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# Validation of External Organizational Justice Assessment Through Replication, and Examination of Extraversion, Core Self-Evaluations, and Self-Monitoring as Moderators of the Relationship Between External Organizational Justice and Organizational Outcomes: A Two-Part Dissertation

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**VALIDATION OF EXTERNAL ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE ASSESSMENT  
THROUGH REPLICATION, AND EXAMINATION OF EXTRAVERSION,  
CORE SELF-EVALUATIONS, AND SELF-MONITORING AS  
MODERATORS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN  
EXTERNAL ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE  
AND ORGANIZATIONAL OUTCOMES:  
A TWO-PART DISSERTATION**

by

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A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Doctor of Education: Educational Leadership

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**Replication and Examination of Extraversion, Core Self-Evaluations, and Self-**

**Monitoring as Moderators of the Relationship Between External Organizational**

**Justice and Organizational Outcomes: A Two-Part Dissertation**

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## **ABSTRACT**

In the first portion of this two-part dissertation, I attempted to replicate the findings published in Toaddy (2012), illustrating the relationships between External Organizational Justice (EJ) and a collection of organizational outcomes. In the second portion, I examined how the variables of Extraversion, Core Self-Evaluations (CSE), and Self-Monitoring (SM) moderate the relationships that were established in Toaddy (2012). The implications of this research attempted to illustrate the role that self-assessed personality factors can play in explaining and predicting the behavior of employees due to their perceptions of moral/immoral behaviors of their employers toward external entities. Cases that illustrate the importance of this research can be made out of a wide variety of scandals that businesses face on a daily basis, particularly in the age of social media and the nature of the viral video. However, the case that solidified this importance in my mind while I was developing the idea for the research was the incident with United Airlines and Dr. David Dao, in which the whole country was outraged by the behavior of the airline and the rough treatment the doctor received as he was bloodied and removed from the plane forcibly. Herein, we have a corporation and the behavior of that corporation toward an external entity. This is the basis for External Organizational Justice research. Moreover, the application of this study of behavior, we examine the impact of this behavior on the employees within that corporation. Will they still identify

with the company if they disagree with the exhibited behavior? Will the company lose money because they have employees that will start to willfully behavior negatively in their own job roles? How likely will turnover be impacted, and who within the base of employees is most likely to leave after news like this? Understanding the variables in this research can help answer these questions, but it also reinforces that positive or negative corporate behavior can have farther reaching impacts than a dip in popularity or a momentary drop in stock price.

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Date \_\_\_\_\_

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# CHAPTER 1

## STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

### The Problem (Parts 1 and 2)

#### Part 1: Replication

External Organizational Justice (EJ) is a young and budding nomothetical branch of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), having developed only within the early years of the twenty-first century (Greening & Turban, 2000; Rupp, Ganapathi, Aguilera, & Williams, 2006; Rupp, Wright, Aryee, & Luo, 2010). CSR is frequently used to represent a macro-level concept within the larger concepts of Moral Guidance and Deontic Justice Models and contains several sub-groups of micro-level concepts (Rupp, 2003; Rupp, 2011; Rupp & Bell, 2010; Rupp, Byrne, & Wadlington, 2003). Organizational Justice is one such sub-group, and the particular brand of Organizational Justice that is the focus in this study, EJ, presses further down that exploratory avenue in an attempt to understand what factors are antecedent to the observed organizational outcomes.

In looking at what previous research has been performed around the concepts of EJ, a successful assessment tool was developed (Toaddy, 2012). In the study, Dr. Toaddy first examined the justice models that existed surrounding the target issue of External organizational justice, and then worked to understand its position within the larger scope of morality, justice, and corporate social responsibility. Ultimately, the drive of his study was to perform the highly sought task of correctly stating the mediating effects

organizational member perceptions of organizational justice on the CSR-employee relationship, as hypothesized in Toaddy and Pond (2012).

Taking the 44 items proposed in Toaddy and Pond (2012), Dr. Toaddy pared down to an 11-item, three-factor assessment, based on data collected from the 44 previous items. He then collected fresh data and set about proving out the validity and reliability of the measure, ultimately finding that the new assessment tool was sound. The internal consistency of the new assessment tool was found to be 0.97.

During the discussion portion of Toaddy (2012), he points out that some of his hypothesized expectations were not proven out in the data. He goes on to state this instrument requires further scrutiny through empirical research, as some of the measures he was using may have a lack of overlap for certain measures of climate safety factors and EJ, as well as other areas. Given this, the first part of my research was simply the re-testing of Dr. Toaddy's External Organizational Justice assessment tool.

## **Part 2: Extension of Research**

The implications of having a well-constructed assessment tool begged further understanding of what strengthens or weakens the impacts on performance and behavior via employee perceptions of whether their organization behaves justly or unjustly toward external entities. I chose to assess this issue with a few of the more powerful personality traits to further our understanding of how dispositional characteristics of personnel within an organization will predispose a strengthening or weakening of employee sensitivity toward and reaction to organizational behavior, as well as the organizational outcomes that accompany perceptions of appropriate or inappropriate behavior.

Thus, the second part of my research aimed to better understand the influence that personality factors yield upon perceptions of EJ and the organizational outcomes used as benchmarks in Toaddy (2012). I examined the possible effects that Extraversion, Core Self-Evaluations (CSE), and Self-Monitoring (SM) might have produced, based on extant literature, on the relationships between EJ and the organizational outcomes of Quality of Work, Organizational Identification, Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB), and Attrition Intention (Liao & Rupp, 2005; Mayer, Nishii, Schneider, & Goldstein, 2007; Mudrack, 2007; O'Reilly & Aquino, 2011; Rahman & Post, 2012).

Extraversion is a large, multifaceted super-trait with different definitions from different theoretical and assessment perspectives from which it might be defined. Extraversion, in this study, is defined as the tendency to be more socially motivated, impulsive, and energetic (Eaves & Eysenck, 1975). The literature pointed toward a possible correlation to a stronger positive relationship between a positive external organizational view and Quality of Work, Organizational Identification, Organizational Commitment, and Job Satisfaction, while possibly also correlating with a weaker negative relationship to Attrition Intention and CWB. Extant literature supported this supposition, where the data show that extraverts are more likely to respond to the positive aspects, moods, and emotions, while not responding with the same magnitude to the negative aspects (Burnett, Williamson & Bartol, 2005; Costa & McCrae, 1980; Larsen & Ketelaar, 1989).

CSE is defined in this study as a higher-order personality factor composed of Core Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem, Locus of Control, and Neuroticism (Judge, Bono, &

Durham, 1997; Erez & Judge, 2001; Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Wellbourne, 1999; Chang, Ferris, Johnson, Rosen, & Tan, 2012). Those in this study who score lower on CSE, and particularly in the dimension of stability of personality (ergo, a higher score in the dimension of neuroticism) could have been much more likely to be prepared to respond to the negative aspects they encounter, given what was stated in the literature.

SM is operationalized as the level of ability or inability of individuals to consciously align their behaviors and expressive language to their social surroundings (Snyder, 1974; Ickes & Barnes, 1977; Barrick, Parks, & Mount, 2005). SM was split into three groups: Low SM, Moderate SM, and High SM. This split enabled us to compare high and low self-monitoring groups to a relative norm group.

EJ is defined in this study, in keeping with extant research, as the perception of personnel within a company about whether their organization is behaving morally and justly (Rupp, 2011; Rupp & Bell, 2010; Rupp, Ganpathi, Aguilera & Williams, 2006; Rupp, Williams & Aguilera, 2010; Toaddy, 2012). Quality of Work is defined here to be the level at which the output of the employee can be considered adequate for the given task, versus substandard (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010). Organizational Commitment is defined as the desire of the employee to contribute to the goals of the organization (Erdheim, Wang & Zicker, 2006; Jaworski & Kohli, 1993). Job Satisfaction is defined as the feeling that the employee might hold about whether their position within the company is fulfilling and worth the time and effort they would attribute to performing assigned work tasks (Judge, Heller & Mount, 2002; Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1999; Judge, Bono, Erez, & Locke, 2005; Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997; Erez & Judge, 2001; Judge &

Bono, 2001). Attrition intention is classically defined as whether or not the employee intends to leave the company or remain with their employer (Xu, 2008).

Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) is defined as an employee intentionally engaging in behaviors that would undermine the overall effectiveness of the organization (Kumar, Bakshi & Rani, 2009). Some examples of CWB include delaying performance of assigned tasks, theft of office supplies, or withholding vital information.

The proposed 2-part study attempted to contribute to the knowledge base by expanding our understanding of the assessment tool, as well as the antecedent relationship of several personality factors to an existing External Organizational Assessment tool. Heretofore, no further research has been conducted with this recently developed measure. As such, it is imperative to extend the nomothetic base by combining our understanding of psychometric factors, perceptions of EJ, and organizational outcomes. Answering the questions posed in this study aimed to help Industrial-Organizational Psychologists and Organizations understand how to use the assessment tool more appropriately, and illustrate more definitively how impactful behaving justly as an organization can be when thinking about the productivity and retention of employees.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

Baum, Locke, and Smith (2001) assert that traits should be examined in mediation models, so as to understand their complex interactions with other constructs and performance outcomes. In this study, my aim was to determine the effects that Extraversion, CSE, and SM play upon the perceptions of EJ and its correlated organizational outcomes.

#### **Part 1: Literature Review**

##### **External Organizational Justice**

EJ is defined as the perception of an employee about the way the organization interacts, justly or unjustly, with individuals or other organizations outside of the organization (Rupp, 2011; Rupp & Bell, 2010; Rupp, Ganpathi, Aguilera & Williams, 2006; Rupp, Williams & Aguilera, 2010; Toaddy, 2012). EJ is broken into roughly the same three facets as the macro-level concept of Organizational Justice: Procedural Justice (PJ), Distributive Justice (DJ), and Interactional Justice (IJ).

PJ was first introduced by Leventhal in 1980, as an alternative to the existing theory of the day, Equity Theory, and its unidimensional bias toward seeking fairness only through DJ. DJ was first introduced by Adams (1965), as an extension of the branch

of research that was of the major focus at the time. He noted that many of the scientists at the time were more interested in researching the social exchanges, whereas he saw the need to study transactional (unilateral) exchanges that seem to, “generate affect, motivation, and behavior that cannot be predicted unless exchange processes are understood (p. 267).” Noted as DEJ in Toaddy (2012) for Distributive External Justice, is the process of justice that looks at the equitable sharing or giving of resources. The classic example given of DJ focuses upon funding that is given to different groups within an organization. When some resources are given to one group but not another, employees might perceive this as an injustice unless it is socially accepted. Bies and Moag, in 1986, first brought forth the concept of IJ for researching the impacts that attitudes during informational and interactional exchanges would have on the overall outcome of the perception of the interaction—and the interpretation of the fairness/justness of the interaction.

Del Río-Lanza, Vázquez-Casielles, and Díaz-Martín (2009), performed a meta-analytic study, and determined that Procedural Justice was the most impactful of the three, and was highly correlated with the other two justices-- 0.74 for DJ and 0.59 for IJ. PJ was also strongly negatively correlated with Negative Emotions. DJ was strongly correlated with IJ as well (0.42). Naturally, Satisfaction was negatively correlated with negative emotions. DJ and PJ were strongly positively correlated with Satisfaction. Thus, to know and understand the perceptions of EJ would be to better understand the satisfaction of the employees, among myriad other outcomes. Toaddy (2012) used the following to measure the moderating effect of EJ on Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), as they had all been used historically in CSR research.

## **Organizational Outcomes**

I measured several organizational outcomes for multiple reasons. As is the case in the first part of this study, I attempted to continue to illustrate the effect that employee perceptions of EJ have on employee performance, work satisfaction, and turnover rate. In doing so, I measured the same variables used as organizational outcomes in Toaddy (2012) in an attempt to replicate the same procedure used previously. Thus, I measured Quality of Work, Organizational Identification, Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Attrition Intention, and Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB).

