5-2001

The role of dispositional aggressiveness and organizational injustice on deviant workplace behavior

Susan M. Burroughs

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Lawrence R. James, Major Professor

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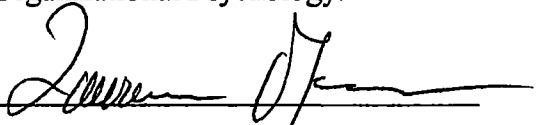
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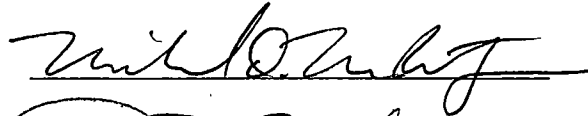
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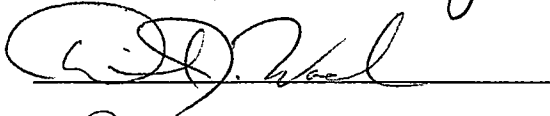
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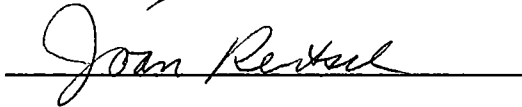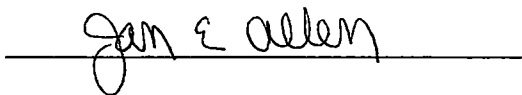
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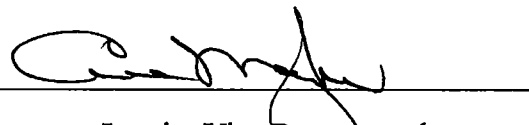
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THE ROLE OF DISPOSITIONAL AGGRESSIVENESS AND

ORGANIZATIONAL INJUSTICE ON DEVIANT WORKPLACE BEHAVIOR

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Philosophy Degree

The University of Tennessee

Susan M. Burroughs

May 2001

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to

my mother Dorothy

and my sisters Karen, Diane, and Theresa,

without whom it would never have been accomplished.

I am truly grateful to have these remarkable individuals in my life.

They are always a constant source of love, encouragement, and inspiration.

This was also written with fond remembrance of

my late father James and brother Michael.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

A field study of 262 hospital employees examined the relationship between dispositional aggressiveness, three types of organizational injustice perceptions, (distributive, procedural, interactional), and two forms of workplace deviance (interpersonal, organizational). Dispositional aggressiveness was assessed with the conditional reasoning measurement system and organizational injustices were measured via self-report instruments. Deviant workplace behaviors were evaluated with 985 ratings provided by supervisors, coworkers, subordinates, and customers. Theoretical and methodological concerns related to past research are addressed.

Findings indicated, as hypothesized, that perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional injustice were positively related to workplace deviance. Furthermore, dispositional aggressiveness was positively related to all forms of organizational injustice and workplace deviance. Results also show that dispositional aggressiveness maintained a relationship with workplace deviance after controlling for injustice perceptions, and that the aggressiveness-interpersonal deviance relationship is partially mediated by perceptions of distributive injustice. Overall, employees with aggressive personalities perceived more injustices and engaged in more deviant behaviors at work than nonaggressive employees. These findings specify the important role that individual differences play in the appraisal of workplace events as unfair and in choices of behavioral responses. A discussion of the current findings as well as limitations, future research avenues, and practical implications is provided.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

There is mounting evidence that harmful, unethical, and destructive workplace behaviors are occurring at an alarming rate. It has been estimated by the National Safe Workplace Institute that over 150,000 incidents of workplace deviance occur every year (Kinney & Johnson, 1993). Between 1980 and 1999, the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) recorded over 14,000 workplace homicides, representing an average of 750 workplace murders per year (Jenkins, 1996; Kazak, 2001). Furthermore, results of a survey conducted by Northwestern National Life Insurance Company (1993) show that 55% of respondents reported being a victim of some form of workplace deviance during their lifetime, 19% reported being harassed, and 15% reported being physically attacked in the workplace. Given the prevalence of such damaging behavior in organizational settings, the study of workplace deviance has become an increasingly prominent issue among academicians and practitioners alike.

Robinson and Bennett (1995) define workplace deviance as "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and...threatens the well-being of the organization, its members, or both" (p. 556). These authors classify workplace deviance into two families of behaviors that reflect the targets of these acts. The category of *interpersonal deviance* includes harmful acts targeted toward individuals, such as verbal harassment, assault, and the spreading of rumors. The category of *organizational deviance* includes harmful acts directed against the company or its systems, such as sabotaging equipment, stealing, and wasting resources. Many researchers assess this behavior by utilizing checklists that ask individuals to self-report the frequency with

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which they behave in interpersonally and organizationally deviant fashions (see Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999; Baron & Neuman, 1996; Fox & Spector, in press; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 1999; Neuman & Baron, 1998). Recently, Bennett and Robinson (2000) empirically tested and published a measure of interpersonal and organizational deviance for use by organizational researchers. The items from this measure are displayed in Table 1 (all tables and figures can be found in the appendices). It should be noted that this instrument does not assess extremely violent workplace acts primarily because these forms of deviance have low base rates (cf. Baron & Richardson, 1994; Neuman & Baron, 1998). Instead, the less extreme forms of deviance are included that have higher base rates and are much more susceptible to measurement. Overall, the two categories of behaviors specified above have proven to be useful outcome variables in recent studies that explored various antecedents and correlates of workplace deviance (Aquino et al., 1999; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fox et al., 1999).

A sizable body of research has established that organizational injustice is an antecedent of workplace deviance (Aquino et al., 1999; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Folger, 1987, 1993; Folger & Baron, 1996; Fox et al., 1999; Greenberg, 1990a; Neuman & Baron, 1997; O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996; Robinson & Bennett, 1997; Sheppard, Lewicki, & Minton, 1992; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999; Spector, 1975, 1978). This preponderance of evidence indicates that employees who believe they are unfairly treated at work are more likely to engage in deviant workplace behaviors than employees who believe they are fairly treated at work. Presumably, unfair treatment evokes feelings of anger and resentment that elicit a desire for revenge; thereby influencing deviant workplace acts (Aquino et al., 1999; Folger &

Baron, 1996; Brown & Herrnstein, 1975; Robinson & Bennett, 1997; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki et al., 1999).

While existing research demonstrates that organizational injustice influences the performance of deviant workplace behaviors, there has been a lack of systematic research designed to investigate what types of people perceive injustices and subsequently engage in destructive behavior and why and how these effects occur. Recently, researchers have included the individual difference variables of negative affectivity and agreeableness to further explore the injustice-deviance relationship (see Aquino et al., 1999; Skarlicki et al., 1999). These studies provide initial evidence that people who frame the world in negative terms (i.e., high negative affectivity, low agreeableness) are more likely to perceive injustices and/or engage in deviant behaviors than people who frame the world in positive terms.

The current study further explores the role of individual differences in the injustice-deviance relationship by including the variable of dispositional aggressiveness. It investigates the possibility that people who are high in aggressiveness are more likely to perceive injustice and/or engage in deviant behavior than people who are low in aggressiveness. A partial mediation model is proposed and tested which suggests that organizational injustice may enhance the explanation of the processes involved between aggressiveness and workplace deviance (see Figure 1). This study also attempts to further understanding of the psychological mechanisms that may underlie the injustice-deviance connection by focusing on the social-cognitive processes involved in this relationship. Finally, this study investigates the source of evocative stimuli that trigger deviant responses in aggressive individuals to better specify the likely targets of this destructive behavior.

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Theoretical Development

Organizational injustice is a term used to describe an employee's experience of inequity and unfairness at work (Greenberg, 1987). It is worth noting that this variable is frequently operationalized as a subjective variable (e.g., the perception of injustice) rather than as an objective variable (e.g., the occurrence of an event, such as a pay cut or a layoff; Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Greenberg, 1990b, 1994). Many researchers believe that organizational injustices are shaped by situational variables, and that descriptions of situational events are based on an individual's cognitive appraisal of the events. Cognitive appraisals are what people think, while specific workplace situations are what people think about (Cropanzano, Weiss, & Grandey, 1999). It is not the situations per se that are driving behavior, but it is how people appraise those situations based on their own understanding and interpretation. Judgments are made about why a situation occurred, what the situation meant, and the amount of impact the situation had on themselves and others. Evaluations of organizational injustices are the result of this appraisal process and are therefore believed to be perceptual in nature.

It appears that most investigations into organizational injustice emphasize (1) the nature of events that cause an individual to appraise the events as unfair (i.e., the antecedents to injustice perceptions) and (2) the responses to inequitable allocations (i.e., raising/lowering effort; Adams, 1965). It is somewhat surprising that this research stream has not fully specified the role that individual differences play in the appraisal of workplace events. Rather, statements have been made about the effects of unfair work environments on "people in general." Researchers know more about the precipitating event and the responses the events trigger than about the cognitive "black box" that lies

between them. Interestingly, when one tries to fit the family of injustice theories into the family of cognitive appraisal theories, there are mismatches on both of these attributes. Theories of organizational injustice have de-emphasized individual differences in the cognitive processes by which injustice decisions are formulated, while cognitive appraisal theories have not considered the formulation of ethicality judgments (Cropanzano et al., 1999). The following question remains: What types of people engage in deviant workplace behavior following a perceived injustice and why and how are they doing it?

An integration of theories of organizational injustice (Greenberg, 1990a, 1990b) with the theory of conditional reasoning (James, 1998) may provide some answers to this question. These theories manifest two different emphases, with the former focusing on workplace events and their consequences, and the latter focusing on how individual differences affect judgments about the fairness or ethicality of events. If injustice theories specify events but lack an articulation of the appraisal processes, while conditional reasoning specifies the appraisals but lacks an articulation of the event, then one might integrate the two theories to account for the events that caused the perceived injustice and the consequences that result from these perceptions. Hence, it is proposed that organizational injustices are based upon a person's negative appraisals of workplace events, which are influenced by the perceiver's personality and cognitive processes that determine their behavioral adjustments to these events. Through conditional reasoning, one may study the justification mechanisms (James, 1998) that individuals use to promote the rationality of these behavioral choices. Specific hypotheses and research questions are provided and tested below based on this integrative model (see Figure 1).

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Organizational Injustice and Workplace Deviance

The organizational injustice literature has identified three types of fairness perceptions: distributive, procedural, and interactional injustice. Judgments concerning *distributive injustice* (Adams, 1965) revolve around the employee's evaluations of outcome fairness, that is, whether the individual has received a fair share of rewards given his or her relative contribution to a social exchange. Distributive injustice typically refers to fairness evaluations regarding work outcomes such as pay, benefits, promotions, and so on. *Procedural injustice* includes judgments about the processes and procedures used to make decisions and to determine one's outcomes (Greenberg, 1990b; Lind & Tyler, 1988). Typically, procedural injustice refers to the perceived fairness of the company's formal procedures. A third category of injustice perceptions, *interactional injustice*, revolves around judgments of the quality of interpersonal treatment a person receives from others during the enactment of organizational procedures (Bies, in press; Bies & Moag, 1986; Tyler & Bies, 1990). These perceptions arise from beliefs about the sincerity, respectfulness, and consistency of persons in authority (Bies & Moag, 1986).

Researchers have recently begun to examine whether procedural, distributive, and interactional injustice are differentially related to workplace deviance. These investigations arose from past findings indicating that the various types of injustice perceptions have different effects depending on whether the outcome being considered was personal or reflective of a more general evaluation of institutions and their representatives (Lind & Tyler, 1988). A literature search uncovered seven studies that associated the organizational injustice variables with deviant workplace behaviors. Five of the seven studies conceptualized workplace deviance similarly to the aforementioned

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Robinson and Bennett (1995) classification scheme (Aquino et al., 1999; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fox et al., 1999; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki et al., 1999).[1] Empirical evidence is supportive of injustice-deviance relationships, yielding a range of significant correlation coefficients from .16 to .53.

