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Abstract:	In this paper, we develop and test theory to explain how employees' perceptions of supervisor justice behavior are subjectively influenced by optimistic and pessimistic states. We propose that state affect gives rise to optimistic and pessimistic states, which color justice perceptions and impact performance behaviors (i.e., task performance, citizenship behavior, counterproductive behavior). Results from an experience sampling study and a set of experimental studies showed that state positive affect fosters an optimistic state that promotes perceptions of justice rule adherence, which influences task performance and citizenship behavior, whereas state negative affect promotes a pessimistic state that promotes perceptions of justice rule violation, which influences counterproductive behavior. Interestingly, state affect did not have a direct relationship with justice perceptions, which points to a new perspective on affect and justice.

Seeing the Glass as Half Full or Empty: The Role of Affect-Induced Optimistic and Pessimistic States on Justice Perceptions and Outcomes

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SEEING THE GLASS AS HALF FULL OR EMPTY: THE ROLE OF AFFECT-INDUCED OPTIMISTIC AND PESSIMISTIC STATES ON JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS AND OUTCOMES

ABSTRACT

In this paper, we develop and test theory to explain how employees' perceptions of supervisor justice behavior are subjectively influenced by optimistic and pessimistic states. We propose that state affect gives rise to optimistic and pessimistic states, which color justice perceptions and impact performance behaviors (i.e., task performance, citizenship behavior, counterproductive behavior). Results from an experience sampling study and a set of experimental studies showed that state positive affect fosters an optimistic state that promotes perceptions of justice rule adherence, which influences task performance and citizenship behavior, whereas state negative affect promotes a pessimistic state that promotes perceptions of justice rule violation, which influences counterproductive behavior. Interestingly, state affect did not have a direct relationship with justice perceptions, which points to a new perspective on affect and justice.

Justice perceptions are the cornerstone of employees' daily work lives (Cohen, 1986). Decades of research has shown that employees care about whether supervisors adhere to or violate rules of appropriateness. In particular, employees are sensitive to how authorities distribute work outcomes (i.e., distributive justice; Adams, 1965), the procedures used to determine those outcomes (i.e., procedural justice; Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975), the justifications communicated about outcomes (i.e., informational justice; Bies & Moag, 1986; Greenberg, 1993), and whether authorities treat them with respect (i.e., interpersonal justice; Bies & Moag, 1986; Greenberg, 1993). Employee justice perceptions are, thus, comprised of *justice rule adherence* perceptions (defined as the extent to which employees perceive supervisor behaviors conform to rules of appropriateness in decision contexts), and *justice rule violation* perceptions (defined as the extent to which employees perceive supervisor behaviors breach rules of appropriateness in decision contexts; Scott, Colquitt, & Paddock, 2009).

Scholars have long held that justice is in the "eye of the beholder" (Greenberg, Bies, & Eskew, 1991). This assumption implies that employees have unique ways of viewing justice-relevant supervisor behavior. These unique perspectives are consequential because employees'

justice perceptions impact their behaviors, particularly their task performance, citizenship, and counterproductive behavior (Colquitt et al., 2013). Thus, it is critical to understand the factors that may influence employees' perceptions that their supervisors have adhered to or violated justice rules. To this end, scholars have identified various employee factors that may impact their justice perceptions, such as affect, traits, and individual differences (e.g., Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Barsky, Kaplan, & Beal, 2011; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 1991; Colquitt, Zipay, Lynch, & Outlaw, 2018; van den Bos, 2003).

Yet, even with this research on factors related to justice, our understanding of how these employee factors impact justice perceptions remains unclear. For instance, if scholars presume that justice is in "eye of the beholder," then this suggests that employees' perceptions of justice are shaped by a perceptual lens through which they view and understand supervisor behaviors. In other words, there is a perceptual frame—a cognitive mechanism—that informs the way employees process justice-relevant information. This perceptual lens is the beholder's "eye." That said, perceiver factors, such as affect, are not themselves cognitive lenses through which employees process information. Rather, these factors are distal proxies that potentially influence the perceiver's cognitive frame. Thus, what exactly are the cognitive lenses that frame how employees makes sense of justice information and how their justice perceptions are subjectively shaped beyond the influence of supervisor behavior?

We develop and test a theoretical model that elucidates the lenses through which employees view and interpret supervisor justice behavior. Drawing from Carver and Scheier's (1998) theory, we argue that *state affect* (short-term positive or negative feeling episodes; Watson & Clark, 1994; Watson & Tellegen, 1985) fosters valence-congruent, generalized experiences of positive and negative expectations, or *optimistic* and *pessimistic states* (Carver &

Scheier, 1998). We propose that optimistic and pessimistic states are lenses through which employees view supervisor behavior and that color employees' perceptions of justice rule adherence or violation. Subsequently, employees' justice perceptions influence their performance behaviors (i.e., task performance, citizenship behavior, counterproductive behavior). We test our theory in two studies—one using a daily experience sampling design, which is ideal for capturing the dynamic effects of fluctuating states (Beal, 2015), and the other using an experimental design, which is ideal for strengthening causal inferences (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002).

This paper makes several contributions to the literature. First, we establish the way in which employees' justice perceptions are subjectively influenced. Although assumed, this notion is undeveloped theoretically and unexamined empirically. For instance, though research has examined factors that may play a role in this subjective influence (e.g., Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Barsky et al., 2011; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 1991; Colquitt et al., 2018; van den Bos, 2003), it has yet to offer theory elucidating the perceptual lenses that underly this influence on justice perceptions. Thus, our theoretical understanding of *how* justice perceptions are shaped by certain perceiver factors is unclear. To address this issue, we develop theory to explain how optimistic and pessimistic states serve as the "eye" of the beholder, and thereby influence justice perceptions. In doing so, our work extends the literature by offering insight into the affect-laden cognitive processes that impact the complex processing of justice information. Overall, our theorizing provides insight into how employees view and interpret supervisor behavior to form justice perceptions.

Second, we extend the literature by integrating Carver and Scheier's (1998) optimism and pessimism framework into the justice literature. Prior research on optimism and pessimism has

primarily focused on well-being outcomes and health contexts (e.g., Brissette, Scheier, & Carver, 2002; Carver, Lehman, & Antoni, 2003; Kubzansky, Kubzansky, & Maselko, 2004; Scheier & Carver, 2018). We introduce Carver and Scheier's (1998) theorizing into the justice literature to elucidate how employees view supervisor behavior and arrive at perceptions of justice rule adherence or violation. Our theorizing suggests that optimistic and pessimistic states act as lenses through which employees interpret informational cues, specifically their supervisor's justice-relevant behavior. As such, our work offers a new perspective on the effects of optimism and pessimism in the workplace and new insight into how justice perceptions are shaped.

