

Benefits of Mindfulness in the Workplace: The Effects of Mindful Practices on Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

by

Trishna Gautam Patel

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Approved by

Daniel Svyantek, Chair, Professor and Chair, Department of Psychology
Alejandro Lazarte, Associate Professor, Department of Psychology
Elizabeth Brestan-Knight, Associate Professor, Department of Psychology
Jesse Michel, Associate Professor, Department of Psychology

Abstract

Mindfulness research has been growing in its scope of having an influencing impact within organizational settings. A goal of this study was to add to the ongoing research by including situational factors, as they might relate to mindfulness practices in the workplace. Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors (CWBs) or Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs); nor have any examined the moderating effects that key demographic variables might play in these relationships. A significant contribution of this study was the results showing these two types behaviors have different outcomes when they are moderated by age, gender, and ethnicity. Job level, job tenure, and job type did not have any significant moderating effects. Four subscales of CWBs were examined as they relate to mindfulness: ineffective job performance, absenteeism, workplace harassment, and employee theft. Mindfulness had significant interactive effects with demographic variables when predicting all of these. However, there were no significant interactive effects found when mindfulness predicted OCBs. Mindfulness was a significant predictor when it came to OCBs without any controls. The results in the HR context have practical implications regarding how organizations should implement or encourage employee mindfulness training practices. It has been related to lower reported CWBs and increased OCBs. Furthermore, the differential outcomes in the CWB and OCB contexts provide a first step in expanding upon the theoretical and practical implications of various contexts and how they are influenced by mindfulness.

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Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
Acknowledgments.....	iii
List of Tables	vi
List of Figures	vii
List of Abbreviations	viii
Benefits of Mindfulness in the Workplace: The Effects of Mindful Practices on Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors and Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	1
Facets and Structure of Mindfulness	3
Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors (CWBs)	7
Ineffective Job Performance	11
Absenteeism.....	16
Employee Theft.....	22
Workplace Harassment	23
Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs).....	27
Method	35
Participants.....	35
Measures	36
Design	38
Procedure	39
Results.....	40
Preliminary Analyses	40

Hierarchical Multiple Regression (HMR)	41
Ineffective Job Performance (IJP)	41
Absenteeism	43
Employee Theft.....	44
Workplace Harassment	45
Organizational Citizenship behavior (OCB).....	47
Discussion	48
General Discussion	56
Practical and Theoretical Implications.....	60
Harnessing Mindfulness.....	60
Combating Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors	62
Encouraging Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	71
Limitations and Future Research	74
Conclusion	77
References	79
Appendix A.....	113
Appendix B	114
Appendix C	115

List of Tables

Table 1	97
Table 2	98
Table 3	99
Table 4	100
Table 5	101
Table 6	102

List of Figures

Figure 1a	103
Figure 1b	104
Figure 2a	105
Figure 2b	106
Figure 3a	107
Figure 3b	108
Figure 4a	109
Figure 4b	110
Figure 5a	111
Figure 5b	112

List of Abbreviations

OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
CWB	Counterproductive Workplace Behavior
HMR	Hierarchical Multiple Regression
IJP	Ineffective Job Performance
MAAS	Mindfulness Attention and Awareness Scale
MBSR	Mindfulness Based Stress Reduction

Benefits of Mindfulness in the Workplace: The Effects of Mindful Practices on Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Mindfulness is not a new concept, but it has only been explored in the context of organizational psychology, in earnest, within the last 15 years. A growing body of research links mindfulness with important outcomes—ranging from stress reduction, to individual physiological health (Black, 2011; Burton, Pakenham, Brown, 2010; Hyland, Lee, Mills, 2015; Krishnakumar & Robinson, 2015; Langer, 1989; Sundararajan & Fatemi, 2016; Wolever et al., 2012). The concept of mindfulness is centuries old, having its origins set in Hindu and Buddhist culture, (Gunaratana, 2002; Kabat-Zinn, 1982). As such, there is tremendous variation in the interpretation and definition of the construct of mindfulness. Each definition has common elements; the basic premise behind them can be interpreted as receptive and open attention to the present moment (Bishop et al., 2004; Krishnakumar & Robinson, 2015).

Mindfulness has generally been viewed as encompassing its two fundamental facets that work in conjunction: attention and attitude. As such, we define mindfulness as the act of intentionally perceiving things as they are in the present moment clearly, without distractions, biases, or expectations, with an approach to the present experience with an open and objective mind, leaning towards kindness, compassion, and curiosity (Baer, 2016; Gunaratana, 2002; Walach et al., 2007). Given this definition, the practice of mindfulness can allow an individual a deeper understanding and exploration of their own experience—internal and external—through a realization of their own thoughts, emotions, sensations, subsequent actions, and resulting effects of their analysis. Through specific mindfulness practices, individuals can more cognizant of their subjective experience and choose what to act on, and what to let go, rather than simply react automatically (Wolever et al., 2012).

According to Wolever et al. (2012), the mechanism behind the effectiveness of mindful practices is that careful, nonjudgmental observation slowly leads to the revelation that experiences and events have the capacity to be treated as fluid. Meaning that even negative experiences can come to be seen as changeable and controllable by the individual. Even though this process is not conscious, it has been shown to allow worldly experiences to be interpreted as significantly different and less stressful (Wolever et al., 2012). Increasing mindfulness, or even mindful practices, on an individual level can thereby result in a domino effect of psychological and behavioral changes, that could potentially influence workplace behavior, experiences, and have beneficial results for organizations.

In organizational settings, even brief periods of mindfulness training have been linked with a number of outcomes, including workplace relationships, resiliency, task performance, creativity, task commitment, working memory, emotional regulation, attentional control (Burton, Pakenham, Brown, 2010; Chiesa, Calati, & Serretti, 2011; Glomb et al., 2012; Jha et al., 2010; Levy, Wobbrock, Kaszniak & Ostergren, 2012; Sundararajan & Fatemi, 2016). These outcomes are of particular relevance within an organizational because of their potential impact on productivity (Wolever et al., 2012). Although work on examining the effects of mindfulness in a workplace setting continues, two behavioral variables of interest to this study—Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors (CWBs) and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs)—have largely been overlooked. There have been no studies directly examining the effects of mindfulness practices on these behaviors; mediators of these relationships have been examined, but even those relationships are scarce in literature (Allred, 2012; Krishnakumar & Robinson, 2015). This study attempts to bridge this gap in literature, by examining these relationships directly.

Now that a basic overview of behind mindfulness has been discussed, the focus is turned to the structure of mindfulness based practices, and how they can be used in the workplace. A detailed discussion of the different aspects of mindfulness will be outlined in subsequent sections, in order to glean better understanding and appreciation of what the construct as a whole.

Facets and Structure of Mindfulness

There is tremendous range in the definitions of mindfulness within academic literature, but most conceptualizations have these common elements: focus on the present moment, attention, and attitude (Dane, 2011). At the core, lies the focus on the *present moment*. When a situation presents itself, if the focus is placed on similar previous experiences or worry for the future, this is not viewed as mindfulness (Brown & Ryan, 2003). The focus on the present moment applies to both the other aspects. Within the realm of the present experience, paying close *attention* to both one's internal reaction and external phenomena area vital part of mindful practice (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Glomb et al., 2012). Internally, one's focus should be on examining their thoughts, emotions, feelings, physiological sensations; externally, one should be aware of phenomena such as sights, sounds, social relationships, and events occurring within one's social environment (Glomb et al., 2012). Simultaneous awareness of the total present experience is a foundational tenet of mindfulness, along with the awareness of the attitude with which one approaches the situation. One must pay attention in an open, accepting, and curious way, without imposing their subjective judgments, past memories, biases, ideologies, principles, or other self-relevant cognitive manipulations onto the situational approach (Baer, 2003; Glomb et al., 2012; Kabat-Zinn, 2005). As such, the present study integrates all these elements into an

inclusive definition of mindfulness to be conceptualized as an open-minded attention to and awareness of present moment experiences.

In this view, mindfulness can be interpreted as a state-level variable—one that increases and enhances psychological, situational, cognitive, and physiological functioning (Hyland, Lee, Mills, 2015). The effects and benefits of mindfulness practices within workplace settings are expansive. The most commonly cited benefit of implementation of these practices is self-regulation, through breaking up the automatic process of mechanically interpreting thought patterns (Baer, 2003; Glomb et al., 2012). Mindfulness disrupts engrained processes, reactions, states, emotional filters, and schemas, by focusing on what is going on in that given moment, rather than what once was or could have been (Hyland, Lee, Mills, 2015). One can view this as exercising an individual's psychological flexibility, where actions and interpretations are influenced more heavily by personal values and goals rather than personal biases, insecurities, or environmental demands (Hayes, Strosahl, Bunting, Twohig, & Wilson, 2004; Hyland, Lee, Mills, 2015).

We believe that this study's integrative conceptualization of mindfulness as an open-minded attention to and awareness of present moment experiences reflects this state-level psychological flexibility. Now that the structure and underlying processes of mindfulness, as previously studied in literature, have been discussed, focus is turned to how these practices have been successfully implemented in the workplace.

Mindfulness Based Stress Reduction (MBSR)

There exists a breadth of mindfulness-based training interventions that are gaining popularity within the workplace. One of the earliest—and most expanded upon—training practices to deviate from Hindu/Buddhist culture towards implementation in a workplace setting

is known as Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction (MBSR), developed by Kabat-Zinn (1982; Hyland, Lee, Mills, 2015; Wolever et al., 2012). Kabat-Zinn was a medical student, and an avid practitioner of meditation; he developed the MBSR program at the University of Massachusetts Medical School in order to aid the hospital's most challenged patients, with a non-religious focus (Didonna, 2009; Glomb et al., 2012; Hyland, Lee, Mills, 2015; Ludwig & Kabat-Zinn, 2008). MBSR is a 27-hr intervention created to target stress, chronic pain, and a number of psychological symptoms (Kabat-Zinn, 1990). Details of this intervention will be discussed later, however at this point it is important to understand the background of the MBSR to understand how it evolved into a measure that has been widely adapted and utilized in mindfulness research; a derivative scale based on this program serves as a tool for this study.

The MBSR program's first foundational practice revolves around cultivating a focused attention on the act and sensation of breathing, while allowing thoughts, reactions, judgments, and other sensations to surface into awareness and then fade out, without an individual attaching to or identifying with them (Hyland, Lee, Mills, 2015). Mindfulness aims at accepting thoughts without attaching any personally relevant information to them, leaving an individual with a non-personal assessment of the situation.

In addition to breathing, MBSR's fundamental exercises include sitting meditation, hatha yoga, and a practice known as the body scan (Kabat-Zinn, 1982, Glomb et al., 2012; Jensen et al., 2012). Body scan practitioners are instructed to close their eyes while lying down, and to carefully, intentionally, and progressively focus on each area of their body; in particular, noticing any sensations and stimuli that exist and manifest from moment to moment from a nonjudgmental, unbiased, and open-minded viewpoint (Jensen et al., 2012).

These practices were initially proposed to be implemented over an 8-week period, however researchers have been interested in the efficacy of shortened versions of mindfulness trainings, to fit easier within a demanding work week. Shorter training programs have been shown to have significant results. For instance, the 20 minute/4-day training program created by Ziedan et al (2010) and the single 15 minute implementation by Hafenbrack et al (2014) showed significant results, while also being realistic in their application in a busy work environment. However, there are concerns that adaptation—specifically, such short exposure of practices that are most beneficial when incorporated long-term into daily life—can result in less effective solutions (Jha et al., 2010). Another caveat in literature is that in an attempt to implement mindfulness training programs in an expedient way, organizations may compromise expertise for time; meaning, that untrained and inexperienced consultants or trainees may lead the mindfulness trainings; this is inadvisable because it will likely not yield effective results (Chaskalson, 2011; Jha et al., 2010; Kabat-Zinn, 2005; Langer & Moldoveanu, 2000).

Generally, the format, content, and duration of workplace mindfulness have been adapted from the MBSR model to allow for more practical application within the workplace. Relatedly, another adaptation allows for online implementation of MBSR practices, allowing for more saved time. No significant difference has been found between the shortened version of the MBSR and the online versions of it, in terms of positive results (Farb et al., 2010; Wolever et al., 2012). As this study is set in an organization with high time-based demands, the complete version of the MBSR intervention is outside of the scope of this study. This study will use a shortened, adapted scale, which will be discussed in later sections; intervention recommendation will be discussed in tandem with other recommendations.

The structure, facets, benefits, and adaptations of mindfulness practices have been discussed; focus is now turned to the variables of interest which are believed to have a direct relationship with mindful practices within an organization. The variables of interest are Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors (CWBs) and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs). An in-depth exposition of these variables will provide the basis of understanding as to why these are important behaviors to study, and why they should be examined in relation to perceptions of mindfulness.

Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors (CWBs)

In order to examine the relationship between mindfulness and CWBs, it is important to first get an understanding of what CWBs are, what these behaviors manifest as, and why they are relevant to study within the workplace. Counterproductive Workplace Behavior (CWB) is simply conceptualized as an employee's explicit actions or behaviors that work against the goals of an organization (Sackett, Berry, Wiemann, & Laczko, 2006). These behaviors can manifest in a vast number of ways, each with the commonality that they are harmful to the organization, or its members, in some form (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). The negative effects of CWBs have an impact on multiple levels within the organization. At the individual level, exhibiting counterproductive behavior could result in an employee experiencing discomfort, punishment, or an increased future workload. At the group level, negative repercussions of CWBs could include interpersonal conflict or aggression, or a resultant increased workload for others. At the organizational level, the negative outcomes are more severe; these can include destruction or loss of property, diminished organizational performance, or devaluation of the organization as a whole (Reynolds, Shoss, & Jundt, 2015).

Additionally, at the social and economic level, the cost of these behaviors can be substantial. The annual reported cost of lost productivity and legal expenses due to a range of CWBs has been estimated to be as high as \$4.2 billion (Bensimon, 1994). Economic costs of more destructive CWBs, such as theft, have been estimated to range between \$40 to \$120 billion (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Other costs include wasted resources, an organization garnering a tarnished reputation, reduced performance, and lowered employee morale (Altman & Adkere, 2008; Aquino, Galperin, & Bennett, 2004; Camara & Schneider, 1994). The damaging mechanism underlying CWB is that it threatens or disrupts effective organizational functioning, which in turn is pervasive and costly for organizations (Arya & Khandelwal, 2013; Matta, Erol-Korkmaz, Johnson, & Biçaksiz, 2014; Spector & Fox, 2002).

If corrective actions are not taken to reduce the occurrence and prevalence of CWBs, ultimately, the burden of cost becomes the organization's responsibility (Steffgen, 2008). In an attempt to reduce their prevalence, an organization must primarily be able to understand and identify what CWBs are and what leads to their occurrence; based on that understanding, they can devise a plan of action to most effectively combat those specific behaviors.

In order to better understand this pervasive phenomenon, firstly, it is important to comprehend the underlying assumptions of its definition. The current definition of counterproductive workplace behavior, as mentioned previously, is essentially employee behaviors that function in contrary to an organization's goals. This definition has three underlying assumptions (Schat & Kelloway, 2005). The first assumption is that organizations have multiple goals and objectives. Examples of organizational goals include increasing profitability, sustaining high levels of customer service, preserving a peaceful work environment, striving for economic adaptability, upholding a reputation for being socially responsible, or at the

very least, maintaining productivity. A violation of any of an organization's explicit or implicit goals is considered to be counterproductive.

A second assumption is that this definition makes no suppositions about the employee's motives for counterproductive behavior. Examples of motives could include personal gain, malevolence, boredom, social loafing, or complacency. Under this assumption, it could be entirely possible for an employee to engage in counterproductive behavior, without any intention of doing so. The circumstances that result in the CWB could be uncontrollable by the employee, such as a lack of skills necessary to be productive, or lack of training and resources to finish a task.

Lastly, the third assumption makes no suppositions about the underlying causes of CWB. Cause is typically attributed to both interpersonal and organizational aspects (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), and often to an interplay between individual characteristics and the environment (Fox & Spector, 1999; Yan, Zhou, Long, & Ji, 2014). An example of a person-by-environment interaction that may result in an incomplete task could be a combination of low motivation (individual characteristic) and poor task instruction (environmental characteristic). A more drastic circumstance that could result in violence might include low empathy (individual characteristic) and a high-stress work climate (environmental characteristic).

Based on these broad assumptions, counterproductive behaviors can be conceptualized as a vast range of actions that are a hindrance to organizational productivity. Organizational productivity is defined as employee behavior that contributes positively to the goals and the objectives of an organization (Campbell, 1990). The very definition of counterproductive behavior is the antithesis to organizational productivity. Perhaps it is because of the unambiguous nature of this relationship, that a gap exists in literature, which might test the direct

effects these two constructs may have on each other. Although their opposing definitions might render any testing unnecessary, it may still be of conceptual utility to test this direct relationship, conclusively. Having an explicit statement of how one affects the other in literature, could serve future generations of researchers by expediting their knowledge of these concepts and their relationship with each other.

As it currently exists, inferences must be drawn on what role counterproductive behavior plays in organizational productivity (i.e., CWB hinders productivity). It could be surmised that counterproductive behavior may have a range of how much it hinders organizational productivity. For instance, a minor CWB could hinder productivity with almost no significant consequence (e.g., a coworker may infrequently interrupt another); a moderate CWB could stop productivity (e.g., low task commitment in an employee may lead to a project not being completed); a severe CWB could bring productivity that has already been accomplished a step back (e.g., low motivation may lead to errors in an employee's work, at which point extra time must be spent to then search for and fix the errors). This range of consequences is potentially further cause to examine the direct effects of CWB on organizational productivity, despite how intuitive the nature of their relationship may seem; it could give us additional knowledge beyond 'one hinders the other.' However, literature has studied other aspects of CWB, in detail, and a basic understanding of its manifestations is provided in this paper. Of the numerous manifestations of CWBs, seven have emerged as occurring most frequently, thus having the largest impact on overall organizational productivity.

The most common behaviors of interest to this study are *Ineffective Job Performance*, *Absenteeism*, *Employee Theft*, and *Workplace Harassment*. We will concentrate on these four of the most common variables, because they best fit the needs of the organizational site used. It is

worth mentioning the other three most common variables associated with the construct of CWBs, to show that CWBs encompass a wider range of behavior than what is thoroughly discussed in this project. The other three most common forms of CWBs are workplace accidents (Clarke, 2006; Griffin & Neal, 2000; Wickens & Hollands, 2000), turnover (Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006; Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2004; Zimmerman, 2008), and workplace violence (Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006; Schat & Kelloway, 2005). These are also the most difficult to measure in organizations, due to underreporting, infrequency or poor tracking (Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006; Hackman & Landau, 1981; Hulin, 1991; Jackofsky, 1984; Skogstad, Einarsen, Torshiem, Aasland, & Hetland, 2007). It is important to note that these are potential variables of interest for other studies to link with mindfulness, but for the current purpose attention is turned to the four variables of interest in the scope of this study.

These four behaviors have been identified as some of the most detrimental to organizational productivity, due to sheer frequency. The magnitudes of their relative negative organizational impacts are detailed in the following sections; these details highlight the importance of combating the occurrence of these behaviors. One tool we believe would be useful in reducing the occurrence of each of these behaviors is the implementation of mindfulness practices within the workplace. Mindfulness—through its influence on an individual to become more cognizant of their present moment choices, reactions, and decisions—would result in fewer instances of each of these four most common CWBs. In order to understand this link, it is important to individually explore the impacts of these behaviors.

Ineffective Job Performance

In financial terms, productivity occurs when an organization receives a return on an investment they have made in an employee (Campbell, 1990). In order to maximize that return

on investment, it is in an organization's best interest to harness and capitalize on any form of productivity. Job performance is the most common form of productive behavior (Jex, 1998); thus, it has been studied with the most regularity. As such, this discussion will be the most detailed of the common CWBs. Job performance is any behavior that contributes to organizational goals; the quality of contribution is not specified. Job performance can be composed of specific, core tasks or more peripheral, general tasks. The effectiveness of the contribution to organizational goals is based on an evaluation of an employee's performance; in order to assess ineffective job performance, an appraisal must be conducted.