There appears to be conflicting research findings regarding whether individuals target deviance toward others or toward the organizational system when taking revenge for procedural, distributive, and interactional injustices (Aquino et al., 1999; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fox et al., 1999). For example, Fox et al. (1999) found a significant correlation between distributive injustice and organizational deviance (r = .27), whereas Aquino et al. (1999) found distributive injustice to be significantly related to interpersonal deviance (r = .18). Bennett and Robinson (2000) and Fox et al. (1999) reported that procedural injustice was significantly correlated with organizational deviance (r = .32 and .31, respectively), while Aquino et al. (1999), Bennett and Robinson (2000), and Fox et al. (1999) reported significant correlations between procedural injustice and interpersonal deviance (r = .16, .33, and .23, respectively). Finally, Aquino et al. (1999) and Bennett and Robinson (2000) found that interactional injustice was significantly related to both organizational deviance (r = .20 and .33, respectively) and interpersonal deviance (r = .24 and .35, respectively). Hence, an examination of these relationships will be conducted here to provide additional

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[1] The two exceptions were studies conducted by J. Greenberg prior to the publication of the Robinson and Bennett (1995) categorization scheme. These studies found that (1) workers experiencing underpayment inequity would attempt to redress that inequity by stealing from their employer (Greenberg, 1990b), and (2) incidence of theft behavior was reduced as a function of the validity of the information provided about the underpayment and the interpersonal sensitivity demonstrated toward the underpayment victim (Greenberg, 1994). Correlation coefficients were not published in these studies therefore they were not included in the range provided above.

information as to the target of workplace deviance in response to specific types of organizational injustices. As depicted in Figure 1, it is hypothesized that,

Hypothesis 1: Perceptions of organizational injustice (distributive, procedural, interactional) will be positively related to workplace deviance (interpersonal, organizational).

Personality and the Injustice-Deviance Relationship

Only two studies could be located that investigated whether personality constructs play a role in the injustice-deviance relationship. In the first study, Aquino et al. (1999) proposed and tested a model relating the three forms of organizational injustice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) and negative affectivity to two categories workplace deviance (interpersonal and organizational). Negative affectivity is a personality variable that describes the extent to which an individual is likely to experience distressing emotions such as anger, hostility, fear, and anxiety (Watson & Clark, 1984). Data were collected both on-site and through the mail with surveys containing self-report measures of injustice (using 16 items adapted from previous research), negative affectivity (using 10 items from the PANAS scale; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), and interpersonal and organizational workplace deviance (using 15 items developed by the authors based on Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Research findings indicated that negative affectivity was the single best predictor among the independent variables of both forms of workplace deviance. When entered first in a hierarchical regression, negative affectivity accounted for a significant portion of the variation ($R^2 = .05$, $p < .01$ for organizational deviance; $R^2 = .10$, $p < .01$ for interpersonal deviance). When entering the three injustice perceptions first, the explanatory power of negative

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affectivity was reduced, but remained significant ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $\underline{p} < .01$ for organizational deviance; $\Delta R^2 = .06$, $\underline{p} < .01$ for interpersonal deviance).

In the second study, which was a follow-up and extension of Skarlicki and Folger (1997), Skarlicki, Folger, and Tesluk (1999) found that negative affectivity and agreeableness interacted with injustice perceptions to explain variance in workplace retaliation beyond what could be attributed to injustice perceptions alone. Workplace retaliation was defined as the behavioral responses of disgruntled employees to perceived unfair treatment. Data were collected during company time, with injustice being assessed via a self-report measure (utilizing 21 items from prior research), and respondent's retaliation being measured by one peer evaluation (using 17 items similar to those comprising the Bennett and Robinson measure of workplace deviance, however the retaliation measure was not divided into the two factors of interpersonal and organizational deviance). One year later, measures of negative affectivity were collected with five self-report adjectives (e.g., anxious, tense, moody) and agreeableness with seven self-report adjectives (e.g., cold, kind, respectful). Results revealed a significant three-way interaction among distributive justice, interactional justice, and negative affectivity (reported $\beta = -3.26$, $\underline{p} < .05$). These results indicated that for low negative affectivity individuals, the interaction between distributive and interactional justice was not a significant predictor of retaliation. In contrast, when negative affectivity was high, the combination of low interactional and low distributive justice was associated with retaliation. An additional three-way interaction among distributive justice, interactional justice, and agreeableness was significant (reported $\beta = -3.98$, $\underline{p} < .05$). These results showed that the interaction between distributive and interactional justice was not a

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significant predictor of retaliation when agreeableness was high. In contrast, when agreeableness was low, the combination of low interactional and low distributive justice was associated with retaliation. Moreover, negative affectivity and agreeableness each explained unique variance beyond that explained by the fairness perceptions ($R^2 = .06$, $F_{8, 116} = 20.18$, $p < .01$ and $R^2 = .07$, $F_{8, 116} = 23.03$, $p < .01$, respectively).

These two studies provide initial evidence that people who frame the world in negative terms (i.e., are predisposed to negative affectivity) may be more likely to perceive injustice and/or engage in deviant behavior than people who frame the world in positive terms. However, readers may wish to use caution when interpreting the results. First, in the Aquino et al. (1999) study, self-report measures were utilized to assess both the predictors and criteria, thereby posing some question as to whether the observed relationships between the variables were spurious due to a common method of measurement and redundancy in the constructs being measured (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Williams, Gavin, & Williams, 1996). Aquino and colleagues suggest that common method and social desirability bias were not a serious problem. However, given the sensitive nature of the study variables, inaccurate self-reporting may have occurred. Second, attempts by researchers at Roosevelt University and The University of Tennessee to replicate the Skarlicki et al. (1999) findings using the published correlation matrix were unsuccessful and further investigation into this discrepancy will be forthcoming.

Third, both Aquino et al. (1999) and Skarlicki et al. (1999) presented findings that relied on self-report instruments to measure the personality constructs of interest. While self-report instruments are widely used and recognized by organizational researchers, some problems with this methodology have been identified in the literature, including a number

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of ego-protective and ego-enhancing biases (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; James, 1998; Schmitt, 1994; Spector, 1994; Stone & Stone, 1990). As summarized by Heneman, Heneman, and Judge (1997) and Lee (1993), employees may distort their responses on such measures to avoid describing themselves in negative terms out of a fear of being identified and punished. Additionally, because some answers are nearly impossible to verify, faking or response distortion may occur (Dwight & Alliger, 1997; Kroger & Wood, 1993; Moore & Stewart, 1989; Rosse, Stecher, Miller, & Levin, 1998). A less transparent measure may prove to be more effective at assessing negative personality dispositions. Finally, the dispositions underlying the injustice-deviance relationship need further examination and explanation. For example, the personality variables used as moderators of the injustice-deviance relationship in the Skarlicki et al. (1999) study may also directly influence injustice perceptions. That is, the relationship between personality and deviance may be partially mediated by perceptions of injustice. A detailed explanation and investigation into such an effect is presented below.

Dispositional Aggressiveness and Workplace Deviance

The social cognition literature presents many personality variables besides negative affectivity and agreeableness (e.g., aggressiveness, need for power) that may play a role in shaping an individual's perceptions of (unjust) work situations and performance of deviant behavior (cf. Atkinson, 1978; Buss, 1961; McClelland, 1985). The personality trait of aggressiveness is the focus here. Aggressiveness is an underlying trait that predisposes some persons to aggress or attack more readily than others in response to perceived negative stimuli (Buss, 1961; Monahan, 1981). Research has found aggressive tendencies to be a consistently strong predictor of both unprovoked and

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provoked deviant behavior (Hammock & Richardson, 1992). Murray (1938) believed that certain people have a motive to aggress that consists of desires to overcome opposition forcefully, to fight, to revenge an injury, to attack another with intent to injure or kill, and to oppose forcefully or punish another. The motive to aggress has been described as "latent" because people with strong and dominant aggressive tendencies cannot explain why they experience an attraction toward acting in a deviant fashion. Rather, these individuals are aware of a strong desire to aggress toward others, compete and win, and anticipate and then experience the thrill of revenge.

Conditional reasoning (James, 1998) provides a powerful new tool for researchers to utilize when examining how aggressive latent motives engender deviant behaviors[2]. This theory purports that reasoning is "conditional" because the probability that an individual judges certain behaviors to be acceptable is dependent on the strength of that person's motive to engage in the behavior. According to James and Mazerolle (in press), aggressive individuals reason that the behaviors they find attractive and perform (e.g., deviance) are justified, which is to say rational or sensible as opposed to irrational and foolish. To justify employing desired behaviors, aggressive individuals engage in slants or biases in reasoning called "justification mechanisms" (James, 1998) that are designed to enhance the logical appeal of deviant behaviors. Justification mechanisms are tied into (conditional) reasoning when people use their underlying assumptions (e.g., beliefs, ideologies) to make judgments about what is and is not rational or sensible behavior. These different assumptions can be referred to as "implicit theories" (cf. Wegner &

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[2] The disposition of aggressiveness is the focus of this paper, however, other individual difference variables can be applied to and measured with the conditional reasoning methodology. Interested readers are encouraged to read James (1998) for a review of how to assess personality via conditional reasoning.

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Vallacher, 1977) and involve long-term, unconscious, and valued beliefs, explanations, and cognitive causal models about the effects of behavior. Implicit theories with embedded justification mechanisms typically go unrecognized by reasoners yet define, shape, and otherwise influence cognitive processing. They involve identifiable biases that attempt to enhance the logical appeal of trait-based or characteristic behavioral preferences (James & Mazerolle, in press). The unrecognized use of justification mechanisms in what are believed to be rational implicit theories is the primary reason that aggressive and nonaggressive individuals can decide to behave differently and yet each group believes that its reasoning is logical (James, 1998). Some of the more salient justification mechanisms and the implicit theories in which they tend to be embedded are described in Table 2 for aggressive individuals.

It should be noted that individuals who do not have aggressive personalities lack a proclivity to frame and to analyze a situation in ways to justify deviant behaviors (James, 1998). Nonaggressive individuals have no unrecognized bias to see malevolent intentions in other's actions; instead, they favor cooperation and harmony over vengeance and retribution. Their perceptions of situations do not pass through a prism of potency that evaluates people or entities as dominant or submissive in relation to oneself (James & Mazerolle, in press). Rather, nonaggressive individuals see an aggressive person's conditional reasoning as improbable and unlikely (but not illogical). Moreover, their own reasoning is based on cognitive repertoires that are much broader and include the assumption that until proven otherwise, the motives of others are reputable and constructive. Nonaggressive individuals are thus prone to discount reasoning based on

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justification mechanisms for aggression, and to offer reasoning engendered by impartial, constructive, and prosocial beliefs and values (James, 1998).

The Conditional Reasoning Test (CRT; James, 1998) was developed to measure individual differences in the extent to which people use implicit reasoning biases to justify aggressive behavior. It contains items that appear to be reasoning problems such as those found in standardized tests of critical thinking, thereby circumventing respondents' inclinations to intentionally or unintentionally distort and enhance their responses. After reading a paragraph of information and a problem stem, the respondent is presented with four response options and is required to choose the most logical answer (option), given that more than one conclusion may appear reasonable. Of the four options, one response is designed to appeal to individuals relying on one of the justification mechanisms for aggressive behavior, one response is designed to appeal to nonaggressive (prosocial) individuals, and two responses are illogical. The purpose of the CRT is to determine the degree to which the respondent views the aggressive responses to be the logical and reasonable answers to the problems. The more justification mechanisms an individual has in place, the greater the willingness and implicit cognitive preparedness to aggress. Recent research has confirmed the existence of a direct relationship between dispositional aggressiveness and workplace deviance using the CRT methodology (Burroughs, Bing, & James, 1999; Burroughs, LeBreton, Bing, & James, 2000; James, McIntyre, Glisson, Green, Patton, LeBreton, Mitchell, & Williams, under review). The uncorrected validity coefficients obtained in several studies ranged from .32 to .55. Based on these findings and as depicted in Figure 1, it is hypothesized that

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Hypothesis 2: Dispositional aggressiveness will be positively related to workplace deviance, such that individuals higher in aggressiveness will be more likely to engage in deviant behavior at work.