Quality of Work is defined in this study as the quality of work an employee produces (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010). Organizational Identification, defined as the strength of perception the employee has about how closely the values of the employee and company align (Carmeli, Gilat & Waldman, 2007). Organizational Commitment, defined as the commitment the employee has to the organization and its goals (Judge et al, 2002; Judge et al, 1999). Job satisfaction, defined as the level at which an employee is feeling satisfied with their work roles and tasks (Judge, Bono, Erez, & Locke, 2005). Attrition Intention, defined as whether or not an employee intends to leave their job (Xu, 2008). CWB, which is defined as the intentional (whether conscious or not) tendency to behave in a manner that detracts from achieving organizational goals (Kumar, Bakshi, & Rani, 2009).

## **Part 2: Literature Review**

### **Extraversion**

Extraversion was first proposed by Hans Eysenck, as a combination of the factors of Sociability and Impulsivity (Eaves & Eysenck, 1975; Rocklin & Revelle, 1981). Over

time, that definition grew to include additional factors which describe the natural tendency of the extravert to be more active and energetic. Throughout the research lifecycle, Extraversion has gained significance in its power to predict various outcomes and tendencies of behavior (Burnett, Williamson & Bartol, 2005; Costa & McCrae, 1980; Larsen & Ketelaar, 1989). In both the Five-Factor Model (that construes Extraversion in trait terms) and in the Jungian-styled MBTI (which construes Extraversion in typological terms), Extraversion plays a major role. Each of these assume that Extraversion and its dichotomous opposite, Introversion, provide guidance toward the types of activities that will likely be enjoyed by the person, the types of jobs and work-place scenarios they will be apt to handle, and their sensitivities to certain stimuli. Of particular interest to the present study are the more recent trends in research that relate extraversion to personality outcomes such as arousal toward reward and the muted effect associated with negative stimuli (Burnett, Williamson & Bartol, 2005; Larsen & Ketelaar, 1989).

Based on the research, there also seem to be biological bases for differences in Introverts and Extraverts, and these biological differences seem to produce, or at least lay the foundation for, specific reactions to stimuli. In 1975, Eaves and Eysenck seemed to find that there was a genetic connection, as demonstrated through genetic similarities and differences in personality traits in monozygotic and dizygotic twins. As extraversion was described at the time, not terribly dissimilar to what is thought today, they found that genetic similarities explained roughly 40% of the tendency to be extraverted or introverted; the other 60% being explained by environmental factors. In another example, Canli et al. (2002) used an fMRI to discover what, if any, correlations between the Big Five personality traits and amygdala activation through exposure to specific emotional

expressions on pictures of faces. Fear generated significant activation, no matter if the participant was an introvert or an extravert. However, Extraversion was the only personality factor that produced a strong correlation with one of the four emotions. They discovered a significant left-lateralized amygdala activation when extraverts were exposed to happy expressions, which they posit could be contributory to their willingness to engage socially, as opposed to introverts.

In Depue and Collins (1999), more key concepts to understand and describe extraversion exist. First, through a literature review of extant works, at the time the research was performed, they were able to identify a range of descriptors related to extraverts. Specifically, extraversion existed on one edge of a spectrum, in which it spanned between Assured/Dominant and Warm/Agreeable, with a sweet spot directly in between the two defined as Gregarious/Extraverted. More specifically, they defined the diametric opposite of Gregarious/Extraverted to be Aloof, which suggests that extraverts need to be present, engaged, active, and attentive. In addition to these important findings and essential categorizations that gave structure to the concepts and allowed for further research, it was also found that extraverts tended to have increased dopaminergic sensitivities. This is a key finding because that increase in sensitivity makes extraverts more responsive to reward stimuli, and also mutes the effect of punishment, when compared to introverts. Thus can be drawn a link between seeing something that makes an extravert happy, and an increase in desire to achieve or commit. Such conclusions supported this study on the basis that I hypothesized that extraverts would have a higher set of outcomes when they believe that their employer is behaving justly, and a milder

reaction than their introverted counterparts when faced with seeing their employer behaving unjustly.

Linking extraversion to organizational outcomes, such as job satisfaction, job performance, organizational commitment, and a modicum of other variables pertinent to this study, are the next few examples. Kumar, Bakshi, and Rani (2009), state that the real contribution of their research was the interaction between Agreeableness, Extraversion, and OCB (measured in this study as the inverse of CWB). Erdheim, Wang, and Zicker (2006) found a statistically significant relationship between Extraversion and the three facets of Organizational Commitment, which was found to be the most significant predictive factor of the Big Five. Bauer, Erdogan, Liden, and Wayne (2006) found that new leaders who were low in Extraversion tended to have significantly increased turnover rates. Using these as examples of the kinds of roles that Extraversion can play as an antecedent to likely behaviors and reactions within an employee base, there was support for examining the impacts this personality factor has on the relationship between perceptions of EJ and Employee Organizational Outcomes.

### **Core Self-Evaluations (CSE)**

CSE was first proposed in a paper by Judge, Bono, and Durham in 1997, as a stable higher-order trait composed of four facets: Locus of Control, Neuroticism, Generalized Core Self-Efficacy, and Self-Esteem. These four factors, according to observations, seemed to be relatively strong predictors of certain outcomes and behaviors (Gardner, & Pierce, 2009). In particular, the proposal was to use this new, higher-order variable to predict Job Satisfaction and Job Performance. The selection of the four factors was based upon their roles in helping to predict aspects of Job Satisfaction alone, but

when combined, it was found that this new higher-order variable had greater predictive power.

In 2003, Judge and Bono performed a meta-analysis of the research that had been done which employed their proposed construct. The variety of extant literature at the time of their study illustrated that this factor was valid as a predictor of Job Satisfaction, with an overall  $r$  value of 0.41, and was even suitable for predicting roughly 20% of Job Performance (Erez & Judge, 2001; Judge & Bono, 2001). Additionally, there were a variety of other predictive applications. Judge, Thorensen, Pucik, and Wellbourne (1999) found significant correlation between manager CSE scores and their ability to cope with organizational changes. Their belief in their abilities to overcome obstacles (self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, stability of personality, and internal locus of control) would correlate with their job commitment, job satisfaction, job performance, and possibly their ability to manage emotional stress when faced with ambiguity.

This factor has also furnished support for such things as happiness (0.56), life satisfaction (0.25), strain (0.24), stress (0.23), salary (0.10), career plateauing (-0.32), and organizational commitment (0.52) (Judge et al, 2002; Judge et al, 1999). Judge, Bono, Erez, and Locke (2005) collected data from two sample sources of varying size and position, and found significant correlation between a high CSE score (called positive self-regard) and goal attainment as well as job satisfaction. Specifically, those who had higher positive self-regard were also found to commit to a task more strongly, and also showed greater intrinsic motivation by way of increase self-concordant behaviors. These findings suggested that, given positive results when measuring CSE, it might have been possible and appropriate to use CSE to measure how likely employees are to commit to an

organization, to commit to goals within that organization, to perform well on goals they have committed to, as well as a possible way to also predict how they will react when they feel that their organization is performing justly or unjustly (Judge, Van Vianen, & De Pater, 2004; Hu, Wang, Liden, & Sun, 2012).

### **Self-Monitoring**

The trait of SM is historically defined as the ability to observe and control the verbal and facial outward expressions of emotion, likely also controlling non-verbal emotional cues such as body language and level of activity. Mark Snyder developed the first scale to measure the construct, and validated it through a series of studies between actors, psychology students, and institutionalized psychiatric patients. The ultimate findings yielded significant differences between the following three groups; (1) actors who had a greater ability to self-monitor, (2) those committed to an asylum having a significantly decreased ability to self-monitor, and (3) response values that fall somewhere in the middle (Snyder, 1974). Actors had significantly higher SM abilities than non-actors. Patients hospitalized for psychiatric help had significantly lower SM abilities than those who the study termed as “normals,” providing the explanation that those in the normal group were people selected to participate in the study that were not being treated in an asylum. Taking these two statements together, each of the three groups significantly differed from the other.

Ickes and Barnes (1977) further examined this construct by sex. Females had a greater number of social interactions and increased levels of self-consciousness, when compared to their male counterparts in the sample. These interactions also led to an increased amount of self-awareness, in which they maintained higher levels of

interactional mirroring, meaning they held a higher capacity and prevalence of SM than the males during the study. The more talkative a subject was, or the greater the need a participant had for engaging in conversation during the study, the more likely they were to be a high or higher self-monitor. This indicated that the mind of a high self-monitor has an intense need to gather the information necessary to appropriately self-monitor (Kilduff & Day, 1994). Further, without having more than visual pretext, it is greatly important that more input is gathered to produce enough data to measure themselves against, in order to maintain alignment with the social context (Kilduff & Day, 1994)

Relating SM to the aspect of Justice, Fang and Shaw (2009) set out to study how justice-oriented information is shared, absorbed, and believed or rejected. Much the same as turnover contagion, the way justice information is shared between coworkers is more impactful as the size of their network expands (Felps, Mitchell, Hekman, Lee, Holtom & Harman, 2009). However, unlike the spread of turnover contagion, the acceptance of the spread of information has to do with the relative position within the social network. The implications therein would lead us to believe that those who are high self-monitors will be more prone to accepting information passed on by those who hold a more senior position in the organization, will be more willing to propagate information that they accept from their superiors, and more willing to disseminate or withhold information within different peer groups based on what is known about their beliefs.

During study design the more important aspect of self-monitoring to this study, was the general level of SM that each respondent held. I attempted to employ this measure to understand how likely it was that the respondent was reporting their true feelings, or simply reporting what they thought the researcher expected. I anticipated that

individuals who scored low in self-monitoring would be more likely to provide a candid reflection of their true feelings when responding to questions (Day, Shleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002). Additional examples of research around the idea that self-monitors might skew data collection can be found as follows. Krämer and Winter (2008) illustrated just how prevalent the need for impression management is in every aspect of the life of a high self-monitor. Each decision is carefully considered to portray the most positive aspects of themselves. Konradt, Syperek, and Hertel (2011) demonstrated how much more prone a high self-monitor was to submit misleading responses in order to make themselves appear better.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **METHODOLOGY**

As with any good scientific research, the ability to replicate results while extending knowledge is quite important. Herein, this study took the framework used in Toaddy (2012), in which the EJ Assessment Tool was created, and extended the design of the study by measuring the moderating effects of Extraversion, CSE, and SM. Thus, I was able to simultaneously examine whether Dr. Toaddy's research could be replicated (Part 1), as well as measure whether some personality variables could predict/mediate the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and organizational outcomes (Part 2).

#### **Part 1: Replication**

As both validation of the continued efficacy of the EJ assessment tool created by Toaddy (2012), and as an illustration that the results between the two studies were comparable enough to assume that the personality factors would likely have created the same moderating effects in both samples, I attempted to discover similar findings in the aforementioned study through the collection of EJ and organizational outcome data in a significantly larger sample, which contain differing demographic properties. To this end, I expected to see positive correlations similar to Toaddy (2012) between EJ and Quality

of Work (0.53), Organizational Identification (0.60), Organizational Commitment (0.67), and Job Satisfaction (0.70). I will also expect to see negative correlations as shown in Toaddy (2012) between EJ and Attrition Intention (-0.59). I expected to see fluctuations in these scores; however, the directionality of the relationship between the constructs should remain the same. This is illustrated in Figure 1.

**H1:** Results from the measurements in the present study will yield similar positive and negative correlations to the associated organizational outcomes as shown in Toaddy (2012).



Figure 1. *Measuring the Relationships Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes*

## **Part 2: Expansion**

### **Self-Monitoring**

There was a two-fold purpose to studying SM within the context of this study. The first fold comes from Fang and Shaw (2009), as discussed in Part 1. In short, those who are on the higher end of the SM spectrum would be more willing to accept and spread information given to them by their superiors within the organization. This dissemination would be limited by whether the cultural norms of the organization lean towards or away from transparency, what groups they would have the opportunity to share with, and what is known about the beliefs of the groups they face. Conversely, people who are on the lower end of the SM spectrum will share their opinions, without consideration for the beliefs of a group.

The second fold was that SM could skew data collection. Those that are higher on the SM scales will likely be mindful of what the researcher is trying to study. As such, they would tend to attempt to provide answers that they believed the researcher was seeking. Those who score lower on the SM scales would likely present more honest responses (Krämer & Winter, 2008; Konradt, Syperek, & Hertel, 2011). It is here that I suspected we would see the greatest difference between the group scores, perceptions of EJ, and organizational outcomes. Taking these things into consideration, Hypothesis 2a and Hypothesis 2b took aim at these concepts (See Figures 2, 2a, and 2b).