Third, we contribute to the literature on optimism and pessimism by theorizing and testing these constructs as states. Optimism and pessimism have been predominantly conceptualized in the literature as dispositional traits (e.g., Carver et al., 2003; Kubzansky et al., 2004; Robinson-Whelen, Kim, MacCallum, & Kiecolt-Glaser, 1997). Our work extends Carver and Scheier's (1998) theory to propose that optimistic and pessimistic states shape how employees interpret supervisor behavior and inform their perceptions of justice. Moreover, we develop and provide validity evidence for scale measures of optimistic and pessimistic states that are ideal for capturing the episodic nature of these experiences. Guided by Carver and Scheier's (1998) conceptualization, we operationalize optimistic and pessimistic states as distinct concepts versus ends of a single continuum by developing and validating separate measures for each, instead of using an optimism measure and categorizing lower ratings as pessimism.

THEORY DEVELOPMENT

The perspective that justice is in the "eye of the beholder" implies that employees may observe the same supervisor behavior but arrive at different conclusions about whether that behavior adhered to or violated justice rules. The underlying assumption is that perceivers view justice-relevant behavior through unique lenses that color the way they interpret and understand

it. Research has provided initial support for this assumption by showing that employees' justice perceptions are influenced by factors outside of supervisor behavior, specifically factors that originate with perceivers (e.g., Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Barsky et al., 2011; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 1991; Colquitt et al., 2018; van den Bos, 2003). Surprisingly, these perceiver factors offer limited insight into the beholder's perspective, primarily because they do not capture the unique cognitive lenses or cognitions through which perceivers view and understand supervisor behavior. For instance, Barsky and Kaplan's (2007) meta-analysis is the primary research linking affect to justice, positioning affect as an antecedent of justice perceptions. Although they established bivariate associations between trait and state affect and justice perceptions, they concluded that "more systematic programs of research attempting to explicate the temporal ordering and theoretical mechanisms underlying the affect-justice relationship are essential" (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007: 292). This example highlights why perceiver-focused factors, such as affect, may be more appropriately characterized as proxies for the perceptual lenses that actually shapes justice perceptions. Thus, research is still needed to understand how such factors influence the way employees perceive supervisor justice behavior.

Drawing from Carver and Scheier's (1998) framework, we develop theory that explains how employees' justice perceptions are subjectively influenced. Carver and Scheier's (1998) theory describes how affect gives rise to valence-congruent expectations that ultimately direct behavior. They posit that instances of positive and negative affect accumulate over time and generate stable tendencies to expect positive or negative future occurrences. Optimism is conceptualized as a general tendency to believe that good things will happen, and pessimism is a tendency to expect that bad things will occur (Carver & Scheier, 1998). The theory proposes that these positive and negative expectations subsequently motivate functional and dysfunctional

behavioral responses. They argue that optimistic and pessimistic individuals tend to view situations and events through the lenses of their respective expectations, which directs their behavioral reactions—optimism promotes effort towards positive outcomes, whereas pessimism prompts effort to mitigate negative outcomes.

We believe Carver and Scheier's (1998) theorizing provides an optimal framework for understanding the lenses through which employees view and interpret justice behavior for two main reasons. First, justice perceptions are complex. Justice perceptions are based on multifaceted rules that may be observed through an unlimited number of supervisor decisions and behaviors (Colquitt & Shaw, 2005; Colquitt & Rodell, 2015). Carver and Scheier's (1998) theory is fitting because it proposes that affect-driven expectations cut through complexities and prompt an automaticity in evaluative processing. Second, expectations are at the core of both Carver and Scheier's (1998) theory and perceptions of justice. Indeed, employees' expectations frame the way they process justice-relevant experiences (Bell, Ryan, & Wiechmann, 2004; Bell, Wiechmann, & Ryan, 2006; Rodell & Colquitt, 2009; Shapiro & Kirkman, 2001). We argue that affect-induced expectations—specifically, optimistic and pessimistic states—serve as a critical link between employees' affective state and their perceptions of justice, and that this influence occurs in a manner that is consistent with their affective valence.

In developing our theory, we extend Carver and Scheier's (1998) framework by conceptualizing optimism and pessimism as states—momentary experiences that fluctuate over short time horizons. Optimism and pessimism have been predominantly examined in the literature as stable traits, or general tendencies toward positive or negative expectations about the future (e.g., Carver et al., 2003; Kubzansky et al., 2004; Robinson-Whelen et al., 1997). Although research suggests long-term stability in optimistic and pessimistic tendencies, we posit

that optimistic and pessimistic beliefs may also vary in the short-term. For instance, when aggregating experiences over time, a person may be generally described as more optimistic and less pessimistic. However, from one day to the next, the same person may experience less optimism and more pessimism than their general tendency. Thus, although optimism and pessimism may be described as stable traits, they can also be viewed from the perspective of episodic states. Indeed, given the dynamic fluctuation in affect over short time horizons (McCormick, Reeves, Downes, Li, & Ilies, 2018; Podsakoff, Spoelma, Chawla, & Gabriel, 2019), it follows that optimism and pessimism may vary in a similar episodic fashion. By examining them as states, we are able to shed light on factors that give rise to episodic fluctuations in optimism and pessimism, as well as, the subsequent effects that these fluctuations have on workplace perceptions, specifically perceptions of justice.

Carver and Scheier (1998) propose that optimism and pessimism are the result of affective states. Affective states are typically described in terms of valence, as either positive or negative (Watson & Clark, 1994; Watson & Tellegen, 1985). A positive affective state is characterized by feelings of excitement, inspiration, and alertness. A negative affective state is marked by feelings of upset, irritability, and nervousness. State affect describes a short-term feeling episode that is particularly impactful because it is transient in nature yet able to be sensed by those who experience it. Although the origins of affective states are not always easily traced, individuals have a general sense of how these states make them feel. State positive affect generally makes individuals feel good, whereas state negative affect makes them feel bad.

Building on Carver and Scheier's (1998) theorizing, we argue that employees' state affect gives rise to optimistic and pessimistic states by influencing information processing. Affective states produce thoughts and expectations that are valence-congruent (Mayer, Gaschke,

Braverman, & Evans, 1992). In addition to thoughts about current situations or events, people also engage in prospective thought about what will occur in the future (Baumeister, Vohs, & Oettingen, 2016). Thus, affective states influence present- and future-focused cognitive content. Positive feelings trigger good thoughts about the present and future, whereas negative feelings trigger bad thoughts. Accordingly, we posit that state positive affect will produce a state of optimism and state negative affect will give rise to a state of pessimism.

Research provides indirect support for our theorizing. This research has shown an association between a positive affective state and optimistic predictions, as well as, an association between a negative affective state and pessimistic predictions (e.g., Forgas & Moylan, 1987; Marshall, Wortman, Kusulas, Hervig, & Vickers, 1992; Wright & Bower, 1992). Therefore, we propose that employees' state positive affect will foster a "glass half full" outlook, or an optimistic state, and employees' state negative affect will prompt a "glass half empty" outlook, or a pessimistic state.

Hypothesis 1. State positive affect is positively related to an optimistic state.

Hypothesis 2. State negative affect is positively related to a pessimistic state.

Next, we posit that states of optimism and pessimism shape employees' justice perceptions by filtering how they view and interpret supervisor behavior. Specifically, we theorize that optimistic and pessimistic states are lenses through which information is managed and assessed. An optimistic state is marked by a positive outlook about the future, whereas a pessimistic state points to a negative outlook. Notably, optimistic and pessimistic states represent generalized expectations about the future at a point in time. That is to say, the positive and negative expectations inherent in these states are not directed toward a particular event or situation. Instead, they are broad viewpoints that the future, in general, is likely to be good or

bad.