Integrating Aggressiveness, Injustice, and Deviance

An integration of an individual's personality (aggressiveness) with evaluations of workplace events (procedural, distributive, interactional injustices) in the prediction of behavioral responses (organizational and/or interpersonal deviance) may assist researchers in discovering the source of evocative stimuli that trigger deviant responses in aggressive individuals, and better specify the likely targets of this destructive behavior. This research differs from previous injustice studies by recognizing that organizational injustice does not necessarily begin with an objectively unfavorable workplace event. Rather any salient event, outcome, or process - positive or negative - can trigger biases in reasoning in an aggressive individual through descriptions of and questions regarding the situation (James & Mazerolle, in press). Adjectives reflect the biases engendered by aggressive motives through descriptions of events as "unfair," "undeserved," "wrong," and so forth. Questions, on the other hand, provide meaning to events by driving the appraisal process. For example, the type of injustice (procedural, distributive, interactional) and the target of an aggressive individual's deviance (organization and/or individuals) may be determined by responses to questions such as:

- How were outcomes distributed by the company as well as by supervisors?
- To what extent were outcomes subject to organizational influences (e.g., policies)?
- Could the decision maker have acted differently (e.g., with more respect)?
- Should the decision-making have been done in this fashion?
- What would have happened if things had transpired differently?

It is necessary to cognitively process information, that is, to think and to reason to answer these questions. One must draw inferences from such things as the outcomes one

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receives or does not receive, the personal control one has over the receipt of outcomes, and the effects that outcomes might have on one's life. These are reasoning processes. Two features of these reasoning processes are: (1) people whose motive to aggress dominates their need to behave prosocially often answer these questions differently than people whose need to behave prosocially dominates their need to aggress; and (2) irrespective of which need is dominant, every individual believes that his/her particular reasoning is rational and objective as opposed to irrational, subjective, and foolish (James & Mazerolle, in press). Hence, conditional reasoning (James, 1998) can be used to explain how it is possible for aggressive persons to frame and analyze a work situation very differently from the framing and analysis of nonaggressive, prosocial persons. These individuals draw different inferences from the same data. From the perspective of a perceiver engaged in differential framing, the psychological significance of any event is determined by its role in justifying motive-based behavior (James & Mazerolle, in press). Hence, one outcome of aggressive conditional reasoning may be perceptions of organizational injustice. To date, no research has investigated the following hypothesis (see also Figure 1).

Hypothesis 3: Dispositional aggressiveness will be positively related to perceptions of organizational injustice (distributive, procedural, interactional), such that individuals higher in aggressiveness will perceive more injustices in the work environment.

Effects of Aggressiveness and Injustice on Specific Targets of Workplace Deviance

Social psychological theories of aggression suggest that people with aggressive dispositions tend to react more strongly to aversive stimuli (e.g., may perceive a situation as unjust and then react) than those who are less aggressive (Baron & Richardson, 1994; Berkowitz, 1993; Buss, 1961; Geen, 1995; Megargee, 1966; Nisbett, 1993; Toch, 1992). Similarly, social cognitive theory (e.g., Mischel, 1973; Shoda & Mischel, 1993) states

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that the psychological effect of a situation depends on how a person interprets the situation, and that such differences in interpretation can vary as a function of significant individual differences. Thus, it may be that an individual's aggressiveness influences perceptions of injustice that, in turn, influence deviant workplace behaviors. In other words, perceptions of injustice may enhance the explanation of the processes involved between aggressiveness and workplace deviance (e.g., a mediating effect).

Furthermore, aggressive individuals may perceive workplace events as unfair (procedural, distributive, interactional injustices) based on whether they believe they are victims of inequitable treatment by the organization or by other people. They may then justify deviant behavior targeted at the source(s) of the perceived injustices. Contrary to popular belief, it appears that people who commit deviant workplace acts do not do so spontaneously, but rather, they use rationality and forethought to justify deviance toward specific targets. For example, in their analysis of over twenty cases of workplace homicides, Weide and Abbott (1994) found that assailants always waited at least a day, and often several days, before reacting to an injustice targeted at the perceived source of the injustice. Researchers may learn about the appraisals that drive fairness perceptions by examining the justification mechanisms possessed by aggressive individuals (see Table 2) that encourage them to reason that acting in a deviant fashion toward the source of a perceived injustice is a sensible and effective response.

Targets of Deviance Based on Aggressiveness and Procedural Injustice. Perceptions of procedural injustice result when an individual evaluates that the organization has made decisions that resulted in its failure to adequately maintain obligations in a manner commensurate with one's expectations (Greenberg, 1990b; Lind

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& Tyler, 1988; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Hence, when aggressive individuals perceive a violation of procedural justice, they may engage in deviant acts directed against the organization rather than against individuals. This proposition is based on the results of several studies that showed that procedural injustice was a strong predictor of behaviors enacted in response to judgments about how the company as an institution allocated decisions (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Greenberg, 1990a; Lind & Tyler, 1988; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993; Tyler & Bies, 1990). Similar research in the area of psychological contract violation has shown that a violation of expectations about an organization's responsibilities can be just as consequential to certain individuals as a violation of a legal contract, and some of the penalties of non-fulfillment include loss of trust, greater job insecurity, reduced organizational commitment/satisfaction, increased intention to quit, and the withdrawal of organizational citizenship behavior, to name a few (Robinson, 1996; Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Furthermore, Weide and Abbot (1994) found that over 80% of the cases of workplace homicide involved employees who "wanted to get even for what they perceived as (their) organizations' unfair or unjust treatment of them" (p. 139).

Aggressive conditional reasoning may influence perceptions of procedural injustice and bias an aggressive employees' evaluation of their work situations. For instance, an aggressive employees' feelings of anger arising from unmet expectations could color their judgments regarding fair company procedures and in turn increase their perception of inequity even when the employing organization had not acted in an inequitable manner. Such perceptions of procedural inequity could leave an aggressive

employee feeling cheated and dissatisfied, thereby triggering various justification mechanisms for deviant behavior to decrease dissonance and protect the employees' self-worth (Goodman, 1974; James, 1998). For example, the justification mechanism of "Victimization By Powerful Others" may be relied upon when evaluating whether the organization had acted in a fair manner toward the aggressive individual. This bias is represented by an unrecognized and at least partially baseless tendency to frame oneself as a victim who is being exploited and taken advantage of by powerful others (in this case, by the organization). Reasoning based on this justification mechanism sets the foundation for rationalizations that deviance is really striking out against oppression by the organization. Such reasoning is exacerbated when accompanied by other justification mechanisms, such as the "Derogation of Target" mechanism, which consists of an implicit tendency to characterize a target (i.e., the organization) as deserving of deviance because it is evil, immoral, untrustworthy, or exploitative; and the "Retribution Bias" mechanism, which involves a tacit prejudice to favor vengeance, retribution, and retaliation over reconciliation, cooperation or compromise. A likely response to the perceived inequity would consist of seeking redress in the form of engaging in deviant workplace behavior targeted toward the organization to get back at the employer for not acting fairly (e.g., stealing from company, sabotaging equipment, etc.). Hence, any unmet expectations due to unfair company procedures may influence the aggressive employee's judgment of procedural injustice. Given the lack of a direct test of this proposition in past research, the following research question was asked (see Figure 1),

Research Question 1: Do perceptions of procedural injustice partially mediate the relationship between dispositional aggressiveness and deviance toward the organization?

<u>Targets of Deviance Based on Aggressiveness and Distributive Injustice</u>.

Perceptions of violations of distributive justice may be related to organizational and/or interpersonal deviance depending on the perceived source of the injustice. This proposition is based on recent research and theorizing on revenge in organizations (Bies & Tripp, 1998; Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997; Kahn & Kramer, 1990) that suggests that people are more likely to try and harm those whom they hold responsible for perpetrating unfair outcomes. It is thought that deviant acts may be a means by which to gain control over outcomes in the absence of direct control. Aggressive individuals may 'get even' with the organization or 'seek revenge' against individuals who have deprived them of some desired outcome (Fisher & Baron, 1982; Greenberg, 1990a; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). It is unclear as to whether aggressive people would target their deviance toward individuals or toward the organizational system when making attributions about unfair outcomes. It has been suggested by Crosby (1984) that people often lack sufficient information about the distribution of outcomes and do not wish to question the system, thereby blaming people, rather than the organization, for unfair outcomes. Clarification is needed as to the target of an aggressive individual's deviance when placed in a situation perceived as high in distributive injustice.

The nonreceipt of some desired outcome could color judgments regarding the fairness of the distribution of outcomes, and in turn increase perceptions of inequity, even when outcomes were distributed in an equitable manner. Justification processes are especially likely to occur when an aggressive individual does not receive some desired work outcome. Perceptions of distributive injustice will trigger a need to rationalize the reason for the inequity in order to protect one's self-concept, to be secure, to be accepted, and to avoid

demonstrating incompetence. In other words, distributive inequity could leave an aggressive employee feeling unaccepted by the source in charge of distributing the outcomes, thereby activating various justification mechanisms to rationalize having to act out in a deviant fashion toward this source. To illustrate, aggressive individuals may map a "Hostile Attribution Bias" (Baron & Richardson, 1994; Crick & Dodge, 1994; Dodge & Coie, 1987) mechanism (e.g., boss is out to get me) into judgments about the controllability of the specific event (e.g., decision to deny a raise increase). In this case, the reasoning process (inference about the raise) is a mirror reflection of the structural basis (justification mechanism and implicit theory) for the reasoning. The "Social Discounting Bias" may also be relied upon for calling on unorthodox, antisocial beliefs to interpret and analyze the unfair event. Such unrecognized biases in reasoning have a self-protective function in the sense that they are forms of safety mechanisms (James & Mazerolle, in press). Thus, aggressive individuals rely on them to justify acting deviantly during distributively unjust situations that cause them psychological damage. As mentioned above, it is unclear as to the specific target of this deviance, hence the organization and/or the individuals responsible for not acting fairly may fall victim. Hence, the following research question was asked (see Figure 1),

Research Question 2: Do perceptions of distributive injustice partially mediate the relationship between dispositional aggressiveness and deviance toward the organization and/or toward other individuals?

Targets of Deviance Based on Aggressiveness and Interactional Injustice. Employees care about being treated fairly, especially by authority figures, because such treatment communicates information about one's status as an important and valued member of the organization (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Hence, perceptions of violations of interactional justice are particularly disturbing to employees because they communicate that one is unimportant

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or marginal. Interactional injustices are very personal, pose a strong threat to an individuals'
self-identify, and arouse intense emotional responses (Bies, in press; Tyler & Bies, 1990). A
common response to a threatened identity is to direct retaliatory action against the perceived
source of threat (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996), typically when an audience is present
(Felson, 1982), in order to save face and maintain a more favorable identity (Felson, 1978).
If one is unable to directly retaliate against the source of the threat for fear of reprisal (i.e., a
supervisor), one may displace his or her aggression on a more convenient and vulnerable
target (i.e., a coworker). Thus, it is reasoned that this type of injustice will provoke deviant
behaviors targeted toward people rather than the organization.