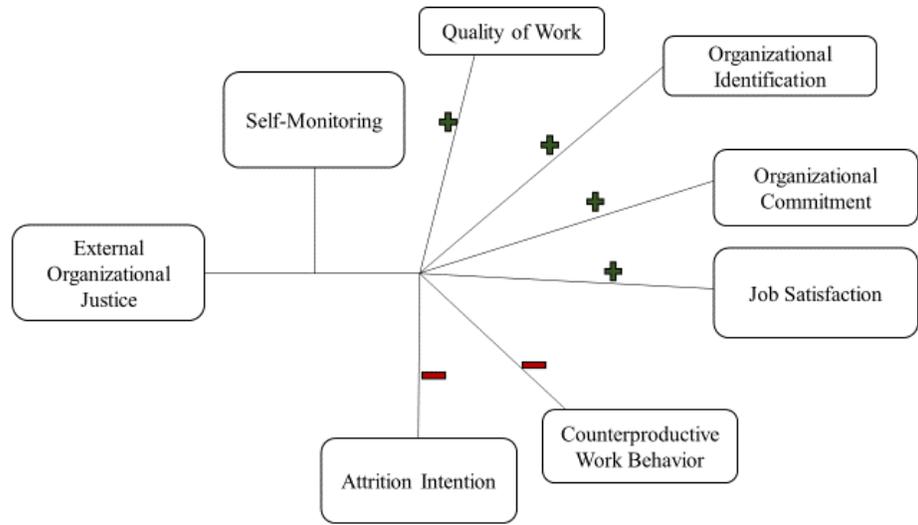


Figure 2. *Measuring the Moderation of the Relationships Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes with Self-Monitoring as a Moderator*

**H2a:** Participants who score higher on the SM scale will have stronger positive correlations and weaker negative correlations between perceptions of EJ and organizational outcomes.

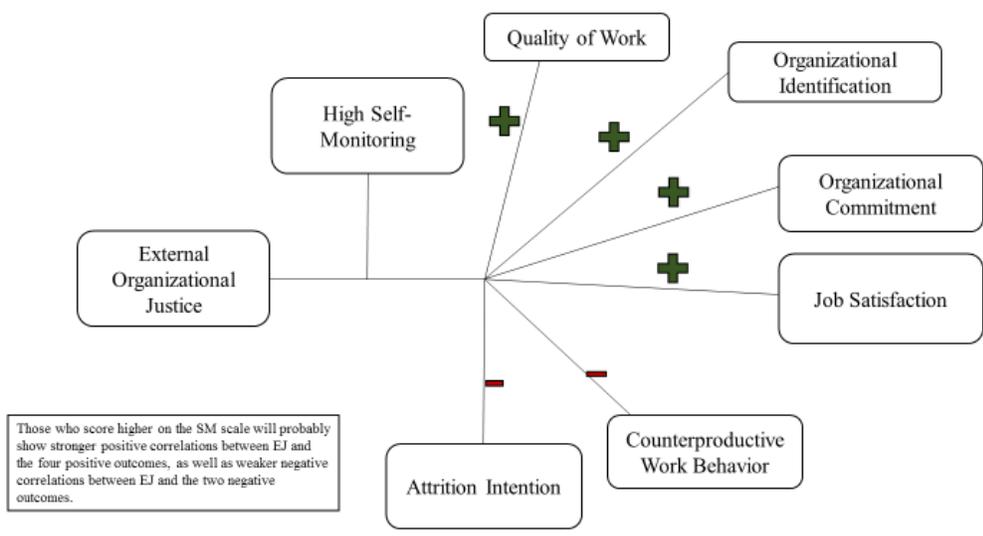


Figure 2a. *Measuring the Moderation of the Relationships Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes with High Self-Monitoring as a Moderator*

**H2b:** Participants who score lower on the SM scale will yield statistically non-significant differences from the mean of the normative SM group and the organizational outcomes.

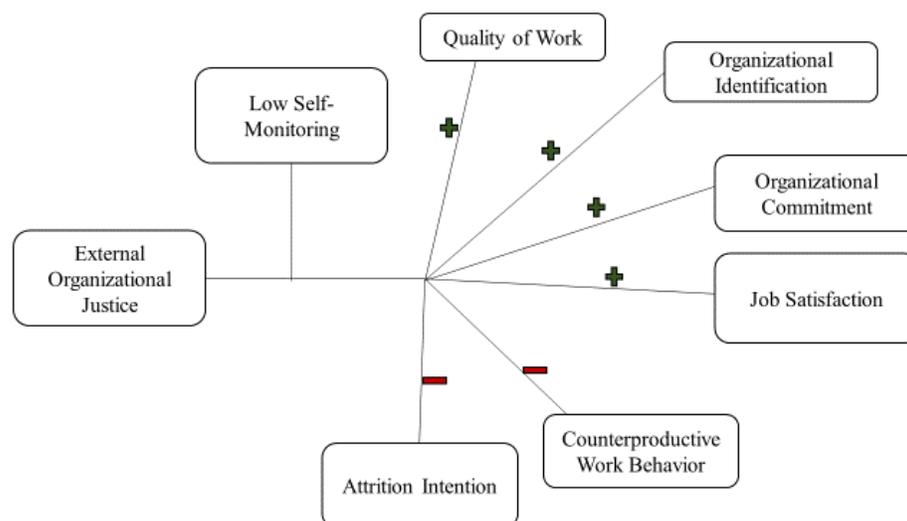


Figure 2b. *Measuring the Moderation of the Relationships Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes with Low Self-Monitoring as a Moderator*

## Extraversion

In Dupue and Collins (1999), the findings suggested, among other items, that extraverts tended to have stronger dopaminergic sensitivities to positive stimuli, and weaker reactions to negative or punishing stimuli. Additional discussion from the literature review points to strong links between extraversion and several of the organizational outcomes being studied.

Assuming these, I anticipated that the employees who saw their company as behaving justly or fairly would have a more positive reaction, strengthening the correlations between EJ and the organizational outcomes. When faced with negative

information, I expected those who scored highly on the extraversion scales would not have a lot of variance from the mean (See Figures 3, 3a, and 3b).

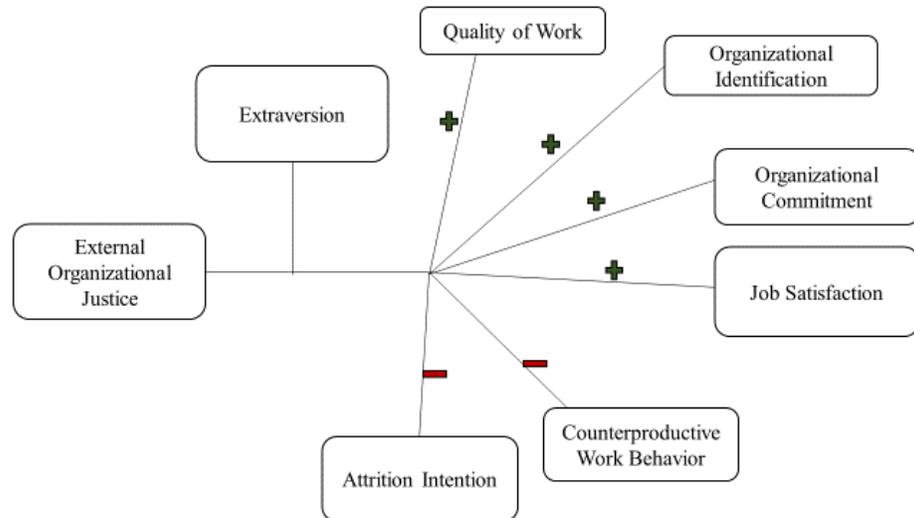


Figure 3. *Measuring the Moderation of the Relationships Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes with Extraversion as a Moderator*

**H3a:** Participants that score higher on the extraversion scale will have a stronger correlation between positive perceptions of EJ and the organizational outcomes.

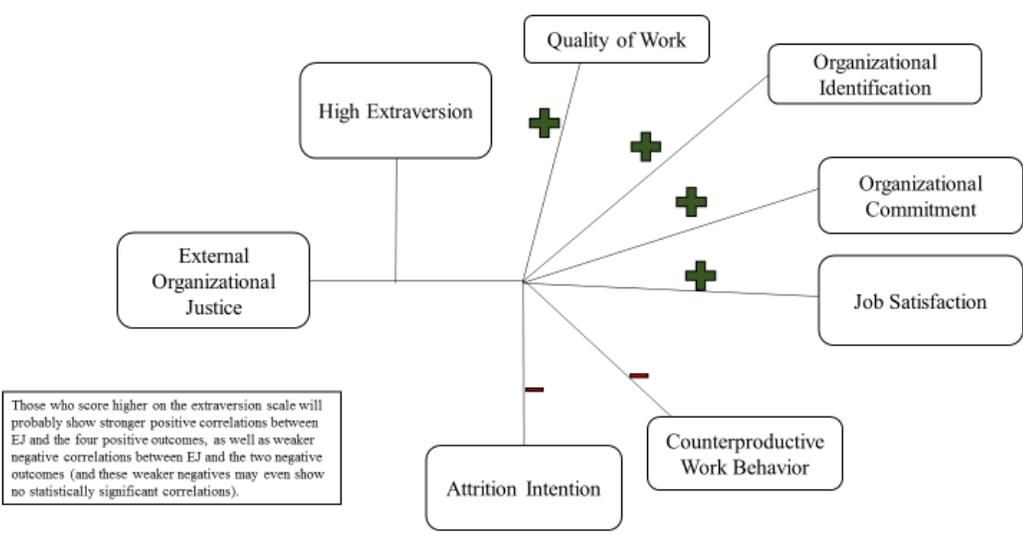
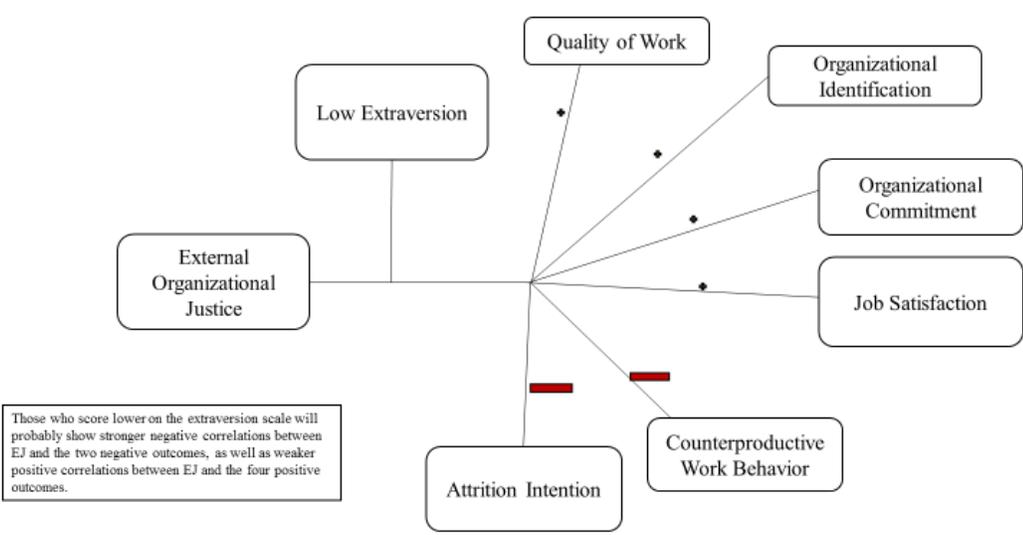


Figure 3a. *Measuring the Moderation of the Relationships Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes with High Extraversion as a Moderator*

**H3b:** Participants who score lower on the extraversion scale will have a stronger correlation between negative perceptions of EJ and the organizational outcomes.



Model 3b. *Measuring the Moderation of the Relationships Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes with Low Extraversion as a Moderator*

## Core Self-Evaluations

Judge, Van Vianen, and De Pater, (2004) and Hu, Wang, Liden, & Sun (2012) illustrate that those who score higher on the CSE scales will be more likely to engage in strong organizational outcome behaviors if they feel pleased with their company. This type of behavior is an extension of their self-belief system and the stability of their personality (Figure 4).