The generalized expectations that are fundamental to employees' optimistic and pessimistic states inform their specific expectations about situations in the future, including interactions with their supervisor. Employees' broad positive and negative expectations serve as lenses that color how they view interactions with their supervisor regarding distributions, procedures, information, and interpersonal treatment in a manner that is consistent with the valence of their expectations (Abend & Williams, 2002; Shapiro & Kirkman, 2001; Smith, Ruiz, Cundiff, Baron, & Nealey-Moore, 2013). Justice-relevant interactions with supervisors, then, are viewed in a light that is consistent with their generalized expectations at that time. This aligns with research suggesting that individuals interpret justice-relevant information in a manner that is consistent with their expectations (Bell et al., 2006; Rodell & Colquitt, 2009). Therefore, employees' optimistic state prompts them to see supervisor behavior in a positive light. As such, they will be inclined to judge that behavior as adhering to justice rules. Conversely, employees' pessimistic state triggers them to view the same supervisor behavior in a negative light, and, consequently, perceive the behavior as violating justice rules.

To illustrate, consider an employee interacting with their supervisor about a decision outcome, at which time the supervisor provides a brief explanation of their decision-making process. Although a brief explanation may be seen in a positive or negative light when one considers justice rules, an optimistic outlook may incline the employee to view the supervisor's brief explanation as efficient, timely communication that adheres to rules of informational justice (Colquitt, 2001; Shapiro, Buttner, & Barry, 1994), whereas a pessimistic outlook may prompt the employee to view the same brief explanation as veiled, generic information that violates those informational justice rules (Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt, 2001). As another example, imagine

an employee listening to their supervisor explain the procedures used to make a decision and the supervisor indicates that some employees' opinions will be solicited. Though, again, this procedure may be viewed positively or negatively in relation to justice rules, an employee experiencing a state of optimism may view it as an open, receptive process that adheres to rules of procedural justice (Colquitt, 2001; Thibaut & Walker, 1975), whereas experiencing a pessimistic state may trigger the employee to view this procedure as inconsistent, biased, and violating procedural justice rules (Colquitt, 2001; Leventhal, 1980).

In sum, employees' expectations trigger congruent interpretations of supervisor behavior, which shape their justice perceptions. Therefore, we predict that employees' optimistic state will promote perceptions of justice rule adherence, and employees' pessimistic state will promote perceptions of justice rule violation.

Hypothesis 3. An optimistic state is positively related to justice rule adherence perceptions.

Hypothesis 4. A pessimistic state is positively related to justice rule violation perceptions.

We further propose that employees' justice perceptions influence behavioral reactions, specifically job performance. Job performance behaviors are employee contributions that promote organizational goals. Rotundo and Sackett (2002) demonstrated that three types of job performance behaviors effectively contribute to organizational goals: task performance, citizenship, and counterproductive behaviors. *Task performance* is behavior that is fundamental to core job tasks and contributes to organizational effectiveness (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). *Citizenship behavior* is an act that impacts organizational goals by contributing to the social and psychological environment (Organ, 1997). *Counterproductive behavior* is a discretionary act that harms the organization and/or its members (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Employees' perceptions of justice influence their performance behaviors by prompting a

reciprocity motive. Employees react to their perceptions of supervisor justice rule adherence or violation "in kind" by engaging in congruent behaviors that are either beneficial or detrimental to their supervisor and organization (Blau, 1964; Colquitt et al., 2015; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Supervisor justice behaviors provide employees with information about whether they will be advantaged or disadvantaged in organizations, and also provide signals about their interpersonal relationship with their supervisor. A supervisor's adherence to justice rules toward an employee is seen as positive and desirable, and signals to the employee that they are in good standing with the supervisor. However, a supervisor's violation of justice rules toward an employee is seen as bad and unfavorable, and signals that the employee is on bad terms with the supervisor. Accordingly, employees who perceive their supervisor has adhered to justice rules will reciprocate this beneficial treatment by enhancing their performance behaviors, whereas employees who perceive their supervisor has violated justice rules will reciprocate this harmful treatment by reducing their performance behaviors.

Research provides support for our predictions, showing that justice rule adherence is positively related to task performance, citizenship behavior, and negatively related to counterproductive behavior (Colquitt et al., 2013). Therefore, we predict that employees' perceptions of justice rule adherence will promote job performance behaviors that are beneficial to the organization and employees' perceptions of justice rule violation will prompt job performance behaviors that are harmful to the organization.

Hypothesis 5. Perceptions of justice rule adherence are positively related to (a) task performance and (b) citizenship behavior, and negatively related to (c) counterproductive behavior.

Hypothesis 6. Perceptions of justice rule violation are negatively related to (a) task performance and (b) citizenship behavior, and positively related to (c) counterproductive behavior.

Overall, we predict that employees' affective state will indirectly influence their job performance by triggering a state of optimism or pessimism that colors their justice perceptions. Affective states foster valence-congruent expectations that influence behaviors, such that positive expectations promote engaged, active efforts and negative expectations promote a withdrawal of effort (Carver & Scheier, 1998; Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 2001). We extend this theorizing by proposing that affect-driven expectations shape justice perceptions, which serve as information to employees about whether they are moving toward a desired or undesired end state, thus impacting their performance-relevant behavioral reactions. Perceptions of justice rule adherence signal progress toward a favorable outcome, motivating employees to work harder to attain it. Perceptions of justice rule violation signal an unfavorable outcome, prompting employees to withdraw effort because that effort seems futile. Indeed, research has shown that optimism is associated with positive interpretations and active behaviors, whereas pessimism is associated with negative interpretations and withdrawal behaviors (Chang, 1998). Accordingly, we propose that employees' affective state will elicit an optimistic or pessimistic state that shapes their justice perceptions, which subsequently motivates them to exert more effort or withdraw.

Research provides suggestive support for the indirect effects of state affect on performance behaviors. For example, Dalal et al. (2009) showed that affective states influence citizenship and counterproductive behaviors. Further, Miner and Glomb (2010) demonstrated that mood influences task performance. Overall, we predict that state positive affect will indirectly influence employee performance behaviors through an optimistic state and perceptions of justice rule adherence and state negative affect will indirectly influence employee performance behaviors through a pessimistic state and perceptions of justice rule violation.

Hypothesis 7. State positive affect has a positive indirect effect on (a) task performance and (b) citizenship behavior and negative indirect effect on (c) counterproductive behavior, partially mediated by an optimistic state and perceptions of justice rule adherence.

Hypothesis 8. State negative affect has a negative indirect effect on (a) task performance and (b) citizenship behavior and positive indirect effect on (c) counterproductive behavior, partially mediated by a pessimistic state and perceptions of justice rule violation.

