never*, 5=*every day*).

Prior to data collection I will enlist the help of several other industrial/organizational psychology doctoral students to serve as subject matter experts (SMEs) to distinguish between hostile and instrumental CWB items. I will give the SMEs definitions for impulsive aggression and premeditated aggression and ask them to indicate which category each item from the CWB-C best fits. To classify an item as either impulsive or premeditated I will set an agreement threshold of 80% across all SMEs. The SMEs will have no further involvement in the study beyond this task.

Proposed Analysis

After collecting and cleaning the data, I will begin the data analysis by performing a confirmatory factor analysis. The confirmatory factor analysis will check that the manifest indicators of the scales used in the survey load onto the appropriate latent constructs. After confirming the measurement model I will move on to testing the individual hypotheses.

Figure 1 displays each individual hypothesis. To test the hypotheses in this study I will run a series of multiple linear regressions and path analyses. In all regressions I will enter in demographic variables as controls. To test the main effect of organizational constraints on organizational justice (Hypothesis 1) I will run a regression analysis. To test the moderating effect of hostile attribution bias on the relationship between organizational constraints and organizational justice (Hypothesis 2) I will run a regression analysis following the three-step procedure outlined by Baron and Kenney (1986). To test the main effect of organizational justice on impulsive and premeditated CWBs (Hypotheses 3a & 3b) I will run a regression analysis. To test the predicted mediating effects of impulsive and premeditated levels of aggression between organizational justice and impulsive and premeditated CWBs (Hypotheses 4a & 4b) I will use the three step regression procedure outlined by Baron and Kenney (1986). To test the predicted moderated mediation effects of Hypotheses 5 and 6 I will follow the path analytic procedures outlined by Edwards and Lambert (2007). Specifically I will test the total effects moderation model using the SPSS macro created by Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007).

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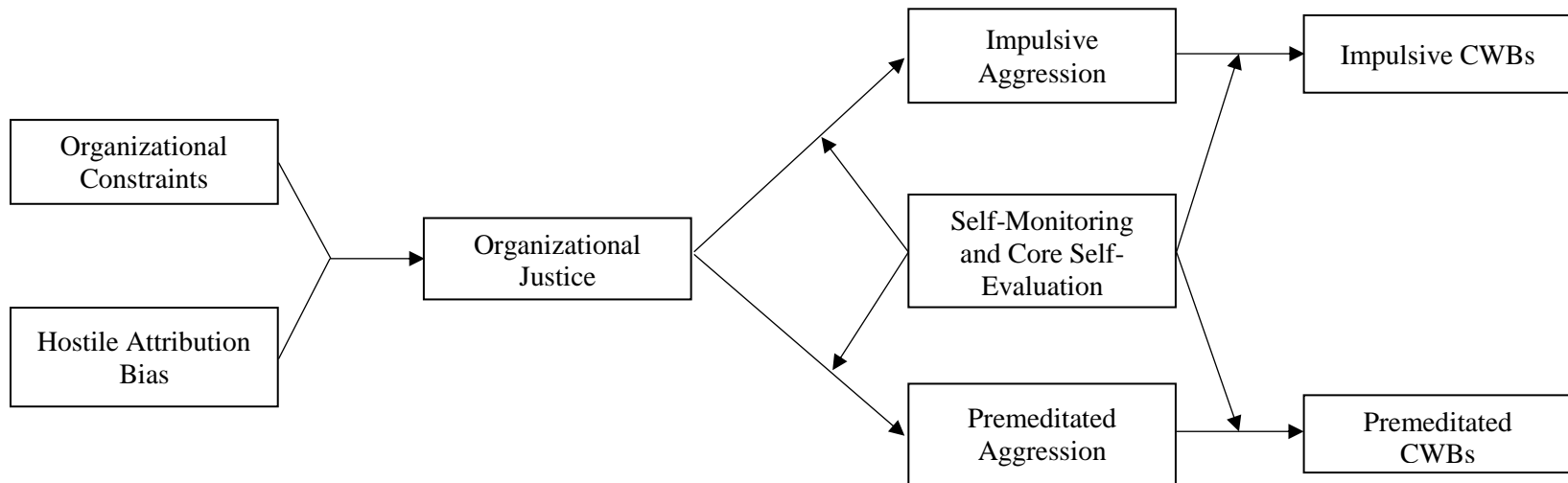
Figure 1. Predicted relationships among study variables

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Study Survey Items

Organizational Justice
Indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements.
Distributive Justice
- My work schedule is fair.
- I think that my level of pay is fair.
- I consider my work load to be quite fair.
- Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.
- I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.

Procedural Justice
- Job decisions are made by my organization in an unbiased manner.
- My organizational makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.
- To make job decisions, my organization collects accurate and complete information.
- My organization clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.
- All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.
- Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the organization.

Interactional Justice
- My organization treats me with kindness and consideration.
- My organization treats me with respect and dignity.
- My organization is sensitive to my personal needs.
- My organization deals with me in a truthful manner.
- My organization shows concern for my rights as an employee.
- Concerning decisions made about my job, my organization discusses the implications of the decisions with me.
- My organization offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.
- When making decisions about my job, my organization offers explanations that make sense to me.
- My organization explains very clearly any decision made about my job.