There are numerous positive outcomes of effective job performance. Tangible outcomes can include increased cash bonuses, raises, and promotions; intangible outcomes can include commendations, respect, and a sense of accomplishment (Campbell, 1990). Despite these rewards, perplexingly, some employees still engage in ineffective job performance (IJP). In an attempt to understand this occurrence, any potential antecedents to this behavior must be identified.

In many organizational settings, the cause of ineffective job performance seems to be unclear. When this is the case, the cause must be attributed to characteristics of the individual (i.e., the employee is at fault) or the situation (i.e., it has to do with the work or environment). Attribution theory allows that judgment to take place; this occurs when people determine the cause of another person's behavior by examining if it is consistent across time, in different settings, and in comparison to others (Kelly, 1973). When poor performance is consistent across all three aspects, the antecedent of ineffective performance is viewed as an internal characteristic of the individual (e.g., lack of ability or motivation, etc.); when inconsistent, the attributed antecedent is an external characteristic (e.g., poor task design, work-family conflict, etc.). The

problem with attribution theory is that it is not accurate. Fundamental attribution error (FAE) refers to personal bias causing attributions to be made to individual characteristics as opposed to external ones (Ross, 1977). For example, studies have found that a supervisor is more likely to attribute IJP to internal causes when they lack experience in the task they are rating (Mitchell & Kalb, 1982), and have less interdependency with their subordinate (Ilgen, Mitchell, & Frederickson, 1981). If they view the cause as internal, and having to do with a lack of motivation rather than a lack of ability, they are less accepting of poor performance (Podsakoff, 1982). As the current, primary method for evaluating IJP is employee appraisals, it is important to keep in mind that FAE affects accurate diagnosis of its antecedents, which in turn affects the overall understanding of how to prevent it.

Nonetheless, with that caveat in mind, literature has identified several potential causes for IJP. Antecedents for ineffective performance could include an individual's inability to perform their job (e.g., lack of training, substance abuse, poor skills), their lack of willingness (e.g., low motivation, inability to sustain effort), and/or environmental factors (e.g., poor task instruction or social loafing in groups) preventing productive output (Campbell, 1990; Frone, 2006; Murphy, 1994; Roman & Blum, 1995; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998).

Numerous antecedents have also been attributed to organizational causes. One antecedent has been identified as selection errors that organizations can make when hiring. If their selection process is not adequate, they are likely to hire candidates who may not possess the necessary skills or abilities to be proactive, or may be a poor fit with the organization (Guion & Highhouse, 2004; Kristoff, 1996; Morley, 2007). Once hired, organizations may fail to adequately socialize or train employees (Goldstein & Ford, 2002). This could include instances of poor training on tasks, or failure to socialize new employees to necessary aspects culture. For example, if an

employee has not been provided with the necessary instructions to complete a task, or has not been informed that the organizational culture highly values accuracy before timeliness, the employee may be set up for ineffective job performance. Additionally, the culture could portray mixed signals. For instance, group dynamics could dictate that following of directions is highly valued, and simultaneously, management could be conveying that they value initiative and creativity. A new employee would not have much guidance in how to act in this situation. Lastly, even with proper selection procedures in place, and adequate socialization and training, constraints in the organizational environment could lead to IJP. For example, if a task requires plentiful use of inter-departmental recourses, but the culture keeps departments segregated and independent, it would hinder successful performance. Other examples of work environment constraints could include interruption from others, poor tools or equipment, or insufficient circulation of current information (Campion & Berger, 1990; Peters & O'Connor, 1988; Spector & Jex, 1998).

The consequences of IJP are similar to the overall consequences of CWBs; the main consequence of concern is decrease in productivity, and the costs associated with it. Other consequences of IJP include lower employee morale. If an able and motivated employee receives a poor performance evaluation, they may feel like a failure, or undervalued, which could lower their willingness to make an effort in the future. Additionally, IJP could result in attrition. Poor selection or lack of socialization procedures may result in hiring employees who self-select out due to poor fit, or perceptions of social isolation. This would result in lost human and financial capital.

Lastly, the challenges in assessing IJP must be discussed, as assessment is the key to identifying its occurrence. In many organizations, IJP is difficult to detect. As a first challenge in

measurement, the frequency of base rates for self-, peer-, and supervisor-reported CWB are extremely low (Akremi, Vanden-berghe, & Camerman, 2010; Bechtoldt, Welk, Zapf, & Hartif, 2007). Even when participation is achieved and acceptable, and IJP is detected, it is problematic to diagnose the cause of the problem. As mentioned previously, the primary means of assessment for IJP is conducting performance appraisals, which can be unreliable due to attribution error. Additionally, most appraisal systems assess impact, but are not designed to assess the cause of a behavior. The information gathered typically consists of personnel data (e.g., records of an employee's absences, tardiness, or human resource complaints), production data (e.g., the numerical representation of productivity in terms of projects completed, accounts closed, commissions earned, etc.), and subjective appraisals (e.g. supervisor ratings of subordinate effectiveness). Neither personnel nor production data give any cues as to the cause of IJP. Production data is cost effective, but gives a narrow scope of overall employee job performance (Pritchard, 1992). Subjective appraisals are problematic because typically little effort is put into training the raters, and the performance dimensions that are measured are often too general to identify performance problems (Cascio, 1998). There is one method of detecting IJP that has been shown to be effective. Electronic performance monitoring (e.g., supervisors who monitor telemarketer calls) can help immediately identify IJP, however, they also do not identify a cause (Zweig & Webster, 2002; Hovorka-Mead, Ross, Whipple & Renchin, 2002). Even in situations where a diagnosis of the cause is possible, there is often difficulty in how to respond or prevent the problem in performance.

For the purposes of this study, we will measure self-perceptions of IJP in an effort to understand how mindfulness can play a role in increasing effective job performance. Perceptions of IJP will assess varying behaviors that fit the formal conception of IJP—any behavior that

detracts from organizational goals. These could include instances of wasting time, actions that hinder work process or flow, or behaviors that affect the organizational environment in a way that detracts from productivity. We believe that perceptions of mindfulness, or mindfulness practices, can influence how much an employee exhibits actions that result in ineffective job performance. For instance, one unexplored reason for IJP could be lack of awareness. One could not be aware they are wasting their time, or even a fellow employee's time. Being more aware of one's surroundings and actions could result in fewer activities that constitute ineffective performance. As such, we hypothesize that the more aware of the present moment, and open to adaptation for the sake of productivity an individual can become, the less they will exhibit behaviors that result in ineffective job performance.

H1: Perceptions of mindfulness will be negatively linked to employee IJP, such that the more mindful an employee perceives themselves, the less likely they will be to exhibit higher rates of IJP.

IJP is an important part of understanding the overall picture of how CWBs can manifest in the workplace. Other behaviors are subsequently discussed to contribute to our overall conception of CWBs in the workplace, and how we believe these might relate to or be affected by perceptions of mindfulness. Finally, suggested preventative actions and responses for all the CWBs will be discussed in this paper; in order to compose a comprehensive anthology of recommendations, the next few sections provide a discussion of the other common CWBs.

Absenteeism

Absenteeism is simply defined as not showing up for work (Kohler & Mathieu, 1993). However, it is a complex phenomenon that is the behavioral response to negative feelings about a job situation. There are two types of absences: excused and unexcused. Excused absences are

viewed as legitimate by the organization, and are less likely to lead to negative ramifications (e.g., illness or family emergencies). Unexcused absences are unacceptable reasons for a lack of attendance (e.g., going to a baseball game or shopping); this could include cases in which the proper protocol was not followed in order to be absent. As opposed to IJP, the antecedents of this counterproductive workplace behavior are relatively easy to identify.

Historically, research was focused on affective predictors of absenteeism; the linkages between affect and absenteeism was typically weak (Hackett, 1989; Hackett & Guion, 1985; Kohler & Mathieu, 1993; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Steers & Rhodes, 1978). Focus has since shifted to non-affective antecedents of absenteeism; these are based on an employee's ability and desire to attend (Kohler & Mathieu, 1993). An employee's ability to attend, when willingness is present, could be determined by their circumstances such as health, family responsibility, or breakdowns in the reliability of their mode of transportation. It can be concluded that these reasons are likely to be deemed legitimate (up to a certain point) by the organization, and thus, can be excused absences. An employee's desire to attend, when ability is present, can be determined by more internal cues, such as wanting to be elsewhere, having experienced social isolation due to interpersonal conflict, or having interest in pursuing a different job. It can similarly be concluded that these reasons are unlikely to be viewed as legitimate by the organization, and thus, are more likely to be unexcused absences.

Several non-affective antecedents have emerged from this ability/desire based understanding of absenteeism (Kohler & Mathieu, 1993). One antecedent of absenteeism is stress reactions (Steel & Rentsch, 1995; VandenHeuvel & Wooden 1995). These can be viewed as physiological reactions to stress that can leave a person impaired or immobile, causing them to miss work. Fields in occupational health psychology have focused on these reactions and

identified them as biological (such as a lowered immune system response), or mental (such as causing psychological distress). Additionally, these stress reactions have been linked to fatigue, dissatisfaction with multiple, simultaneous aspects of the job (i.e. internal and external), and gender (Kohler & Mathieu, 1993; Steel & Rentsch, 1995). Gender is particularly interesting because women are more likely than men to be absent due to stress related reasons; because, they are more likely to be in situations that pose a conflict to work attendance (Hochschild, 1990; VandenHeuvel & Wooden, 1995). Conjecture has attributed this conflict to be an increased likelihood that women hold dual careers, one in the workforce, and one as primary caregiver (VandenHeuvel & Wooden, 1995); however, this has not been definitively proven. As women constitute a vast portion of the workforce, the implications of this difference could potentially be great. Research should further examine the antecedents of gender as a determinant of absenteeism, especially considering the changing workforce.

Another non-affective antecedent to absenteeism is any non-work obligation (Kohler & Mathieu, 1993). This could include a variety of examples, such as having a child who needs care, problems with transportation or weather, and healthcare maintenance. Non-work obligations have been linked to increased role conflict, role ambiguity, and dissatisfaction with extrinsic features of the job (Kohler & Mathieu, 1993). If it is postulated that non-work obligations affect an employee's ability to attend (versus desire), and therefore are more likely to be seen as legitimate excuse, it would be interesting to learn if any typical 'threshold for tolerance' exists with organizations. For instance, if an employee is repeatedly absent from work due to a faulty vehicle, determining at which point that excuse becomes illegitimate, and if there is an observed trend across organizations for that threshold.

Another non-affective antecedent to absenteeism is the nature of the absence-control policy (Farrell & Stamm, 1988). In some organizations, a casual outlook is conveyed regarding absences. In such organizations, they could value overall employee output in a given timeframe over daily attendance (e.g., the number of days absent in a month is less important than the number of projects completed that month). In other organizations, the policy is very strict, and can result in disciplinary actions, even when proper documentation is acquired. When an organization does have a strict absence-control policy, it is imperative that they communicate those expectations clearly with the employees (Kohler & Mathieu, 1993). It would be interesting to learn about the frequency with which this CWB occurs in organizations that have a more relaxed absence policy; this seems like a situation in which there would be a lot of variability in individual differences. Would employees take advantage and be absent more freely, or would they more or less operate in the same way as any other organization? If absenteeism was indeed more frequent, would that have any negative outcomes, if the overall productivity was somehow balanced out? For instance, in a scenario in which an employee missed most of the month at work, but their only goal was to complete a project by the end of that month; if that goal was completed, would there be any harm in absenteeism? If not, or not significantly, this could be a major implication for organizations; they could offer flexible attendance in order to maintain productivity. Research should examine and identify environments that would thrive in this atmosphere, and those that might not benefit from a casual absence-policy.

An organization's absence culture has also been identified as an antecedent of absenteeism. Absence culture can be viewed as the beliefs and practices that influence the incidence of absenteeism within a group or the overall organization (Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson, & Brown, 1982). Within work groups, or the overall organization, the normative

standards would dictate the culture, and thus guide employee behavior. In this case, a group's beliefs regarding absenteeism influence its occurrence (Martocchio, 1994). Additionally, there are typically numerous workgroups within an organization, meaning there are many variations on their specific group norms (Hackman & Landau, 1981). As with any phenomenon involving groups, this could potentially pose problems in measurement. When a behavior is influenced by participation or involvement in a group, measurements must be made at that level. Additionally, researchers should be careful in aggregating results across different groups, when assessing norms. Researchers should examine the interaction of group versus overall organizational culture and their influence on absenteeism. It would be interesting to note which, group or organizational culture, would emerge as the dominant social cue that guides employee absenteeism.

The consequences of absenteeism are also similar to the overall consequences of CWB; the chief causes of concern due to absenteeism translate to a decrease in productivity, and the costs associated with it. Other consequences of absenteeism could include wasted time and effort put into reallocation of resources in order to complete a task. For example, a manager might have to get an employee's shift covered on short notice, taking time away from the work they could be doing (i.e., a secondary loss of productivity). Frequent absenteeism could result in social conflict. If another employee must compensate for the missing employee's workload, repeatedly, it might lead to harboring negative feelings amidst coworkers, or decreased morale. Absenteeism could also result in loss of employee income; for instance, an hourly worker who does not receive paid time off, and has to be absent, will not receive monetary compensation for that day. Depending on their reason for absence (e.g., cannot afford a necessary car part to get to work effectively), this could exacerbate the problem. In more severe cases, incidences of absenteeism

could result in a total loss of employment. If an employee has accrued too many absences—even for legitimate reasons—it may not be in the organization’s best interest to retain that employee.

Lastly, the challenges in identifying the occurrence of absenteeism must be discussed. Absenteeism, and the remainder of the most common forms of CWBs, poses no challenges for an organization to identify. However, as with any phenomenon, often identification alone is not enough. In order to gain a closer understanding of causality, calculate any existent consequences, and determine possible methods of prevention, data must be collected on the occurrences of these behaviors. Any attributed antecedents that are determined in this process, are only as effective as the measurement system in utility. Ineffective measurement (e.g., assessing data at the individual level and inappropriately aggregating it across multiple different group levels) could yield minimal or false results about the behaviors being observed.

The measurement systems in place for absenteeism include time lost measures and frequency metrics (Hammer & Landau, 1981). Time lost measures are the total time missed; if an employee is absent for two work days, time lost could be reported as two days or 16 hours (for an average workday). Frequency metrics, are a lot less common, and are essentially the total number of occurrences in a given period. With this measure, missing 1 day of work could be coded the same way as missing 1 consecutive week of work; both only occurred once. The time lost measure is preferable, for absenteeism; it provides a more comprehensive idea of that totality of time missed, which results in better predictive validity (Hackett & Guion, 1985). It is necessary to note that with both measures, the time frame used in measurement is important to the overall results. For instance, when aggregating the number of absences, a longer aggregate timeframe is less likely to result in a skewed distribution (Hammer & Landau, 1981; Steel & Rentsch, 1995). Careful attention must be paid when utilizing measurement systems of

absenteeism, and other counterproductive workplace behaviors, if organizations are interested in obtaining meaningful results from the analysis.

Absenteeism is obviously impactful to the bottom line productivity of an organization—if an employee is not present (or worse, consistently so) then no progress is made with regard to tasks, organizational goals, industrial growth, etc. Mindfulness practices have an opportunity to make a difference in situations like this. The more aware an individual and employee can become of their immediate surroundings and consequences of their actions, the less they may be inclined to remain absent from work. Further, with the additional health benefits of mindfulness highlighted earlier, we can also theorize that mindfulness practices might make a difference in absenteeism due to repetitive and chronic mild health problems. As such, we hypothesize that mindfulness perceptions will have a relationship with absenteeism.

H2: Perceptions of mindfulness will be negatively linked to employee absenteeism, such that the more mindful an employee perceives themselves, the less likely they will be to exhibit higher rates of absenteeism.

Employee Theft

Another CWB of interest to this study that we believe will be impacted by mindfulness practices is employee theft. Theft in organizations is viewed as taking things from the organization things that do not belong to the individual, including physical and intellectual property. Bennett and Robinson (2000) conducted a study that reported 52% of employees took property, and 25% falsified receipts for reimbursements. There are two leading determinants of theft that have been studied. The first are individual characteristics (Collins & Schmidt, 1993). Examples include low levels of conscientiousness, high levels of antisocial behaviors, higher tolerant attitudes toward dishonesty, and higher levels of maladjustment, that result in a higher

likelihood of theft occurrence (Jones & Boye, 1992; Ones, Viswesvaran, Schmidt, 1993). The second determinant of theft is environmental conditions (Greenberg, 1990). Environmental factors, such as unfair or unnecessary policies, that may block employee goals and lead to theft through an outlet for frustration, are moderated through a locus of control; individuals with a higher internal locus of control are less likely to steal (Spector, 1997; Spector & O'Connell, 1994). This CWB has a basis in antisocial behavior, has a low frequency, and a high propensity for damage to an organization, depending on the nature of the stolen property.

Stricter guidelines or enforcement of policy could potentially be a reason for the reduced frequency of incidences. Additionally, organizations can take supplementary measures in order to reduce or prevent theft, such as establishing clear rules and descriptions of what constitutes employee theft. For instance, defining whether stealing office supplies or stationary is viewed as theft in a particular organization. It can be surmised that organizations that do not already have clear guidelines, rules, or descriptions in place of what constitutes as theft, would benefit the most from adopting these prevention strategies. These strategies are deliberated comprehensively in the overall recommendations that will be provided to organizations in an attempt to prevent CWB.

Theft is arguably one of the most preventable of the CWBs. Not only can training and cultural reinforcement of values aid in reduction of occurrences, but the biggest impact to reduction could be through introduction of mindfulness practices. The fundamental component of mindfulness is attention to the present moment experience. Whether the "other" is an organization or a fellow employee, higher awareness of oneself and one's external environment, is theorized to reduce the number of incidences of workplace employee theft. Essentially, being

cognizant of how the act of theft will affect another, or the possibility of the consequences of being caught, could result in reduced acts of theft that come to manifest.

H3: Perceptions of mindfulness will be negatively linked to employee theft, such that the more mindful an employee perceives themselves, the less likely they will be to exhibit higher rates of theft.

Workplace Harassment

Workplace related interpersonal harassment is the last of the common manifestations of counterproductive workplace behavior focused on in this study. This form of CWB can have a significant impact on organizational productivity. Workplace harassment, is defined as any interpersonal behavior that is aimed at intentionally harming another employee in the workplace (Bowling & Beehr, 2006). These behaviors can range from bullying, to spreading rumors, to sexual harassment.

Harassment in the workplace is different from the other CWBs that have been previously discussed, in that it has been viewed as a CWB that is directed at an individual versus at the organization. Several antecedents of workplace harassment have been studied in literature, such as role stressors (Spector & O'Connell, 1994), organizational climate, and job stress (Bowling & Beehr, 2006). Interestingly, dispositional tendencies of the perpetrator have also been studied as antecedents to harassment. Tendencies included emotional reactivity, impulsivity (Ashforth 1997), perpetrator's hierarchical position (Rayner, 1998), and general aggressive tendencies (Greenberg & Barling, 1999). Immediately, we can hypothesize a plausible role that mindfulness can play in reducing these occurrences. An individual who harasses another can benefit from practices that make them more aware of their surroundings, and less attached to their own ego.

Further, workplace harassment can have a lot of unintended consequences for victims. Lowered self-esteem is one example; victims can perceive themselves as powerless or having low status, resulting in a low self-image (Semmer, McGrath, & Beehr, 2005). Further, harassment has also been negatively linked to self-efficacy (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002), and self-confidence (Vartia, 2001). We believe these consequences can be avoided by examining workplace harassment and its relationship to perceptions of mindfulness. Impulsivity has been identified as an antecedent of workplace harassment (Ashford, 1997), as mentioned earlier. Mindfulness can have an effect on impulsivity through having an individual take a step back and examine how their actions affect another, how it will affect them in the aftermath, and whether the action is necessary for their intended self-expression. If an individual stops to think about these things before and/or in the process of harassing another employee, they might think better of it. We believe mindfulness practices, or perceptions of mindfulness, can have a result on reducing workplace harassment.