STUDY 1 METHOD

Sample and Procedure

We recruited participants for our experience sampling methodology (ESM) study from a university alumni panel and online ads. To participate, individuals had to be employed full-time, report to a supervisor, and provide the name and contact information for one of their coworkers who reported to the same supervisor. A total of 197 focal employees and their coworkers were eligible to participate. Of these, 126 employees and their coworkers each completed a one-time registration survey that enrolled them in the daily portion of the study. Employees were asked to complete three surveys per day across 10 workdays, and their coworkers were asked to complete one end-of-workday survey per day over the same 10-day period. The first employee survey, distributed at the start of the workday at 7:30 a.m., assessed state affect and was, on average, completed at 8:35 a.m.[1] The second employee survey, distributed at the middle of the workday (i.e., before or during lunch) at 11:30 a.m., assessed optimistic and pessimistic states and, on average, was completed at 12:18 p.m. The third employee survey, distributed at the end of the workday at 4:00 p.m., assessed justice rule adherence and violation and, on average, was completed at 5:04 p.m. The coworker survey, distributed at the end of the workday at 4:00 p.m., assessed focal employee job performance and, on average, was completed at 5:30 p.m. Each

[1] We measured state affect at the start of the workday (i.e., morning), as opposed to any other time, to diminish the potential influence of confounds that occur at work, such as affective events in the workplace that might influence state affect.

survey was closed prior to the distribution of the subsequent survey, and the end-of-workday surveys were closed three hours after distribution. Focal employees received $1 per completed daily survey, with a bonus of $2 per day for completing all three daily surveys and a $5 bonus for completing all of the surveys across the 10 days. Coworkers received $1 per completed daily survey and a $5 bonus per week for completing all five surveys each week.

Two focal employees and 14 coworkers did not participate in any of the daily surveys. We also excluded dyads for which data for the independent or mediating variable was missing. From the remaining 108 employee-coworker dyads, we retained dyads in which the focal employee completed all daily surveys for at least three days to ensure an appropriate number of data points to model our proposed relationships (e.g., Beal, Trougakos, Weiss, & Dalal, 2013; Gabriel, Koopman, Rosen, & Johnson, 2018).[2] Our final sample included 101 focal employee and coworker dyads and we obtained 873 usable observations (86.4% retention rate). The average number of observations per focal employee was 8.64. On average, focal employees were 36.61 years old (*SD* = 8.62) and coworkers were 36.53 years old (*SD* = 9.40). Focal employees worked at their company 5.25 years (*SD* = 4.90), with coworkers working at the company 5.14 years (*SD* = 4.98); 56.9% of the focal employees and 50.9% of the coworkers identified as female; 62.9% of the focal employees and 56.5% of the coworkers identified as Caucasian, and 61.4% of the focal employees and 72.4% of the coworkers held nonsupervisory positions. Participants worked in a variety of industries, such as manufacturing, finance, real estate, education, and healthcare.

[2] As an additional check for data quality in responding, we conducted a Grubbs test to detect outliers based on daily survey completion times for focal employees. Although three outliers were detected, with and without them included in our sample, our results are qualitatively unchanged and significance patterns remained the same. Therefore, we retained these three observations in our sample.

Measures

Following best practice recommendations for ESM (e.g., Bolger, Davis, & Rafaeli, 2003; Fisher & To, 2012; Gabriel et al., 2019), we used measures with fewer items to decrease the burden on participants and prevent fatigue. Where possible, we used shortened measures from published studies. If established measures were not available, we adapted measures to the daily context. Given the lack of measures designed specifically to capture the experience of an optimistic or pessimistic state in the literature, we developed and provided validity evidence for our new measures of optimistic state and pessimistic state for this study.[3]

State positive affect. We used the 10 positive affect items (e.g., excited) from the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) to measure state positive affect. Employees rated the extent to which they felt each positive affect item at that moment on a 5-point scale (1 = *very slightly or not at all*, 5 = *extremely*; $\alpha = .97$).

State negative affect. We used the 10 negative affect items (e.g., upset) from the PANAS (Watson et al., 1988) to measure state negative affect. Employees rated the extent to which they felt each negative affect item at that moment on a 5-point scale (1 = *very slightly or not at all*, 5 = *extremely*; $\alpha = .91$).

Optimistic state. We developed a 3-item optimistic state measure for this study and provided validity evidence using standard procedures (e.g., Hinkin & Tracey, 1999; see Appendix A). Employees rated their agreement with each item on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree,* 5 = *strongly agree*). The items were: "Today, because of the way that I'm feeling…" "I have seen the good side of things," "I have seen things in a positive light," and "I have seen the

[3] We report the complete measures used in our field and experimental studies, along with validity evidence for measures, supplemental analyses, experimental manipulations, and all other appendices on a free and open research collaboration website at https://osf.io/gzpvb/?view_only=e2cef41e7bff47b69ca7f88b3aae197c.

bright side of things" (α = .94).

Pessimistic state. We also developed a 3-item pessimistic state measure for this study and validity evidence was provided using standard procedures (e.g., Hinkin & Tracey, 1999; see Appendix A). Employees rated their agreement with each item on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree,* 5 = *strongly agree*). The items were: "Today, because of the way that I'm feeling…" "I have seen the bad side of things," "I have seen things in a negative light," and "I have seen the dark side of things" (α = .94).

Justice rule adherence. Following recommendations (e.g., Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Colquitt & Shaw, 2005) for assessing overall justice rule adherence, we used 12 items from Colquitt (2001)—three items for each dimension—to measure overall perceptions of justice rule adherence, based on measures used in past ESM research (i.e., Johnson, Lanaj, & Barnes, 2014; Loi, Yang, & Diefendorf, 2009). Sample items are: "Have those outcomes reflected the effort you put into your work?" (i.e., distributive justice), "Have those procedures been free of bias?" (i.e., procedural justice), "Has he/she communicated details in a timely manner?" (i.e., informational justice), and "Has he/she treated you with respect?" (i.e., interpersonal justice). Employees rated the extent to which their supervisor adhered to justice rules that day on a 5-point scale (1 = *to a very small extent*, 5 = *to a very large extent*; α = .93).

Justice rule violation. Like our perceptions of justice rule adherence measure, we used 12 injustice items—three items for each dimension—from Colquitt et al. (2015) to measure overall perceptions of justice rule violation, again, based on past ESM research (i.e., Johnson et al. 2014; Loi et al., 2009). Sample items are: "Have those outcomes contradicted what you have contributed to your work?" (i.e., distributive injustice), "Have those procedures been one-sided?" (i.e., procedural injustice), "Has he/she communicated details too slowly?" (i.e., informational

injustice), and "Has he/she treated you with disrespect?" (i.e., interpersonal injustice). Employees rated the extent to which their supervisor violated justice rules that day on a 5-point rating scale (1 = *to a very small extent*, 5 = *to a very large extent*; $\alpha = .95$).

Task performance. We used Griffin, Neal, and Parker's (2007) 3-item measure to assess task performance. Coworkers rated the focal employees' behavior (e.g., "My coworker has carried out the core parts of his/her job well") on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .91$).

Citizenship behavior. Citizenship behavior was assessed with a short version of Dalal et al.'s (2009) measure. To ensure that we used the most appropriate items to assess within-person variations in citizenship behavior, we followed best practice recommendations (e.g., Bolger et al., 2003; Fisher & To, 2012; Ohly et al., 2010) and conducted a pilot study to identify the items with the highest within-person factor loadings (see Appendix B). Coworkers rated focal employees' citizenship behavior with four items (e.g., "My coworker has tried to help another coworker") on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .90$).