**H4:** Participants that score higher on the CSE scales will have a stronger correlation between perceptions of EJ and the organizational outcomes.

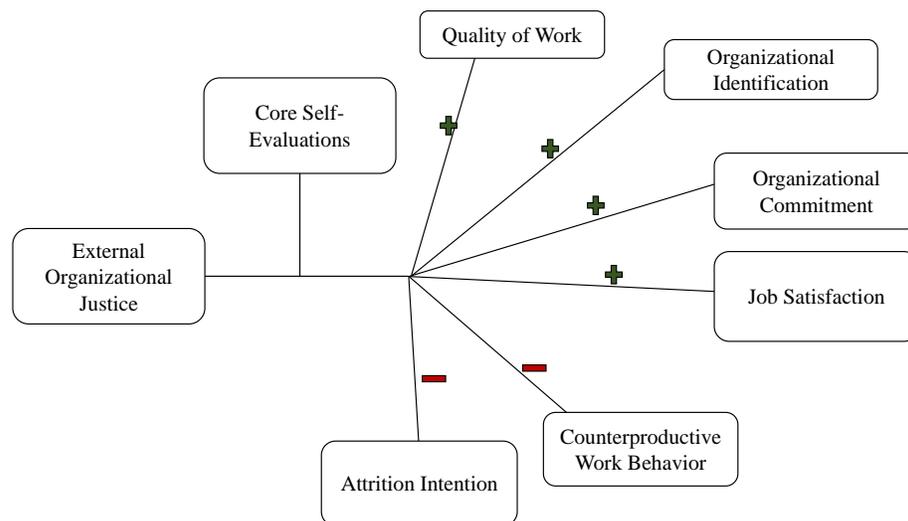


Figure 4. *Measuring the Moderation of the Relationships Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes with Core Self-Evaluations as a Moderator*

## Research Methodology and Design

In this quantitative study, participants volunteered to participate, and were informed of their right to leave the study at any time, without penalty. Participants were given a battery of 100 assessment items. Demographics were already collected in the system prior to the respondents agreeing to participate in this study. The assessment items

were strategically ordered and broken across multiple pages in an attempt to avoid introducing bias. The study was also broken into three separate versions, each with different question ordering, so that the versions could be compared and analyzed for question-order impacts. All assessment items were set to a Likert-type scale format, which yielded a strictly quantitative dataset. First I took these data and test the relationship of EJ with the organizational outcome variables alone. Then I examined the relationships between the organizational outcomes, EJ, and each of the personality traits, illustrating any moderating effects present.

### **Measuring EJ**

As I attempted to both replicate previous research and extend the nomological branch of EJ, it was logical to employ the Toaddy (2012) 11-item, three-facet assessment tool. It measures DEJ and PEJ with four items each, and IEJ with three items, having an internal consistency of 0.95, 0.95, and 0.94 respectively. This is a Likert-type scale, with a range of 1-5, one being Strongly Disagree, and five being Strongly Agree. An example item from the DEJ portion of the scale is, "I am satisfied with the way my organization gives out money to other groups outside of itself." An example item from the PEJ facet of this scale is "My organization uses fair procedures to decide how to treat other groups outside of itself." An example from the IEJ portion of this assessment is, "I feel good about the way my organization gives explanations for its actions to outside groups."

### **Measuring Work Quality and Work Effort**

Kuvaas and Dysvik's (2010) scales for Work Effort and Work Quality were selected for these measures. Both have five questions per assessment with internal consistencies of 0.90 and 0.85, respectively. Examples include: "I rarely complete a task

before I know that the quality meets high standards,” (Work Quality) and “I try to work as hard as possible,” (Work Effort). These are Likert-type items on a 5-point scale, from Strongly disagree to Strongly Agree.

### **Measuring Organizational Identification**

Carmeli, Gilat, and Waldman’s (2007) 4-item scale was used in this study to measure Organizational Identification, with an internal consistency of 0.74. These were originally developed in Mael and Ashforth (1992), where there were 6-items with an internal consistency of 0.87. An example of is, “When I talk about my organization, I usually say ‘we’ rather than ‘they.’” These items are set to a 5-point scale.

### **Measuring Organizational Commitment**

Jaworski and Kohli’s (1993) seven items from their 5-point Likert-type assessment was used as the measure of Organizational Commitment, which has an internal consistency of 0.89. An example item from this would be, “It is clear that employees are fond of this business unit.” The measure was built to help gain a sense of how the employee viewed their future as being tied to company performance, and therefore, how much they would be willing to participate to help it succeed.

### **Measuring Job Satisfaction**

Russell, Spitzmüller, Lin, Stanton, Smith, & Ironson’s (2004) eight-item assessment was used to measure overall job-satisfaction. This is an abbreviated assessment from what was previously being used, with internal consistency for these items testing at no lower than 0.85. An example item from this scale includes, “Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work? Good.” This scale was originally designed where the respondent

would select either Yes, No, or a question mark. However, I used the items in this scale with a 5-point Likert type scale, similar to the other measures in this study, where one represents Strongly Disagree and five represents Strongly Agree.

### **Measuring Work Engagement**

Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova's (2006) UWES-9 was employed to measure work engagement. It has an internal consistency of greater than 0.90. A sample question from this nine-item scale is, "I can continue working for long periods of time, without requiring a break from my tasks." The assessment is a condensed version out of 17 total questions. This is a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from the value of zero (Never) to six (Always, Every day).

### **Measuring Counterproductive Work Behavior**

To measure CWB, I selected the shortened form of the Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist first used in Spector, Bauer, and Fox (2010) study. This scale contains ten items and is a mixture of personal and organizational CWB assessment items. An example of each of these, respectively, "Made fun of someone's personal life at work," and, "Told someone outside the job what a lousy place you work for."

### **Measuring Attrition Intention**

In keeping with Toaddy (2012), I measured Attrition Intention with the same three assessment items. These three items were adapted from Cropanzano, James, and Konovsky (1993) within the study of Jones (2010). An example item from these three is, "I would like to remain employed at my current job for as long as I can." These items were asked on a 5-point Likert Type scale, from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree.

### **Measuring Extraversion**

I took the six Extraversion assessment items from Francis, Brown, & Philipchalk's (1992) EPQR-A, having a reliability of 0.94. An example item would be, "Are you a talkative person?" Some items are negatively worded, which will assist with identifying respondents who are being disingenuous by merely selecting response values. The format of this assessment was designed as a "Yes" or "No" response to each item. These items were also set to a 5-point Likert type scale, where one is "Strongly Disagree" and five is "Strongly Agree."

### **Measuring Self-Monitoring**

SM was measured using Gangestad and Snyder's (1985) 18-item abbreviated self-monitoring scale (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984; Gangestad & Snyder, 1985; Kilduff & Day, 1994; Rocklin & Revelle, 1981). An example item from this scale is "I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people." It has an internal consistency of 0.70. This is a 7-point Likert-type scale.

### **Measuring Core Self-Evaluations**

Finally, to measure CSE, I employed the 12-item Core Self-Evaluations Scale, developed by Judge, Erez, Bono, and Thoresen (2003). With an internal consistency of about 0.85, it is a measure of Core Self-Efficacy, Generalized Self-Esteem, Locus of Control, and Neuroticism. Some examples are, Core Self-Efficacy, "I complete tasks successfully," Core self-esteem, "Overall, I am satisfied with myself." Locus of Control, "I determine what will happen in my life," and Neuroticism, "Sometimes when I fail, I feel worthless." These 12 items are set on a one to five Likert-type scale.

## **Sampling**

Responses were sourced from Innovate MR, LLC, a leading Marketing Research company. With a database of prescreened and ready participants, the collection of demographic information was already built into their process. To maintain their privacy, the list of participant true identities is not accessible, per company policy, but all responses are tagged with an alias. Additional branching logic originally designed to eliminate participants who did not meet the following minimum requirements was no longer needed as participant prescreening was already performed of possible participants within the Innovate MR, LLC database; allowing only qualified candidates to be selected. Minimum qualifications include being 18 years of age or older and having been employed “full-time” for the past 12 consecutive months. These stipulations were meant to limit sample collection to only participants with sufficient, intelligible employee experience so as to provide a matured response. Additional demographic information that was collected included age, gender, level of education, size of current employer (Small business, Mid Markets, Large Business), tenure (number of total years worked for current employer), and years of full-time experience (total number of years worked in a full-time capacity for any employer). The breakdown of the demographic items is shown in Tables 1-7.

Table 1 contains a distribution of the ages of participants within this study. The range spans 63 years and an interquartile range of 23 years. With a mean of 44 years, the age distribution appears to be well spread.

Table 1

*Sample Age Distribution Table*

Age Distribution	
MEAN	44
MEDIAN	43
MODE	32
MIN	17
MAX	80
1st Quartile	32
3rd Quartile	55
IQR	23

Table 2 contains a view of the way the ages cluster into groups. Participants 21 years old to 65 years old make up 94.3% of the sample. When thinking about the population we are attempting to sample, especially given the requirements that employees have at least one year of full-time experience, and be currently employed full-time, this distribution is appropriate.

Table 2

*Sample Age Distribution Grouping Table*

Age Group	Count	Percentile
Under 21	8	1%
21-35	250	30%
36-50	274	33%
51-65	254	31%
66+	39	5%

Table 3 provides an account of the reported gender of the participants. Only one of participant preferred not to respond to the question. Roughly 55% were female and

45% were male. This distribution is comparable to population demographics in the United States, and lends credibility to this sample.

Table 3

*Sample Gender Table*

Gender:	Count	Percent
Female	451	54.7%
Male	373	45.2%
Prefer not to say	1	0.1%

Tables 4-7 cover Education Level, Size of Employer, Tenure, and Years of full-time experience respectively. Looking at level of education, years with current employer, and years of full-time experience, these also generally trend with the population we are sampling, as well as the way age relates to these factors.

Table 4

*Sample Level of Education Table*

Level of Education:	Count	Percent
High School Diploma or Equivalent	234	28.4%
Associates Degree	181	21.9%
Bachelor's Degree	265	32.1%
Masters or Graduate Degree	115	13.9%
Doctorate or Professional Degree	30	3.6%

Table 5

*Sample Size of Employer Table*

Size of Employer:	Count	Percent
1000+ Employees (Large Business)	314	38.1%
101-999 Employees (Mid Markets)	243	29.5%
0-100 Employees (Small Business)	268	32.5%

Table 6

*Sample Years with Current Employer Table*

Years with current employer:	Count	Percent
Less than or equal to 1 Year	51	6.2%
1-5 Years	314	38.1%
5-10 Years	183	22.2%
10-20 Years	176	21.3%
20+ Years	101	12.2%

Table 7

*Sample Years of Full-Time Experience Table*

Years of full-time experience:	Count	Percent
Less than or equal to 1 Year	7	0.8%
1-5 Years	118	14.3%
5-10 Years	142	17.2%
10-20 Years	193	23.4%
20-30 Years	168	20.4%
30-40 Years	136	16.5%
Greater than 40 Years	61	7.4%

In order to establish the correct sample size, I made some statistical assumptions while designing the study. With  $\alpha=0.05$ , with  $1-\beta=0.95$ , our effect size  $f = 0.176$ , and with the understanding that there is a historically illustrated interaction between Extraversion and SM (31% shared variance), an a priori analysis via G\*Power suggested that our requisite minimum sample size would be approximately 605 total responses (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007; Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009; Snyder & Gangestad, 1982). If I set alpha to 0.01, and one minus beta changes to 0.99, that figure increases to 1,034. Further, the total population size of those who are employed full-time is approximately 123,000,000, according to The Bureau of Labor and Statistics. Boyd, Manheim, and Buhsmer's (2006) Sample Size Table, not accounting for

interactions, shows that the minimum sample would need to have only been 384 participants at alpha 0.05, or 663 at alpha 0.01. Given the stated factors, I averaged the required sample sizes for the two confidence intervals, which came to 819.5. I then rounded up to the nearest quarter, out of personal preference, and set the minimum required sample size at 825 responses.