Interactions with an authority figures can be a source of great stress for aggressive
individuals, particularly during times when the authority figure treats them with disrespect
and insensitivity (i.e., has generated perceptions of interactional injustice). According to
James (1998), the actions of authority figures tend to pass through an interpretative lens in
aggressive individuals that is sensitive to exploitation, tyranny, oppression, and adversity. To
aggressive individuals, authority figures represent a contest for dominance. The
psychological significance of authority figures to aggressive individuals resides in how these
figures function as exploiters, tyrants, oppressors, and adversaries. This framing is
embedded in the implicit theories of aggressive individuals. As such, these persons may
overly rely on the justification mechanism of "Potency Bias." A potency bias involves a
tendency to frame interactions with peers and supervisors through reasoning using the
contrast of strength versus weakness. People with a strong potency bias tend to frame others
on a continuum ranging from (a) strong, assertive, powerful, daring, fearless, or brave, to (b)
weak, impotent, submissive, timid, sheepish, compliant, conforming, or cowardly. This bias

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is used to justify deviance via rationalizations that interpersonal deviance (e.g., confrontations with coworkers) results in being "respected" by others, and that weakness and submissiveness invites deviance because it shows that one is willing to submit (cf. Bandura, 1973; Baron & Richardson, 1994; Berkowitz, 1993; Bloom, 1993; Laursen & Collins, 1994; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996; Wright & Mischel, 1987). Another justification mechanism aggressive individuals may rely upon during times of interactional injustice is "Hostile Attribution Bias" (Baron & Richardson, 1994; Crick & Dodge, 1994; Dodge & Coie, 1987), or the unrecognized propensity to seek out malevolent intent in the decisions of authority figures. Here, the actions of others are seen as having hidden, hostile agendas designed to intentionally inflict harm. It is proposed (see Figure 1) that aggressive individuals may target interpersonal deviance toward these individuals (e.g., cursing, yelling). Therefore,

Research Question 3: Do perceptions of interactional injustice partially mediate the relationship between dispositional aggressiveness and deviance toward other individuals?

<u>Summary</u>

By emphasizing both dispositional aggressiveness and perceptions about specific workplace events, this research makes it possible to integrate aggressive conditional reasoning with theories of injustice. The injustice paradigm can now be understood as a special instance of the more general appraisal of an event. Specifically, this study enumerates conditional evaluations that are necessary to perceived injustice, whereas most theories are ambiguous in this regard. In so doing, it uses cognitions as a common medium of exchange between research on injustice and research on personality. This provides a new avenue for injustice research to borrow more heavily from ideas in the personality and social cognition literatures, and allows for the following empirical tests to be conducted.

CHAPTER 2

METHODS

Participants and Procedure

The participants for this study were 262 employees (51 men, 211 women) from a hospital located in the southern United States. Three percent were African American, 1% American Indian, 1% Oriental, .4% Hispanic, and 86% were classified as Other (which included Caucasians). Participants ranged in age from 20 to 68 years ($M = 42$) and had worked for the hospital an average of 9.56 years. The sample included nurses, laboratory technicians, radiologists, surgeons, and support and service staff.

The author attended hospital staff meetings to administer predictor measures and to distribute five sealed survey packets, which contained deviant behavior checklists, to each participant. After each participant completed the predictor measures, they were asked to identify five different individuals in their workplace (coworkers, supervisors, subordinates, internal customers, etc.) with whom they interacted on a regular basis. They were instructed not to select the individuals based on friendship or liking, but rather, to choose them based on the frequency with which these individuals observed their performance at work. One of these individuals was to be their immediate supervisor. Participants were told that the persons they identified were going to assess their performance of certain behaviors on the job. The participants then distributed a survey packet to each of the identified individuals, who were instructed to act as raters of the participant's behavior. The raters completed the survey at a later time and returned it directly to the author in a postage-paid, pre-addressed envelope. The participant and rater responses were matched using a preassigned three-digit code to preserve privacy.

Participants and raters were assured confidentiality regarding their responses and were informed that all responses would be used for research purposes only.

The mean number of ratings received per participant was 3.83, for a total of 985 (190 men, 784 women) raters[3]. Of these raters, 63% were the participant's coworkers, 24% were supervisors, 9% were subordinates, 1% were customers, and 3% marked their relationship as 'other.' In addition to providing behavioral ratings, the raters reported on their relationship with the participant: 71% indicated that they had a better-than average working relationship, 78% stated that they spent at least a fair amount of time together, and 38% noted that they worked together for over four years.

Measures

Dispositional Aggressiveness. Aggressiveness was measured using the 22-item Conditional Reasoning Test (CRT) of Employee Aggression (James, 1998). Each CRT item presents a paragraph of information and four response options: one designed to appeal to individuals relying on a justification mechanism for aggressive behavior (assigned a value of +1), one constructive/prosocial response designed to appeal to nonaggressive individuals (assigned a value of −1), and two illogical responses (assigned zeros). Participants were instructed to choose the one answer that could be most reasonably inferred from (i.e., the most logical answer to) the information presented in the problem. High scores on this measure indicate a strong implicit cognitive readiness to aggress ($\alpha = .76$). Past research has confirmed the psychometric properties of this

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[3] This total resulted after removing twenty-six ratings from the study due to a lack of a working relationship between the rater and employee participant. If raters answered the question "How much time do you spend working with this person in a given day?" with the answer "No time at all", their ratings were discarded based on the assumption that they would not possess sufficient knowledge of the participant's on-the-job behaviors.

measure (Burroughs et al., 1999, 2000; James, 1998; James & Williams, 1997; McIntyre, 1995; Patton, 1998). Two sample CRT items may be found in Appendix C.

Organizational Injustice. The complete instrument developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993) was used to measure the three types of organizational injustice. Procedural injustice, or perceptions of unfairness of the organization's formal procedures, was measured with six items ($\alpha = .85$). Distributive injustice, or perceptions of inequity surrounding various work outcomes, was measured with five items ($\alpha = .70$). Interactional injustice, or perceptions that formal procedures have been enacted improperly, was measured with nine items ($\alpha = .96$). The response scale was a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). High scores on these scales indicate greater perceptions of organizational injustice. All of these items may be found in Appendix C.

Workplace Deviance. The 19-item behavioral checklist of workplace deviance developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000) was used to assess aggressive behaviors targeted at the organization (organizational deviance) and targeted toward other individuals (interpersonal deviance). While this measure has typically been used in a self-report fashion, in this study it was utilized as a peer-report. Therefore, minor alterations to the items had to occur such as changing "your" to "their" to clarify the target of the rating. The raters indicated the frequency with which they had personally witnessed the employee participant engaged in deviant behaviors within the last year by using a five-point Likert scale ranging from *never* (1), *several times a year* (2), *monthly* (3), *weekly* (4), and *daily* (5). High scores indicate a greater frequency of deviance. The coefficient alpha was .90 for both the 12-item organizational deviance scale and the 7-

item interpersonal deviance scale. The means, standard deviations, and base rates for the 19 items are presented in Table 3. Appendix C also displays the deviant behavioral checklist as utilized in this study.

Aggregation of Workplace Deviance Ratings

In order to test the hypotheses and research questions posed above, it was necessary to aggregate individual rater's responses on the deviant behavior checklist measures. The rwg(j) statistic (James, 1982; James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984, 1993) was computed to provide empirical support for the aggregation of the rater data. An average rwg(j) of .97 was found across the items measuring interpersonal deviance. Similarly, an average rwg(j) of .97 was found across the items measuring organizational deviance. These two values were greater than the .60 cutoff recommended by James (1982), indicating adequate agreement among raters with regard to deviant behavior rated on individual employees. Accordingly, for each employee participant, their respective raters' item responses of deviant workplace behavior were averaged (i.e., aggregated) to create mean level scale scores of Interpersonal Deviance and Organizational Deviance. This procedure changed the size of the rater sample from $\underline{N}$ = 985 before aggregation (recall that there was an average of 3.83 raters per employee participant) to $\underline{N}$ = 262 after aggregation.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Composite scores of dispositional aggressiveness, organizational injustice, and workplace deviance were calculated as the average of the multi-item scales. Table 4 contains the means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and reliabilities.[4] It should be noted that the rather high intercorrelation between procedural and interactional injustice ($r = .81$, $p < .01$) was not surprising given past research findings which suggest that interactional injustice perceptions may be a subset of procedural injustice perceptions (cf. Bromiley & Cummings, 1993). Furthermore, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) found an intercorrelation of .69 between the two variables and Skarlicki et al. (1999) reported an intercorrelation of .64.[5] In addition, the correlation between the two workplace deviance scales was moderate ($r = .64$, $p < .05$) and almost identical to the correlation reported by Bennett and Robinson (2000; $r = .69$, $p < .05$) between these scales. This suggests that the two types of scales are distinct but related, and that the correlation between the scales remained about the same in this peer-rated sample as compared to the self-reported sample used in the Bennett and Robinson (2000) research. Finally, the scores on the CRT ranged from +9 to -22 with a mean of –14.52, indicating that on average the research participants tended to accord a logical priority to the nonaggressive response

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[4] It should be noted that results that are statistically significant at the $p < .10$ level are presented to provide additional information. Significance levels do not measure the strength of statistical associations but rather the probability of a result given the validity of the null hypothesis. Because the relationships investigated in this study are somewhat exploratory in nature (given the use of both self-report and conditional reasoning methodologies, peer reports of deviance, etc.), it was deemed appropriate to discuss findings that are significant at a slightly higher probability level than what may be considered the conventional statistical standard (i.e., $p < .05$).

[5] Results from Skarlicki et al. (1999) are based on a subset of the data utilized in Skarlicki and Folger (1997).

alternatives when solving the problems. However, there were individuals in the sample who received higher scores on the instrument indicating an implicit cognitive preparedness to aggress.

<u>Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3: Tests of Direct Effects</u>

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 were tested through the use of correlational analyses. The results are shown in Table 4. Significant positive correlations were found between interpersonal deviance and procedural injustice ($r = .12$, $p < .05$), distributive injustice ($r = .16$, $p < .01$), and interactional injustice ($r = .09$, $p = .08$). These results provided support for Hypothesis 1. However, no significant relationships were found between the injustice variables and organizational deviance. Hypothesis 2 was supported based on the significant positive correlations observed between dispositional aggressiveness and both interpersonal deviance ($r = .20$, $p < .01$) and organizational deviance ($r = .09$, $p = .08$). Furthermore, significant positive correlations were found between dispositional aggressiveness and procedural injustice ($r = .10$, $p = .06$), distributive injustice ($r = .15$, $p < .01$), and interactional injustice ($r = .09$, $p = .06$), thereby providing support for Hypothesis 3.

<u>Research Questions 1, 2, and 3: Tests of Mediator Effects</u>

To test the mediation models proposed in Research Questions 1, 2, and 3, the statistical analysis framework of James and Brett (1984) was used. A series of hierarchical regression equations were estimated to test whether there was a mediating effect of the various perceptions of organizational injustice (procedural, distributive, interactional) on the relationship between dispositional aggressiveness and both forms of workplace deviance (interpersonal, organizational). To test the Research Questions, the following analyses were performed: (a) each mediator (injustice variable) was separately

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regressed on the independent variable (aggressiveness), (b) the dependent variable (workplace deviance) was regressed on all of the mediators (injustice variables) simultaneously, and (c) holding the mediators (injustice variables) constant, the dependent variable (workplace deviance) was regressed on the independent variable (aggressiveness). This procedure was followed for both the dependent variables of interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance. To establish full mediation, the first two regression equations must yield significant results whereas the effect of the independent variable (aggressiveness) on the dependent variable (workplace deviance) must be nonsignificant in the third equation. To establish partial mediation, all three regression equations must be significant. The results regarding Research Questions 1, 2, and 3 are shown in Table 5 and visually displayed in Figures 2 and 3.