Counterproductive behavior. As with citizenship behavior, we shortened Dalal et al.'s (2009) measure based on the four items that exhibited the highest within-person factor loadings in our pilot study (see Appendix B). Coworkers rated focal employees' counterproductive behavior (e.g., "My coworker has criticized another coworker's opinion or suggestion") on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .96$).

Controls. We controlled for the amount of sleep employees got each night and their daily hindrance stressors, as research indicates these factors influence employees' affective states, perceptions, and work behaviors (e.g., Barnes, 2012; Baumeister et al., 2016). At the start of each workday, employees reported the hours they slept the previous night. For anticipated

hindrance stressors, we used Rodell and Judge's (2009) measure. At the start of each workday, employees rated the items (e.g., "Today, I will have to go through a lot of red tape to get my job done") on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*; α = .92). Since we propose that affective states give rise to an optimistic or pessimistic state that may account for variation in justice perceptions beyond supervisor behavior, we controlled for supervisors' behavior using coworker ratings of supervisors' justice rule adherence and violation toward focal employees. Coworkers rated their perceptions with the same measures used to assess focal employee justice perceptions (coworker-rated justice rule adherence α = .95 and coworker-rated justice rule violation α = .97). Also, following ESM best practice recommendations (e.g., Beal, 2015), we controlled for lagged assessments of each endogenous construct from the prior workday (e.g., controlled for previous day employee perceptions of justice when predicting current day perceptions) to better establish our presumed causal ordering and demonstrate changes in each dependent variable from the previous day (e.g., Johnson et al., 2014; Scott & Barnes, 2011). We also controlled for generalized cyclical variation in daily states, perceptions, and behaviors by modelling the day of the week and the sine and cosine of this daily variable (e.g., Beal & Weiss, 2003; Gabriel et al., 2019). The results of our hypothesis tests are unchanged when control variables are not included, but we report the results including all controls to provide more robust support for our predictions.

STUDY 1 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

The means, standard deviations, reliabilities (averaged across days), and within-person correlations are presented in Table 1. The within-person correlation between optimistic state and pessimistic state was -.47, lending support for our conceptualization of these states as related, but distinct phenomena.

Insert Table 1 about here

Test of Measurement Model

We conducted a multilevel confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) by modeling state positive affect, state negative affect, optimistic state, pessimistic state, task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive behavior using uncentered item-level indicators at the within-person level. We modeled justice rule adherence perceptions at the within-person level using four first-order latent constructs (i.e., distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice rule adherence) as indicators of the second-order justice rule adherence factor (for a similar example, see Zhang, LePine, Buckman, & Wei, 2014), and justice rule violation perceptions using four first-order latent constructs (i.e., distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice rule violation) as indicators of the second-order justice rule violation factor at the within-person level. The results demonstrated that our 9-factor within-person model was a good fit for the data (χ^2 [1725] = 7389.62, $p < .001$; CFI = .90; RMSEA = .06; $SRMR_{within}$ = .07). We compared this 9-factor model to an 8-factor model in which justice rule adherence and violation were combined into a single factor (χ^2[1737] = 16675.00, $p < .001$; CFI = .73; RMSEA = .10; $SRMR_{within}$ = .11) and an 8-factor model in which optimistic and pessimistic state were combined into a single factor (χ^2[1733] = 9604.17, $p < .001$; CFI = .86; RMSEA = .07; $SRMR_{within}$ = .08). Overall, the 9-factor model was a better fit to the data than the 8-factor single justice rule model ($\Delta\chi^2$[12] = 9285.38, $p < .001$) or the 8-factor single optimistic-pessimistic state factor model ($\Delta\chi^2$[8] = 2214.55, $p < .001$).

Test of Hypotheses

Our data is comprised of daily observations nested within individuals, therefore, we used multilevel path analysis procedures with maximum likelihood estimation in Mplus 8 (Muthén &

Muthén, 2017). We first estimated a null model for each variable and the results demonstrated that all study constructs exhibited sufficient within-person variance to test our daily predictions: state positive affect = 25.7%, state negative affect = 35.5%, optimistic state = 49.3%, pessimistic state = 42.1%, justice rule adherence = 23.4%, justice rule violation = 23.4%, task performance = 45.1%, citizenship behavior = 46.8%, and counterproductive behavior = 41.4%. In order to minimize model complexity when testing our hypotheses (Beal, 2015), we modeled hypothesized pathways with random slopes and controlled pathways with fixed slopes (e.g., Koopman, Lanaj, & Scott, 2016; Wang, Liu, Liao, Gong, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Shi, 2013). We handled missing data for endogenous variables using full information maximum likelihood (FIML) estimation, which is a preferred method for dealing with missing data (Enders & Bandalos, 2001; Peugh & Enders, 2004). Following the recommendations of Enders and Tofighi (2007), we group-mean centered our independent variables. Group-mean centering is most appropriate for Level 1 predictors because it removes between-person variation and renders an unbiased estimate of within-person relationships (Enders & Tofighi, 2007). Following the recommendations of Preacher, Zyphur, and Zhang (2010), we used parametric bootstrapping procedures with 20,000 resamples to create 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (CIs) around the indirect and serial indirect effect estimates to test the significance of these effects. The results of the multilevel path analytic model are presented in Figure 1 and full results for all paths modeled are presented in Table 2.

Insert Table 2 and Figure 1 about here

Hypothesis 1 predicted a positive effect of state positive affect on optimistic state. The results indicated that state positive affect was positively related to optimistic state ($\gamma = .18$, $p <$

.01), supporting this hypothesis. Hypothesis 2 predicted a positive effect of state negative affect on pessimistic state. In support of this hypothesis, state negative affect was positively related to pessimistic state ($\gamma = .32$, $p < .01$). State positive affect explained 12.4% of the within-individual variance in optimistic state, and state negative affect explained 5.4% of the within-individual variance in pessimistic state. Hypothesis 3 predicted a positive effect of optimistic state on justice rule adherence. Supporting this hypothesis, optimistic state was positively related to perceptions of justice rule adherence ($\gamma = .12$, $p < .01$). Hypothesis 4 predicted a positive effect of pessimistic state on justice rule violation. Pessimistic state was positively related to perceptions of justice rule violation ($\gamma = .09$, $p < .01$), providing support for this hypothesis. Optimistic state explained 11.4% of the within-individual variance in perceptions of justice rule adherence, and pessimistic state explained 12.3% of the within-individual variance in perceptions of justice rule violation.

Hypothesis 5 predicted a positive effect of justice rule adherence perceptions on (a) task performance and (b) citizenship behavior and a negative effect on (c) counterproductive behavior. The results indicated that perceptions of justice rule adherence were positively related to task performance ($\gamma = .12$, $p < .05$) and citizenship behavior ($\gamma = .11$, $p < .05$), but not significantly related to counterproductive behavior ($\gamma = -.05$, *ns*). Hypothesis 6 predicted a negative effect of justice rule violation perceptions on (a) task performance and (b) citizenship behavior and a positive effect on (c) counterproductive behavior. The results indicated that perceptions of justice rule violation were not significantly related to task performance ($\gamma = -.03$, *ns*) or citizenship behavior ($\gamma = .01$, *ns*), but that perceptions of justice rule violation were positively related to counterproductive behavior ($\gamma = .33$, $p < .01$).