Participants were sourced through the Innovate MR, LLC platform. A total of \$5,685 was paid to Innovate MR, LLC. The breakdown of costs can be seen as \$1,560 to take the designed survey and integrate it into their delivery system, and then \$5/response for 825 responses, \$4,125. This also included data cleansing. A total of 929 responses were collected. The cleansing process removed 104 responses for such issues as participants making it through the survey too fast to have given thoughtful responses (speeders), participants who answer the same response for each question (straight-liners), participants who provided highly conflicting responses or who answer in patterns or in ways that do not make sense. Thus, 11.19% of the responses were cleansed from the data prior to delivery. According to Dr. Jeff Sauro (2017), collection of online data typically yields around 10% junk data that would need to be cleaned from the dataset, and specifically citing the range of 3%-20% being average.

At the time of vendor selection, I ensured that all of the privacy statements, participant protections, and information about the researcher, the university, and the limitations of liability were all going to be conveyed as designed and required. They were informed, prior to and during participation, that this study holds no potential for mental or physical harm to the participant. As such, Louisiana Tech University, my committee members, and I will not be held accountable nor liable for pre- or

post-treatment for any injury or perceived injury as a result of their participation. I furnished the market research group all three versions of the designed survey, all questions being ordered specifically for the three, as well as the specific wording of notices required by the university. I also provided the correct response values, formats, and wording, based on assessment item scale variation. I reviewed the programming, layout, performance, and test results, and only required minor modifications before approving distribution of the survey and collection of the resultant dataset.

An additional consideration in selecting an international market research group was that this research was designed for and applied to only participants who live and work in the United States. While the geographic data was not initially included in the response data, a follow-up with the group granted such information.

As can be seen in the regional breakdown within the map in Figure 5, the sample appears to be well-spread across the regions. I have included the number of responses by region within the map. Forty-seven responses did not include a city, state, or zipcode, and are not included. As depicted by the US Census Bureau, the country is broken into four distinct regions, nine distinct subregions, and 50 states plus the District of Columbia. Tables 8-10 depict the sampling from each of these regions, respectively.

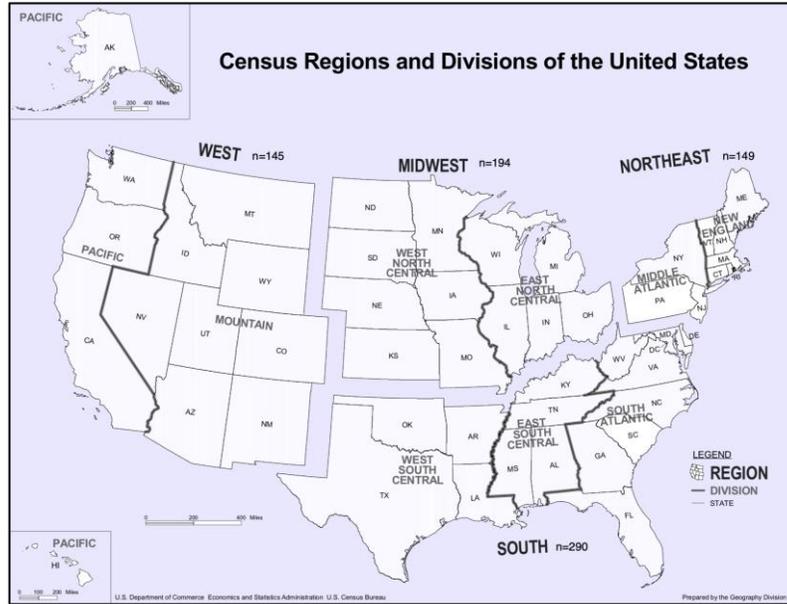


Figure 5: *Census Regions and Divisions of the United States Map with Sample Counts*

Table 8

*Count of Responses by Region*

Region	Response Count
Midwest	194
Northeast	149
South	290
West	145
#N/A	47
Total Responses	825

Table 9

*Count of Responses by Sub-region*

Region	Response Count
<b>Midwest</b>	<b>194</b>
East North Central	133
West North Central	61
<b>Northeast</b>	<b>149</b>
Middle Atlantic	110
New England	39
<b>South</b>	<b>290</b>

East South Central	43
South Atlantic	171
West South Central	76
<b>West</b>	<b>145</b>
Mountain	52
Pacific	93
#N/A	<b>47</b>
Total Responses	825

Table 10

*Count of Responses by State*

State	Count
Alabama	9
Arkansas	3
Arizona	20
California	62
Colorado	12
Connecticut	10
District of Columbia	3
Delaware	3
Florida	60
Georgia	25
Hawaii	4
Iowa	12
Idaho	3
Illinois	31
Indiana	15
Kansas	6
Kentucky	14
Louisiana	11
Massachusetts	17
Maryland	11
Maine	3
Michigan	30
Minnesota	18
Missouri	18
Mississippi	4
Montana	2
North Carolina	34
North Dakota	1
Nebraska	3
New Hampshire	5

New Jersey	22
New Mexico	1
Nevada	7
New York	56
Ohio	39
Oklahoma	9
Oregon	13
Pennsylvania	32
Rhode Island	3
South Carolina	6
South Dakota	3
Tennessee	16
Texas	53
Utah	6
Virginia	27
Vermont	1
Washington	14
Wisconsin	18
West Virginia	2
Wyoming	1
Not Identified	47
Total	825

### Data Validation and Cleansing

As there were 100 total assessment items, beyond demographic questions, the potential for question-order impacts was identified as a risk. In effort to measure these impacts, three versions were created and measured against each other. I examined the split of sample (n=275 for all versions), the correlation coefficients between EJ and the Organizational Outcomes, and the resultant observed z-score using the Fisher's R-to-Z equations and method. If an observed z-score falls beyond  $z \geq \pm 1.96$ , then we can say that given the differences in sample sizes (in this case there are no differences) and given the differences in correlation coefficient (Pearson's R), the two samples are so different that they cannot be considered the same. Conversely, any observed-z that falls below this threshold of significance, particularly the closer it is to zero, the two samples can be

considered to have little or no statistically significant differences between them, making them roughly the same.

We start with the Table 11, by making comparisons between Version 1 of the survey with the results of Version 2. Out of eight comparisons, only Counterproductive Work Behavior showed any significant difference. To illustrate the sensitivity of these tests, the observed-z for Attrition Intention in this comparison is  $z=1.48$ , and is below the threshold of significance. However, this score is not very far from the threshold of  $z=1.96$ . This is driven, given there is no difference in sample size between the two, purely by the difference in score  $v1=-0.5$  and  $v2=-0.589$ . The difference between these two scores is eighty-nine thousandths, but it causes quite a blip on the z-score comparisons.

Table 11

*Z-Score Comparison Table Between Version 1 and Version 2 of the Survey*

Table	N	Quality of Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Commitment	Job Satisfaction	Work Engagement	CWB	Attrition Intention
<b>Version 2</b>	275	0.296	0.461	0.687	0.572	0.457	0.574	-0.240	-0.589
<b>Version 1</b>	275	0.309	0.402	0.700	0.624	0.533	0.569	0.022	-0.500
<b>Fisher's R-to-Z</b>		0.170	0.850	0.290	0.950	1.180	0.090	3.110*	1.480
Significant Differences ( $z \geq \pm 1.96$ )*									

In Table 12, we compare Version 2 and Version 3. Out of eight comparisons, only Quality of Work showed any significant difference, and that difference measures exactly on the threshold of significance, when rounded. The two versions compare well, and show very little difference between the two. I conclude from this that these are generally sound.

Table 12

*Z-Score Comparison Table Between Version 2 and Version 3 of the Survey*

Table	N	Quality of Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Commitment	Job Satisfaction	Work Engagement	CWB	Attrition Intention
<b>Version 2</b>	275	0.296	0.461	0.687	0.572	0.457	0.574	-0.24	-0.589
<b>Version 3</b>	275	0.441	0.539	0.677	0.621	0.499	0.590	-0.23	-0.580
<b>Fisher's R-to-Z</b>		1.96*	1.210	1.390	0.890	0.640	0.280	0.12	0.160
Significant Differences ( $z \geq \pm 1.96$ )*									

In Table 13, we compare Version 1 and Version 3. Out of eight comparisons, Work Effort and Counterproductive Work Behavior showed statistically significant difference. The two versions compare well, and show very little difference between the two.

Table 13

*Z-Score Comparison Table Between Version 1 and Version 3 of the Survey*

Table	N	Quality of Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Commitment	Job Satisfaction	Work Engagement	CWB	Attrition Intention
<b>Version 1</b>	275	0.309	0.402	0.700	0.624	0.533	0.569	0.022	-0.50
<b>Version 3</b>	275	0.441	0.539	0.677	0.621	0.499	0.590	-0.230	-0.58
<b>Fisher's R-to-Z</b>		1.800	2.060*	1.100	0.060	0.540	0.370	2.99*	1.32
Significant Differences ( $z \geq \pm 1.96$ )*									

When thinking about Tables 11, 12, and 13, the only variable that demonstrated truly significant deviation between the three versions is Counterproductive Work behavior. When taking the data as a whole, the Quality of Work and Work Effort do not appear to be distinctly impacted in range of responses or score across the three versions.

Therefore, I conclude that Quality of Work, Work Effort, Organizational Identification, Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Work Engagement, and Attrition Intention were not significantly impacted by question-order impacts. However, Counterproductive Work Behavior warranted further examination. It does make sense that this variable might be more volatile than the others, given the personality variables being studied.

I examined all of the variables, both in their respective versions and the data as a complete set, and determined that each, save for CWB, followed the normal curve. Further, the plots of each, with respect to relationship with EJ, generally showed responses that fall within reasonable deviation to the mean. However, CWB did show significant volatility on the plots, as responses were plotted in all four corners and virtually anywhere within the space between. I still believe that this is valid, however, because a person can be High EJ and High CWB, High EJ and Low CWB, Low EJ and High CWB, Low EJ and Low CWB, and many of the respondents fell within some middle range. In looking at the data for outliers that could or should be removed, this was the only variable with responses that fell far enough from the mean to consider. However, removal of one or two responses at the extremes would not have modified the relationship represented, as there were so many that fell farther away from the mean. Therefore, I chose not to remove any outliers from any of the response data, including CWB, given the cases that are plausible in a real-world setting.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESULTS**

#### **Hypothesis 1 Testing**

Hypothesis 1 (H1) stated that the relationships between EJ and the outcome variables in the present study would generally replicate the findings produced in Toaddy (2012). To test this hypothesis, I examined statistically significant differences between the Toaddy (2012) study correlation coefficients and those of the present study using Fischer's r-to-z transformations. The results of these comparisons appear in Table 14 and Table 15. Across the seven possible comparisons, four of the seven had z-scores that fell into the rejection zone, crossing the threshold of significance. This means that the differences between Pearson's R and sample size were wide enough between the two groups that a statistically significant difference was measured. Conversely, three of the seven were so similar in correlation between the two groups, regardless of group size, that the populations could be considered statistically the same. While the majority of the correlations measured as statistically different, Quality of Work, Work Effort, and Organizational Identification exceeded the correlative strength; and though Job Satisfaction showed a significantly weaker correlation relative to Toaddy (2012), the result is still statistically significant within the present study and the relationship points in the same direction.

Table 14

*Hypothesis 1 Testing Correlations Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes*

EJ Correlations table		Overall EJ	Quality of Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Commitment	Job Satisfaction	Work Engagement	CWB	Attrition Intention
<b>Overall EJ</b>	Pearson Correlation	1.000	0.343 **	0.459 **	0.710 **	0.606 **	0.499 **	0.573 **	-0.125 **	-0.556 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
<b>Quality of Work</b>	Pearson Correlation		1.000	0.634 **	0.353 **	0.316 **	0.294 **	0.387 **	-0.044	-0.190 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)			0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.210	0.000
<b>Work Effort</b>	Pearson Correlation			1.000	0.491 **	0.408 **	0.324 **	0.557 **	-0.157 **	-0.301 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)				0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
<b>Org ID</b>	Pearson Correlation				1.000	0.622 **	0.500 **	0.588 **	-0.063	-0.485 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)					0.000	0.000	0.000	0.068	0.000
<b>Organizational Commitment</b>	Pearson Correlation					1.000	0.653 **	0.456 **	0.075 *	-0.378 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)						0.000	0.000	0.031	0.000
<b>Job Satisfaction</b>	Pearson Correlation						1.000	0.472 **	0.178 **	-0.381 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)							0.000	0.000	0.000
<b>Overall Work Engagement</b>	Pearson Correlation							1.000	-0.163 **	-0.545 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)								0.000	0.000
<b>Overall CWB</b>	Pearson Correlation								1.000	0.200 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)									0.000
<b>Attrition Intention</b>	Pearson Correlation									1.000

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

For all Responses, n=825.