Research Question 1 proposed that the relationship between dispositional aggressiveness and organizational deviance would be partially mediated by perceptions of procedural injustice. There was no support for this proposition. While procedural injustice was significantly related to aggressiveness in the first equation ($F_{1,260} = 2.34$, $p = .06$; $\beta = .10$, $p = .06$), organizational deviance was not significantly related to procedural injustice in the second equation ($F_{3,253} = .359$, $p > .10$; $\beta = .03$, $p > .10$). However, in the third equation, there was a significant relationship between organizational deviance and aggressiveness after holding the effects of the mediator variables constant ($F_{1,255} = 1.51$, $p = .09$; $\beta = .08$, $p = .09$). This finding suggests that aggressiveness does not operate through perceptions of procedural injustice in the prediction of organizational deviance, but rather is directly related to this dependent variable. Interestingly, similar results were found when examining aggressiveness,

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procedural injustice, and interpersonal deviance. In this analysis, procedural injustice was significantly related to aggressiveness in the first equation ($F_{1, 260}$ = 2.34, p = .06; β = .10, p = .06), and was not significantly related to interpersonal deviance in the second equation ($F_{3, 253}$ = 2.42, p < .05; β = .11, p > .10), while aggressiveness was significantly related to interpersonal deviance in the third equation after holding the effects of the mediator variables constant ($F_{1, 255}$ = 8.01, p < .01; β = .18, p < .01). Like the aforementioned finding with organizational deviance, this suggests that aggressiveness does not operate through perceptions of procedural injustice in the prediction of interpersonal deviance, but rather is directly related to this dependent variable.

Research Question 2 inquired into whether distributive injustice partially mediates the relationship between aggressiveness and organizational deviance and/or the relationship between aggressiveness and interpersonal deviance. Findings provide support for the latter proposition and not the former. Utilizing interpersonal deviance as the dependent variable, results indicate that distributive injustice was significantly related to aggressiveness in the first equation ($F_{1, 260}$ = 5.90, p < .01; β = .15, p < .01), interpersonal deviance was significantly related to distributive injustice in the second equation ($F_{3, 253}$ = 2.42, p < .05; β = .15, p < .05), and interpersonal deviance was significantly related to aggressiveness in the third equation after holding the effects of the mediator variables constant ($F_{1, 255}$ = 8.01, p < .01; β = .18, p < .01). This finding suggests that aggressiveness operates through perceptions of distributive injustice in the prediction of interpersonal deviance as well as having a direct effect on the dependent variable. In short, the relationship between aggressiveness and interpersonal deviance is partially mediated by distributive injustice.

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Alternatively, it appeared that distributive injustice did not mediate the relationship between aggressiveness and organizational deviance. Results showed that distributive injustice was significantly related to aggressiveness in the first equation ($F_{1, 260} = 5.90$, $p < .01$; $\beta = .15$, $p < .01$); however, distributive injustice was not significantly related to organizational deviance in the second equation ($F_{3, 253} = .359$, $p > .10$; $\beta = .06$, $p > .10$). Finally, aggressiveness was significantly related to organizational deviance in the third equation after holding the effects of the mediator variables constant ($F_{1, 255} = 1.51$, $p = .09$; $\beta = .08$, $p = .09$). This finding suggests that aggressiveness does not operate through perceptions of distributive injustice in the prediction of organizational deviance, but rather is directly related to this dependent variable.

Finally, Research Question 3 proposed that the relationship between dispositional aggressiveness and interpersonal deviance might be partially mediated by perceptions of interactional injustice. The results indicated a lack of support for this proposition. While interactional injustice was significantly related to aggressiveness in the first equation ($F_{1, 260} = 2.28$, $p = .06$; $\beta = .09$, $p = .06$), interpersonal deviance was not significantly related to interactional injustice in the second equation ($F_{3, 253} = 2.42$, $p < .05$; $\beta = .08$, $p > .10$). Finally, in the third equation, there was a significant relationship between interpersonal deviance and aggressiveness after holding the effects of the mediator variables constant ($F_{1, 255} = 8.01$, $p < .01$; $\beta = .18$, $p < .01$). This finding suggests that aggressiveness does not operate through perceptions of interactional injustice in the prediction of interpersonal deviance, but rather is directly related to this dependent variable. In addition, similar findings resulted when using organizational deviance as the dependent variable such that interactional injustice was significantly related to aggressiveness in the first equation ($F_{1, 260}$

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= 2.28, p = .06; β = .09, p = .06) and was not significantly related to organizational deviance in the second equation ($F_{3, 253}$ = .359, p > .10; β = .03, p > .10), while aggressiveness was significantly related to organizational deviance in the third equation after holding the effects of the mediator variables constant ($F_{1, 255}$ = 1.51, p = .09; β = .08, p = .09). Like the aforementioned finding with interpersonal deviance, this suggests that aggressiveness does not operate through perceptions of interactional injustice in the prediction of organizational deviance, but rather is directly related to this dependent variable.

Supplemental Analyses

Additional analyses were conducted to better understand the results. First, given the high correlation between procedural and interactional injustice, the mediating effect of each of these variables was examined separately along with distributive injustice in additional mediation analyses. It was thought that by including only one of these injustice variables with distributive injustice in the same equation (entering two injustice variables simultaneously rather than all three), any potential problems associated with the multicollinearity between the procedural and interactional injustice variables may be accounted for thereby yielding different results. In one of these mediation analyses, (a) the first equation regressed procedural injustice and distributive injustice onto aggressiveness, (b) the second equation regressed workplace deviance on both of these mediators, and (c) the third equation examined the relationship between workplace deviance and aggressiveness after holding the effects of these two mediators constant. This procedure was followed for both dependent variables. Results indicated that aggressiveness does not operate through perceptions of procedural injustice or distributive injustice in the prediction of organizational deviance, but rather is directly

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related to this dependent variable. Results also indicated that aggressiveness does not operate through perceptions of procedural injustice in the prediction of interpersonal deviance, however, the relationship between aggressiveness and interpersonal deviance is partially mediated by perceptions of distributive injustice.

In another mediation analysis, (a) the first equation regressed distributive injustice and interactional injustice onto aggressiveness, (b) the second equation regressed workplace deviance on both of these mediators, and (c) the third equation examined the relationship between workplace deviance and aggressiveness after holding the effects of these two mediators constant. This procedure was followed for both dependent variables. Results indicated that aggressiveness does not operate through perceptions of distributive injustice or interactional injustice in the prediction of organizational deviance, but rather is directly related to this dependent variable. Results also indicated that aggressiveness does not operate through perceptions of interactional injustice in the prediction of interpersonal deviance, however, the relationship between aggressiveness and interpersonal deviance is partially mediated by perceptions of distributive injustice. Overall, the findings from these additional mediation analyses were no different from those provided above based on regression equations using all three (rather than two) injustice variables.

In addition, on the basis of James and Brett (1984), an investigation was untaken to determine whether any of the proposed mediated relationships were also reflected by moderated relationships. To test this, several hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. All measures were standardized and relevant cross products (i.e., interaction

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terms) were calculated.[6] Several regression analyses were performed, utilizing interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance as separate dependent variables. For each analysis, the following hierarchical steps were followed: (a) in the first step, an injustice variable and dispositional aggressiveness were entered as a block, and (b) in the second step, the interactions between the injustice variable and dispositional aggressiveness (i.e., cross products) were added as a block. Moderation is supported when the addition of the interaction term (the product of the moderator and the predictor) results in a significant increment in variance associated with the dependent variable beyond the variance accounted for by the main effects.

Results indicated that none of the interaction terms (i.e., procedural injustice X aggressiveness, distributive injustice X aggressiveness, interactional injustice X aggressiveness) were significantly related to either dependent variable. However, through the computation of additional regression analyses, it was discovered that dispositional aggressiveness added unique variance in the prediction of workplace deviance beyond the effects of injustice perceptions alone. Specifically, aggressiveness was the single best predictor among the independent variables of both forms of workplace deviance. When entered first in a hierarchical regression, aggressiveness accounted for a significant portion of the variation ($R^2 = .008$, $p = .07$ for organizational deviance; $R^2 = .04$, $p < .01$ for interpersonal deviance). When entering the three injustice perceptions first, the explanatory power of aggressiveness was reduced, but remained significant ($\Delta R^2 = .006$, $p = .09$ for organizational deviance; $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .01$ for interpersonal deviance). These

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[6] All measures were standardized prior to cross product calculation and regression analysis in order to place all measures on the same scale, and to ameliorate the multicollinearity of the individual predictors with the cross products containing the hypothesized interactions (Cohen & Cohen, 1983).

findings mirror those reported in the Aquino et al. (1999) and the Skarlicki et al. (1999) studies that utilized negative affectivity and agreeableness as individual difference variables. Overall, empirical evidence is building which depicts the important role of personality constructs in the prediction of deviant workplace behavior.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

This study contributes to existing research in several ways. First, it examined relationships between aggressiveness, three types of organizational injustice, and two forms of workplace deviance. Second, it investigated whether perceptions of injustice mediate the relationship between aggressiveness and workplace deviance. Specifically, it explored the psychological mechanisms that may underlie the aggressiveness→ perceived injustice→deviance relationships by illuminating the social-cognitive processes involved among these variables. Third, it focused on the sources of evocative stimuli that may trigger deviant responses in aggressive individuals to better specify the likely targets of this destructive behavior. It assessed two distinct categories of workplace deviance and the differential effects of aggressiveness and injustice perceptions on those deviance categories. Fourth, it employed measures for data collection purposes that differed from past research. Peer-reports rather than self-reports of workplace deviance were utilized thereby providing a unique source for ratings. Furthermore, the CRT (James, 1998) provided a means to identify aggressive individuals based on their propensities to rely on qualitatively distinct perspectives and interpretive adjectives to impute psychological significance to behaviors, people, environments, and events (i.e., differential framing). Qualitative differences in framing is believed to provide stronger differentiation among individuals than the typical measurement system, which attempts to assess psychological meaning using a self-report scale for all respondents (e.g., how much each respondent agrees with the statement "I have a temper").

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The data modestly supported the hypotheses. A few results were presented that may be considered nonsignificant by conventional statistical standards which rely upon the .05 level of significance, but were close enough to this standard (i.e., $p < .10$, actual probability levels are provided in the results section) to be deemed worthy of interpretation given the somewhat investigative nature of this study (e.g., use of self-report and conditional reasoning methodologies, peer reports of deviance, etc.). Perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional injustice were positively related to peer-reports of interpersonal deviance, with correlations similar to those depicted in past research that utilized self-reports of deviance. Greater perceptions of injustices were related to more frequent incidents of deviance targeted toward individuals. However, nonsignificant relationships were found between all three injustice perceptions and peer-reports of organizational deviance, thereby contradicting past research utilizing self-reported deviance (Aquino et al., 1999; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fox et al., 1999). Furthermore, dispositional aggressiveness was positively related to distributive, procedural, and interactional injustice as well as to both forms workplace deviance. Individuals with aggressive personalities perceived more injustices and engaged in more deviant behaviors at work than nonaggressive individuals. These findings specify the important role that individual differences play in the appraisal of workplace events as unfair and in choices of behavioral responses. Additional analyses confirmed that aggressiveness added unique variance to the prediction of both interpersonal and organizational deviance beyond injustice perceptions alone.

Taken together, these results depicted higher and more often significant correlations with the Interpersonal Deviance scale rather than the Organizational

Deviance scale. This may have occurred because other people rated target employees in this study, and these individuals may be more likely to observe interpersonally-focused rather than organizationally-focused deviant behaviors. It is interesting to note, however, the prevalence of both forms of deviance as assessed by the base rates, providing some support for the belief among researchers that verbal, passive, and subtle acts represent the largest portion of deviant workplace behaviors, and need to be studied further because they may lead to more intense, overtly aggressive, and/or violent acts (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Folger & Baron, 1996; Neuman & Baron, 1998).