Hypothesis 7 predicted a positive serial indirect effect of state positive affect on (a) task

performance and (b) citizenship behavior, and a negative serial indirect effect on (c) counterproductive behavior partially mediated by an optimistic state and perceptions of justice rule adherence. The indirect effect of state positive affect on perceptions of justice rule adherence through optimistic state was positive and significant (.022, 95% CI = .010, .043). The serial indirect effects of state positive affect on task performance and citizenship behavior through optimistic state and perceptions of justice rule adherence were also positive and significant (.003, 95% CI = .001, .007 for task performance; .002, 95% CI = .001, .007 for citizenship behavior). However, the total effects of state positive affect on task performance and citizenship behavior were not significant (.005 and .051, respectively), indicating partial support for Hypotheses 7(a) and 7(b). The serial indirect effect of state positive affect on counterproductive behavior through optimistic state and perceptions of justice rule adherence was not significant (-.001, 95% CI = -.005, .002). Therefore, Hypothesis 7(c) was not supported.

Hypothesis 8 predicted a negative serial indirect effect of state negative affect on (a) task performance and (b) citizenship behavior, and a positive serial indirect effect on (c) counterproductive behavior partially mediated by a pessimistic state and perceptions of justice rule violation. The indirect effect of state negative affect on perceptions of justice rule violation through pessimistic state was positive and significant (.029, 95% CI = .006, .065). The serial indirect effects of state negative affect on task performance and citizenship behavior through pessimistic state and perceptions of justice rule violation were not significant (-.001, 95% CI = -.005, .001 for task performance; .000, 95% CI = -.002, .004 for citizenship behavior). Thus, Hypotheses 8(a) and 8(b) were not supported. The serial indirect effect of state negative affect on counterproductive behavior through pessimistic state and perceptions of justice rule violation was positive and significant (.010, 95% CI = .002, .026). However, the total effect of state

negative affect on counterproductive behavior was not significant (.045), indicating partial support for Hypothesis 8(c).[4]

Discussion

The results of Study 1 provide some support for our theorizing. Our results showed that state positive affect had a positive effect on optimistic state, which positively influenced justice rule adherence perceptions that then had a positive effect on task performance and citizenship behavior, but not counterproductive behavior. Further, state negative affect had a positive effect on pessimistic state, which positively influenced justice rule violation perceptions that then had a positive effect on counterproductive behavior, but not task performance or citizenship behavior. Our results also showed that state positive affect indirectly influenced task performance and citizenship through an optimistic state and justice rule adherence perceptions, but did not influence counterproductive behavior. In contrast, state negative affect did not have an indirect effect on task performance or citizenship behavior, but did indirectly influence counterproductive behavior through a pessimistic state and justice rule violation perceptions.

To replicate these results and enhance support for our causal inferences, we conducted a set of experiments using a causal chain design (Spencer, Zanna, & Fong, 2005), in which our independent and mediating variables were manipulated in separate studies (e.g., Fast, Burris, & Bartel, 2014; Vincent & Kouchaki, 2016). We examined the influence of manipulated state affect on optimistic and pessimistic states in Study 2A, manipulated optimistic and pessimistic states on justice perceptions in Study 2B, and manipulated justice perceptions on performance in Study 2C. This causal chain design allows for strong causal inferences about psychological processes

[4] We included the following crossed paths in our model test: state positive affect to pessimistic state (γ = -.08, *ns*), state negative affect to optimistic state (γ = -.33, $p < .01$), optimistic state to justice rule violation (γ = -.05, *ns*), and pessimistic state to justice rule adherence (γ =.03, *ns*). Although we include these crossed paths in our model for robustness, the pattern of support for the hypothesized relationships are unchanged with and without their inclusion.

because each causal path is manipulated and tested versus traditional experimental mediation designs in which only the initial causal path is manipulated and tested and the remaining paths are purely correlational in nature (Spencer et al., 2005). Further, using an experimental design allows us to hold supervisor behavior constant, further supporting our theorizing about the influence of employees' optimistic and pessimistic states on their justice perceptions beyond actual supervisor behavior.

STUDY 2A METHOD

Participants and Procedure

We recruited full-time employed adults based in the U.S. via Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Participants completed an initial personality and demographics survey, and three days later, received a link to the experimental survey. Of the 500 participants who completed the Time 1 survey, 351 participants completed the Time 2 survey (70.2% response rate). We took steps to ensure data quality by removing 78 participants who failed attention check indicators (Meade & Craig, 2012), specifically those participants who reported submitting lower quality data, spent an unusual amount of time completing the study, and did not follow the given prompt for our affect manipulation task.[5] Our final sample included 273 participants, of which 54.2% identified as female and 76.2% identified as Caucasian. On average, participants were 40.35 years old (*SD* = 11.45) and worked at their company for 7.08 years (*SD* = 5.65). Participants worked in a variety of industries, such as retail, finance, real estate, education, and healthcare, and 55.2% held nonsupervisory positions.

[5] Although we relied on the same attention checks for Studies 2A, 2B, and 2C, we included one additional check in Study 2A because of the complexity of this particular manipulation. Although the manipulations of optimism/pessimism (Study 2B) and justice rule adherence/violation (Study 2C) were fairly straightforward, we noticed some discrepancies in the written recall statements for our manipulations of state affect (Study 2A). For example, in the neutral state affect condition, some participants wrote about low arousal positive (e.g., calm) or negative (e.g., bored) states instead of a neutral state. Thus, in Study 2A, we also coded written recall statements provided by participants to ensure that they were in line with the manipulation prompt and excluded cases that failed this quality check.

To test the influence of state affect on optimistic and pessimistic states, participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions—state positive, negative, or neutral affect. We included a state neutral affect condition for two reasons. First, Carver and Scheier (1998) include neutral affect in their theorizing and other scholars have proposed that neutral affect lies somewhere between positively- and negatively-valenced feelings (Russell, 2003). Second, neutral affect is often used in experiments as a comparison for the effects of positive or negative affect (e.g., Gino, Brooks, & Schweitzer, 2012; Kouchaki & Desai, 2015). To manipulate state affect, we used a recall writing task (e.g., Fong, 2006; Tiedens & Linton, 2001), where participants wrote about the most positive, negative, or middle-of-the-road morning that they experienced in the past month.[6]

Measures

Optimistic and pessimistic states. We assessed optimistic and pessimistic states with the same 3-item measures used in Study 1 (optimistic state $\alpha = .97$; pessimistic state $\alpha = .95$).

Manipulation checks. To assess the effectiveness of our manipulations, we measured state positive, negative, and neutral affect. State positive and negative affect were assessed with the same measures used in Study 1 (positive affect $\alpha = .94$ and negative affect $\alpha = .92$). We used a 6-item ad hoc measure to measure state neutral affect. Participants rated the extent to which they felt *neutral*, *somewhere between happy and sad, middle-of-the-road, somewhere between pleased and displeased*, *indifferent,* and *somewhere between satisfied and dissatisfied* at that moment on a 5-point scale (1 = *very slightly or not at all*, 5 = *extremely;* $\alpha = .93$).