H4: Perceptions of mindfulness will be negatively linked to workplace harassment, such that the more mindful an employee perceives themselves, the less likely they will be to exhibit higher instances of workplace harassment.

We should note that, sexual harassment specifically has extremely negative effects on victims. Even though this study does not focus on sexual harassment as a main CWB, it is important to note its effects in the workplace, in order to better understand CWBs as a whole. Sexual harassment is a low base rate event but is very visible within the organization. It is essentially any unwelcome sexual advances or requests, and/or other verbal or physical contact. Acceptance or rejection of these offers can implicitly or explicitly affect the nature of an individual's employment. A study showed that in 2002, there were 14,396 cases of sexual

harassment handled by the Equal Opportunity Commission; this was a 37% increase in 10 years (Bates, Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005). Additionally, women were most adversely affected; up to 75% reported unwanted sexual attention. Minority women were shown to experience the highest levels of sexual harassment (Berdahl & Moore, 2006). Sexual harassment claims can be very costly to organizations, as well as potentially increase feelings of isolation, lower morale, and lead to attrition.

Of these manifestations of CWB, sexual harassment often poses a real challenge for organizations to identify. These challenges are exacerbated by the level of underreporting of incidences (Bates, Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005). It could be postulated that because blatant sexual harassment is less common than subtle acts, employees have difficulty distinguishing what actions are serious enough to report. Further, employees may not report incidences due to feelings of shame, guilt, or negative repercussions to their position. Even though it is not a focus of study of this research, future researchers might take cue from the advantages mindfulness can have in the reduction of sexual harassment incidences. At the very least, it can play a role in reducing the unintended consequences that can result from this, and other forms of harassment. For instance, the guilt and shame that can result from any form of harassment could be ameliorated by mindfulness practices, in that one can learn to examine the situation as a whole, and attribute less to their own shortcomings. This relationship will remain untested in the scope of this project, but would make an interesting subject for future research. Workplace harassment overall can be a very detrimental CWB to the overall functionality of the workplace, and measures should be taken to prevent their occurrence, in whatever form they present themselves.

Based on these counterproductive behaviors, several recommendations could be made to organizations that serve as precautionary measures to combat the occurrence of CWB. Of particular relevance to this study is the use of behavioral modification systems. Organizations should examine any avenues for behavior modifications to maximize productivity. Behavior modification can encompass a vast range of activities aimed at the betterment of specific situations. We believe that mindfulness based training programs are an ideal candidate for behavioral modification that will reduce the occurrence of CWBS. Not only do we believe that mindfulness practices could play a role in reducing CWBs, but we also believe they may play a role in another valuable phenomenon of study within an organization. Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) have been shown to be of relevance to organizational productivity; we believe that mindfulness can aid in the increase of these behaviors exhibited in an organization. In order to explore the relationship between mindfulness and OCBs, it is important to understand what OCBs are, why they are important, and what role they play within the organization.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs)

As was the case with CWBs, in order to examine the relationship between mindfulness and OCBs, it is important to first get an understanding of what OCBs are and why they are relevant to study within the workplace. Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) is conceptualized as any behavior that contributes to the overall effectiveness of the organization; it is neither a part of the employee's formal job descriptions, nor a basis on which the employee is formally rewarded (Organ, 1988). Examples of OCBs could include an individual helping a coworker who was absent or helping to resolve a workplace conflict in which they are not involved. Even though they are not formally mandated by the organization as a required standard of conduct, OCBs still result in the overall enhancement of organizational effectiveness (Bolino,

Turnley, & Bloodgood, 2002; George & Battenhausen, 1990; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). These behaviors can manifest in a vast number of ways, each with the commonality that they are beneficial to the organization, or its members, in some form (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). The positive effects of OCBs have an impact on multiple levels within the organization. At the management level, OCBs reduce the amount of time a manager must spend on a given issue, and enables them to focus on other opportunities for improving organizational performances (Turnipseed & Rassuli, 2005). Additionally, managers value a work environment that is conducive to cooperation; individuals benefit from this because at the very basic level, OCB can help facilitate social cohesion between coworkers (Buentello, Jung, & Sun, 2008).

The largest benefit of OCB is the role it plays in organizational productivity. Organizational productivity is defined as employee behavior that contributes positively to the goals and the objectives of an organization (Campbell, 1990). OCB has been identified as the second most common form of productive behavior at work (Jex, 1998). Incidentally, the first most common form of productivity is job performance, which is actually mandated by the organization; it is interesting that the second most common manifestation should be the behaviors exhibited by employees of their own volition. To understand the functional nature of OCB in the workplace, is not enough to simply categorize its role as being a significant part of overall organizational productivity; the manner in which OCB operates to aggrandize it must also be understood.

Organizational citizenship behavior accomplishes the increase of organizational performance through means of lessening the need for resources to be devoted to the maintenance of tasks (Organ, 1988), allowing these resources to be reallocated and focused on more productive tasks (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), and facilitating coworker or managerial

efficiency through social support (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991). According to Turnipseed and Rassuli (2005), examples of the particular aspects of OCB that have been identified as bolstering performance include the fostering of social capital, helping behaviors or altruistic actions, elements that result in saving time or problem solving, and other such aspects which have been viewed as providing socio-emotional support through boosting morale or development of a more nurturing culture. Thus, it can be concluded that the functional mechanism of how OCB operates in the workplace is through social facilitation that results in the augmentation and support of organizational functioning; this, in turn, can increase overall productivity (Bolino, Turnley, & Bloodgood, 2002). As such, of interest to this study are the specific OCBs that are directed at the organization, rather than the individual or the environment.

It could be surmised that citizenship behavior directed at the organization may have a range of how much it augments organizational productivity. For instance, a minor OCB could support productivity with almost no recognition (e.g., a coworker may bring treats for coworkers to increase morale); a moderate OCB could help facilitate productivity (e.g., a coworker helping another learn a software); a substantial OCB could ensure maintenance of or further boost productivity that is already occurring (e.g., volunteer to train a seminar for new employees). This range of beneficial effects is potentially further cause to examine the direct effects of OCB on organizational productivity; it could provide organizations with additional knowledge on how to better foster environments that encourage the prevalence of OCB. In order to expand upon the pervasiveness of these behaviors, an organization must be able to understand and identify what OCBs are and what leads to their occurrence; based on that understanding, they can devise a plan of action to most effectively create an environment that nurtures those specific behaviors.

Consistent identification and operationalization is the juncture at which there has been difficulty in understanding the nature of OCB in literature. When assessing job performance, a distinction must be made between in-role behaviors (i.e. technical aspects of job or task performance) and extra-role (i.e. non-technical, contextual aspects of job or task performance) behaviors. The distinction between extra-role performance (e.g. teamwork or dedication) and OCB, however, is somewhat obscure; the only practical difference is that OCBs are not evaluated as part of the formal appraisal system that is used when assessing employees (Jex, 1998). These two behaviors overlap quite a lot in practice, which makes their individual identification very problematic for organizations (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). In fact, the lack of conceptual clarity is so commonplace, that much of the empirical research on OCB has focused on substantive validity, rather than on construct validity (Schwab, 1980; Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995). Alternatively stated, focus has been placed on examining the relationships of OCB, rather than on defining its nature.

Additional difficulty in accurately conceptualizing OCB stems from the innumerable ways its manifestations are categorized in literature; there is currently no agreed upon system or order for effectively sorting or studying these behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Thus, for the purpose of this paper, the seven most common categories of OCB are presented, and examples of the general manifest behaviors that are grouped within those categories are provided.

A meta-analytic review of OCB literature has revealed the tremendous magnitude in lack of consensus about the dimensionality of OCB as a construct; almost 30 potentially different forms (of significant conceptual overlap) have been identified (Bergeron, 2007; Podsakoff et al., 2000). In order to gain a better understanding of the general types of organizational citizenship behavior that can manifest in an organization, several broad themes have been categorized and identified.

However, it is not of interest to this study to explore the relationships of the subcategories of OCBs to mindfulness; the organization of interest is only interested in the overall OCB scale as it relates to organizations. Thus, the subcategories are only discussed as examples of different ways in which OCBs can manifest, to provide an understanding of the dimensionality of the construct.

Subcategories of OCBs include *Helping Behavior*; this has been widely identified as the most important form of OCB (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; George & Jones, 1997; Organ, 1988; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Helping behaviors in the workplace involve voluntarily aiding others with problems they may encounter. These behaviors can include forms of altruism (voluntary choice to help another), peacemaking (mitigating conflict), and courteousness (polite gestures). These different forms of helping behavior have been shown to fully load on a single factor (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 1999), thus a general categorization based on their similarity might provide a more meaningful summary of OCB. Another form is *Sportsmanship Behavior*, which has received much less attention in study (Podsakoff et al., 2000). This OCB is conceptualized as a willingness to tolerate inconveniences and impositions without complaint, while maintaining a positive attitude (Organ, 1988; Walz & Niehoff, 1996).

Organizational Loyalty Behaviors consist of devotion and organizational allegiance (Graham, 1991). This could include behaviors of spreading goodwill and protecting the organization, while endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; George & Jones, 1997). *Individual Initiative Behaviors* are forms of OCB that are also categorized as extra-role behaviors, in the sense that they involve engaging in task-related behaviors. Examples include acts of creativity, persistent enthusiasm, conscientious attitude, maintained diligence, and taking charge, all in an attempt to successfully complete the job (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). It should be noted that this

form of behavior is the most difficult to distinguish from in-role behavior, because it differs more in magnitude than in nature (Organ, 1988).

Lastly, *Self-Development Behaviors* are the last general dimension of categorizing OCB (Katz, 1964). These can include behaviors in which employees engage voluntarily, in order to improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities. Although this dimension has not received any empirical confirmation, it does appear to be conceptually distinct from other OCB dimensions (Podsakoff et al., 2000), and could potentially affect organizational effectiveness differentially as compared to other forms of OCB. Research should further investigate the behaviors within this dimension; perhaps, examining them in conjunction with other constructs could yield significant results. One such construct proposed in this paper is an individual's locus of control. For instance, an individual with a high locus of control may be more likely to engage in other behaviors that confirm a desire for self-development. Another potential avenue for this research could be examining it in the context of the upper echelons of an organization. Perhaps employees who are attracted to leadership positions also embody the propensity for continual self-betterment or the need for high achievement. The results could have interesting implications about how OCB manifests differentially across levels of an organization.

These are the most common categories that encompass the widest breadth of OCB, as it occurs in the workplace. As the identification and categorization of these behaviors has not been agreed upon in literature, the study of their potential antecedents have subsequently also been inconsistent and lack consensus (Bergeron, 2007; Podsakoff et al., 2000). This provided further reasoning for the current study to choose to analyze results with an overall scale of OCBs as they relate to the organization.

The majority of OCB research has focused on the antecedents of citizenship behavior; surprisingly, extremely minimal attention has been given to the potential consequences of OCBs (Bergeron, 2007; Bolino et al., 2002; Jex, 1998; MacKenzie et al., 1991; Podsakoff et al., 2000). In fact, no authors have ever predicted which different forms of citizenship behavior might result in various proposed consequences (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Perhaps an explanation of this phenomenon is due to the fact that there is no consensus on the identification of manifestations, appropriateness of categorizations, or consistency in relationships of the antecedents to organizational citizenship behavior. Such a lack of direction and seemingly disorganized progression of this field of research could potentially be a deterrent of researchers' willingness to investigate the potential consequences of OCBs—specifically of interest to this study are the OCBs that relate to the organization rather than the individual. Further research desperately needs to be conducted in this arena in order to get an accurate and global picture of the functionality of OCB in the workplace. The paucity of research that has been conducted on consequences of OCB has focused on two issues.

The first avenue of research on OCB consequences has examined its effects on performance evaluations and managerial decisions (MacKenzie et al., 1991; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Hui, 1993). Results have suggested that managers value OCBs and take them into account when evaluating employee performance (Podsakoff et al., 1993). This result is interesting and perplexing; by definition, OCB is behavior that is not supposed to be incorporated into appraisals. A potential avenue for future research could examine the point at which organizational citizenship behaviors cross the conceptual boundary into identification as extra-role behaviors. In other words, it should be determined if a threshold between citizenship and normative (i.e. practically required) behavior exists; if so, where such a threshold exists, and

how management should approach the categorization of and assigning value to behaviors when performing evaluations or making decisions.

The other focal point in the study of OCB consequences has been its effects on performance and success (Organ, 1988). This also seems like a questionable (and somewhat counterintuitive) line of research, as the consequences of OCB on performance are self-explanatory (i.e. they are both the most common forms of productivity). Nonetheless (and as feasibly expected), results have corroborated that OCB leads to organizational effectiveness (Bolino, Turnley, & Bloodgood, 2002; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; MacKenzie et al., 1991). Considering the positive outcomes associated with OCB, it seems imperative to stress that more empirical research needs to be conducted in the field of organizational citizenship behavior in the workplace; not just with regard to potential consequences, but also in an attempt to unify numerous theories and conceptualizations in order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the construct, and possibly identify means to increase its prevalence in the workplace. We believe that perceived mindfulness—or increase in mindfulness based practices—have a place in the study of OCBs within the organization, such that it would expand upon the literature and understanding of the construct and its functionality in the workplace.

The importance of OCB occurrence in the workplace has been discussed, but the implementation of mindfulness practices, or increasing perceptions of mindfulness, may play a role in increasing the frequency of exhibited citizenship behaviors. As we discussed with CWBs, mindfulness influences individuals to become more cognizant (aware) of their present moment experiences. In this phenomenon, mindfulness can influence the individual through an attitudinal component, that could result in an increase in citizenship behaviors. Of course, mindfulness is comprised of both attitude and awareness, but we believe that these two can work simultaneously

to affect these different phenomena. Adjusting one's attitude in the direction of open-mindedness, acceptance, inclusion, non-judgment, and cohesion through separation from one's own ego, can result in a state of mind that reflects more need for citizenship oriented behaviors in the present moment. The implementation of this behavioral practice, or increasing perceptions of mindfulness, can result in increased frequency of observing OCBs that are directed towards others in the organization.

H5: Perceptions of mindfulness will be positively linked to organizational citizenship behaviors, such that the more mindful an employee perceives themselves to be, the more likely they will be to exhibit higher rates of extra-role citizenship behaviors directed toward the organization.

Method

Participants

Participants were 412 working adults who were recruited using low monetary incentive via Amazon's Mechanical Turk (mTurk) service. The mTurk has been established as a valid source for research methodology (Mason, 2012; Rand, 2012) it is an electronic survey research method in which individuals participate voluntarily to take surveys, tests, scenarios etc., that require human intelligence. Participants were constrained to meet the following requirements: full-time employees, US citizens, had a 100% task approval rate for their previous assignments on mTurk, and had the ability to fluently speak and understand English in order to complete the survey. Participants were spread out through the United States, and demographics were not constrained to any specific sample. In return for participation, they received \$0.50 as compensation.

Participation was voluntary; an information letter was provided detailing this, and a debriefing form was provided at the end of the survey. An anonymous survey link was connected to mTurk; upon survey completion, participants were given a unique code through which mTurk could track down which participants to compensate.

Of the 412 responses, 0 were eliminated for missing data, retaining a sample size of 412 participants who completed the survey, leaving a 100% response rate. Participants' ages ranged from 21-80, majority (90.8%) were between the ages of 21 and 52, with an average age of 36.9 years. Employees who responded to the survey were mostly Caucasian or Euro-American (81.6%). Participant gender was roughly evenly distributed with males accounting for 49.3% and females accounting for 50.7%. Job Levels were clustered to Administrative/Front Line Staff (25.2%), Customer Service/Project Management (18.4%), Sales (11.9%), Human Resources/Finance (6.6%), Technical Support/Research & Development (17.2%), and Other/Multiple Roles (20.6%). Job Types were roughly evenly distributed between salaried (54.1%) and hourly (45.9%). Lastly, participant tenure ranged from 1 year (4.4%) to 56 years (0.2%), with the largest grouping of participants having worked 5 years (9.2%). Majority of participants have worked for 30 years or fewer (94.2%). None of the information collected was personally identifiable and remained completely anonymous.

Measures

Mindfulness. Brown and Ryan's (2003) Mindfulness Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS) was administered to assess perception of mindfulness. The MAAS is a useful instrument that measures an individual's tendency to be attentive to and aware of present-moment experiences in their daily life; it is another derivative of the original MBSR program (Brown & Ryan, 2003), that expanded upon and adapted the structure to be utilized in a research context. Items of this

questionnaire assessed general, differing perceived tendencies for an individual to be alert, attentive, and aware in a moment, or alternatively to run on “automatic” mode. Items are statements which the subject must rate using their judgment. The overall scale consists of 15 items. Each item is measured with a 5-point, Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Almost Never*) to 5 (*Almost Always*). Examples of items include, “I find myself doing things without paying attention,” and “I break or spill things because of carelessness, not paying attention, or thinking of something else.” The reliability of the original scale was $\alpha = .82$ (Brown & Ryan, 2003); we validated it with better results in our sample and found $\alpha = .91$. Items are provided in Appendix A.

Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors. Spector et al. (2006) created a Counterproductive Workplace Behavior Checklist (CWB-C), consisting of 32 items. The items were grouped into the categories of Production Deviance (IJP), Abuse (Workplace Harassment), Theft, Withdrawal (Absenteeism), and Sabotage. The first four subcategories were directly of interest to this study, but sabotage did not relate. Items corresponding to this subcategory were removed. Subscale reliabilities were: $\alpha = .96$ for Workplace Harassment; $\alpha = .75$ for IJP; $\alpha = .88$ for Employee Theft; $\alpha = .81$ for Absenteeism. The reliabilities of the subscales were decent but diverse; however, the overall 27-item scale that we retained ($\alpha = .97$ for this study’s sample) showed higher reliability than Spector originally reported ($\alpha = .90$). Items of this modified questionnaire assessed differing perceptions of an individual’s behavior with respect to harassment, ineffective job performance, workplace harassment and employee theft. Each item is measured with a 5-point, Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Almost Never*) to 5 (*Almost Always*). Examples of items include “coming to work late without permission,” and “verbally abusing someone at work.” Items are provided in Appendix B.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCB-O) is oriented towards gauging one's citizenship behaviors as they relate to others within the organization. The OCB scales relating to the self (OCB-I) was not of interest to this study, and neither were the subscales that are often found in OCB literature. As such, only the overall OCB-O scale was utilized in data collection. Items are statements which the subject must rate using their judgment. The overall scale consists of 24 items; five of which were reverse scored. Each item is measured with a 5-point, Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Almost Never*) to 5 (*Almost Always*). Examples of items include, "helping orient new people even though it is not required," and "keeping abreast of changes in the organization." Our sample validated the reliability of this overall scale at $\alpha = .92$. Items are provided in Appendix C.

Design

Participants were connected to an anonymous link to an online survey, via mTurk, that instructed them to answer the questions to the best of their ability, and that no questions were right or wrong. The question order was counterbalanced to avoid priming or recency effect. Participants were asked to self-report on their levels of perceived mindfulness, CWBs, and OCBs. Surveys were asked to be completed once started, so all data was collected at a singular point in time. Once completed, a unique code was generated for compensation purposes. The link to the survey stayed active for three days, at which point the data was collated and analyzed.

In order to account for more as much variance as possible, moderators will be taken into account in the form of demographic data that was collected. The data was analyzed using a Hierarchical Multiple Regression (or Moderated Multiple Regression). In this design, a criterion variable or dependent variable (Y; CWB manifestations or OCBs) are predicted by another variable (X; Mindfulness), and a second predictor—one that might have a moderating effect on

the ability of X to predict Y. The moderator variables (M) chosen for this study were the demographic variables (age, tenure, ethnicity, gender, job type, and job level). It was possible that mindfulness perceptions could predict the various CWBs (or, alternatively OCBs) when controlling for these moderators; that is to say, this study was interested in examining an interactive effect between mindfulness and the moderators in predicting the DVs.