Organizational Constraints
Indicate how often you find it difficult or impossible to do your job because of the following.
- Poor equipment or supplies.
- Organizational rules and procedures.
- Other employees.
- Your supervisor.
- Lack of equipment or supplies.
- Inadequate training.

- Interruptions by other people.
- Lack of necessary information about what to do or how to do it.
- Conflicting job demands.
- Inadequate help from others.
- Incorrect instructions.

Hostile Attribution Bias
Indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements.
- If a coworker ignores me, it is probably not on purpose.
- When coworkers leave me out of social events, it is to hurt my feelings.
- If coworkers do not appreciate me enough, it is because they are self-centered.
- If coworkers work slowly on a task I assigned them, it is because they don't like me.
- If people are laughing at work, I think they are laughing at me.
- If coworkers bump into me, it is an accident.
- When coworkers leave me out of social events, there is a good reason.
- If coworkers ignore me, it is because they are being rude.
- Coworkers deliberately make my job more difficult.
- When my things are missing, they have probably been stolen.

Impulsive and Premeditated Aggression
Consider any and all aggressive behaviors you have performed over the last 6 months.
Indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding those aggressive behaviors.
- I think the other person deserved what happened to them during some of the incidents.
- I am glad some of the incidents occurred.
- I wanted some of the incidents to occur.
- The act led to power over other or improved social status for me.
- Some of the acts were an attempt at revenge.
- I feel my actions were necessary to get what I wanted.
- I felt my outbursts were justified.
- I planned when and where my anger was expressed.
- I was under the influence of alcohol or other drugs during the acts.
- Sometimes I purposely delayed the acts until a later time.
- Anything could have set me off prior to the incident.
- I felt pressure from others to commit the acts.
- I consider the acts to have been impulsive.
- I feel I lost control of my temper during the acts.
- I feel I acted out aggressively more than the average person during the last 6 months.
- I was in control during the aggressive acts.
- When angry, I reacted without thinking.

- My behavior was too extreme for the level of provocation.
- I understood the consequences of the acts before I acted.
- I usually can't recall the details of the incidents well.
- I knew most of the persons involved in the incidents.
- I typically felt guilty after the aggressive acts.
- I fell some of the incidents went too far.
- Prior to the incidents, I knew an altercation was going to occur.
- My aggressive outbursts were usually directed at a specific person.
- I became agitated or emotionally upset prior to the acts.

Self-Monitoring
Indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements.
- I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.
- At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.
- I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.
- I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.
- I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.
- I would probably make a good actor.
- In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.
- In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.
- I am not particularly good at making other people like me.
- I'm not always the person I appear to be.
- I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor.
- I have considered being an entertainer.
- I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.
- I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.
- At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.
- I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up quite as well as I should.
- I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face.
- I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

Core Self-Evaluation
Indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements about yourself.
- I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.
- Sometimes I feel depressed.
- When I try, I generally succeed.
- Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless.

- I complete tasks successfully.
- Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work.
- Overall, I am satisfied with myself.
- I am filled with doubts about my competence.
- I determine what will happen in my life.
- I do not feel in control of my success in my career.
- I am capable of coping with most of my problems.
- There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me.

Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist
Please indicate how often you have done each of the following things at your present job.
- Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies.
- Daydreamed rather than did your work.
- Complained about insignificant things at work.
- Told people outside the job what a lousy place you work for.
- Purposely did your work incorrectly.
- Came to work late without permission.
- Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't.
- Purposely damaged a piece of equipment or property.
- Purposely dirtied or littered your place of work.
- Stolen something belonging to your employer.
- Started or continued a damaging or harmful rumor at work.
- Been nasty or rude to a client or customer.
- Purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done.
- Refused to take on an assignment when asked.
- Purposely came late to an appointment or meeting.
- Failed to report a problem so it would get worse.
- Taken a longer break than you were allowed to take.
- Purposely failed to follow instructions.
- Left work earlier than you were allowed to.
- Insulted someone about their job performance.
- Made fun of someone's personal life.
- Took supplies or tools home without permission.
- Tried to look busy while doing nothing.
- Put in to be paid for more hours than you worked.
- Took money from your employer without permission.
- Ignored someone at work.
- Refused to help someone at work.
- Withheld needed information from someone at work.
- Purposely interfered with someone at work doing his/her job.

- Blamed someone at work for an effort you made.
- Started an argument with someone at work.
- Stole something belonging to someone at work.
- Verbally abused someone at work.
- Made an obscene gesture (the finger) to someone at work.
- Threatened someone at work with violence.
- Threatened someone at work, but not physically.
- Said something obscene to someone at work to make them feel bad.
- Hid something so someone at work couldn't find it.
- Did something to make someone at work look bad.
- Played a mean prank to embarrass someone at work.
- Destroyed property belonging to someone at work.
- Looked at someone at work's private mail/property without permission.
- Hit or pushed someone at work.
- Insulted or made fun of someone at work.
- Avoided returning a phone call to someone you should at work.