Table 15

*Hypothesis 1 z-Score and Population Comparison Table*

Table 1A	N	Quality of Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Commitment	Job Satisfaction	Work Engagement	Attrition Intention
<b>Present Study</b>	825	0.34	0.46	0.71	0.61	0.50	0.57	-0.56
<b>Toaddy (2012)</b>	379	0.22	0.31	0.60	0.67	0.70	0.59	-0.59
<b>Fisher's R-to-Z Coefficient</b>		2.15*	2.82*	3.12*	1.74	5.13*	0.41	0.81
Significant Differences ( $z \geq \pm 1.96$ )*								

The direction of all associated correlations trend the same, which means that both samples, different as they may be, both yield positive correlations between EJ and all Organizational Outcomes except for Attrition Intention, which yields a negative relationship. Thus, I infer that we can consider H1 supported by the data.

### **Hypothesis 2a and 2b Testing**

#### **Hypothesis 2a**

Hypothesis 2a stated that participants who scored higher on the SM scale would have stronger positive correlations and weaker negative correlations between perceptions of EJ and organizational outcomes. As related to the extant research, compared to the norm, high and low self-monitors show statistically different responses to stimuli. Thus, I have split the self-monitoring variable into three groups. Those that fall above one standard deviation above the mean are high self-monitors (n=113). Those who fall within

the boundaries of a single standard deviation represent our normative group (n=575). Finally, those who fall below one standard deviation of the mean are low self-monitors (n=137).

In examination of Hypothesis 2a, I compared statistically significant differences between the correlation coefficients of the high self-monitor group (Table 16), those of the normative group (Table 17), and those of the low self-monitor group (Table 18) using Fischer's r-to-z transformations. The results of these comparisons appear in Table 19. Across the eight possible comparisons, only Organizational Identification fell into the rejection zone. This means that regardless of the significant nature of any reported r-values in Tables 16 or 17, when comparing the two groups based on score and sample size, they are not significantly different enough to support the hypothesis.

Table 16

*Correlations Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes in High Self-Monitoring Group*

HI SM		EJ Sum	Qual Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Comma	Job Sat	Work Engage	CWB	Attrition In	SM
EJ Sum	Pearson	1.000	0.446**	0.510**	0.786**	0.591**	0.470**	0.584**	-0.264**	-0.611**	-0.002
	Sig. (2-tail)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.005	0.000	0.985
Qual Work	Pearson		1.000	0.707**	0.511**	0.493**	0.352**	0.474**	-0.233*	-0.247**	0.116
	Sig. (2-tail)			0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.013	0.008	0.219
Work Effort	Pearson			1.000	0.548**	0.526**	0.288**	0.602**	-0.377**	-0.319**	0.055
	Sig. (2-tail)				0.000	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.566
Org ID	Pearson				1.000	0.703**	0.476**	0.645**	-0.300**	-0.628**	-0.071
	Sig. (2-tail)					0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.454
Org Comm	Pearson					1.000	0.614**	0.474**	-0.247**	-0.521**	-0.064
	Sig. (2-tail)						0.000	0.000	0.008	0.000	0.502
Job Sat	Pearson						1.000	0.319**	-0.079	-0.477**	-0.056
	Sig. (2-tail)							0.001	0.406	0.000	0.558
Work Engage	Pearson							1.000	-0.289**	-0.589**	0.003
	Sig. (2-tail)								0.002	0.000	0.974
CWB	Pearson								1.000	0.345**	-0.027
	Sig. (2-tail)									0.000	0.775
Attrition In	Pearson									1.000	0.039
	Sig. (2-tail)										0.681
SM	Pearson										1.000
	Sig. (2-tail)										

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).  
 \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).  
 For all responses, n=113.

Table 17

*Correlations Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes in Moderate Self-Monitoring Group*

MOD SM		EJ Sum	Qual Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Comm	Job Sat	Work Engage	CWB	Attrition In	SM
EJ Sum	Pearson	1.000	0.373**	0.491**	0.688**	0.606**	0.534**	0.581**	-0.083*	-0.543**	0.024
	Sig. (2-tail)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.045	0.000	0.561
Qual Work	Pearson		1.000	0.624**	0.366**	0.302**	0.305**	0.402**	0.004	-0.169**	-0.082
	Sig. (2-tail)			0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.919	0.000	0.050
Work Effort	Pearson			1.000	0.519**	0.392**	0.339**	0.567**	-0.118**	-0.315**	-0.054
	Sig. (2-tail)				0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.000	0.199
Org ID	Pearson				1.000	0.611**	0.508**	0.582**	-0.020	-0.456**	-0.062
	Sig. (2-tail)					0.000	0.000	0.000	0.638	0.000	0.137
Org Comm	Pearson					1.000	0.692**	0.446**	0.162**	-0.329**	0.084*
	Sig. (2-tail)						0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.044
Job Sat	Pearson						1.000	0.462**	0.245**	-0.363**	0.089*
	Sig. (2-tail)							0.000	0.000	0.000	0.033
Work Engage	Pearson							1.000	-0.137**	-0.536**	-0.047
	Sig. (2-tail)								0.001	0.000	0.260
CWB	Pearson								1.000	0.181**	0.103*
	Sig. (2-tail)									0.000	0.014
Attrition In	Pearson									1.000	0.065
	Sig. (2-tail)										0.122
SM	Pearson										1.000
	Sig. (2-tail)										

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).  
 \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).  
 For all responses, n=575.

Table 18

*Correlations Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes in Low Self-Monitoring Group*

LOW SM		EJ Sum	Qual Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Comm	Job Sat	Work Engage	CWB	Attrition In	SM
EJ Sum	Pearson	1.000	0.191*	0.352**	0.708**	0.634**	0.433**	0.542**	-0.301**	-0.581**	-0.056
	Sig. (2-tail)		0.026	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.514
Qual Work	Pearson		1.000	0.591**	0.213*	0.245**	0.291**	0.299**	-0.097	-0.201*	-0.067
	Sig. (2-tail)			0.000	0.012	0.004	0.001	0.000	0.260	0.018	0.435
Work Effort	Pearson			1.000	0.404**	0.396**	0.409**	0.527**	-0.107	-0.221**	-0.117
	Sig. (2-tail)				0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.213	0.010	0.173
Org ID	Pearson				1.000	0.579**	0.500**	0.558**	-0.193*	-0.509**	0.047
	Sig. (2-tail)					0.000	0.000	0.000	0.024	0.000	0.584
Org Comm	Pearson					1.000	0.478**	0.470**	-0.223**	-0.489**	0.062
	Sig. (2-tail)						0.000	0.000	0.009	0.000	0.471
Job Sat	Pearson						1.000	0.651**	-0.205*	-0.478**	-0.032
	Sig. (2-tail)							0.000	0.016	0.000	0.709
Work Engage	Pearson							1.000	-0.296**	-0.574**	-0.086
	Sig. (2-tail)								0.000	0.000	0.315
CWB	Pearson								1.000	0.180*	0.070
	Sig. (2-tail)									0.035	0.414
Attrition In	Pearson									1.000	-0.010
	Sig. (2-tail)										0.911
SM	Pearson										1.000
	Sig. (2-tail)										

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).  
 \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).  
 For all responses, n=137.

Table 19

*Z-Score and Population Comparison Table Between Moderate Self-Monitoring and High Self-Monitoring*

Table 2az	N	Quality of Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Commitment	Job Satisfaction	Work Engagement	CWB	Attrition Intention
<b>Moderate Self-Monitoring</b>	575	0.373	0.491	0.688	0.606	0.534	0.581	-0.083	-0.543
<b>High Self-Monitoring</b>	113	0.446	0.510	0.786	0.591	0.470	0.584	-0.264	-0.611
<b>Fisher's R-to-Z</b>		0.840	0.240	2.080*	0.220	0.820	0.040	1.800	0.980
Significant Differences ( $z \geq \pm 1.96$ )*									

**Hypothesis 2b**

Hypothesis 2b stated that participants who scored lower on the SM scale would yield statistically non-significant differences from the mean of the normative SM group and the organizational outcomes. As illustrated by the paragraphs contained in Hypothesis 2a, I have broken the data into high, normative, and low self-monitoring groups. Thus, to test the specific requirements of Hypothesis 2b, please refer to Tables 17, 18, and 20.

Table 20

*Z-Score and Population Comparison Table Between Moderate Self-Monitoring and Low Self-Monitoring*

Table	N	Quality of Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Commitment	Job Satisfaction	Work Engagement	CWB	Attrition Intention
<b>Moderate Self-Monitoring</b>	575	0.373	0.491	0.688	0.606	0.534	0.581	-0.083	-0.543
<b>Low Self-Monitoring</b>	137	0.191	0.352	0.708	0.634	0.443	0.542	-0.303	-0.581
<b>Fisher's R-to-Z</b>		2.07*	1.77	2.08*	0.41	0.47	1.38	2.37*	0.580
Significant Differences ( $z \geq \pm 1.96$ )*									

In examination of Hypothesis 2b, I compared statistically significant differences between the correlation coefficients of the low self-monitor group (Table 18) and those of the normative group (Table 17) using Fischer's r-to-z transformations. The results of these comparisons appear in Table 20. Across the eight possible comparisons, three fell into the rejection zone. These statistically significant differences also vary in scope, direction, and magnitude. For example, Quality of Work in the low self-monitor group yielded  $r=0.191$ , whereas in the normative group  $r=0.373$ , meaning that low self-monitors showed a weaker relationship between EJ and Quality of Work. However, we also see that both Organizational Identification and CWB are showing stronger correlations than the normative group. I infer from these mixed findings, and the presence of statistical differences, that we must reject Hypothesis 2b in favor of the null. Upon further reflection, after examining the findings, I posit that my own proposed hypotheses surrounding the SM variable really do not align to the nature of the high and low self-monitor. It makes logical sense that High Self-Monitors would trend toward the normative group, making the differences between the two groups less discernable, whereas the Low Self-Monitors will have greater variance from the norm, but will still reflect the reality of their situation. For example, if a Low Self-Monitor is dissatisfied with their job, they would mark Job Satisfaction to be low. However, their Attrition Intention may remain the same or similar to the norm due to external factors, such as job availability in the market place, or in their vicinity.

Additionally, I had proposed originally that I anticipated the use of the SM variable as a method of measuring the veracity of the responses that participants gave. However, while testing assumptions and looking at group differences between the high,

moderate, and low self-monitoring groups, there was no basis for this claim. Subsequently, I have rejected this assertion as well.

### **Hypothesis 3a and 3b Testing**

#### **Hypothesis 3a**

Hypothesis 3a stated that participants that score higher on the extraversion scale would have a stronger correlation between positive perceptions of EJ and the organizational outcomes. As related to the extant research, extraverts tend to respond to positive stimuli with increased behavior, and do not have greatly wavering behavior when faced with negative (punishing) stimuli. Conversely, those that are very low on the extraversion scale tend to remain stable in behavior with positive stimuli, but will also react more negatively with negative stimuli. Thus, I have split the extraversion variable into three groups. Those that fall above one standard deviation above the mean are categorized as high extraversion (n=106). Those who fall within the boundaries of a single standard deviation represent our normative group (n=587). Finally, those who fall below one standard deviation of the mean are categorized as low extraversion (n=132).

In examination of Hypothesis 3a, I compared statistically significant differences between the correlation coefficients of the high extraversion group (Table 21), those of the normative group (Table 22), and those of the low group (Table 23) using Fischer's r-to-z transformations. The results of these comparisons appear in Table 24. Across the eight possible comparisons, only CWB fell into the rejection zone. This means that regardless of the significant nature of any reported r-values in Tables 21 or 22, when comparing the two groups based on score and sample size, they are not significantly different. Further, we find that the negative variables of CWB and Attrition Intention

yield even stronger negative correlations when compared to the normative group. I infer from this that we must reject the hypothesis in favor of the null.