Procedure

As mentioned above, the primary statistical tool for testing our hypotheses will be Hierarchical Multiple Regressions, in which the predictor (Mindfulness) will predict differing levels of the criterion variables—Organizational Citizenship Behavior and the manifestations of Counterproductive Workplace Behavior. The CWB scale was reduced to four subscales, so each was treated as a separate analysis, with mindfulness predicting each one independently; the categories have been discussed as their varying manifestations of CWBs in the workplace. The measures of the independent variable and all five dependent variables (OCBs, Workplace Harassment, Employee Theft, Absenteeism, and IJP) will be derived from scoring of the questionnaires. The self-report surveys were accessed by participants to assess their perceptions of self-exhibited behavior and in several domains captured by the questionnaire. The awareness and attitudinal components of mindfulness resulted in interesting predictions regarding the different levels of counterproductive workplace behaviors, as well as with the organizational citizenship behaviors directed at the organization. The analysis resulted in relationships between these variables that could carry revelatory implications about the need to further explore these variables and their relationships to one another, as well as to other phenomena in the workplace—these will be discussed with recommendations for organizations on how to improve mindfulness practices and perceptions for employees.

An important caveat to note in this form of analysis is the possibility of common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Common method variance might potentially be a problem, due to the self-report survey methodology—a single source and method are used to obtain this data at one point in time. Common method context or common item context in reporting could result in variance attributed to the methodology utilized. Podsakoff et al. (2003) consolidated several recommendations to account for this. Some of the recommendations were not in the best interest of this study, such as obtaining data from different sources (as we must link the IV and DV to the same source), or creating a temporal separation between measures (to avoid attrition in this fast-paced industry). However, alternative measures were taken to account for as much common method variance as possible.

One strategy employed was letting the responses remain anonymous during analysis, to account for variance from the rater. Secondly, the participants were informed that there was no incorrect or correct response, and that they should answer as honestly as possible, in order to reduce or avoid social desirability in responses. Lastly, the question order was counterbalanced in an attempt to remove priming effects, or item-context induced mood states (Podsakoff et al., 2003). With these measures in place, this study aimed to account for as much common method variance as possible while administering and analyzing survey responses.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

All data were searched for missing values; no subjects were missing any data due to forced response constraints on the survey, and thusly none were removed from the dataset. OCB items that needed to be reverse scored were coded as such. To examine the normality of data, a check for outliers, skewness, and kurtosis was conducted. Skewness for continuous variables

were within the standard range of -3 to 3. Similarly, kurtosis values were all fairly close to 0 for all continuous variables. Outliers were checked for, any that were found were close to the range of normality and were retained as they are believed to reflect the responses of the population.

Data were determined as normal and were run through subsequent analyses.

Hierarchical Multiple Regression (HMR)

Once data was cleaned up and checked for normality, variables were created. CWBs were split into subscales (Workplace Harassment, IJP, Absenteeism, Employee Theft), and reliabilities were run on the scales. Aggregate scores were created for the Mindfulness scale and OCB scale. The categorical variables were dummy coded: gender (male versus female), ethnicity (Caucasian versus Non-Caucasian; due to the predominant number of Caucasians, all other ethnicities were collapsed as “Non-Caucasian”), job level (Administrative/Front Line Staff, Customer Service/Project Management, Sales, Human Resources/Finance, Technical Support/Research & Development, and Other/Multiple), and job type (Salaried versus Hourly). First, regressions were run to see if the moderators had any significant effect on mindfulness predicting OCB and CWB subscales. For moderators that were significant to those predictive relationships, new variables were created to show an interaction effect of Mindfulness x Moderator (or X*M).

Next step, was to run a hierarchical regression analysis conducted forcing variables X, M, and X*M into the equation predicting Y (OCB and CWB subscales, separately). Model 1 was all moderators (M), Model 2 was Mindfulness (X), and Model 3 was the interaction of mindfulness with the moderators (X*M) that were significant in predicting the DVs in step 1. The results are as follows.

IJP. The significant moderators in the relationship of mindfulness predicting ineffective job performance were age and sales job level. Thus, two variables were created to reflect interaction

of X*M: Mindfulness*Age, Mindfulness*Sales. The equation was run again with all three models. The hierarchical multilevel analysis revealed that age was the only moderator that had a statistically significant interactive effect with mindfulness when predicting IJP at the $p < .001$ level. Mindfulness*Age $\beta = -.747$, $t(398) = -3.984$, $p < .001$, $pr^2 = .038$. The results show that an increase in age, as it interacts with mindfulness, results in a .014 point *decrease* in predicting IJP, and that 3.8% of the unaccounted variance in this model is accounted solely for by the interaction of mindfulness and age. Interestingly, the interaction of mindfulness with the sales position had no significant interaction, and sales had no main effects in this model. However, there were main effects of mindfulness, age, and ethnicity within this model.

Age $\beta = -.379$, $t(398) = 2.697$, $p < .01$, $pr^2 = .018$. The interpretation is that as age increases, there is a .021 point *increase* in reporting IJP, and that age by itself significantly accounts for 1.8% of the variance in this model. Ethnicity $\beta = .087$, $t(398) = 1.975$, $p = .049$, $pr^2 = .009$. The interpretation is that for Non-Caucasian ethnicities, there is a .127 point *increase* in reporting IJP, and that ethnicity by itself significantly accounts for 0.9% of the variance in this model. Lastly, Mindfulness turned out to be the strongest predictor of IJP in this model. Mindfulness $\beta = 1.035$, $t(398) = 6.096$, $p < .001$, $pr^2 = .085$. Counterintuitively, the interpretation is that as reported mindfulness increases, there is a .809 point *increase* in reporting IJP; 8.5% of the variance in this model is uniquely accounted for by mindfulness.

Interestingly, the interaction of age and mindfulness has an opposite result of the main effect of age. This can be interpreted as younger employees who are mindful, are likely to report higher levels of IJP; older employees who are mindful are likely to report lower levels of IJP. See Figures 1a and 1b for visual representation.

In the overall model, mindfulness was shown to be a successful predictor of IJP, controlling for the significant moderator of age ($F = 12.463, p < .001$), at all levels. Mindfulness also accounted for the largest proportion of the variance, when predicting IJP. However, although mindfulness is a significant predictor of IJP, we conclude that H1 is not supported, when controlling for respondents' age, gender, ethnicity, tenure, job type, and job level. See Table 1 for the summary statistics of the analysis as it pertains to IJP.

Absenteeism. The significant moderators in the relationship of mindfulness predicting absenteeism were age, job type, and ethnicity. Thus, the interaction variables of Mindfulness*Age, Mindfulness*Job Type, and Mindfulness*Ethnicity were created, and the equation was run again with all three models. The multilevel analysis revealed that age was the only moderator that had a statistically significant interactive effect with mindfulness when predicting absenteeism, at the $p < .001$ level. Mindfulness*Age $\beta = -.605, t(397) = -3.242, p = .001, pr^2 = .026$. The results show that an increase in the interaction effect of mindfulness*age results in a .014 point *decrease* in predicting absenteeism, and that 2.6% of the unique variance in this model is accounted for by the interaction of mindfulness and age. The interaction of age and mindfulness can be interpreted as younger employees who are mindful, are likely to report higher levels of absenteeism; older employees who are mindful are likely to report lower levels of absenteeism, similar to IJP in this regard. See Figures 2a and 2b for visual representation.

Interestingly, the hierarchical multilevel analysis also revealed that in this model, neither job type nor ethnicity had any statistically significant interactive or main effects when predicting absenteeism, at the $p = .05$ level. However there was a significant main effect of mindfulness within this model. Mindfulness $\beta = .890, t(397) = 5.252, p < .001, pr^2 = .065$. Counterintuitively, the results show that increased mindfulness results in a .810 unit *increase* in predicting

absenteeism; 6.5% of the unaccounted variance in this model is uniquely accounted for by mindfulness.

In the overall model, mindfulness was shown to be a successful predictor of absenteeism, controlling for the significant moderator of age level ($F = 13.389, p < .001$), at all levels. Once again, mindfulness also accounted for the largest proportion of the variance in this model, when predicting absenteeism. However, although mindfulness is a significant predictor of absenteeism, we conclude that H2 is not supported, when controlling for respondents' age, gender, ethnicity, tenure, job type, and job level. See Table 2 for the summary statistics of the analysis as it pertains to absenteeism.

Employee Theft. The only significant moderator in the relationship of mindfulness predicting employee theft was gender. Thus, the interaction variable of Mindfulness*Gender was created, and the equation was run again with all three models. The multilevel analysis revealed that gender had a statistically significant interactive effect with mindfulness when predicting employee theft, at the $p < .01$ level. Mindfulness*Gender $\beta = .421, t(399) = 3.120, p = .002, pr^2 = .024$. The results show that an increase in the interaction effect of mindfulness*gender results in a .193 point *increase* in predicting employee theft, and that 2.4% of the unique variance in this model is accounted for by the interaction of mindfulness and gender. The interaction of gender and mindfulness can be interpreted as male employees who are mindful, are likely to report higher levels of employee theft; female employees who are mindful are likely to report lower levels of employee theft. See Figures 3a and 3b for visual representation.

The hierarchical multilevel analysis also revealed that within this model, there was a significant main effect of mindfulness within this model. Mindfulness $\beta = .289, t(399) = 4.805, p < .001, pr^2 = .055$. Counterintuitively, the results also show that increased mindfulness results in

a .205 unit *increase* in predicting employee theft; 5.5% of the unaccounted variance in this model is uniquely accounted for by mindfulness.

In the overall model, mindfulness was also shown here to be a successful predictor of employee theft, controlling for the significant moderator of gender ($F = 11.114, p < .001$), at all levels. Once again, mindfulness also accounted for the largest proportion of the variance in this model, when predicting employee theft. However, although mindfulness is a significant predictor of employee theft, we conclude that H3 is not supported, when controlling for respondents' age, gender, ethnicity, tenure, job type, and job level. See Table 3 for the summary statistics of the analysis as it pertains to employee theft.

Workplace Harassment. The significant moderators in the relationship of mindfulness predicting workplace harassment were age and gender. Thus, two variables were created to reflect interaction of X*M: Mindfulness*Age, Mindfulness*Gender. The equation was run again with all three models. The hierarchical multilevel analysis revealed that both moderators had a statistically significant interactive effect with mindfulness when predicting harassment at the $p < .01$ level or better. Mindfulness*Age $\beta = -.775, t(398) = -4.280, p < .001, pr^2 = .044$. The results show that an increase in age, as it interacts with mindfulness results in a .014 point *decrease* in predicting harassment, and that 4.4% of the unaccounted variance in this model is uniquely accounted for by the interaction of mindfulness and age. Similar to the interactive effects of age with mindfulness in predicting IJP and absenteeism, this can be interpreted as younger employees who are mindful, are likely to report higher levels of harassment; older employees who are mindful are likely to report lower levels of harassment. See Figures 4a and 4b for visual representation.

Mindfulness*Gender $\beta = .351$, $t(398) = 2.757$, $p < .01$, $pr^2 = .019$. The results show that an increase in the interaction of mindfulness*gender (males) results in a .168 point *increase* in predicting harassment, and that 1.9% of the unaccounted variance in this model is accounted for by the unique interaction of mindfulness and gender. This can be interpreted as male employees who are mindful, are likely to report higher levels of harassment as compared to females who are mindful. See Figures 5a and 5b for visual representation.

The hierarchical multilevel analysis also revealed that within this model, there was a significant main effect of mindfulness and age within this model. Age $\beta = .383$, $t(398) = 2.819$, $p < .01$, $pr^2 = .020$. The interpretation is that as age increases, there is a .020 point *increase* in reporting workplace harassment, and that age by itself significantly accounts for 2.0% of the variance in this model. Interestingly, the interaction of age and mindfulness indicates an opposite direction than the main effect of age in predicting workplace harassment. Lastly, Mindfulness turned out to be the strongest predictor of workplace harassment in this model as well. Mindfulness $\beta = 1.029$, $t(398) = 6.114$, $p < .001$, $pr^2 = .086$. Counterintuitively, the interpretation is that as reported mindfulness increases, there is a .761 point *increase* in reporting workplace harassment; 8.6% of the variance in this model is uniquely accounted for by mindfulness.

In the overall model, mindfulness was shown to be a successful predictor of workplace harassment, controlling for the significant moderators of age and gender ($F = 15.504$, $p < .001$), at all levels. Once again, mindfulness also accounted for the largest proportion of the variance within this model, when predicting workplace harassment. However, although mindfulness is a significant predictor of harassment, we conclude that H4 is not supported, when controlling for respondents' age, gender, ethnicity, tenure, job type, and job level. See Table 4 for the summary statistics of the analysis as it pertains to workplace harassment.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior. The significant moderators in the relationship of mindfulness predicting organizational citizenship behavior were age and gender. Thus, two variables were created to reflect interaction of X*M: Mindfulness*Age, Mindfulness*Gender. The equation was run again with all three models. However, interestingly, the hierarchical multilevel analysis revealed that neither moderators had a statistically significant interactive effect with mindfulness when predicting OCB, nor were there any significant main effects for any predictors within the model, at the $p=.05$ level or better. This was interesting, considering there were main effects found in model 2. Table 5 shows the summary statistics of the complete analysis as it pertains to OCB.

From these results, we can see that for this particular analysis, there was no significant change in the variance accounted for by model 3 versus model 2. In model 3, $\Delta R^2 = 0.00$ indicating that there is no change in the addition of model 3 when accounting for variance. The overall variance accounted for also remains the same between model 2 and model 3 at $R^2 = .197$. Thus, we return to the more parsimonious model 2 for interpretation, in which there were no interaction variables of X*M. In this model, were the initial significant main effects of mindfulness, age, and gender in predicting OCB.

Age $\beta = .178$, $t(400) = 2.795$, $p < .01$, $pr^2 = .019$. The interpretation is that as employee age increases, there is a .011 point *increase* in reporting OCB; uniquely, age significantly accounts for 1.9% of the variance within this model. Gender $\beta = -.103$, $t(400) = -2.143$, $p = .033$, $pr^2 = .011$. The interpretation is that for male employees there is a .133 point *decrease* in reporting OCB, as compared to female employees, and that gender by itself significantly accounts for 1.1% of the variance in this model. Lastly, Mindfulness was once again the strongest predictor of OCB within this model. Mindfulness $\beta = -.324$, $t(400) = -7.004$, $p < .001$, $pr^2 = .110$. Once again,

counterintuitively, the interpretation is that as reported mindfulness increases, there is a .291 point *decrease* in reported OCB. That is to say, employees with higher reported levels of mindfulness report lower levels of OCB. 11.0% of the variance in this model is uniquely accounted for by mindfulness.

In this overall model, mindfulness was shown to be a successful predictor of OCB, controlling for significant moderators of age and gender ($F = 8.907, p < .001$). Once again, mindfulness also accounted for the largest proportion of the variance within this model, when predicting OCB. However, although mindfulness is a significant predictor of OCB, we conclude that H5 is not supported, when controlling for respondents' age, gender, ethnicity, tenure, job type, and job level. See Table 5 for the summary statistics of the analysis as it pertains to OCB.

As an overall point of interest, it should be noted that mindfulness showed significant main effects for predicting all DVs, and it was the only consistent variable to do so, always accounting for the largest percentage of unique variance in each model. The direction in which it predicted all DVs was opposite of what was hypothesized, leading to intriguing and counterintuitive results of interpretation. Interestingly, the moderators of most job levels (Admin/Front Line, Customer Service/Project Management, Human Resources/Finance, Technical Support/Research & Development, and Other/Multiple Roles), along with tenure had no significant main effects or interactions with mindfulness when predicting any CWBs or OCB. Sales position and job type had initial significance in predicting CWBs, but were no longer significant when they were analyzed in conjunction with interaction effects. Age, gender, ethnicity, and mindfulness were the only significant predictors—of which, only age and gender were significant in their interactions with mindfulness.

Discussion

These results suggest that there are some significant implications in the differences on how mindfulness predicts varying manifestations of CWBs based on demographic moderators. Age, gender, sales position, job type, and ethnicity, play a combination of roles, when it comes to predicting different forms of CWBs. This allows us to draw different conclusions about how we can view these behaviors, with respect to whatever the desired outcome is—reduction of CWBs or management. In order to get a better understanding of what these moderators have revealed, it is important to note the trends these relationships convey.

Ineffective Job Performance was predicted by an interactive effect of age with mindfulness. In examining the overall trend of the interactive effect of age and mindfulness, one can interpret that younger employees—specifically in the 18-24 age group—who have a higher perception of mindfulness, predict higher levels of ineffective job performance (see Figure 1a for color coded trend lines). However, it is important to note that population effects may differ if specific industries or geographical areas are of interest; the demographics reported in this analysis are spread out across a variety of industries and geographical areas across the United States. Age effects, in particular, might differ drastically across various industries. For instance, numerous medical professions might not have employees under a certain age level, due to how long it takes to complete academic courses and training in order to attain certification. Versus the hospitality industry, where employment can begin at age 18. It is important to keep this in consideration when interpreting the effects of age.

Overall, across this sample, younger, more mindful employees showed the highest levels of reported ineffective job performance. A potential reason to observe this trend could be that these employees have higher reported levels of attention and awareness, and this allows for better predictability of their deviant behavior at work. Alternatively, if operating under the

assumption that managers and leaders tend to be older, more seasoned employees, one would not expect leaders to have higher reported levels of IJP—though perhaps culturally, it would be expected of younger people. In this view, the results of younger employees exhibiting higher levels of IJP are not surprising, but what is interesting is that they report higher awareness of this behavior.

This study also observed a direct effect of ethnicity in predicting IJP. Results show that Caucasian/Euro-Americans are less likely to report IJP, as compared to Non-Caucasian ethnicities. These are interesting results, with potentially impactful implications. However, interpretability of these results is constrained to Caucasian versus “all other ethnicities” in this sample. This is not representative of the true workforce population. There were not enough participants to represent other ethnicities in a meaningful way. Perhaps, with a truly diverse sample, there could exist interactive effects of ethnicity and mindfulness, in a way that could lend to better interpretability of behaviors between these differing groups of ethnicities in the workplace. Research should replicate this study in various industries (i.e. to examine a sample that is acutely representative of the workforce within those various industries) in order to further examine the dynamics of mindfulness with age and ethnicities, and how these manifests with regard to IJP.

Absenteeism was predicted by an interactive effect of age with mindfulness. In examining the overall trend of the interactive effect of age and mindfulness, similar to IJP, one can interpret that younger employees—specifically in the 18-24 age group—when demonstrating higher levels of perceived mindfulness, significantly report higher levels of absenteeism (see Figure 2a for color coded trend lines). Overall, younger participants showed the highest levels of mindfulness when predicting absenteeism, as compared to elder employees. These employees

have higher reported levels of attention and awareness, and this allows for better predictability of the level of withdrawal from task they engage in at work. A potential explanation for this could be that younger employees are more likely to withdraw from work, or be absent than older employees. However, without replicating these results, speculation as to the various reasons this might be occurring would be just that; research should examine the age differences in mindfulness deeper, in relation to absenteeism.

Employee Theft was predicted by an interactive effect of gender with mindfulness in this study. Figure 3a shows that male employees who are more mindful, are likely to report higher levels of employee theft; female employees who are more mindful are likely to report lower levels of employee theft as compared to their male coworkers. These results are certainly interesting and lead to several other questions that could help identify the reason for this disparity in reported behavior. Some questions that come to light are: do male employees steal more than female employees? Do female employees just have lower perceptions of mindfulness with regard to theft? These results be reversed in specific industries—male dominated versus female dominated. How would employees in specific geographic areas with lower socioeconomic status (e.g. those with higher rates of single mothers supporting a household) compare to self-reports from higher SES areas? Lastly, female employees could define what constitutes as “theft” differently than male employees. There could exist several potential explanations of these observations; research should delve deeper to examine the difference between mindful male employees and mindful female employees, and their conception of what constitutes as theft in a way they would be inclined to report.