STUDY 2A RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results from our analysis of variance (ANOVA) demonstrated the effectiveness of our

[6] Complete manipulation text can be viewed at https://osf.io/gzpvb/?view_only=e2cef41e7bff47b69ca7f88b3aae197c.

state affect manipulations. There were significant main effects of affect condition on measures of state positive (F = 17.05, M = 3.55 vs. 2.87 vs. 2.88, p < .001), negative (F = 14.10, M = 1.57 vs. 1.20 vs. 1.21, p < .001), and neutral affect (F = 23.43, M = 2.80 vs. 1.83 vs. 2.27, p < .001). Means for the manipulated affective states were significantly higher in their corresponding conditions (e.g., state positive affect in the positive affect condition) than in the comparison conditions (p < .01), as indicated by the Bonferonni correction for multiple comparisons.

Insert Table 3 about here

We also used ANOVA to test our predictions about state affect and optimistic and pessimistic states. As shown in Table 3, optimistic state ratings were higher in the state positive affect condition (F = 12.85, M = 4.16 vs. 3.51 vs. 3.82, p < .001) than in the state negative (p < .001) and neutral (p < .05) affect conditions. Pessimistic state ratings were higher in the state negative affect condition (F = 10.89, M = 2.48 vs. 1.83 vs. 2.05, p < .001) than in the state positive (p < .001) and neutral (p < .05) affect conditions. Overall, the results of Study 2A provide support for Hypotheses 1 and 2 and replicate the results of our ESM study.

STUDY 2B METHOD

Participants and Procedures

Full-time employed adults based in the U.S. were recruited via MTurk (excluding Study 2A participants). A total of 201 participants completed the study. As with Study 2A, we took steps to ensure data quality by removing 2 participants for failing attention check indicators (see Meade & Craig, 2012), specifically, those participants who reported submitting lower quality data and spent an unusual amount of time completing the study. Our final sample included 199 participants, of which 46.2% identified as female and 69.3% identified as Caucasian. On average, participants were 37.31 years old (SD = 11.04) and worked at their company for 6.53

years (*SD* = 5.39). Participants worked in a variety of industries, such as retail, finance, real estate, education, and healthcare, and 44.9% held nonsupervisory positions.

To test the relationship between optimistic and pessimistic states and justice perceptions, we manipulated optimistic and pessimistic states. Participants were randomly assigned to either the optimistic state or pessimistic state condition. Like Study 2A, we used a recall writing task to manipulate these states, in which participants wrote about a time in the past month where they were very optimistic or pessimistic. After the writing task, participants in both conditions were presented with the same vignette describing a hypothetical supervisor's behavior, asked to read it, and then rate their perceptions of the supervisor's justice rule adherence and violation.[7]

Measures

Justice perceptions. We measured justice rule adherence and violation with the same measures used in Study 1 (justice rule adherence $\alpha = .88$; justice rule violation $\alpha = .96$).

Manipulation checks. To assess the effectiveness of our manipulations, we measured optimistic and pessimistic states with the same measures used in Study 1 and Study 2A (optimistic state $\alpha = .98$; pessimistic state $\alpha = .97$).

Scenario realism. To assess the extent to which our justice vignette was believable to participants and depicted a realistic scenario, we measured scenario realism using a 3-item measure by Chen et al. (2011). Participants rated their agreement with each statement on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree;* $\alpha = .83$; see Online Supplement for items). The means for these items were all above 4.00, ranging between 4.20 and 4.31. The overall scale mean was 4.26 (out of 5.00). These means compare favorably to similar scenarios used in the literature (e.g., Chen et al., 2011; Farh, Lanaj, & Ilies, 2017). Moreover, an ANOVA

[7] Complete manipulation and vignette text can be viewed at https://osf.io/gzpvb/?view_only=e2cef41e7bff47b69ca7f88b3aae197c.

showed that these ratings were not significantly different between participants in the optimistic and pessimistic state conditions.

STUDY 2B RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

ANOVA results show the effectiveness of our manipulations. There was a significant main effect of affect condition on optimistic state ($F = 52.12$, $M = 4.33$ vs. 3.36, $p < .01$) and pessimistic state ($F = 57.63$, $M = 2.94$ vs. 1.72, $p < .001$), both in a manner consistent with our manipulations.

Insert Table 4 about here

We also used ANOVA to test our proposed effects of optimistic and pessimistic states on justice perceptions. As shown in Table 4, justice rule adherence perceptions were significantly higher in the optimistic state condition ($F = 4.25$, $M = 4.33$ vs. 4.16, $p < .05$) and justice rule violation perceptions were significantly higher in the pessimistic state condition ($F = 4.65$, $M = 1.86$ vs. 1.56, $p < .01$). The results of Study 2B provide support for Hypotheses 3 and 4 and replicate the results of our ESM study.

STUDY 2C METHOD

Participants and Procedures

Participants were full-time employed adults based in the U.S. recruited via MTurk (excluding participants from Studies 2A and 2B). A total of 186 participants completed the study. We took steps to ensure data quality by removing 2 participants who failed attention check indicators (Meade & Craig, 2012), specifically those participants who reported submitting lower quality data and spent an unusual amount of time completing the study. We were left with a final sample of 184 participants, of which 55.4% identified as female and 79.9% identified as Caucasian. On average, participants were 38.91 years old ($SD = 10.33$) and worked at their

company for 7.46 years (*SD* = 6.96). Participants worked in a variety of industries, such as retail, finance, real estate, education, and healthcare, and 58.2% held nonsupervisory positions.

To test the relationship between justice perceptions and performance, we manipulated justice perceptions. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two conditions—justice rule adherence or justice rule violation. Participants were presented with a vignette consistent with their assigned condition, describing supervisor behaviors that either adhered to or violated justice rules, and then asked to rate their agreement with statements about how they would perform in response to their supervisor's behavior.[8]

Measures

Performance. We measured participants' intentions to engage in task performance, citizenship, and counterproductive behaviors with the same measures used in Study 1. Participants rated whether they would engage in the behaviors toward their hypothetical supervisor from the scenario (task performance α = .94; citizenship behavior α = .96; counterproductive behavior α = .91).

Manipulation checks. To assess the effectiveness of our manipulations, we measured justice rule adherence and violation using the same measures in Study 1 and Study 2B. The coefficient alphas were .98 and .96, respectively.

STUDY 2C RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

ANOVA results demonstrated the effectiveness of our manipulations. Participants in the justice rule adherence condition reported significantly higher perceptions of supervisor justice rule adherence ($F = 1073.49$, $M = 4.23$ vs. 1.65, $p < .001$), whereas participants in the justice rule violation condition reported significantly higher perceptions of supervisor justice rule violation

[8] Complete manipulation and vignette text can be viewed at https://osf.io/gzpvb/?view_only=e2cef41e7bff47b69ca7f88b3aae197c.