### **Hypothesis 3b**

Hypothesis 3b stated that participants who score lower on the extraversion scale will have a stronger correlation between negative perceptions of EJ and the organizational outcomes. As illustrated by the paragraphs contained in Hypothesis 3a, I have broken the data into high, normative, and low self-monitoring groups. Thus, to test Hypothesis 3b, please refer to Tables 22, 23, and 25.

In examination of Hypothesis 3b, I compared statistically significant differences between the correlation coefficients of the low extraversion group (Table 23) and those of the normative group (Table 22) using Fischer's r-to-z transformations. The results of these comparisons appear in Table 25. Across the eight possible comparisons, only Quality of Work fell into the rejection zone. While the correlations do trend in the hypothesized direction for most of the outcome variables, there are not enough statistically significant differences to support the hypothesis. I must reject Hypothesis 3b in favor of the null.

Table 21

*Correlations Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes in High Extraversion Group*

HI EXT		EJ Sum	Qual Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Comm	Job Sat	Work Engage	CWB	Attrition In	EXT
EJ Sum	Pearson	1.000	0.429**	0.579**	0.709**	0.568**	0.481**	0.625**	-0.481**	-0.574**	0.015
	Sig. (2-tail)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.878
Qual Work	Pearson		1.000	0.551**	0.321**	0.345**	0.201*	0.448**	-0.420**	-0.154	0.140
	Sig. (2-tail)			0.000	0.001	0.000	0.039	0.000	0.000	0.116	0.153
Work Effort	Pearson			1.000	0.440**	0.518**	0.169	0.577**	-0.503**	-0.356**	0.063
	Sig. (2-tail)				0.000	0.000	0.084	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.523
Org ID	Pearson				1.000	0.644**	0.407**	0.577**	-0.405**	-0.497**	0.144
	Sig. (2-tail)					0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.141
Org Comm	Pearson					1.000	0.389**	0.469**	-0.415**	-0.392**	-0.014
	Sig. (2-tail)						0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.883
Job Sat	Pearson						1.000	0.429**	-0.264**	-0.368**	0.074
	Sig. (2-tail)							0.000	0.006	0.000	0.448
Work Engage	Pearson							1.000	-0.478**	-0.530**	0.073
	Sig. (2-tail)								0.000	0.000	0.455
CWB	Pearson								1.000	0.312**	0.014
	Sig. (2-tail)									0.001	0.885
Attrition In	Pearson									1.000	-0.165
	Sig. (2-tail)										0.092
EXT	Pearson										1.000
	Sig. (2-tail)										

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).  
 \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).  
 For all responses, n=106.

Table 22

*Correlations Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes in Moderate Extraversion Group*

MOD EXT		EJ Sum	Qual Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Comm	Job Sat	Work Engage	CWB	Attrition In	Extra
EJ Sum	Pearson	1.000	0.348**	0.439**	0.681**	0.579**	0.496**	0.529**	-0.050	-0.524**	0.217 **
	Sig. (2-tail)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.226	0.000	0.000
Qual Work	Pearson		1.000	0.626**	0.379**	0.341**	0.285**	0.364**	0.052	-0.181**	0.135 **
	Sig. (2-tail)			0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.212	0.000	0.001
Work Effort	Pearson			1.000	0.503**	0.410**	0.323**	0.531**	-0.081*	-0.309**	0.189 **
	Sig. (2-tail)				0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.049	0.000	0.000
Org ID	Pearson				1.000	0.592**	0.492**	0.556**	-0.007	-0.448**	0.199 **
	Sig. (2-tail)					0.000	0.000	0.000	0.865	0.000	0.000
Org Comm	Pearson					1.000	0.702**	0.414**	0.172**	-0.320**	0.172 **
	Sig. (2-tail)						0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Job Sat	Pearson						1.000	0.412**	0.278**	-0.324**	0.237 **
	Sig. (2-tail)							0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Work Engage	Pearson							1.000	-0.101*	-0.512**	0.239 **
	Sig. (2-tail)								0.015	0.000	0.000
CWB	Pearson								1.000	0.186**	0.027
	Sig. (2-tail)									0.000	0.515
Attrition In	Pearson									1.000	-0.084 *
	Sig. (2-tail)										0.041
EXT	Pearson										1.000
	Sig. (2-tail)										

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).  
 \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).  
 For all responses, n=587.

Table 23

*Correlations Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes in Low Extraversion Group*

LOW EXT		EJ Sum	Qual Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Comm	Job Sat	Work Engage	CWB	Attrition In	Extra
EJ Sum	Pearson	1.000	0.129	0.337**	0.702**	0.664**	0.451**	0.534**	-0.147	-0.540**	-0.006
	Sig. (2-tail)		0.141	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.093	0.000	0.947
Qual Work	Pearson		1.000	0.645**	0.125	0.062	0.282**	0.295**	-0.200*	-0.098	0.084
	Sig. (2-tail)			0.000	0.153	0.478	0.001	0.001	0.021	0.263	0.339
Work Effort	Pearson			1.000	0.390**	0.253**	0.336**	0.556**	-0.221*	-0.130	0.075
	Sig. (2-tail)				0.000	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.011	0.137	0.390
Org ID	Pearson				1.000	0.604**	0.457**	0.509**	-0.025	-0.475**	0.117
	Sig. (2-tail)					0.000	0.000	0.000	0.775	0.000	0.182
Org Comm	Pearson					1.000	0.435**	0.429**	-0.092	-0.491**	0.058
	Sig. (2-tail)						0.000	0.000	0.292	0.000	0.511
Job Sat	Pearson						1.000	0.617**	-0.144	-0.549**	0.017
	Sig. (2-tail)							0.000	0.100	0.000	0.849
Work Engage	Pearson							1.000	-0.243**	-0.560**	0.181 *
	Sig. (2-tail)								0.005	0.000	0.038
CWB	Pearson								1.000	0.142	0.046
	Sig. (2-tail)									0.105	0.601
Attrition In	Pearson									1.000	-0.122
	Sig. (2-tail)										0.162
Extra	Pearson										1.000
	Sig. (2-tail)										

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).  
\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).  
For all responses, n=132.

Table 24

*Z-Score and Population Comparison Table Between Moderate Extraversion and High Extraversion*

Table 3az	N	Quality of Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Commitment	Job Satisfaction	Work Engagement	CWB	Attrition Intention
<b>Moderate Extraversion</b>	587	0.348	0.439	0.681	0.579	0.469	0.529	-0.050	-0.524
<b>High Extraversion</b>	106	0.429	0.579	0.709	0.568	0.481	0.625	-0.481	-0.574
<b>Fisher's R-to-Z</b>		0.890	1.780	0.510	0.150	0.150	1.350	4.440*	0.670
Significant Differences ( $z \geq \pm 1.96$ )*									

Table 25

*Z-Score and Population Comparison Table Between Moderate Extraversion and High Extraversion*

Table 3bz	N	Quality of Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Commitment	Job Satisfaction	Work Engagement	CWB	Attrition Intention
<b>Moderate Extraversion</b>	575	0.348	0.439	0.681	0.579	0.469	0.529	-0.05	-0.524
<b>Low Extraversion</b>	137	0.129	0.337	0.702	0.664	0.451	0.534	-0.147	-0.54
<b>Fisher's R-to-Z</b>		2.40*	1.24	0.41	1.43	0.23	0.07	1.01	0.23
Significant Differences ( $z \geq \pm 1.96$ )*									

## Hypothesis 4 Testing

### Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 stated that participants that score higher on the CSE scales will have a stronger correlation between perceptions of EJ and the organizational outcomes. As with extant research, those with higher CSE scores tend to respond to positive stimuli with increased behavior. Thus, I have split the CSE variable into three groups to further examine the differences from the moderate group. Those that fall above one standard deviation above the mean are categorized as high CSE (n=155). Those who fall within the boundaries of a single standard deviation represent our normative group (n=518). Finally, those who fall below one standard deviation of the mean are categorized as low CSE (n=152).

In examination of Hypothesis 4, I compared statistically significant differences between the correlation coefficients of the high CSE group (Table 26), those of the normative group (Table 27), and those of the low group (Table 28) using Fischer's r-to-z transformations. The results of these comparisons appear in Table 29. Across the eight possible comparisons, only Quality of Work and CWB fell into the rejection zone. This means that regardless of the significant nature of any reported r-values in Tables 26 or 27, when comparing the two groups based on score and sample size, they are not significantly different. I must reject the hypothesis and retain the null.

Table 26

*Correlations Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes in High CSE Group*

High CSE		EJ Sum	Qual Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Comm	Job Sat	Work Engage	CWB	Attrition In	CSES Sum
EJ Sum	Pearson	1.000	0.418**	0.442**	0.663**	0.597**	0.352**	0.400**	-0.335**	-0.456**	0.242 **
	Sig. (2-tail)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002
Qual Work	Pearson		1.000	0.473**	0.283**	0.339**	0.222**	0.259**	-0.167*	-0.187*	0.228 **
	Sig. (2-tail)			0.000	0.000	0.000	0.005	0.001	0.038	0.020	0.004
Work Effort	Pearson			1.000	0.367**	0.371**	0.187*	0.323**	-0.282**	-0.257**	0.138
	Sig. (2-tail)				0.000	0.000	0.020	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.087
Org ID	Pearson				1.000	0.541**	0.391**	0.367**	-0.184*	-0.444**	0.114
	Sig. (2-tail)					0.000	0.000	0.000	0.022	0.000	0.158
Org Comm	Pearson					1.000	0.450**	0.400**	-0.210**	-0.308**	0.177 *
	Sig. (2-tail)						0.000	0.000	0.009	0.000	0.028
Job Sat	Pearson						1.000	0.383**	-0.014	-0.300**	0.098
	Sig. (2-tail)							0.000	0.862	0.000	0.225
Work Engage	Pearson							1.000	-0.129	-0.358**	0.214 **
	Sig. (2-tail)								0.110	0.000	0.008
CWB	Pearson								1.000	0.056	-0.230 **
	Sig. (2-tail)									0.485	0.004
Attrition In	Pearson									1.000	-0.177 *
	Sig. (2-tail)										0.027
CSES Sum	Pearson										1.000
	Sig. (2-tail)										

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).  
 \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).  
 For all responses, n=155.

Table 27

*Correlations Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes in Moderate CSE Group*

MOD CSE		EJ Sum	Qual Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Comm	Job Sat	Work Engage	CWB	Attrition In	CSES Sum
EJ Sum	Pearson	1.000	0.211**	0.368**	0.699**	0.577**	0.483**	0.515**	-0.119**	-0.503**	0.218 **
	Sig. (2-tail)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.007	0.000	0.000
Qual Work	Pearson		1.000	0.566**	0.274**	0.201**	0.217**	0.329**	-0.002	-0.099*	0.273 **
	Sig. (2-tail)			0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.960	0.024	0.000
Work Effort	Pearson			1.000	0.440**	0.324**	0.258**	0.532**	-0.112*	-0.192**	0.293 **
	Sig. (2-tail)				0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.011	0.000	0.000
Org ID	Pearson				1.000	0.602**	0.464**	0.601**	-0.087*	-0.446**	0.247 **
	Sig. (2-tail)					0.000	0.000	0.000	0.048	0.000	0.000
Org Comm	Pearson					1.000	0.622**	0.428**	-0.046	-0.374**	0.080
	Sig. (2-tail)						0.000	0.000	0.295	0.000	0.067
Job Sat	Pearson						1.000	0.474**	0.043	-0.367**	0.055
	Sig. (2-tail)							0.000	0.326	0.000	0.214
Work Engage	Pearson							1.000	-0.114**	-0.499**	0.365 **
	Sig. (2-tail)								0.009	0.000	0.000
CWB	Pearson								1.000	0.217**	-0.242 **
	Sig. (2-tail)									0.000	0.000
Attrition In	Pearson									1.000	-0.240 **
	Sig. (2-tail)										0.000
CSES Sum	Pearson										1.000
	Sig. (2-tail)										

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).  
 \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).  
 For all responses, n=518.