Mindfulness had a counterintuitive result here, as it did with all variables. Higher levels of mindfulness result in higher levels of theft reported. Consider the above notion of what may or

may not constitute theft; the construct of mindfulness has the potential to play a key role here in defining and identifying the occurrence of behavior. A potential explanation could be that employees who have higher reported levels of attention and awareness, are more observant of when they take things without permission at work—that is not to say that mindfulness would hinder them from taking without permission, simply that they are aware of the behavior and attentive to its consequences. Or, an explanation could be that they have broader definitions of what constitutes theft (e.g. taking a pen from work versus a laptop). A mindful employee could view taking a pen from work as theft—they did not purchase the pen; it belongs to the organization. Another mindful employee might recognize that a laptop is considered theft, but could identify taking a pen as something they are entitled to—the organization supplies basic stationary for employees to use as they please. The differences in these examples allude to a lack of agreement and/or understanding of the broader construct of employee theft, and certainly so with regard to how male and female employees might view it. Considering this, it would be interesting to see the relationship between mindfulness and conscientiousness as a trait—specifically in regards to employee theft. This could be another potential avenue for research involving impactful organizational scenarios of mindfulness practices.

Workplace Harassment was predicted by an interactive effect of age and gender with mindfulness. In examining the overall trend of the interactive effect of age and mindfulness, one can interpret that younger employees—specifically in the 18-24 age group—when reporting higher perceptions of mindfulness, have a significant interactive effect when predicting workplace harassment (see Figure 4a for color coded trend lines). We can also see that males who are high in mindfulness report higher levels of harassment as compared to females (see Figure 5a for color coded trend). Overall, younger and male participants who are high in

mindfulness, significantly predicted higher levels of workplace harassment. These are interesting results indeed, and some with important workplace implications. Employees who are younger and male could be ideal candidates for sensitivity training. Alternatively, these employees have higher reported levels of attention and awareness, and results could be due to higher levels of cognizance that their behavior is seen as abusive toward others at work the workplace.

Interestingly, the direct effect of age (without the interaction of mindfulness) shows the opposite results. The older an employee is—without regard to how mindful—the more likely they are to report behaviors of workplace harassment. However, a more mindful, older employee may be aware of their behavior and are more likely to constrain themselves to a more appropriate conduct. Or, more mindful older employees might think more critically of what they want to report as harassment behaviors versus the behaviors they want to withhold reporting. Lastly, another potential explanation is that there could also be a cultural component to elder employees and harassment. The workforce was once not as regulated in terms of harassment, as it currently is; the 51-80 age group could have different rates of occurrence in harassment, as compared to the younger groups, as a product of having worked in times of less regulation/disciplinary consequences. The more mindful amongst these individuals, could have reexamined the changing workforce and adapted their behavior accordingly, where as those who are not mindful might never have challenged themselves to reduce rate of occurrence. These speculations are only potential explanations of the results; however, they might provide future researchers with a lot of different directions in which they can empirically explore these demographics, and their relationship with mindfulness within different industries, in order to derive a more holistic conclusion of how these relationships operate in the true population.

Lastly, Organizational Citizenship Behavior had no significant interactive effects with any of the moderators considered. However, there were main effects of age, gender, and mindfulness in predicting OCB. Overall, without regard to mindfulness, older employees in this study reported higher rates of citizenship behavior as compared to younger employees. Rationale for this is tough to derive, as extant research on the relationship between age and OCB has shown mixed results—some studies showing higher rates for OCB for older employees, and some showing lower rates (Gyekye et al., 2012; Stynen et al., 2015; Yung-Kuei et al., 2015). This stream of research is in need of more cohesive exploration and attention. This study also showed that male employees reported lower rates of OCB as compared to female employees (also without considering perceptions of mindfulness). These results could be expected, as studies have found that social norms within the workplace often stereotype women as being more communal, or as “helpers,” as compared to men, and that women are more often likely to engage in more types of organizational citizenship behaviors (Beauregard, 2012, Clarke & Sulsky, 2017; Heilman, 1983).

In this study, mindfulness was the strongest significant predictor of OCB. The interpretation is that an individual’s attentiveness and awareness of the present moment is correlated with the frequency of their perceptions of engagement in extra-role behaviors. However, as with the other variables, the direction in which this relationship is demonstrated is opposite of what was predicted. Higher levels of mindfulness result in lower levels of OCB reported. As discussed previously, the identification and categorization of OCBs has not been agreed upon in literature; thusly, the study of their potential antecedents have also shown inconsistency and a lack of consensus (Bergeron, 2007; Podsakoff et al., 2000). It is in this regard that mindfulness might not have shown its most impactful results. If the behaviors are

inconsistently defined as OCBs, then being mindful can only contribute a limited amount to the study. The results showed that in this sample, the more mindful an employee is, the less likely they are to report OCBs. Similar to previous results, it could be argued that more mindful employees are more attuned to their own definition of what constitutes as going above and beyond their role requirements, and are less likely to inflate their own experiences of it. They may similarly have stringent definitions of what they constitute as extra-role behavior (e.g. picking up trash from community areas versus for prosocial/communal motives versus personal preference of a clean environment).

Alternatively, an individual can be very mindful and present in the moment, and simply not be inclined to take part in communal behaviors for the organization. Clearly, more research is needed in the general field of OCBs, but also particularly so with its linkages to mindfulness. It would be interesting to see studies that tie in OCBs and mindfulness with selflessness or altruism (relating to the “letting go of one’s ego” in mindfulness) and organizational commitment (relating to one’s willingness to invest in an organization they are planning to stay with for some time). These interactions could provide more insight into the relationship of OCB and mindfulness, aid in the narrowing down the typology of OCBs, as well as result in another potential avenue for research involving impactful organizational scenarios of mindfulness practices.

Future research could have important implications for an organization seeking to improve upon or increase the rate of OCBs exhibited by their employees. Mindfulness training interventions or practices can help to further improve and standardize behaviors of what employees perceive as their own extra-role behavior, and subsequently their reactions to team members in the organization. Additionally, further replications of this relationship are needed to

filter out other, additional potential moderators—perhaps some that could have an interactive effect that would yield greater predictability across a variety of industries.

General Discussion

The results of this study have been an insightful first step towards establishing these relationships in literature, in the context of perceptions of mindfulness. However, they also signal room for growth in literature within these fields; these relationships need to be refined, the contexts under which they are most impactful need to be established, and exploration is needed for a deeper understanding of more specific and impactful conclusions.

From an overlooking perspective, it was interesting to note that tenure did not play a significant role in moderating the relationship of mindfulness to any of the dependent variables of interest. It can be concluded that the length of time an employee is within a role or industry has no bearing on these particular workplace behaviors; rather, that there exists a variability in the relationship between tenure and CWBs and OCBs. There is no reported data on the effects of role change in tenure. That is to say, how many different roles an employee has been in during their tenure in the industry. This could be a potential interactive effect that could be examined by future researchers, along with any other moderators that might influence the impact of tenure and mindfulness.

Similarly, job type had no significant relationship with OCB or CWBs in this study. The demographic of employee's status as hourly or salaried made no differences in their reported levels of OCBs, CWBs, nor did they have any interactive effects with perceptions of mindfulness. This lack of relationship could be a true observation of the population, but it also could be a variant existing within this sample. It could be argued that hourly wages versus salaried compensation already delineates different industries, by virtue of what is predominantly

the practice that defines the norm. For instance, hourly wages are predominant in the food and beverage industry, whereas salaried compensation is predominant commercialized fishing industries. These are two very different examples, attracting extremely varying types of employees. Research should replicate this study within specific industries of interest, and compare the results to examine the impact of job type (as defined in this study) on mindfulness, OCBs, and CWBs.

Lastly, the levels of jobs (admin, customer service, etc.) had no interactive or main effects in this study. The culture and climate of an organization affects the values and attitudes of all employees, beginning with the upper echelons of management, and trickling their way down (Kotter & Heskett, 1992, p. 104; Svyantek & Bott, 2004). However, one would expect to see some sort of interactive distinction, within these lower levels, on whether mindfulness plays a role in predicting OCBs and CWBs. This “trickling down of culture and climate” does not occur uniformly, and different positions and levels could be expected to exhibit differing levels of mindfulness in order to function successfully within their department, or when exhibiting OCBs or CWBs. However, this was not the case. One potential explanation could be that mindfulness is a concept that has been exposed to those in higher levels of organizational ranking. For instance, the higher up an employee ascends in rank, the more training on company and industry wide practices they are liable to encounter. With this exposition, there might be an increased level of learned awareness and cognizance. A CEO has more exposure, reasoning, and opportunity to practice in mindful concepts as part of their training and role than a Front-Line Staff worker, or other levels of lower echelons (customer service, tech support, etc.) might have. This lack of generalizability across all levels is promising if an organization were interested in some sort of training program aimed at increasing mindfulness at the lower levels (i.e. those that were

examined in this study)—it can indicate that the results would not be siloed in one echelon of the organization, but rather have a chance to be pervasive and infiltrate the company culture across all levels.

In this study, ethnicity only had a direct effect on ineffective job performance. This was most likely due to the invariability in the sample across ethnicities. Further replication of this model within diverse industries might serve as more representative of the true population, or at the very least, more representative of the specific industries within with an ethnically varied workforce exists.

Gender played an interested role in this study—male employees displayed higher levels of mindfulness and a higher report of the frequency of behavior that constituted as harassment, as well as higher reports of employee theft. These findings are consistent with literature that suggests there is a greater rate for males in their tendency to report in engaging in more CWBs (Spector & Zhou, 2014), and that these tend to occur when there are high levels of certain personality characteristics—in this case, propensity to higher levels of attention and awareness. There could be several reasons as to why this trend was realized. It could be because the concept of engaging in behaviors that constitute as harassment is more salient to males and they are more aware of it, or that females engage in more behaviors that encompass a wider range of harassment. For example, a male employee could be more aware that a form of physical contact could be perceived as harassment, whereas a female employee might engage in the same form of physical contact, and not think it inappropriate. More research is needed to find out why this trend was observed.

Another interesting trend to note was the fact that mindfulness had a general interactive effect with age when it came to predicting more manifestations of counterproductive workplace

behavior. Younger employees (especially within the 18-24 age range) who were higher in mindfulness reported higher levels of IJP, Harassment, and Absenteeism. Literature in this arena is extremely varied. Some results have claimed a curvilinear effect of age on CWBs (NG & Feldman, 2008), whereas others have just found that there is an effect of age on exhibiting CWBs, without specifying in which direction (Farhadi et al., 2015). This research hopes to add more direction to this linkage in literature; replication is needed to gain a better understanding of the context in which age plays a role in predicting CWBs. Mindfulness has proven to be one interactive effect, but its interactive effects with age need to be recreated in various other samples to gain a more comprehensive understanding of this complex interaction.

The relationship of mindfulness to CWBs and OCBs has had varied strength and direction, depending on the moderators that interact with it for different situations. The moderators chosen in this study were only a few, and only those of interest to the organizational needs. It is recommended that this analysis be replicated with a more diverse sample in terms of ethnicity within specific industries, and with different moderators—such as differing aspects of personality, religion, specific geographic location, political ideology, altruism, etc. All these could have an effect on an individual's perceptions of mindfulness, and their subsequent relationship with reducing CWBs and increasing OCBs. Measuring CWBs in the workplace is already difficult and time consuming, and most individuals report few instances of occurrences (Akremi, Vanden-berghe, & Camerman, 2010); this analysis found the same results on underreporting in conjunction with complex results. More knowledge and understanding is needed of the interactive effects of these phenomena, and especially so in relation to potential recommendations that research can suggest to act as a guide to organizations. Some general recommendations are provided below.

Practical and Theoretical Implications

Harnessing Mindfulness

The implications of this study call for a more thorough and deliberate development of the understanding of mindfulness in its role within an organization. Mindfulness has already been proven to have tremendous effects within the workplace on bettering health, reducing stress, increasing productivity, etc. (Black, 2011; Hyland, Lee, Mills, 2015). This study brings important, complex relationships into the literary scope. Mindfulness does not have unilateral benefit to working systems, as previously understood. Rather, it can, but there are other factors to consider. This study has considered some demographic factors as controls for predictive relationships of mindfulness, but there could be other constructs, behaviors, and phenomena that could also have an interactive effect. Literature needs to focus more on interactive effects of mindfulness within the workplace. Also recommended are the exploration of mediating effects of phenomena on mindfulness perceptions. Getting closer to understanding the totality of the phenomenon, and how it operates, is the only way to truly utilize the power of mindfulness to full potential, such that it remains capable of having significant positive impact within an organization.

A potential motivator for research to validate more samples with the mindfulness scale could be heavily tied into the profitability of interventions. The workforce is constantly changing, meeting demands of a global market, evolving technology, as well as a growing, diverse workforce (Bilimoria et al., 2008). Organizations must face external adaptation as part of an evolutionary process in order to adapt, survive, and remain successful in a macro-level business economy (Schein, 2000). Mindfulness interventions tie into this evolution, because they have been increasingly utilized as a tool for such an adaptation. Specifically, mindfulness

interventions have been shown to have effective results within the workplace, as demonstrated by the MBSR (Gunaratana, 2002; Hyland, Lee, Mills, 2015). It has been used as an intervention in the workplace, interventions have been adapted based on this model, and literature has created scales based off the measurements of this intervention (Brown & Ryan, 2003).

The success rate of the MBSR program over the last 35 years has been prevalent in helping participants see significant reductions in chronic pain, stress, anxiety, and other symptoms (Baer, 2016). Specifically, the MBSR program lasts 8 weeks (2.5 hours a week), with an additional full day in the 6th week. In addition, participants are expected to spend 45 minutes daily engaging in mindfulness practices, outlined by a trainer (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Kabat-Zinn, 1982; McCraty, 2003). Other testaments to the success of this program has been demonstrated through several other forms of adaptations and expansions—ranging from different settings such as specific workplaces or clinics, to different goals such as acceptance and commitment, to targeted therapies such as overcoming eating disorders (Bowen, Chawla, & Marlatt, 2011; Chaskalson, 2011; Hayes, 2012; Kristeller, 2003; Linehan, 2003; Segal, Teasdale, & Williams, 2002). An organization seeking to invest in such an intervention would benefit from a more holistic understanding of mindfulness as a concept. Research can explore and provide a richer and deeper understanding of this construct, that can continue to help it evolve as the workforce continues to evolve. In sum, a culture that embraces the benefits that mindfulness has to offer is better than an unchanging organizational culture, and organizations must strive to adjust and acclimate to their changing external environments.

Research has a role to play in driving this system of intervention forward. Gaining a better understanding of the functionality involved in differential interactive, controlling, or mediating phenomena would allow organizations to more readily identify strengths and optimal

utility of mindfulness practices for given situations, resulting in optimizing the benefits of mindful practices in the workplace environment.

Combating Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors.

Literature has studied counterproductive workplace behaviors comprehensively. These behaviors decrease productivity and can cost an organization a lot in terms of loss and profitability, as previously discussed. However, there have also been several recommendations in literature on how to reduce the occurrence of CWBs in the workforce. Some of these recommendations, for reducing CWBs in general are discussed.

Develop and Implement Appropriate Selection Measures.

Organizations should utilize a scientifically based selection program (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Schmitt, 2004; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998), as a means of screening out employees who are likely to have characteristics that are predisposed to or likely to engage in CWB. Adding some form of systematic effort into hiring employees reduces selection error and increases the probability of hiring employees with skills, abilities, and specific personality traits necessary to successfully perform. During the selection process, organizations must put effort into gathering and utilizing data to make informed hiring decisions (Guion & Highhouse, 2006). This should involve the extensive use of tests, employees' personal history information, and background or reference checks. Essentially, use whatever information can be gleaned to make an informed decision.

Specific characteristics that need to be assessed during selection can also be determined by the type of CWB that is prevalent in the existing work environment. If the identification of the CWB is not readily observable (i.e., the CWB is ineffective job performance), a performance appraisal should be conducted to better guide the selection procedures that need to be developed.

The selection measures developed should be based on the CWB that needs to be reduced. For instance, in a work environment that has a high number of accidents, a selection measure should assess the personal characteristics of employees who are likely to be unsafe. These could include items that measure high levels of distractibility, neuroticism, social maladjustment, and low levels of remorse. Higher levels of conscientiousness in a candidate could also be viewed as advantageous in this situation. Similarly, implementing better testing for integrity and conscientiousness could filter out employees who are likely to steal. Lastly, the use of individual personality tests, background checks (e.g., a history of violence, arrest history), and testing for substance abuse, is recommended in order to filter out employees who are likely to engage in workplace violence. In summation, utilize whatever information can be attained to make an informed decision about the candidates that are a best fit for hire.

Implementation of Clearly Articulated Policies and Communication of Content

It is not enough to just have organization policies already in place. Organizational policies may exist for prevention of certain behaviors or to outline the plans of action to be taken if violations occur; however, often the message behind them does not get relayed onto employees. Further, the content of the policies can send mixed signals to employees about the severity of consequences due to violations. The content of these policies must be communicated clearly with employees upon hire.

Specific policies are recommended in order to avoid certain types of CWB. For organizations aiming to reduce absenteeism, absence-control policies are recommended that are viewed as reasonable, but also discourage preventable absences. Policies that encourage a positive safety climate would aim to reduce workplace accidents; these policies especially must be publicized as having importance in high stress job situations. Additionally, zero-tolerance

policies can be aimed at combating a number of CWBs. These can highlight the organization's unanimous stance on violations, and outline any disciplinary actions that would need to take place in the event of workplace violence, theft, or sexual harassment. One caveat to consider in creating these policies is to ensure that they are not viewed as frustrating, unclear, unfair, or inadvertently block goals for employees; this could have an adverse effect on subsequent employee behavior.

In summation, implement well thought out organizational policies; communicate them efficiently to all employees, leaving no room for mixed signals. Emphasize clear wording in communication, stressing that violations are a serious matter that will result in severe consequences. Lastly, respond consistently with policy violations for any party involved, regardless of which position they hold within the organization.

Once Hired, Nurture Skills and Abilities

Cultivation of relevant skills and abilities is an important investment organizations should make, as it directly affects employee performance (Colareli, Dean, & Konstans, 1987). An example of this cultivation is any training or socialization that is provided to ease employee integration. One such newcomer socialization method that has had successful results is the Realistic Orientation Programs for New Employee Stress (ROPES; Wanous, 1992). This orientation essentially works by inoculating an employee against stress by having them "learn the ropes" and providing coping mechanisms to help them adjust more efficiently (Fan & Wanous, 2008). This method of socialization reduces employee anxiety levels that could potentially result in manifestations of CWB.

In addition to offering training and socialization programs to new hires, organizations should invest in re-training current employees as needed. This is especially beneficial at the

management level. For instance, workplace violence has been observed to escalate if managers are passive or tolerant of aggressive behaviors (Skogstad et al., 2007). Preventative organization leadership training can refresh management on the need to treat employees fairly, or the dangers of having a casual attitude when it pertains to incidences of CWB. In sum, invest in development of employees through adequate training and socialization methods, and offer this continuous support, in order for them to reach their full potential.

Implementation of Systematic Performance Measurement and Feedback Systems

The regular use of performance appraisals has been viewed as beneficial when the resultant information can be transmitted back to employees (Meyer et al., 1965). Essentially, it keeps employees on track by communicating expectations, and providing feedback aimed at increasing productivity. If conducted with regularity, organizations can remain afloat of addressing and avoiding CWB. When providing feedback, it is crucial to communicate clearly in order to avoid giving mixed signals for expectations.