Based on the results of the mediation analyses, it appears that aggressive individuals who perceive distributive injustices in their work environments act out toward others as a result of this injustice compared to those who are less aggressive. In short, aggressive individuals perceived people, rather than the organization, as the source of unfair distributions of work outcomes thereby increasing their motivation to engage in deviant behaviors toward others. One reason for this finding may be that aggressive individuals ignored or lacked sufficient information about the distribution of outcomes and chose not to question the organizational system, but rather questioned the people perceived as being responsible for the negative outcome (Crosby, 1984; Robinson & Bennett, 1997). Another explanation may be that the immediate consequences of retaliating against the organization may be too costly (i.e., result in being fired), while acting out toward others was believed to be a less risky reaction. This finding is in line with Adams' (1963, 1965) seminal work in equity theory, which suggested that workers evaluate their relationships with other workers by assessing their ratio of rewards (outcomes) to contributions (inputs) in comparison to the corresponding ratios of the

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other workers. If the outcome/input ratio of the worker and comparison other are unequal, then inequity exists and the worker may become motivated to redress it. The most commonly studied responses to inequity are behavioral in nature, and include raising or lowering work inputs (Greenberg, 1988), or in extreme cases, quitting a job (Greenberg, 1982, 1987). This study provides initial evidence that another behavioral response may include engaging in interpersonal deviance. More specifically, it appears that aggressive individuals engage in this behavior, namely due to their tendency to attribute hostile intent to the perceived source of the injustice (Anderson, Jennings, & Arnoult, 1988; Dodge, 1980; Dodge & Coie, 1987; Dodge & Newman, 1981; Dodge, Price, Bachorowski, & Newman, 1990; James, 1998; Kramer, 1995; Nasby, Hayden, & DePaulo, 1979; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996).

Another finding from the mediation analyses is that aggressive individuals perceive all three types of injustices in the work environment and engage in deviant workplace acts regardless of the influence of these injustices (e.g., results support a direct relationship between dispositional aggressiveness and workplace deviance after controlling for the effects of injustice perceptions). Thus, aggressiveness has a direct and unique impact on deviant behavior, and does not indirectly affect deviance by systematically operating through perceptions of injustice. One explanation for this finding may have to do with the use of the conditional reasoning measurement system (James, 1998), which assessed differences in personality that engender differences in framing and analyses. Because conditional reasoning identifies the types of reasoning biases – justification mechanisms – that people with aggressive personalities are likely to employ to rationalize what they consider to be reasonable behavioral responses to unfair

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events, it may include an assessment of perceived injustices as well. Hence, conditional reasoning may be capturing elements of the injustice constructs thereby resulting in a lack of mediated relations with injustice and yielding direct relationships with workplace deviance.

Limitations and Future Research

There are several limitations to the current study that provide a point of departure for future research. First, there is a need for data concerning several intervening factors that were not addressed in this study. These factors include: (1) additional individual difference variables, such as Type A behavior pattern, anger, and stress capacity; (2) organizational factors, such as climate, social norms, changes, and security measures; and (3) organizational policies and practices that may influence deviant responses, such as employee assistance programs and managerial training (Baron, 1994; Neuman & Baron, 1998; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996; Spector, 1975, 1978). For instance, by studying the climate of the organization and identifying specific instances of situational injustices, one may discover whether an organizational value of fairness and non-violence exists that may impact the frequency of deviant acts. Furthermore, future studies may gather reports from perpetrators, victims, and witnesses of workplace deviance to better study the hazardous effects of reactions to an aggressive work context.

A second limitation is that the aggressiveness→injustice→deviance relationship could not be addressed over time due to the cross-sectional research design employed in the present study. Although there is disagreement about the utility of detecting causal effects with cross-sectional data (cf. James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1982), such a research design was chosen with the rationale that perceptions about one's work environment

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might have immediate implications for one's evaluation of organizational injustices and deviant behavioral responses. However, it is recommended that future studies utilize longitudinal and quasi-experimental designs. For example, the effects of specific job situations could be investigated using a pretest-posttest design (see Greenberg, 1990b). Comparisons between people affected by a situation with those unaffected by the situation could be made. Such a research design would allow for investigations into the impact of injustice perceptions on employees with certain dispositional attributes as well as perhaps provide some information on how justification mechanisms arise. Furthermore, given that work environments are rapidly changing due to mergers, downsizing, and technological advancements, it would be of interest to track changes in climate perceptions and situational events that follow these work environment changes, and how these changes affect employee perceptions of injustices over time.

A third limitation is that specific personality, perceptual, and demographic variables of the raters of deviant workplace behavior were not measured. Attributional tendencies (e.g., self-serving bias, recency error) were not studied or used to frame and explain how raters assessed deviant behaviors. The ratings of deviant behaviors may have been a function of the rater's attitudes toward deviance and other personality variables. The raters of these acts may have a commitment toward the organization and its norms that make them judge deviance more or less harshly. Just as nonaggressive employees who have internalized organizational norms are more likely to refrain from workplace deviance (Robinson & Kraatz, 1998), so might nonaggressive raters high in organizational commitment be more likely to criticize or react negatively to a workplace deviant. Future studies should examine rater attributions and perspectives as factors in

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resulting assessments of workplace deviance. In addition, future studies should send the deviance assessments directly to the raters rather than relying upon the employee participants to distribute them. Such a direct distribution would decrease the likelihood that friends of the employee participants complete the deviance ratings.

A fourth limitation is related to the sample used in this study. The sample included employees from a hospital in the southern U.S. Furthermore, it was largely comprised of female workers and those who marked 'other' as their demographic group (which included Caucasians). These factors may limit the generalizability of the results. Future studies should incorporate more men and persons from different demographic backgrounds. Additional research is also needed that investigates ratings of deviance on groups of individuals rather than focusing on ratings of one individual because some evidence exists that supports the notion of collectively perpetrated violence (Friedman & Robinson, 1993; Jeffreys-Jones, 1974; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996; New York Times, 1993; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998).

A fifth noteworthy issue to discuss is the modest relationships found among all the variables examined in this study. With regard to the injustice-deviance link, the correlations found here slightly differ from those found in past research (namely the nonsignificant correlations with organizational deviance) and this may have resulted because deviance was assessed by an average of 3.83 peer raters in this study. This deviates from prior research conducted by Skarlicki and colleagues that utilized one peer rater, and from other studies that employed self-reports of deviance (Aquino et al., 1999; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fox et al., 1999). Furthermore, the aggressiveness-deviance findings are in line with prior research conducted by Burroughs and colleagues that

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showed that the CRT was more highly correlated with objective workplace criteria such as grievances and disciplinary actions than with subjective workplace criteria such as performance appraisal ratings (Burroughs et al., 2000). Interestingly, the opposite result was found with self-reports of aggressiveness. Self-reported aggressiveness was more highly correlated with subjective workplace criteria than with objective workplace criteria. Finally, the modest injustice-aggressiveness correlations may have resulted from the utilization of two different methodologies (self-report and conditional reasoning). Because the CRT was designed to measure latent motives to aggress, one does not expect a large overlap between self-report measures (i.e., direct and conscious measures) and CRT measures (i.e., indirect and unconscious measures). In fact, past research has shown a history of low correlations between self-report measures of conscious cognitions and measures of implicit cognitions (James, 1998; James et al., under review; Winter, John, Stewart, Klohnen, & Duncan, 1998). Overall, one could speculate that the higher correlations found in prior studies may have resulted from method variance problems because self-reported variables were oftentimes related to self-reported variables. Future research is needed to explore this issue in greater detail.

An additional, important issue to address along these lines is that of range restriction. Range restriction is a common problem facing organizational researchers examining negative topics in the workplace such as those assessed in this study. Range restriction results when sample correlations deviate from population correlations and oftentimes occurs when explicit selection on a variable of interest results in a loss of observations above or below a certain value on this variable, thereby potentially restricting variance on both the predictor and/or criterion variables. Range restriction

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may have been an issue in this study given that it is highly likely that the hospital employees were selected into the organization based on test scores with specific cutoffs (paying particular attention to excluding potential organizational deviants), as well as additional cutoffs such as minimum education requirements and unscored, unrecorded informal interviews. Hence, range restriction may provide another explanation (in additional to those provided above) for the modest correlations found in this study. While there is a large body of literature on methods to correct for the effects of range restriction, Sackett and Yang (2000) recently recommended that researchers use caution when applying corrections in situations where unmeasured variables play a role. Given that specific and objective workplace situations (that may be perceived as unjust) were not assessed in this study, and the processes by which the range restriction from the population of interest were not well documented, it was deemed inappropriate to apply any correction formulas in this sample. Future studies may be designed in such a way to combat this issue although field researchers may have difficulty given the sensitive nature of the topic of interest (workplace deviance).

Finally, this research provided theoretical support and rationale for the overarching idea that dispositional characteristics may be channeled and expressed in different ways based on different types of injustice. Therefore, opportunities for future research are plentiful. The integration of conditional reasoning and organizational injustice is likely to give way to more complex models that consider multiple motives and injustices simultaneously. It has been demonstrated that when researchers deal with situations in which it is expected that personality will be influential, namely with situations that are personally evocative to individuals and in which individuals are

empowered to make decisions about how to behave, then integrative models are the best means to explain behavior (Endler & Magnusson, 1976; House, Shane, & Herold, 1996; Magnusson, 1994; Mischel, 1973; Winter et al., 1998). Integrative models represent the cutting edge in personality research because they suggest a rebirth of personality in organizational research is needed, and that to date some key concepts (e.g., latent motives, differential framing) have been overlooked (James & Mazerolle, in press). Perhaps of even more concern is that in its present state, injustice research may be misinterpreting some of its data by concentrating on situational events and largely ignoring the contribution of individual differences. Through increased understanding of the characteristics and cognitive affective processes that result in the evaluation of injustice, we may move forward in the reduction of the potential harmful effects of negative reactions.

Implications for Practice

      It can be inferred from this study that organizations wishing to reduce workplace deviance may do so by focusing on both individual characteristics and situational events that may lead to perceptions of injustice. This recommendation, however, should be interpreted with caution in light of the fact that more research is needed to better understand the models proposed and tested in this study. However, past research has noted that a failure to consider both of these components has caused considerable problems for organizational change efforts (Cascio, 1989). For example, it has been found that organizational change heightens employees' sensitivity to unfairness and increases aggressive tendencies (Neuman, Baron, & Geddes, 1996) as well as feelings of anger and frustration (Brockner, Tyler, & Cooper-Schneider, 1992). Interestingly,

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justice-related voice research shows that employees are more willing to tolerate unfair allocations (e.g., layoffs, pay raises, etc.) when they believe that they have had a say in the process used to determine the allocation (Bies, Shapiro, & Cummings, 1988). Thus, organizational change practices could be informed by a greater understanding of individual differences and responses to unfairness.

Some individual-level interventions include training managers to treat employees with respect and to model nonviolence, because managers play a key role in supporting an organizational culture that either tolerates or discourages deviant behavior (Greenberg, 1997). Several researchers have suggested that managers (1) provide clear and rational reasons for decisions, especially the division of rewards, (2) adequately consider others' viewpoints, (3) suppress personal biases, (4) consistently apply decision-making criteria, (5) provide timely feedback about decisions, (6) apply similar types of punishment to similar deviant acts, and (7) match the severity of punishment to the perceived seriousness of a deviant act (Bies et al., 1988; Folger & Baron, 1996; Folger & Bies, 1989; Leventhal, 1980; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Tyler & Bies, 1989). Furthermore, all employees, including managers, should become aware that individuals with aggressive tendencies perceive historical injustice in life, and are especially sensitive to unfair treatment by others, namely persons in positions of authority. Overall, employers should try to ensure fair treatment and a less stressful working environment (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996).

Some organizational-level interventions could also be implemented to prevent or cope with workplace deviance. For example, wellness programs, physical exercise, social support, and anger management and positive assertiveness workshops could help

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employees learn to reduce the expression of experienced negative emotion (Fox et al.,

1999). Workplace violence prevention training and communication may be utilized to

stress organizational values and policies against workplace deviance. The message from

the training should contain an explicit appeal for trainee's help in monitoring and dealing

with workplace deviance, regardless of who or what trainees blame for the deviance

(Mack, Shannon, Quick, & Quick, 1998). The early identification of negative reactions

may provide the opportunity to find ways to halt deviant responses. In addition, "cyber-

venting pages" can be set up on an organization's intranet to allow disgruntled employees

to vent their anger and frustration about work-related issues (Leonard, 1999). Such pages

provide a quick and easy way for employees to anonymously communicate perceived

workplace inequities, while providing management with important information regarding

the mood of the workforce and existing problems within the organization. Finally, the

use of personality measures in employment selection situations may deselect individuals

with certain profiles through an identification of dispositional tendencies that are

associated with behavioral problems.