Table 28

*Correlations Between EJ and Organizational Outcomes in Low CSE Group*

Low CSE		EJ Sum	Qual Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Comm	Job Sat	Work Engage	CWB	Attrition In	CSES Sum
EJ Sum	Pearson	1.000	0.368**	0.451**	0.677**	0.691**	0.601**	0.617**	0.225**	-0.565**	0.262 **
	Sig. (2-tail)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.005	0.000	0.001
Qual Work	Pearson		1.000	0.706**	0.422**	0.481**	0.421**	0.267**	0.219**	-0.070	0.265 **
	Sig. (2-tail)			0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.007	0.392	0.001
Work Effort	Pearson			1.000	0.536**	0.559**	0.453**	0.443**	0.104	-0.245**	0.213 **
	Sig. (2-tail)				0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.201	0.002	0.008
Org ID	Pearson				1.000	0.726**	0.636**	0.551**	0.283**	-0.438**	0.194 *
	Sig. (2-tail)					0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.017
Org Comm	Pearson					1.000	0.746**	0.571**	0.419**	-0.397**	0.212 **
	Sig. (2-tail)						0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.009
Job Sat	Pearson						1.000	0.544**	0.513**	-0.437**	0.294 **
	Sig. (2-tail)							0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Work Engage	Pearson							1.000	0.130	-0.487**	0.284 **
	Sig. (2-tail)								0.110	0.000	0.000
CWB	Pearson								1.000	-0.079	0.030
	Sig. (2-tail)									0.331	0.711
Attrition In	Pearson									1.000	-0.116
	Sig. (2-tail)										0.156
CSES Sum	Pearson										1.000
	Sig. (2-tail)										

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).  
 \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).  
 For all responses, n=152.

Table 29

*Z-Score and Population Comparison Table Between Moderate CSE and High CSE*

Table 4az	N	Quality of Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Commitment	Job Satisfaction	Work Engagement	CWB	Attrition Intention
<b>Moderate CSE</b>	518	0.211	0.368	0.699	0.577	0.483	0.515	-0.119	-0.503
<b>High CSE</b>	155	0.418	0.442	0.663	0.597	0.352	0.400	-0.335	-0.456
<b>Fisher's R-to-Z</b>		2.500*	0.960	0.730	0.330	1.720	1.580	2.480*	0.660
<b>Significant Differences (<math>z \geq \pm 1.96</math>)*</b>									

**Supplemental Hypotheses Testing**

The intent of the research design and methodology was to (1) illustrate the pronounced or unpronounced differences between the normative groups that fall within a range of one standard deviation from the norm and those that fall outside of this range, and (2) further illustrate the variance in relationships when examined through the lens of a moderator. This methodology was partially inspired in the manner in which Mark Snyder originally researched and described the Self-Monitoring variable. However, it also occurred to me that it makes sense from a corporate/employer framework that a workforce might be best understood grouped in this manner.

However, this is not the same methodology that is generally followed for this type of research, and many are used to seeing the extremes measured against each other. Therefore, I have included a supplemental set of assessments which examine the high groups against the low groups.

In Table 30, we find the expanded view of Hypothesis 2 testing, in which the High Self-Monitoring variable is compared to the Low Self-Monitoring variable. Out of the eight possible comparisons, only one (Quality of Work) fell into the rejection zone.

Indeed, even the majority of these are so similar in score and direction that they are virtually no different from each other. Therefore, I am inclined to continue to reject Hypothesis 2a and 2b, as I do not believe there is enough evidence to support the hypotheses as stated.

Table 30

*Z-score and Population Comparison Table Between High Self-Monitoring and Low Self-Monitoring*

Table 2xz	N	Quality of Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Commitment	Job Satisfaction	Work Engagement	CWB	Attrition Intention
<b>High Self-Monitoring</b>	113	0.446	0.510	0.786	0.591	0.470	0.584	-0.264	-0.611
<b>Low Self-Monitoring</b>	137	0.191	0.352	0.708	0.634	0.443	0.542	-0.303	-0.581
<b>Fisher's R-to-Z</b>		2.230*	1.520	1.380	0.540	0.360	0.480	0.310	0.360
Significant Differences ( $z \geq \pm 1.96$ )*									

In continued examination of Hypothesis 3, I compared statistically significant differences between the correlation coefficients of the high extraversion group (Table 21) and those of the low extraversion group (Table 23) using Fischer's r-to-z transformations. The results of these comparisons appear in Table 31. Across the eight possible comparisons, three fell into the rejection zone. It is understandable and predicted that both Quality of Work and Work Effort trend in this manner. However, the more interesting point in this comparison, is the conclusion I must draw after examining the trend found in the Counterproductive Work Behavior variable. Upon further review, I should have considered during the initial design phase that the nature of an extravert might lead them to engage in either Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Counterproductive Work Behavior, and likely both. For example, the extravert may step

outside of their role to assist a colleague or coworker on an important task, while leaving their own responsibilities unfulfilled, which will require more time to complete the task. Ultimately it is an act of both OCB and CWB, which can also lead to increased work effort and a feeling of generating higher quality work, as they feel more fulfilled in assisting others around them. These aspects were those that I did not consider at the time of designing this research as extant literature seemed to point in the direction I originally proposed these. Therefore, while it is logical post-hoc, it does not align with the proposed hypotheses. I must still reject Hypothesis 3.

Table 31

*Z-Score and Population Comparison Table Between High Extraversion and Low Extraversion*

Table 3xz	N	Quality of Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Commitment	Job Satisfaction	Work Engagement	CWB	Attrition Intention
<b>High Extraversion</b>	106	0.429	0.579	0.709	0.568	0.481	0.625	-0.481	-0.574
<b>Low Extraversion</b>	132	0.129	0.337	0.702	0.664	0.451	0.534	-0.147	-0.540
<b>Fisher's R-to-Z</b>		2.490*	2.350*	0.110	1.180	0.290	1.040	2.850*	0.370
Significant Differences ( $z \geq \pm 1.96$ )*									

In continued examination of Hypothesis 4, I compared statistically significant differences between the correlation coefficients of the High CSE group (Table 26) and those of the Low CSE (Table 28) using Fischer's r-to-z transformations. The results of these comparisons appear in Table 32. Across the eight possible comparisons, three fell into the rejection zone. Further, the only significant one that also aligns with the proposed hypothesis is Counterproductive Work Behavior. This means that regardless of the significant nature of any reported r-values in Tables 26, 27, or 28, when comparing the

two groups based on score and sample size, they are not significantly different. I must reject the hypothesis and retain the null.

Table 32

*Z-Score and Population Comparison Table Between High CSE and Low CSE*

Table 4az	N	Quality of Work	Work Effort	Org ID	Org Commitment	Job Satisfaction	Work Engagement	CWB	Attrition Intention
<b>High CSES</b>	155	0.418	0.442	0.663	0.597	0.352	0.400	-0.335	-0.456
<b>Low CSES</b>	152	0.368	0.451	0.677	0.691	0.601	0.617	0.255	-0.565
<b>Fisher's R-to-Z Coefficient</b>		0.510	0.100	0.220	1.400	2.840*	2.570*	5.280*	1.280
Significant Differences ( $z \geq \pm 1.96$ )*									

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **LIMITATIONS, CONCLUSIONS, AND FUTURE RESEARCH**

There are a few limitations to the study that warrant discussion. First, though the sample size was adequately large to fulfill the needs of this study, the scope was limited to full-time employees within the United States. Therefore, we do not know whether the content of this study will find the same results or applicability in other countries. Further, there are hints that there may be some correlation to gender in extant literature, and while I did collect gender data, I did not study any relationships to gender within the context of this study.

The implications of this research attempted to illustrate the role that self-assessed personality factors can play in explaining and predicting the behavior of employees due to their perceptions of moral/immoral behaviors of their employers toward external entities. Cases that illustrate the importance of this research can be made out of a wide variety of scandals that businesses face on a daily basis, particularly in the age of social media and the nature of the viral video. However, the case that solidified this importance in my mind while I was developing the idea for the research was the incident with United Airlines and Dr. David Dao, in which the whole country was outraged by the behavior of the airline and the rough treatment the doctor received as he was bloodied and removed

from the plane forcibly. Herein, we have a corporation and the behavior of that corporation toward an external entity (in this case, a single person who became emblematic of all airline passengers that have been seated and then subsequently removed from an airplane due to ticketing/seating practices of the airline). This is the basis for External Organizational Justice research. Moreover, the application of this study of behavior, we examine the impact of this behavior on the employees within that corporation. Will they still identify with the company if they disagree with the exhibited behavior, particularly if this is standard practice at the company and will persist in the future, unabated? Will the company lose money because they have employees that will start to willfully behave negatively in their own job roles? How likely will turnover be impacted, and who within the base of employees is most likely to leave after news like this? Understanding the variables in this research can help answer these questions, but it also reinforces that positive or negative corporate behavior can have farther reaching impacts than a dip in popularity or a momentary drop in stock price.

This study appears to show that the original instrument produced by Toaddy (2012) is sound, having been able to produce measurably similar resultant relationships between EJ and associated organizational outcomes. Additionally, I believe that we are still seeing significant relationships between the personality variables studied and other associated variables within the study; however, the posited hypotheses were merely looking at very specific moderation components which limits the overall expression of the magnitude of the results. Ergo, I believe further analysis of the rich dataset that was collected as part of this study will continue to provide the first steps toward extending this nomological branch of inquiry, opening new avenues for further study and inquiry.

Therefore, I posit that there is demonstrable need for future inquiry into External Organizational Justice, the relationship of this construct to other types of organizational success variables, and other personality factors that could impact, predict, or partner with EJ to provide a broader array of predictive power. Moreover, there are likely many untouched avenues of justice-oriented research from which both individuals and business could benefit. Particularly, however, as EJ is such a young construct, further examination is necessary to develop a full understanding. When I think about the field of psychology in general, and the numerous branches that have been explored, it makes me think of a tree branch in the way that the main limb would represent the overall body of psychology, and there are numerous offshoots that have been or need to be explored. I think, though, I like to think of it more as a river and the branches are the many tributaries that feed into it. The main body of Psychology is fed into by a landscape of rivers and streams of research. We have chosen to journey up river and trace the origins of this feeder stream. There have been volumes of research on justice-oriented psychology constructs, and then a researcher explored further and found one or multiple additional streams that have been feeding into Justice. One step further upstream and we are now finding Corporate Social Justice. Once step further than that and we are seeing External Organizational Justice. What tributaries surround this step? Where does the data show further discoveries waiting to be seen? This is why I recommend we take the time to consider what constructs, known or unknown, are feeding into the External Organizational Justice stream. It is here that the next step to discovery can be made.

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**APPENDIX A**

**HUMAN USE APPROVAL LETTER**



LOUISIANA TECH  
UNIVERSITY.

MEMORANDUM

OFFICE OF SPONSORED PROJECTS

TO: Mr. Clifton Luther and Dr. Steven Toaddy  
 FROM: Dr. Richard Kordal, Director of Intellectual Properties  
rkordal@latech.edu  
 SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW  
 DATE: April 12, 2018

In order to facilitate your project, an EXPEDITED REVIEW has been done for your proposed study entitled:

“Validation of External Organizational Justice Assessment through Replication, and Examination of Extraversion, Core Self-evaluations, and Self-Monitoring as Moderators of the Relationship between External Organizational Justice and Organizational Outcomes:  
 A Two-part Dissertation”

**HUC 18-045 REVISIONS**

The proposed study's revised procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Informed consent is a critical part of the research process. The subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary. It is important that consent materials be presented in a language understandable to every participant. If you have participants in your study whose first language is not English, be sure that informed consent materials are adequately explained or translated. Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval of the involvement of human subjects as outlined.

Projects should be renewed annually. *This approval was finalized on October 16, 2017 and this project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project, including data analysis, continues beyond October 16, 2018.* Any discrepancies in procedure or changes that have been made including approved changes should be noted in the review application. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of University Research.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, informed consent process or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Research or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

Please be aware that you are responsible for reporting any adverse events or unanticipated problems.

A MEMBER OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA SYSTEM

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