When conducting the performance appraisals, in addition to individual and organizational factors, one additional aspect to pay attention to is the physical layout of the environment. Aspects of a worker's physical environment may govern or impede their ability to successfully or safely perform. For instance, such feedback could expose the need to have equipment that is designed for easier or safer use, thereby reducing workplace accidents. Additionally, relatively simple amendments to the workplace conditions could alleviate worker stress; for example, creating outlets to reduce excess noise or heat in factories could help reduce the occurrences of workplace violence. A caveat to consider is that making modifications to the environment could be costly, depending on where changes are needed, but the payoff may be greater over time. As

such, a needs assessment should be conducted prior to investment in any significant programs for change in the environment.

Performance appraisals and subsequent feedback to employees is fairly regular. However, it may be prudent to investigate the utility of a two-way feedback system. In such a system, employees can systematically voice their concerns of what may be hindering productivity, in ways that may not be readily observable by management. For instance, an employee may reveal to management that they are experiencing too many interruptions, or a lack of necessary tools, to successfully perform. Additionally, such feedback may give organizations insights into the root causes of a particular CWB, which a performance appraisal might not have the ability to catch.

A tertiary preventative component of performance measurement and feedback systems that can be suggested is routine performance monitoring. An exciting new potential that has had relative success has been the use of electronic performance monitoring systems (Zweig & Webster, 2002). These have been especially productive when employees know they are being monitored in advance (Horkova-Mead et al., 2002). With the growing use of technology in the workplace, it may be beneficial for organizations to accommodate some form of electronic performance monitoring. Practical examples of this could be of particular advantage to telemarketers, customer service for telephone companies, organizations that specialize in electronic shipping (e.g., an online clothing store), or any organization willing to create employee email accounts that have joint access with supervisors. Additionally, it can be postulated that performance monitoring would be most effective in organizations that inform the employees they are being monitored, but do not specify the time at which it will occur. This may keep an employee at a higher state of vigilance when completing tasks. Research should examine

the effects of performance monitoring at random intervals; any generalizable results could be elaborated on, and added to this recommendation.

In sum, organizations should exert effort into developing adequate measures for performance and implementing them with regularity. Appraisals should examine not only individual and organizational factors, but also physical aspects of the work environment. Care should be taken in responding appropriately to performance differences, and any information that is constructive should be relayed back to the employee. Communication channels should be open in both directions, and management should also be receptive to feedback. The use of routine performance monitoring is also recommended, as an added measure for prevention of CWB.

Being Proactive in Keeping Employees Satisfied.

Increasing an employee's job satisfaction has been positively related to organizational commitment, morale, and productivity (Palmer & Dean, 1973; Tett & Meyer, 1993). In an effort to increase satisfaction, any methods of helping employees overcome personal barriers are recommended for organizations seeking to remain attractive and increase perceptions of being fair. One simple method of increasing satisfaction is increasing benefits. Offering benefits such as childcare, flexible scheduling, telecommuting, paid time off, sick days, and company insurance coverage, result in an organization increasing their appeal (making it more likely to retain employees) as well as ameliorating situations that would otherwise adversely affect attendance.

An additional method of keeping employees happy and increasing their affect toward the organization is offering rewards. Incentives can be highly motivating when it comes to retaining employees. In addition to this, organizations can combat other specific CWBs by making reward contingent on participation. These rewards can be fairly simple (e.g., buying lunch for excellent

attendance record, or cash bonuses for outstanding safety record) or more involved (e.g., recommending a promotion based on acknowledgement of merit). In summation, organizations need to be proactive in keeping their employees satisfied in order to reduce the likelihood of various, multiple CWBs. Additionally, increasing satisfaction would increase morale, and as a result increase productivity.

Use of Behavior Modification Systems

As a last step to prevent the occurrence of CWB, organizations should examine any avenues for behavior modifications to maximize productivity. Behavior modification can encompass a vast range of activities aimed at the betterment of specific situations. Firstly, and most importantly, we recommend the modification system utilized to be any form of mindfulness training intervention. This is where we believe mindfulness interventions can have an effect. This study already demonstrated significant relationships of mindfulness to CWBs; adoption of this well-founded avenue of reducing CWBs in conjunction with mindfulness behavioral modifications could result in a strong tool for organizations. As discussed, mindfulness interventions for employees are being increasingly utilized by organizations, mindfulness training is becoming more common (Hyand, Lee, Mills, 2015) and open and adaptive cultures are seeking to better understand different ways in which mindfulness can benefit them.

Alternatively, independent of mindfulness interventions, a few varying situations are presented as examples of situational factors that can be generalized to fit the specific needs of the organization. One example of behavior modification (as mentioned in with regards to being proactive and keeping employees satisfied) is rewards and contingencies. The alternative, punishment, can also be effective in terms of prevention. Knowledge of punitive actions that may follow unwelcome behaviors (e.g. unsafe activities, theft, etc.) may prevent employees from

engaging in them. If an employee does engage in these actions, punitive consequences can be an effective corrective course of action. Examples of these measures can include written reprimands, referrals to human resources, suspensions, or fines, if they engage in these behaviors consistently. However, a caveat to consider when developing these punitive systems is to remain fair and objective. Actively encouraging employees to engage in productive behavior and discouraging them to engage in counterproductive behavior can be an effective means of CWB prevention.

Another example of behavior modification is to set employees, who are predisposed to certain CWBs, on a preventative course of action. For example, with regard to theft prevention, employees who were identified to have an external locus of control, were more likely to blame the uncontrollable, disadvantageous circumstances, and lash out to release their discontentment (Spector, 1997). A method to prevent the incidence of theft would be to identify these individuals and offer them a better outlet to express their frustrations with the situation, before the frustrations manifest to CWB. Alternatively, employees with an internal locus of control, who believe they are able to change their own circumstances, should be encouraged to actively participate in management practices or aid in changing policies that affect the immediate situation. This form of behavior modification, if individual dispositions are appropriately identified ahead of time, can be a constructive means to prevent CWB.

One method of preventing future occurrences of CWB is by fostering a climate change. Routine assessments or open communication can reveal the need for a modification in employee perceptions. For instance, an organization may deem it necessary to improve the current safety climate to be less tolerant of reckless behavior, in an attempt to reduce the occurrence of future accidents. In order to achieve effective climate change, it is recommended that organizations

publicize the need for change, and encourage active employee participation in practicing the intended behaviors. In the current example of altering the extant climate of safety, active participation could involve methods such as creating an informal safety committee to oversee adherence to the new policies. Participation could also be tied into incentives to increase motivation. Other examples in which climate change can be beneficial include fostering a positive absence-culture to reduce absenteeism (and the non-work constraints that adversely affect women), and a climate that is explicitly intolerant of sexual harassment (with added attention given to awareness of the experiences of minority women).

As a last measure of behavior modification for prevention of CWB, organizations should invest in altering employee perceptions to view the organization as fair. When organizations treat employees more fairly, they are less likely to engage in negative behaviors (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Judge et al., 2006; Skogstad et al., 2007; Stone & Kotch, 1989). These perceptions especially help to lower the risk of antisocial behaviors, by giving employees a sense of control. A recommendation to improve organizational perceptions of fairness is to establish employee assistance programs (EAPs) where needed. When an employee perceives that the organization is interested in helping them overcome their problems by investing in treatment options, as opposed to immediate punishment, it could increase their perceptions of fairness, which could translate to more investment on the employee's behalf. This could also result in an increase in overall productivity. In sum, organizations need to invest in preemptive solutions that are aimed at modifying (or capitalizing on) certain behaviors in an attempt to prevent the occurrence of CWB. These actions could include setting up a rewards/disciplinary system, capitalizing on the strengths and working with the weaknesses of individual characteristics, cultivating a positive climate change, and increasing the overall perception of safety.

These steps are presented as a comprehensive guide to organizations interested in implementing precautionary measures to combat the occurrence of CWB. We believe that the most effective means to lower the rate of CWBs is to use a combination of these strategies, along with increasing the use of mindfulness promoting practices within the company culture.

Encouraging Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Literature has also examined Organizational Citizenship Behavior quite extensively. These behaviors increase productivity, morale, cohesion, and can benefit organizations through increased bottom line performance and profitability, as previously discussed. However, there have also been several recommendations in literature on how to encourage the occurrence of OCBs in the workforce. Some of these recommendations, for encouraging OCBs in general are discussed.

In financial terms, productivity occurs when an organization receives a return on an investment they have made in an employee (Campbell, 1990). In order to maximize that return on investment, it is in an organization's best interest to harness and capitalize on any form of behavior that will result in an increase of productivity; in this case, organizational citizenship behavior. In fact, OCB has been directly linked with increases in organizational profits (Yen & Niehoff, 2004). Several general recommendations are presented that may serve as a guide to organizations for increasing OCB prevalence.

Seeking to Increase Effectiveness

The first recommendation is based on the findings that group participation of OCB was positively related to effectiveness (Karambayya, 1989; Podsakoff et al, 1997). Essentially, group members who engaged in more OCBs were more effective as a unit, as compared to those who did not engage in OCB. The suggestion presented here is for organizations to increase group

participation of citizenship behavior. Once implemented, group culture of citizenship may naturally maintain itself due to the contagious and reciprocal nature of positive affect. A direct method of facilitating OCB in groups could be to openly communicate the benefits of citizenship behavior directly with the group members, and overtly encourage their participation.

Capitalizing on the Utility of Impression Management

The second recommendation to organizations is based on the premise that employees may engage in citizenship behaviors intentionally, with the purpose of receiving implicit rewards (e.g. being favored by the manager) or explicit rewards (e.g. positive appraisals; Eastman, 1994). When OCB is performed with the expectation of future rewards, it is treated as a form of impression management (i.e. behavioral tactics people use to influence others views of them) as opposed to a true display of altruism (Bolino, 1999). Organizations can capitalize on this form of impression management, by explicitly informing employees that OCBs will be rewarded, and additionally, by embedding those rewards in a high visibility environments. For instance, create an environment, in which an employee's engagement in OCB is highly visible to others, especially management (Bolino, 1999). Within that environment create an atmosphere for value and recognition of participating in OCB, or visibly present rewards for citizenship. Additionally, rewards that are designed specifically to encourage certain behaviors would lead to an increase in those particular contributions (Bergeron, 2007). Organizations should develop their rewards system based on the strategic behaviors they want to encourage in employees.

Being Proactive in Keeping Employees Satisfied—Additional Reasoning

Based on the relationship of OCB to affect, a third recommendation is presented; organizations should take preemptive measures to increase employee satisfaction, or simply determine ways to treat workers better and more fairly. Eliciting greater affect from the

employee toward the organization could motivate an individual to engage in prosocial behaviors of their own accord. A perceived culture of fairness and mutual respect between the organization and the employee may also help maintain a functional propensity for OCBs, in a cyclical manner. For instance, an employee who perceives they have been treated well by the organization may experience greater affect toward their workplace. As a result, they may then engage in organizational compliance behaviors, such as adherence to or internalization of certain organizational objectives, which could perpetuate them to continue performing citizenship behaviors.

Implementation of Clearly Articulated Expectations and Communication of Content

Lastly, it is recommended that organizations take measures to preemptively reduce or avoid role ambiguity and role conflict. One method of accomplishing this could be offering better socialization techniques for new hires. Another method could involve the application of clearer directions when creating task instructions or conveying job expectations. This reduction in task and role clarity could be achieved through the systematic administration of job analyses; ascertaining information about the unclear aspects of the job, would aid in successfully adapting the requirements accordingly. Additionally, when role or task conflict occurs, organizations should offer their assistance, support, and continual feedback to employees. As an organization's needs may change through economic growth, new and updated expectations should be consistently and clearly communicated.

In sum, organizations need to invest in preemptive solutions that are aimed at modifying (or capitalizing on) certain behaviors in an attempt to encourage the manifestation of OCB and preserve a culture of citizenship. These suggestions are presented as a basic guide to organizations interested in implementing measures to increase OCB; as more research is

conducted in this arena, additional suggestions should be collated to serve as a more comprehensive reference for practical application. It is our belief that this is a need that mindfulness interventions can satisfy. For each of these recommendations, the suggestion is that organizations increase the amount of interaction employees have with one another, increase the amount of rewards received based on interactions with others, and become more aware of the environment and maintaining a prosocial culture. All these recommendations can be implemented in conjunction with a mindfulness based approach. That is to say that increasing employee attentiveness and awareness of their external environment and sense of others around them, will increase the desire for individuals to participate in extra-role behaviors of their own volition. This analysis has shown a strong relationship between open minded awareness and attention and behaviors that benefit the organization. Training or interventions aimed at increasing the occurrence of mindfulness practices can potentially maximize the effects of this relationship.

Limitations and Future Research

There were a few limitations to note in this study. One limitation in this study was the sample size across moderator-based subgroups. In this study, the ethnicity of the sample size is vastly concentrated within one subgroup. This mindfulness scale was validated on a primarily Caucasian/Euro-American sample. It would be interested to see how substantial numbers of non-Caucasian/Euro-American employees would influence the results. Similarly, the age group variation was not necessarily representative of what would be observed in differing clusters of the workforce. For instance, the 18-24 age group had the most interactive effect with mindfulness in predicting certain CWBs, but this subgroup only constituted 7.5% of this sample. The impact of this age group, and others, is likely to manifest very differently from one industry

to the next. This study would likely need to be replicated in different industries in order to gain the necessary sample representation of these sub groups, as they exist within their specific trades.

Another limitation is that there was a certain degree of inherent common method variance (CMV), due to the fact that the same individuals were answering the predictor and the criterion variables. We attempted to reduce this as much as possible by making the survey anonymous in order to reduce social desirability, indicating there are no right or wrong answers, counterbalancing the question order so as to control for effects of item-context and mood states as well as for priming, by disrupting consistency in responding. We suggest two recommendations for reducing CMV in future research. First, design the study longitudinally. In this sample, a longitudinal design was not possible due to the demands of a fast-paced work environment. However, this is another reason for which recreating this study in a different industry would be useful.

Secondly, and most importantly, common method variance is a result of using a single method to assess the constructs. Combining methods would reduce this error and give a more structurally sound understanding of these relationships. This is another reason why we recommend combining the CWB prevention strategies discussed earlier, with the OCB encouragement strategies, as well as a mindfulness based training intervention. At the very least, the addition of the intervention with the survey items would create two means of divergent assessment of constructs. Alternatively, this study could be recreated by using just the mindfulness intervention. It would not reduce CMV, but it would validate the results in a more practical setting, which this study has limited range in doing.

It was interesting to note the negative direction of the relationship of mindfulness with the outcome variables. Although several theories were postulated as to why this directionality

was observed, it is important to note the role that self-appraisal played in this study. The scales utilized were chosen for their applicability and their reliability. However, these were all self-report measures that asked participants to assess their own perceptions of their behavior. Self-appraisal can be biased, and/or results in inflated or underestimated answers that do not reflect true behavior. Future results should look into 360 feedback or peer assessments of the same measures as part of the design, in hopes of capturing a more accurate scope (and perhaps, a more intuitive directionality) of the role that mindfulness can play in predicting CWBs or OCBs.

Another limitation of this study is that it focused on just OCBs as they relate to the organization. OCB-O was the interest of study for this organization, but future research should examine these relationships with OCB directed towards the individual (OCB-I) and the environment (OCB-E). Mindfulness has components of self as it relates to others, so isolating the relationship to just others neglects a rich source of information that can provide us with a more complete understanding of mindfulness. This study should be recreated in a sample that focuses on both organization and individual oriented OCBs.

Relatedly, it would be interesting to see the effects of the subcategories of OCBs, or the different ways in which they can manifest, as they relate to mindfulness and other moderators. As mentioned earlier, these manifestations were not considered essential to the needs of this assessment so they were collapsed into an overall OCB-O scale. It would provide some unique and interesting insights to explore the different relationships each dimension has to mindfulness. Additionally, there are unexplored manifestations and subcategories of CWBs that were not in the scope of this study as well. Future studies should include these subcategories for both OCBs and CWBs as added structure for analysis.

Lastly, this study only focused on a few moderators of demographic representation within the sample. Other significant moderators, constructs, behaviors, situations, and contexts should be considered and controlled for when examining the predictive relationship between mindfulness and OCBs or CWBs. Of note was that for OCB, R^2 and the ANOVA test were not significant, when interactive effects were examined. Our sample did not validate that any of our chosen moderators were significant in their interactions with mindfulness. This leads us to believe that there is some variance that is unaccounted for in the interactive effects model. Future research should recreate this analysis with alternative moderators to see if these results can be replicated, significant interactions with mindfulness can be attained, or to definitively arrive at the conclusion that they function differentially within those alternate systems.

Conclusion

As the outside environment changes, different demands on workforce practices are required, and adaptation becomes necessary to survive. The importance placed on progressive and adaptive organizational climates could be functional at this time, and as the economy evolves, emphasis should be paid on different aspects of developing and expanding upon organizational culture practices that enrich the work environment. One such way to progress a work environment is to introduce the practice of mindfulness to the employees. Mindfulness has previously been linked to several positive outcomes with health and productivity (Black, 2011). Our findings conclude that it plays a significant role in predicting levels of reported counterproductive workplace behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors. There are a lot of potential factors that can affect these linkages, but there are also a lot of unexplored avenues to control for, or strengthen, varying effects on these relationships. Future research should

examine these alternate moderating factors, as well as explore the effects that different methods of implementing mindfulness based practices can have on employees within an organization.

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Table 1

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results for Mindfulness Predicting IJP (Standardized β)

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Age	-.196**	-.127*	.379**
Tenure	-.054	-.009	-.017
Job Type	.038	.032	.028
Gender	.063	.083	.070
Ethnicity	.042	.076	.087*
Job Level			
Cust. Service/PM	.001	.022	.026
Sales	.099	.110*	-.100
HR/Finance	-.047	-.023	-.026
Tech Support/RD	.054	.052	.070
Admin/Front Line	.007	.017	.037
Mindfulness		.423**	1.035**
Interactions			
Mind*Age			-.747**
Mind*Sales			.229
ΔR^2	.084	.168	.037
Overall Model R^2	.084	.252	.289
Adjusted R^2	.061	.232	.266
Overall Model F	3.693**	12.263**	12.463**
DF	10	11	13

Note. N = 412. Dependent variable = IJP. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$.

Table 2

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results for Mindfulness Predicting Absenteeism (Standardized β)

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Age	-.229**	-.153*	.256
Tenure	-.050	-.001	-.013
Job Type	.116*	.109*	-.092
Gender	.062	.083	.071
Ethnicity	.057	.093*	.018
Job Level			
Cust. Service/PM	-.050	-.028	-.024
Sales	.004	.015	.014
HR/Finance	-.042	-.016	-.016
Tech Support/RD	.024	.021	.040
Admin/Front Line	-.048	-.038	-.019
Mindfulness		.455**	.890**
Interactions			
Mind*Age			-.605**
Mind*Job Type			.224
Mind*Ethnicity			.089
ΔR^2	.103	.194	.023
Overall Model R^2	.103	.298	.321
Adjusted R^2	.081	.278	.297
Overall Model F	4.626**	15.401**	13.389**
DF	10	11	14

Note. N = 412. Dependent variable = Absenteeism. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$.

Table 3

*Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results for Mindfulness Predicting Employee Theft
(Standardized β)*

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Age	-.177*	-.108	-.102
Tenure	-.019	.025	.024
Job Type	.078	.072	.072
Gender	.128*	.147**	-.232
Ethnicity	.040	.073	.071
Job Level			
Cust. Service/PM	-.023	-.003	.004
Sales	.049	.060	.060
HR/Finance	-.027	-.003	-.004
Tech Support/RD	-.020	-.023	-.024
Admin/Front Line	-.035	-.026	-.023
Mindfulness		.415**	.289**
Interactions			
Mind*Gender			.421**
ΔR^2	.071	.162	.018
Overall Model R^2	.071	.232	.251
Adjusted R^2	.047	.211	.228
Overall Model F	3.045**	11.000**	11.114**
DF	10	11	12

Note. N = 412. Dependent variable = Employee Theft. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$.