Conclusion

It is surprising that until very recently (cf. Aquino et al., 1999; Skarlicki et al.,

1999) researchers neglected to make an empirical connection between organizational

injustices and individual differences in the cognitive appraisal process. While the former

is concerned with events in the environment, the latter is based on evaluations occurring

within us. This study has attempted to harmonize the organizational injustice and

cognition paradigms by considering individual differences in aggressiveness in the

evaluation of injustices. Having established a link between organizational injustice and

dispositional aggressiveness, new ideas were presented. It is believed that a theory of injustice that is devoid of individual differences is a theory missing what is perhaps the most fundamental part of the appraisal process. In this sense, I believe the models proposed and tested here are a step in the right direction, particularly for researchers attempting to identify the triggers and targets of deviant workplace behaviors that waste a tremendous amount of both financial and human resources.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

FIGURES

H2
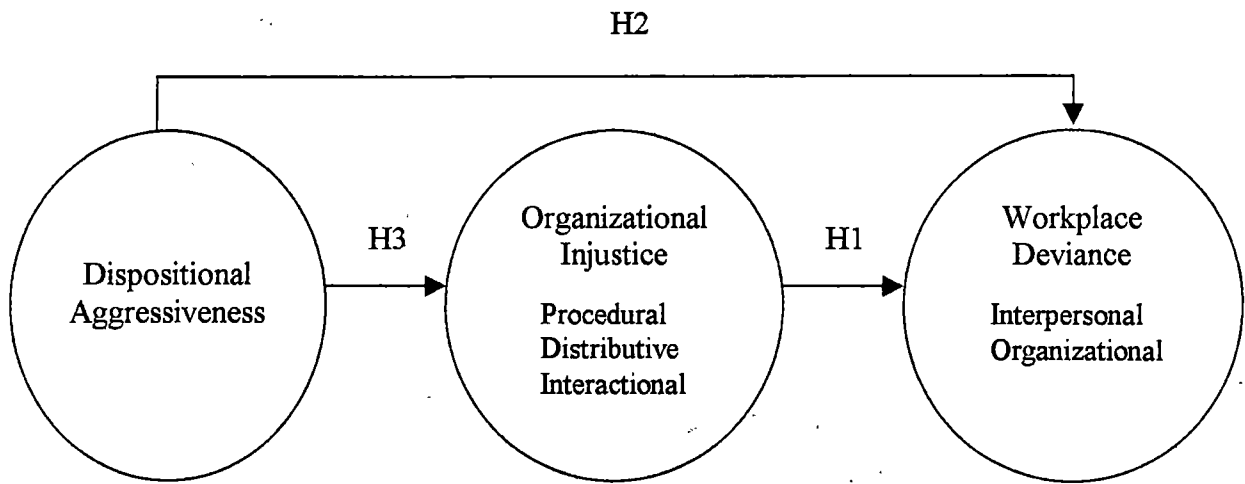
Also:

RQ1 RQ2 RQ3

Note. H = Hypothesis
       RQ = Research Question

Figure 1. Proposed model of organizational injustice as a mediator of the relationship

between dispositional aggressiveness and workplace deviance

.08^

Procedural
Injustice

Dispositional
Aggressiveness

Distributive
Injustice

Organizational
Deviance

Interactional
Injustice

.10^

.15**

.09^

.03

.06

.03
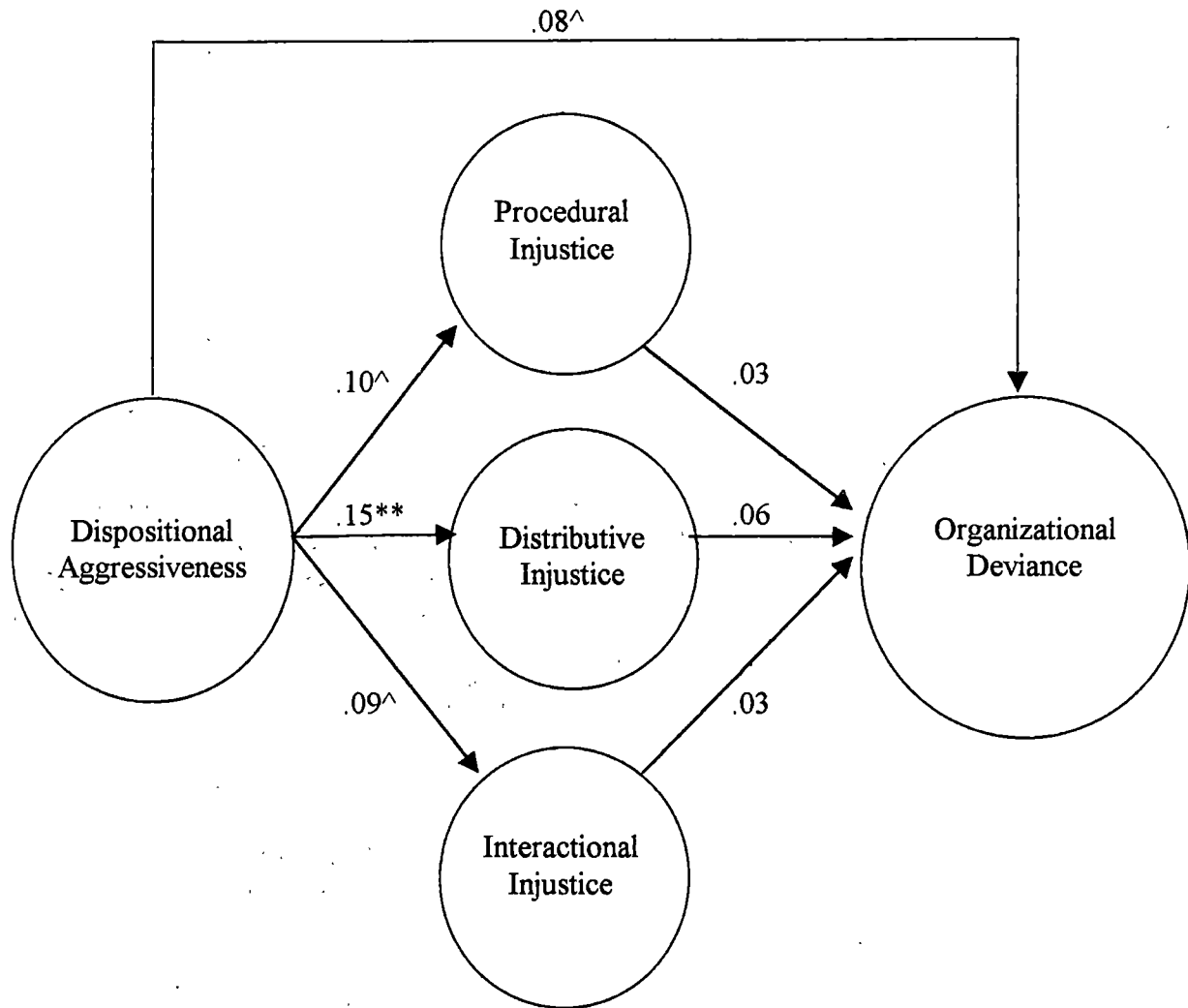
Note. Standardized beta coefficients are depicted on each line.
        ^ p < .10   * p < .05   ** p < .01   (one-tailed).

Figure 2. A model of organizational injustice as a mediator of the relationship between

dispositional aggressiveness and organizational deviance

70

.18**

Procedural
Injustice

.10^

.15**

Distributive
Injustice

.11

.15*

Dispositional
Aggressiveness

Interpersonal
Deviance

.09^

.08

Interactional
Injustice
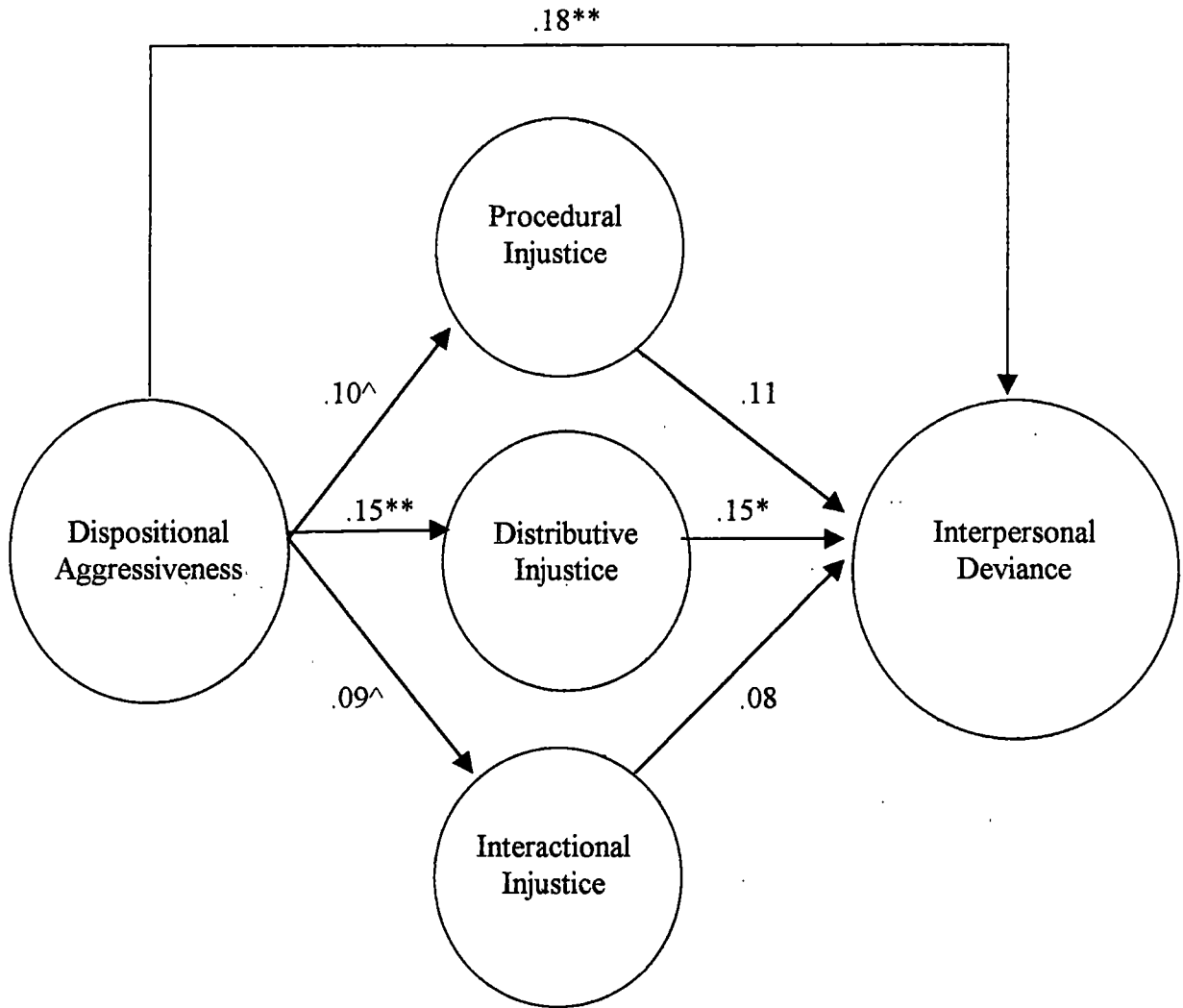
Note. Standardized beta coefficients are depicted on each line.
^ $p < .10$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (one-tailed).