Table 4

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results for Mindfulness Predicting Workplace Harassment (Standardized β)

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Age	-.225**	-.148*	.383**
Tenure	.015	.064	.053
Job Type	.012	.005	.005
Gender	.161**	.182**	-.146
Ethnicity	.011	.048	.059
Job Level			
Cust. Service/PM	-.068	-.045	-.034
Sales	.054	.066	.068
HR/Finance	-.050	-.023	-.027
Tech Support/RD	-.057	-.060	-.042
Admin/Front Line	-.061	-.051	-.027
Mindfulness		.465**	1.029**
Interactions			
Mind*Age			-.775**
Mind*Gender			.351**
ΔR^2	.088	.203	.046
Overall Model R^2	.088	.291	.336
Adjusted R^2	.065	.271	.314
Overall Model F	3.855**	14.894**	15.504**
DF	10	11	13

Note. N = 412. Dependent variable = Workplace Harassment. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$.

Table 5

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results for Mindfulness Predicting OCBs (Standardized β)

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Age	.232**	.178**	.189
Tenure	.057	.023	.023
Job Type	-.039	-.034	-.034
Gender	-.087	-.103*	-.074
Ethnicity	-.031	-.057	-.056
Job Level			
Cust. Service/PM	.025	.009	.009
Sales	.057	.049	.049
HR/Finance	.047	.029	.029
Tech Support/RD	-.052	-.050	-.050
Admin/Front Line	.013	.006	.006
Mindfulness		-.324**	-.301
Interactions			
Mind*Age			-.016
Mind*Gender			-.032
ΔR^2	.098	.099	.000
Overall Model R^2	.098	.197	.197
Adjusted R^2	.076	.175	.171
Overall Model F	4.368**	8.907**	7.504**
DF	10	11	13

Note. N = 412. Dependent variable = OCB. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Frequency	% Freq
Gender: Males					203	49.3
Gender: Females					209	50.7
Ethnicity (Caucasian)					335	81.3%
Ethnicity (Non-Caucasian)					77	18.7%
Job Level						
Other/Multiple					85	20.6
Cust. Service/PM					76	18.4
Sales					49	11.9
HR/Finance					27	6.6
Tech Support/RD					71	17.2
Admin/Front Line					104	25.2
Age	36.88	10.342	.854	.418	412	
Tenure	12.69	9.649	1.106	1.053	412	
Mindfulness	2.024	.724	.439	-.750	412	
Interactions					412	
Mind*Age	73.032	29.186	.716	.281	412	
Mind*Gender	.990	1.121	.613	-.986	412	
Mind*Sales	.239	.705	3.043	8.403	412	
Mind*Job Type	1.094	1.133	.441	-1.199		
Mind*Ethnicity	.369	.829	2.125	3.252		
Harassment	1.276	.536	2.641	6.256	412	
IJP	1.291	.566	2.461	6.034	412	
Theft	1.223	.514	2.884	7.832	412	
Absenteeism	1.573	.659	1.433	1.726	412	
OCB	3.714	.650	-.248	-.397	412	

Note. N = 412.

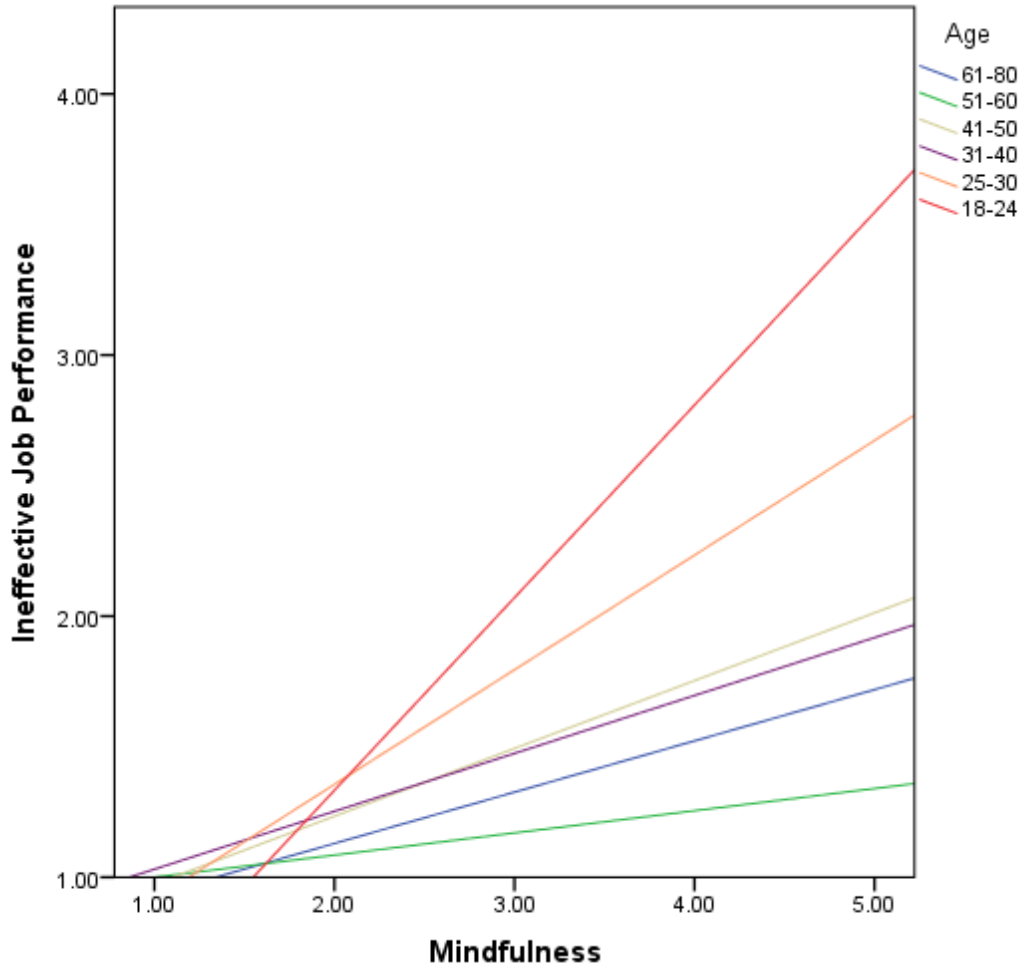


Figure 1a. Effect of Perceptions of Mindfulness and Age on Levels of Ineffective Job Performance as trend lines.

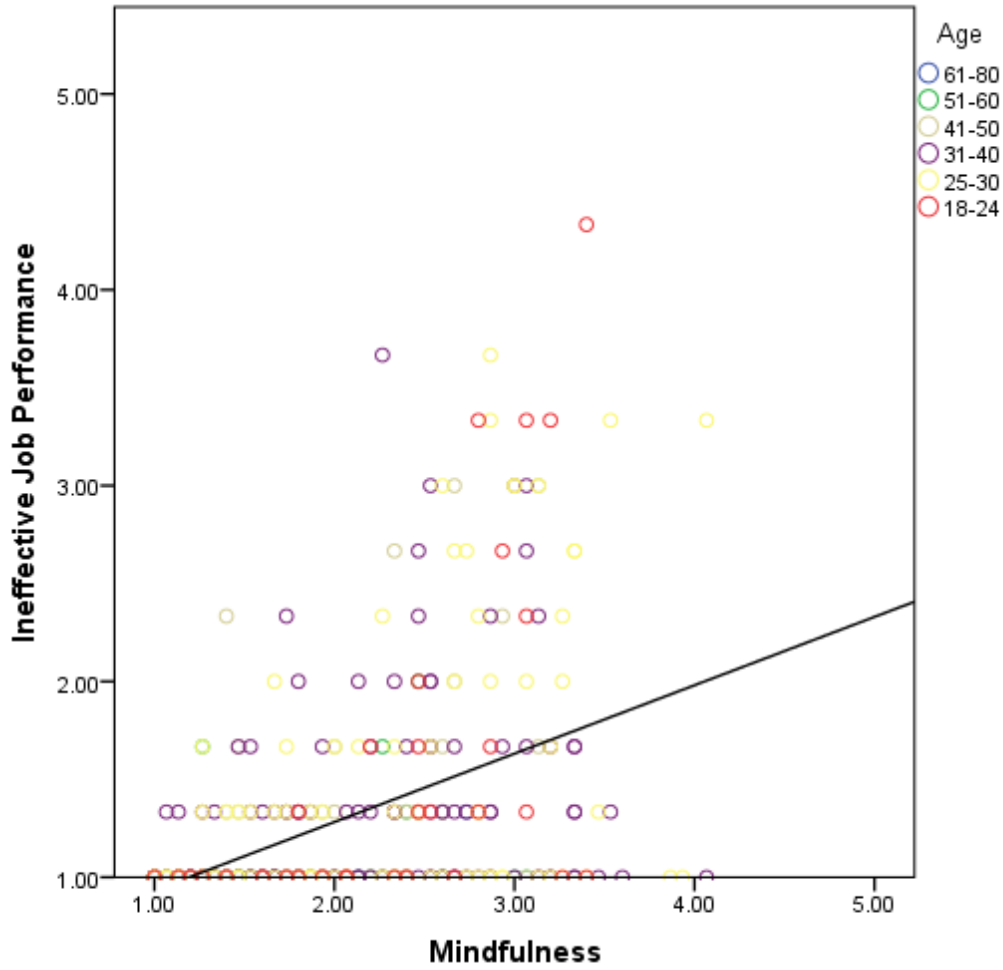


Figure 1b. Effect of Perceptions of Mindfulness and Age on Levels of Ineffective Job Performance as scatter.

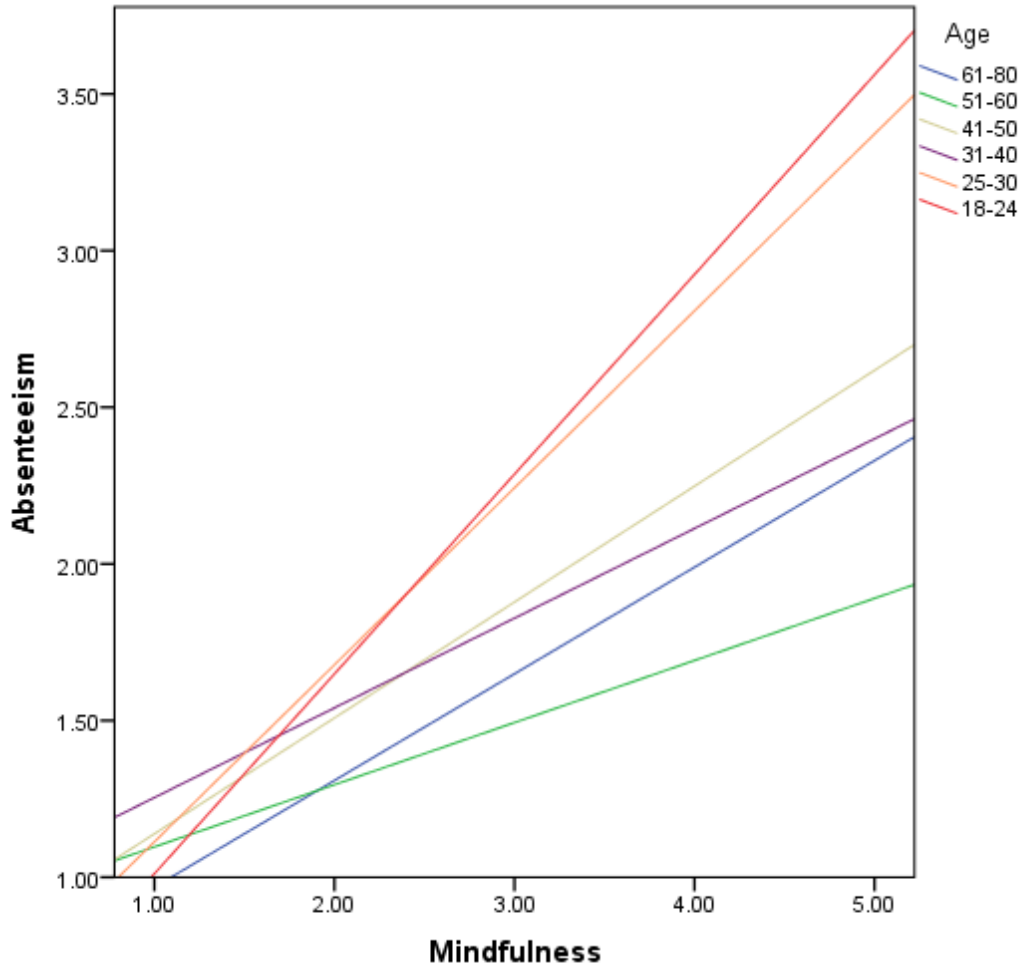


Figure 2a. Effect of Perceptions of Mindfulness and Age on Levels of Absenteeism as trend lines

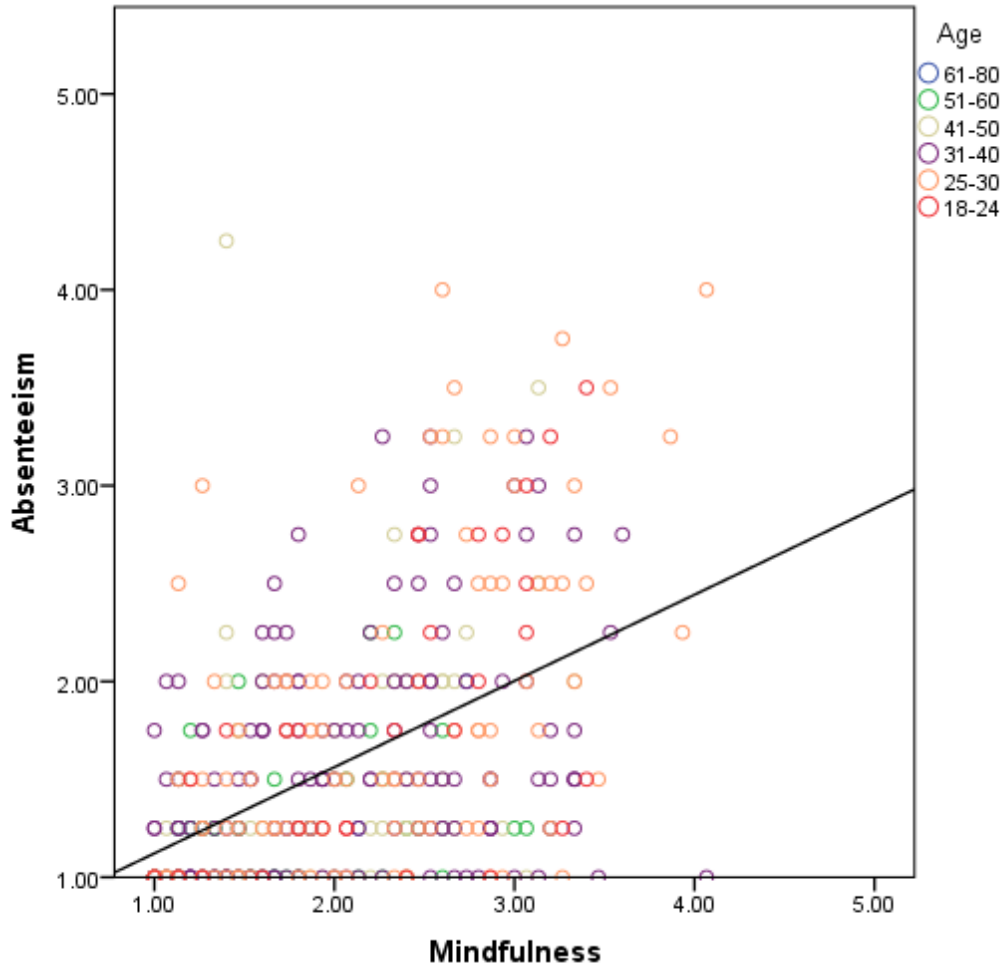


Figure 2b. Effect of Perceptions of Mindfulness and Age on Levels of Absenteeism as scatter.

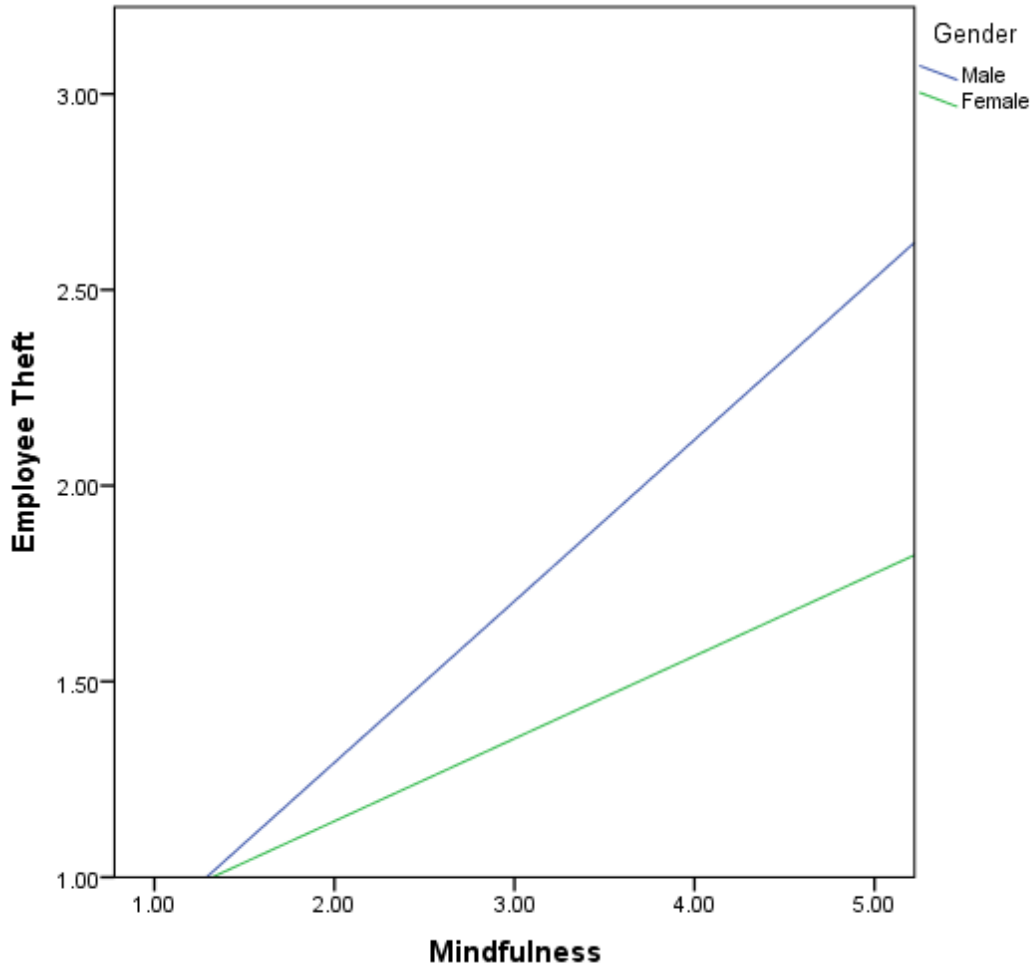


Figure 3a. Effect of Perceptions of Mindfulness and Gender on Levels of Employee Theft as trend lines

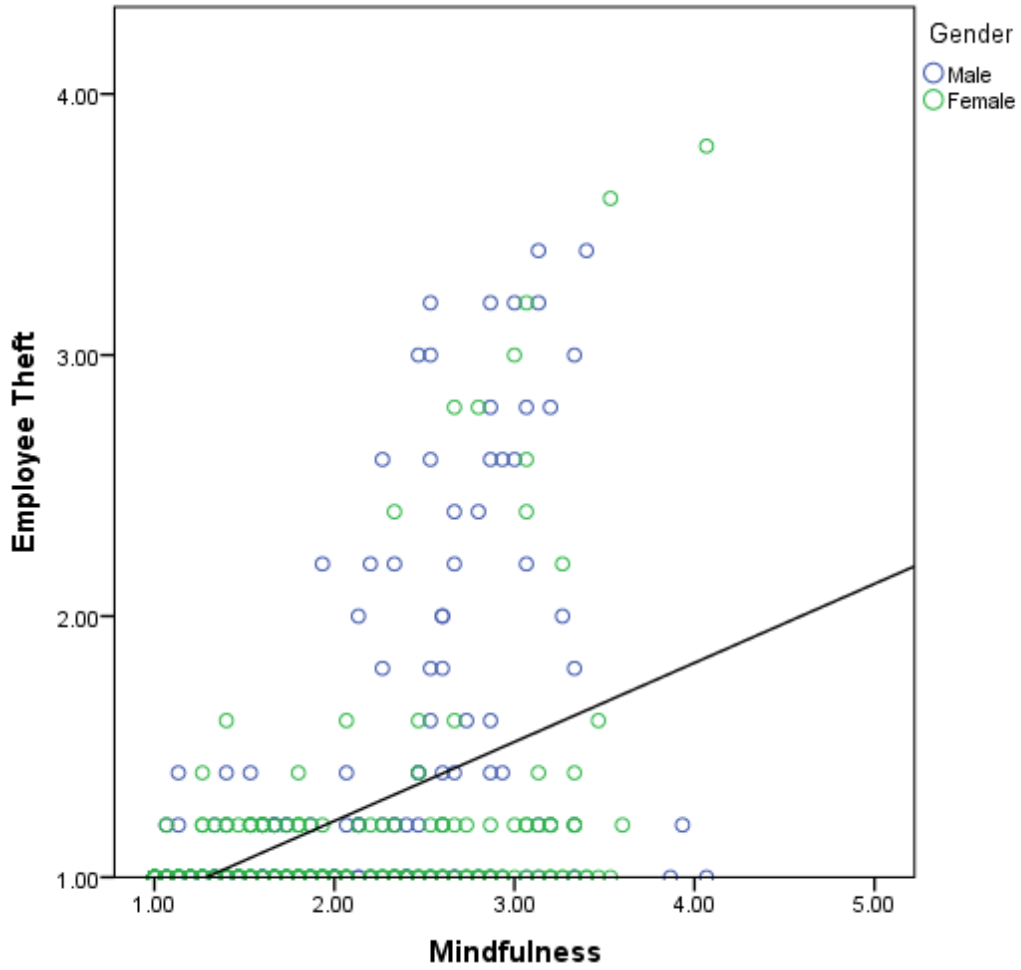


Figure 3b. Effect of Perceptions of Mindfulness and Gender on Levels of Employee Theft as scatter.

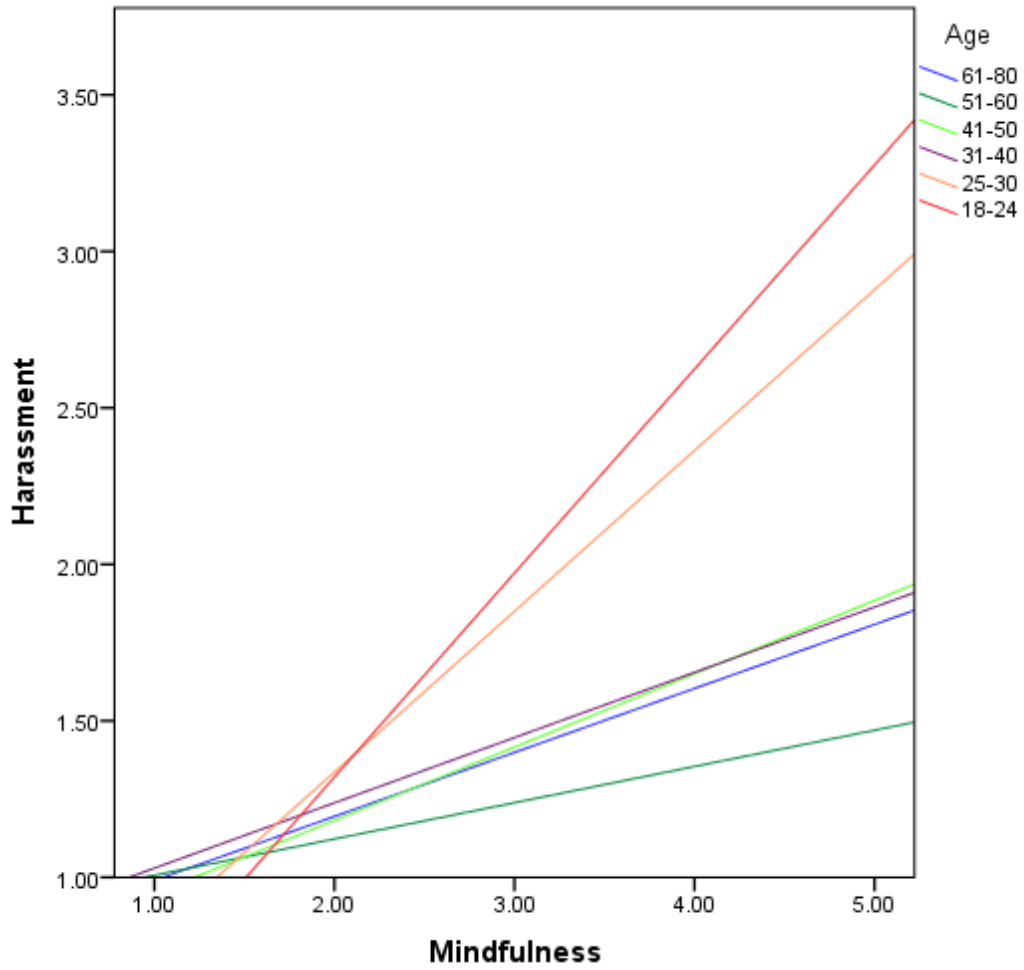


Figure 4a. Effect of Perceptions of Mindfulness and Age on Levels of Workplace Harassment as trend lines

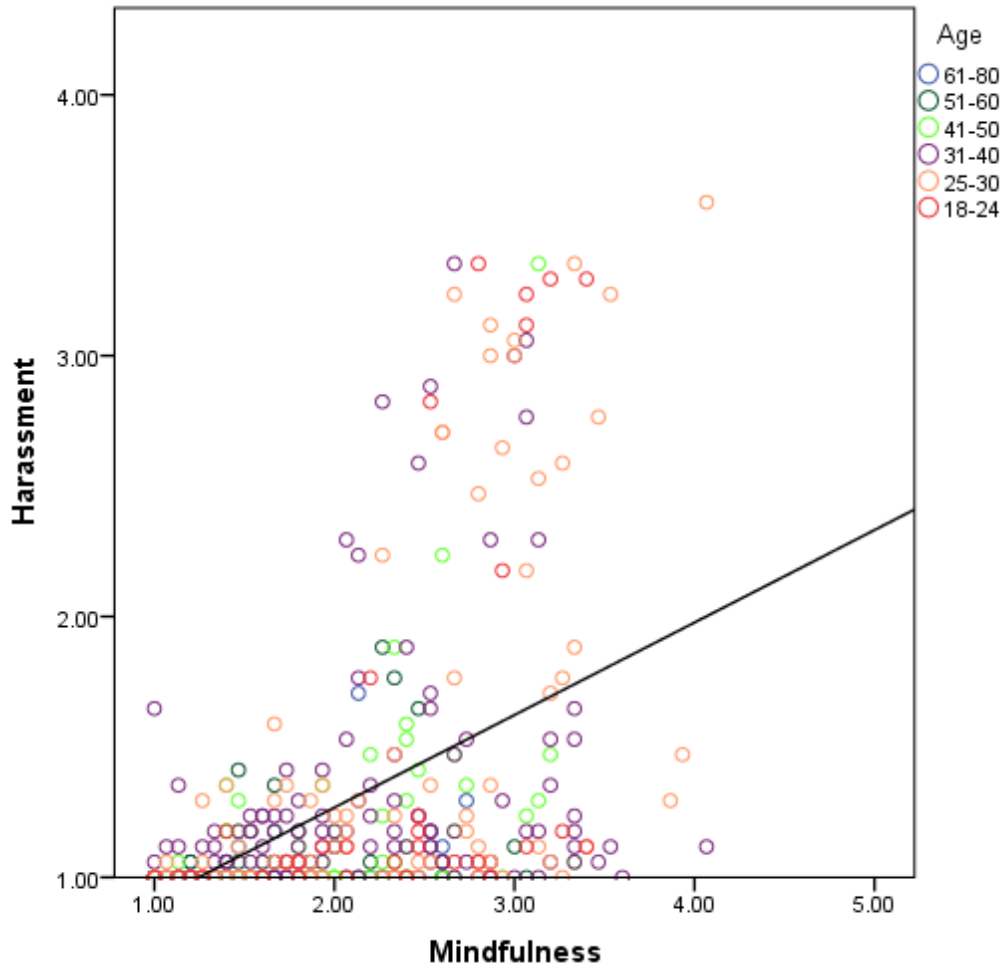


Figure 4b. Effect of Perceptions of Mindfulness and Age on Levels of Workplace Harassment as scatter.

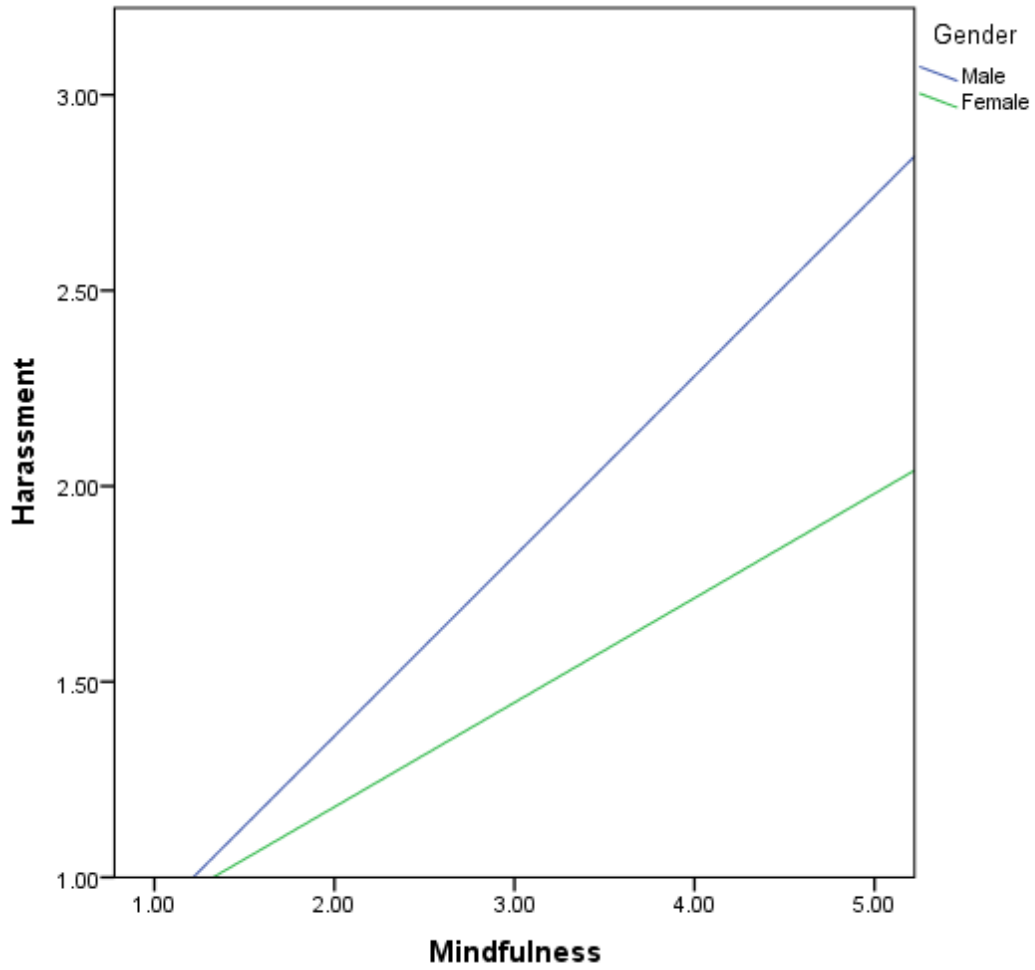


Figure 5a. Effect of Perceptions of Mindfulness and Gender on Levels of Workplace Harassment as trend lines

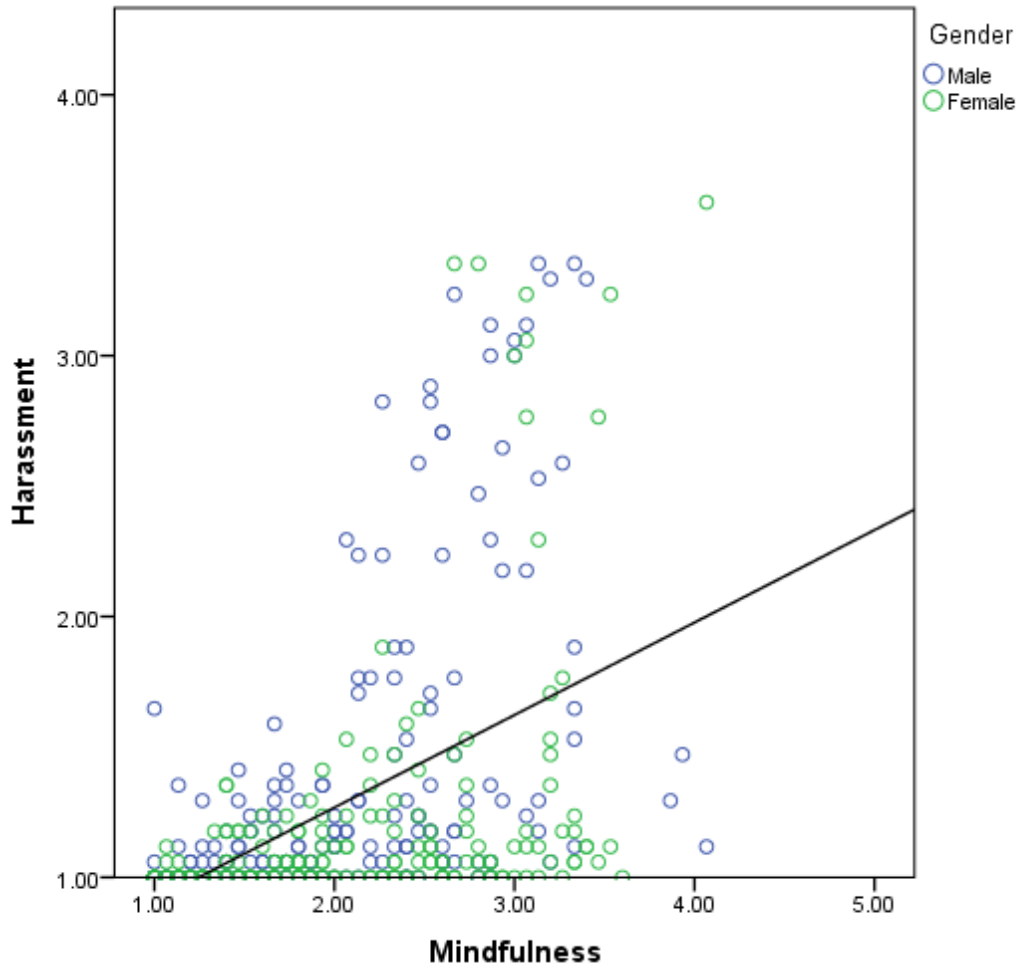


Figure 5b. Effect of Perceptions of Mindfulness and Gender on Levels of Workplace Harassment as scatter.

Appendix A

Mindfulness Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS).

1. I could be experiencing some emotion and not be conscious of it until sometime later.
 2. I break or spill things because of carelessness, not paying attention, or thinking of something else.
 3. I find it difficult to stay focused on what's happening in the present.
 4. I tend to walk quickly to get where I'm going without paying attention to what I experience along the way.
 5. I tend not to notice feelings of physical tension or discomfort until they grab my attention.
 6. I forget a person's name almost as soon as I've been told it for the first time.
 7. It seems I am "running on automatic" without much awareness of what I'm doing.
 8. I rush through activities without being attentive to them
 9. I get so focused on the goal I want to achieve that I lose touch with what I am doing right now to get there.
 10. I do jobs or tasks automatically, without being aware of what I'm doing.
 11. I find myself listening to someone with one ear, doing something else at the same time.
 12. I drive places on "automatic pilot" and then wonder why I went there
 13. I find myself preoccupied with the future or the past.
 14. I find myself doing things without paying attention.
 15. I snack without being aware that I'm eating.
-

Note. In Brown & Ryan's (2003) scale, items were introduced by the following: "Below is a collection of statements about your everyday experience. Using the 1–5 scale below, please indicate how frequently or infrequently you currently have each experience. Please answer according to what *really reflects* your experience rather than what you think your experience should be." The accompanying 5-point scale was (1) *almost never*, (2) *often*, (3) *somewhat frequently*, (4) *very frequently*, and (5) *almost always*. This study will present the same preamble to participants before they fill out this portion of the survey.

Appendix B

Deviant Workplace Behavior Scale (Counterproductive Workplace Behavior Scale; CWB)

1. Worked on a personal matter instead of work for your employer
 2. Taken property from work without permission
 3. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working
 4. Made fun of someone at work
 5. Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses
 6. Said something hurtful to someone at work
 7. Taken an additional or a longer break than is acceptable at your workplace
 8. Repeated a rumor or gossip about your company
 9. Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark or joke at work
 10. Come in late to work without permission
 11. Littered your work environment
 12. Cursed at someone at work
 13. Called in sick when you were not
 14. Told someone about the lousy place where you work
 15. Lost your temper while at work
 16. Neglected to follow your boss's instructions
 17. Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked
 18. Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person
 19. Left work early without permission
 20. Played a mean prank on someone at work
 21. Left your work for someone else to finish
 22. Acted rudely toward someone at work
 23. Repeated a rumor or gossip about your boss or coworkers
 24. Made an obscene comment at work
 25. Put little effort into your work
 26. Publicly embarrassed someone at work
 27. Dragged out work in order to get overtime
-

Note. In Bennett & Robinson's (2000) scale, items were introduced by the following: "Please indicate the extent to which you have engaged in each of the behaviors in the last year" The accompanying 5-point scale ranged from (1) *never* to and (5) *daily*. This study presented the same preamble to participants before they filled out this portion of the survey. The scale was presented ranging from (1) *almost never*, (2) *often*, (3) *somewhat frequently*, (4) *very frequently*, to (5) *almost always*. Harassment items were 5, 6, 11, 12, 16, 17, 18, 20-29. IJP items were 1, 7, 9. Employee theft items were 4, 13, 14, 15, 19. Absenteeism items were 2, 3, 8, 10.

Appendix C

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCB)

1. *Consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.
 2. *Always focus on what's wrong rather than on the positive side.
 3. *Tend to make "mountains out of molehills".
 4. *Always find fault with what the group is doing.
 5. *Am the classic squeaky wheel that always needs greasing.
 6. Take steps to try to prevent problems with other members.
 7. Am mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs within the group.
 8. Do not abuse the rights of others.
 9. Try to avoid creating problems for other members.
 10. Consider the impact of my actions on other members.
 11. Help others who have been absent.
 12. Help others who have heavy workloads.
 13. Help orient new people even though it is not required.
 14. Willingly help others who have work related problems.
 15. Am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him or her
 16. Attendance at work is above the norm
 17. Do not take extra breaks
 18. Obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching
 19. Am one of the most conscientious employees
 20. Believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay
 21. Attend meetings that re not mandatory, but are considered important
 22. Attend functions that are not required, but are considered important
 23. Keep abreast of changes in the organization
 24. Read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on.
-

Note. In Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) scale, items were assessed using the traditional 5-point scale; this study presented the scale ranging from (1) *almost never*, (2) *often*, (3) *somewhat frequently*, (4) *very frequently*, to (5) *almost always*. (*)s indicate items that need to be reverse scored before analysis.