Figure 3. A model of organizational injustice as a mediator of the relationship between

dispositional aggressiveness and interpersonal deviance

APPENDIX B

TABLES

Table 1

Bennett and Robinson (2000) Interpersonal and Organizational Deviance Scale Items

---

Interpersonal Deviance

Made fun of someone at work.
Said something hurtful to someone at work.
Made an ethnic, religious or racial remark at work.
Cursed at someone at work.
Played a mean prank on someone at work.
Acted rudely toward someone at work.
Publicly embarrassed someone at work.

Organizational Deviance

Took property from work without permission.
Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working.
Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses.
Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace.
Came in late to work without permission.
Littered or dirtied their work environment.
Neglected to follow your boss's instructions.
Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked.
Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person.
Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job.
Put little effort into your work.
Dragged out work in order to get overtime.

Source: Bennett, R. J. & Robinson, S. L., (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 85, 349-360.

Table 2

James (1998) Justification Mechanisms for Aggression

Justification Mechanism	Definition
Hostile Attribution Bias	The tendency to see malevolent intent in actions of others. Even benign or friendly acts may be seen as having hidden, hostile agendas designed intentionally to inflict harm. An especially virulent form of this bias occurs when benign or positive acts are attributed to selfish concerns and negative incentives (e.g., a helpful suggestion by a supervisor is interpreted by an aggressive subordinate as an intentional attempt to demean his/her work).
Derogation of Target	An attempt to make the target more deserving of aggression. A number of negative characteristics may be ascribed to the target (e.g., corrupt, dishonest, evil, immoral, underhanded, unethical, untrustworthy). Or the positive traits of the target may be ignored, undervalued, or depreciated.
Retribution Bias	The tendency to confer logical priority to reparation or retaliation over reconciliation. Reflected in implicit beliefs that aggression is warranted in order to restore respect or exact restitution for a perceived wrong. Bias is also indicated by whether a person would rather retaliate than forgive, be vindicated as opposed to cooperate, and obtain revenge rather than maintain a relationship. This bias underlies classic rationalizations for aggression based on wounded pride, challenged self-esteem, and disrespect.
Victimization By Powerful Others	The tendency to frame self as a victim and to see self as being exploited and taken advantage of by the powerful (e.g., government agencies). Sets the stage for arguing that aggression is acting out against injustice, correcting an inequity, redressing wrongs, or striking out against oppression.
Potency Bias	The tendency to frame and reason using the contrast of strength versus weakness. For example, people with a strong potency bias tend to frame others on a continuum ranging from (a) strong, assertive, powerful, daring, fearless, or brave to (b) weak, impotent, submissive, timid, sheepish, compliant, conforming, or cowardly. This bias is used to justify aggression via arguments such as (a) aggression (e.g., confrontations with teachers, fights with coworkers) results in being perceived as brave or as a leader by others, and (b) weakness/ submissiveness invites aggression because it shows that one is willing to submit.
Social Discounting Bias	The tendency to call on socially unorthodox and frequently antisocial beliefs to interpret and to analyze social events and relationships. Disdainful of traditional ideals and conventional beliefs. Insensitive, unempathetic, unfettered by social customs. Directly cynical or critical, with few subliminal channels for routing antisocial framing and analyses.

Sources: James, L. R. (1998). Measurement of personality via conditional reasoning. Organizational Research Methods, 1(2), 131-163 and James, L. R., McIntyre, M. D., Glisson, C. A., Green, P. D., Patton, T. W., LeBreton, J. M., Mitchell, T. R., & Williams, L. J. (under review). Conditional reasoning: An indirect measurement system for implicit social cognitions. Journal of Applied Psychology.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Base Rates of 19 Workplace Deviance Items

		M	SD	Base Rate[a]
	Interpersonal Deviance Item			
1.	Made fun of someone at work	1.40	.77	27.7
2.	Said something hurtful to someone at work	1.32	.68	23.1
3.	Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark or joke at work	1.23	.59	17.0
4.	Cursed at someone at work	1.11	.43	8.1
5.	Played a mean prank on someone at work	1.11	.42	8.5
6.	Acted rudely toward someone at work	1.32	.66	24.2
7.	Publicly embarrassed someone at work	1.15	.46	11.2
	Organizational Deviance Item			
1.	Took property from work without permission	1.08	.35	6.2
2.	Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working	1.31	.70	20.9
3.	Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than they spent on business expenses	1.05	.29	4.2
4.	Taken an additional or a longer break than is acceptable at their workplace	1.57	.98	34.4
5.	Came in late to work without permission	1.31	.74	20.3
6.	Littered or dirtied their work environment	1.19	.58	12.7
7.	Neglected to follow their boss's instructions	1.24	.57	18.3
8.	Intentionally worked slower than they could have worked	1.29	.68	19.6
9.	Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person	1.14	.46	10.7
10.	Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job	1.04	.25	3.3
11.	Put little effort into their work	1.28	.72	18.6
12.	Dragged out work in order to get overtime	1.12	.45	8.0

Note. Responses ranged from *never* (1), *several times a year* (2), *monthly* (3), *weekly* (4), and *daily* (5).
[a] Percentage of raters who indicated that they had witnessed their target employee participate in the behavior over the last year.
N = 985.

75

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations for All Study Variables

Variable	$\underline{M}$	$\underline{SD}$	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Dispositional Aggressiveness	-14.52	4.58	(.76)					
2. Procedural Injustice	3.39	.78	.10^	(.85)				
3. Distributive Injustice	3.63	.65	.15**	.49**	(.70)			
4. Interactional Injustice	3.65	.80	.09^	.81**	.54**	(.96)		
5. Interpersonal Deviance	1.23	.30	.20**	.12*	.16**	.09^	(.90)	
6. Organizational Deviance	1.22	.29	.09^	.02	.06	.04	.64**	(.90)

Note. N-size ranged from 257 to 262 due to missing data.
Numbers in parentheses are alpha coefficients.
^ p < .10   * p < .05   ** p < .01 (one-tailed).

Table 5

Tests of Mediating Effects of Organizational Injustice on the Aggressiveness-Deviance Relationship

	Independent Variable Dispositional Aggressiveness				Dependent Variable Interpersonal Deviance				Dependent Variable Organizational Deviance			
	β	R²	F	df	β	R²	F	df	β	R²	F	df
EQUATION 1												
Mediator Variable												
Procedural Injustice	.10^	.010	2.34^	1, 260								
Distributive Injustice	.15**	.023	5.90**	1, 260								
Interactional Injustice	.09^	.009	2.28^	1, 260								
EQUATION 2												
Procedural Injustice					.11				.03			
Distributive Injustice					.15*				.06			
Interactional Injustice					.08				.03			
						.03	2.42*	3, 253		.01	.359	3, 253
EQUATION 3												
Independent Variable												
Dispositional Aggressiveness					.18**	.03	8.01**	1, 255	.08^	.01	1.51^	1, 255

Note. β = standardized beta coefficient.
Equation 3 was computed while holding the effects of the mediator variables constant.
N = 256 to 261.
^ p < .10 * p < .05 ** p < .01.

APPENDIX C

MEASURES

Conditional Reasoning Test for Employee Aggression Example Items

---

1. The old saying, "an eye for an eye," means that if someone hurts you, then you should hurt them back. If you are hit, then you should hit back. If someone burns your house, then you should burn their house.

   A problem with the "eye for an eye" plan is:

   A. it tells people to "turn the other cheek."
      - *illogical (+0)*
   B. it offers no means to settle a conflict in a friendly way.
      - *prosocial (-1)*
   C. it can only be used at certain times of the year.
      - *illogical (+0)*
   D. people have to wait until they are attacked before they can strike.
      - *aggressive (+1)*

2. American cars have gotten better in the last 15 years. American car makers started to build better cars when they began to lose business to the Japanese. Many American buyers thought that foreign cars were better made.

   This means that:

   A. America was the world's largest producer of airplanes 15 years ago.
      - *illogical (+0)*
   B. Swedish car makers lost business in America 15 years ago.
      - *illogical (+0)*
   C. the Japanese knew more than Americans about building good cars 15 years ago.
      - *prosocial (-1)*
   D. Fifteen years ago American car makers built cars to wear out, because they wanted to make a lot of money selling parts.
      - *aggressive (+1)*

Note. Scored answers are written in italics under each response option.
To obtain a copy of the complete measure, please contact Dr. Lawrence James at The University of Tennessee, 408 Stokely Management Center, Knoxville, TN 37996-0545.

Sources: James, L. R. (1998). Measurement of personality via conditional reasoning. Organizational Research Methods, 1(2), 131-163, and James, L. R. (personal communication, December 1, 1997).

Organizational Injustice Scale Items

Procedural Injustice

Job decisions are made by my manager in an unbiased manner.
My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.
To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information.
My manager 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 my manager.

Interactional Injustice

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

Distributive Injustice

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.

Source: Niehoff, B. P. & Moorman, R. H. (1993). Justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organizational citizenship behavior. Academy of Management Journal, 36, 527-556.

Interpersonal and Organizational Deviance Scale Items

_____

Interpersonal Deviance

Made fun of someone at work.
Said something hurtful to someone at work.
Made an ethnic, religious or racial remark at work.
Cursed at someone at work.
Played a mean prank on someone at work.
Acted rudely toward someone at work.
Publicly embarrassed someone at work.

Organizational Deviance

Took property from work without permission.
Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working.
Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than they spent on business expenses.
Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at their workplace.
Came in late to work without permission.
Littered or dirtied their work environment.
Neglected to follow their boss's instructions.
Intentionally worked slower than they could have worked.
Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person.
Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job.
Put little effort into their work.
Dragged out work in order to get overtime.

_____

Note. Some items were slightly altered to reflect their use as a peer-report measure rather than as a self-report measure. Most items required no alteration.

Source: Bennett, R. J. & Robinson, S. L., (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 85, 349-360.

VITA

Susan M. Burroughs was born in Des Plaines, Illinois on December 16, 1969 and grew up in nearby Mount Prospect, Illinois. She attended Fairview Elementary School, Lincoln Junior High School, and graduated from Central High School in 1988. After high school Susan attended William Rainey Harper College where she earned an Associate of Arts Degree with honors in 1990. She then went to Eastern Illinois University where she double-majored in psychology and speech communication. It was here that she found her niche in Industrial and Organizational Psychology and set her mind on becoming a professor. She graduated Cum Laude with a Bachelor of Arts Degree in 1992. From 1992-1993, Susan worked full-time as an Assistant Manager at Kaplan Educational Center where she helped students prepare for educational admission examinations. In 1993, she entered the Industrial and Organizational Psychology program at Roosevelt University, Chicago. She graduated with a Master of Arts Degree with honors in 1995.

Her big move out of Illinois came in the fall of 1995 when she entered the Industrial and Organizational Psychology program at The University of Tennessee (UT). While attending UT, Susan received several research awards, including the Walter Melville Bonham Memorial Dissertation Fellowship, the College of Business Administration Scholarly Research Grant, and the American Psychological Association Dissertation Research Award. She was also nominated by UT's College of Business Administration for outstanding teaching. She has published several refereed journal articles, a book chapter, magazine articles, and has presented numerous papers at professional conferences. Susan also gained applied experiences by working with several local organizations such as Covenant Healthcare Systems and the Tennessee Assessment

Center. She was also actively involved in the Graduate Teaching Assistant Mentoring Program and the Graduate Student Advisory Board. Susan was recently recognized for her accomplishments in the 2001 edition of Marquis Who's Who in the World.

Susan is affiliated with the Academy of Management, American Psychological Association, Chicago Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychologists, Society for Human Resource Management, Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, and Southern Management Association. In the fall of 2000 she returned to Illinois and joined the Department of Management at Roosevelt University, Chicago/Schaumburg as an Assistant Professor. She teaches classes in Human Resource Management, Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Organizational Behavior, and Statistics/Research Methods.

Outside of work Susan is devoted to her family and friends, to her cat Macy, and to her dog Ryli. She enjoys traveling, dancing, walking, drawing, visiting museums, and going to movies/theatre.