(F = 842.29, M = 3.86 vs. 1.42, p < .001).

Insert Table 5 about here

We also used ANOVA to test the proposed relationships between justice perceptions and behavioral intentions. As presented in Table 5, our results showed that task performance and citizenship intentions were significantly higher in the justice rule adherence condition than the justice rule violation condition (F = 17.94, M = 4.58 vs. 4.20, p < .001; F = 237.26, M = 4.13 vs. 2.32, p < .001). In contrast, counterproductive behavior intentions were significantly higher in the justice rule violation condition than the justice rule adherence condition (F = 216.79, M = 2.87 vs. 1.29, p < .001). Therefore, the results of Study 2C provide support for Hypotheses 5(a-c) and 6(a-c) and replicate the ESM study.

Taken together, the results of Studies 2A-C provide support for our predictions in Hypotheses 7(a-c) and 8(a-c) that state affect influences performance behaviors through optimistic and pessimistic states and justice perceptions.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The premise that justice is in the "eye of the beholder" is fundamental to justice theory (Greenberg et al., 1991). Despite this presumption in the literature, research is still needed to explain *how* justice perceptions are shaped by more than supervisor justice enactment. Our work addresses this issue by developing and testing theory that sheds light on the lenses through which employees view and interpret supervisor justice behavior. We argued that state affect gives rise to optimistic or pessimistic states that color justice perceptions, which then influence performance behaviors. The results of our studies indicate that state positive affect positively impacts optimistic state, which positively influences justice rule adherence perceptions that then promote productive performance behaviors. Conversely, state negative affect positively

influences pessimistic state, which positively influences justice rule violation perceptions that then promote unproductive performance behavior.

Theoretical Implications

Our work offers several theoretical contributions. First, we establish the way in which employees' justice perceptions are subjectively influenced. We show that affect-driven optimistic and pessimistic states act as lenses through which employees interpret supervisor behavior. Our approach differs from prior justice research in two important ways. First, we highlight the value of considering perceivers of justice (i.e., employees), as opposed to justice actors (i.e., supervisors), which departs from the majority of research on antecedents of justice perceptions (e.g., Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005; Goldman, 2003; Judge, Scott, & Ilies., 2006; Krehbiel & Cropanzano, 2000; Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999). Second, we elucidate the "eye" of the beholder, rather than distal proxies, to shed light on the lenses through which employees perceive justice. Therefore, we offer a new perspective on beholders of justice.

We also provide insight into the association between state affect and justice perceptions. Surprisingly, in our ESM study, the total effects of state affect on justice perceptions were nonsignificant. Although a significant total effect is not a necessary condition for supporting causal inferences (Kenny, Kashy, & Bolger, 1998; MacKinnon, Krull, & Lockwood, 2000), these nonsignificant total effects are interesting, given research that positions affect as a proximal antecedent of justice (e.g., Barksy & Kaplan, 2007). It may be that in past research, affect has served as a proxy for the effects of optimistic and pessimistic states on justice perceptions. It is also possible that results from prior work were impacted by factors such as cross-sectional designs, which heighten the potential for biased recall due, in part, to the mental aggregation of experiences over a longer period of time. In contrast to prior work, our research suggests that affect does not directly influence justice perceptions by simply overriding employees'

observations of their supervisors, but instead that affect-driven optimistic and pessimistic states shape how employees understand and interpret what they observe. Thus, our results underscore the value of revisiting what we know about antecedents of justice and moving beyond distal proxies to examine the actual lenses that color justice perceptions.

Further, our research extends the justice literature by integrating Carver and Scheier's (1998) optimism-pessimism framework to explain how employees interpret justice-relevant behavior. Although optimism and pessimism have been predominantly studied in relation to well-being outcomes and health contexts (e.g., Brissette et al., 2002; Carver et al., 2003; Kubzansky et al., 2004; Scheier & Carver, 2018), we theorized and showed that affect-driven optimistic and pessimistic states impact employees' justice perceptions, which subsequently influence their performance behaviors. Thus, our work indicates that optimistic and pessimistic states have a broader applicability and may be helpful in exploring other areas of organizational research. For instance, these optimistic and pessimistic states might explain other employee perceptions, such as perceived support, ostracism, and incivility.

We also contribute to the literature on optimism and pessimism by pivoting away from the primarily trait-based perspective (Carver, Scheier, & Segerstrom, 2010) to conceptualize optimism and pessimism as psychological states. This state-based view is appropriate, given that Carver and Scheier's (1998) theory proposes affective states drive optimistic or pessimistic expectations and that affect is a more dynamic, fluctuating construct (McCormick et al., 2018; Podsakoff et al., 2019). Our ESM results showed substantial within-person variation in optimistic and pessimistic states, supporting our episodic conceptualization, and highlighting the need for more research that examines these states. Moreover, our work extends the literature on optimism and pessimism by developing and providing validity evidence for measures that are

appropriate for capturing state versus trait optimism and pessimism. These new measures offer a more precise way to capture optimistic and pessimistic states as independent, dynamic constructs and may be used to examine their effects in other areas of organizational research.

Additionally, our ESM study showed differential patterns of behavioral reactions to justice rule adherence and violation. Although we predicted that justice rule adherence and violation would be related to task performance, citizenship, and counterproductive behaviors, a unique pattern of relations emerged. Perceptions of justice rule adherence were related to task performance and citizenship, but not counterproductive behavior. In contrast, perceptions of justice rule violation were related to counterproductive behavior but not task performance or citizenship behavior. Thus, justice rule adherence only predicted productive, functional behaviors, whereas justice rule violation only predicted dysfunctional behaviors. It may be that perceptions of justice rule adherence and violation activate different motivational processes, such that justice rule adherence triggers a focus on achievement and promoting positive outcomes, whereas justice rule violation triggers a focus on preventing harm and protecting oneself (Colquitt et al., 2015). In contrast, scholars have argued that justice rule violations are more salient than adherence to those rules, and are thereby more predictive (e.g., Gilliland, 2008; Rupp & Spencer, 2006). Our results, and that of Colquitt et al. (2015), showed a more nuanced pattern, in which justice rule adherence was more impactful in motivating productive performance behavior, whereas justice rule violation was more impactful for motivating counterproductive behavior, suggesting that the proposed negativity bias (Rozin & Royzman, 2001) is not always consistent with justice perceptions. Future research should continue to probe this distinction further.

Strengths and Limitations

Our paper offers several strengths that bolster the validity of our conclusions. We used

two research designs to test our conceptual model—an ESM field study and a set of experimental studies—each offering distinct methodological advantages. ESM designs are ideal for capturing dynamic phenomenon such as affect and optimistic and pessimistic states, as they help mitigate memory and recall biases (Beal, 2015), whereas the causal chain design is optimal for providing strong support for causal inference (Spencer et al., 2005). Yet, despite the strengths of our research, we acknowledge limitations that may guide future work. In our ESM, one limitation is that the independent and mediating variables were self-rated. Although scholars have suggested that self-reported data is often the best option for measuring certain variables, including affective states and perceptions (Gabriel, et al., 2019), there is still potential for bias resulting from CMV. We took precautions to diminish the likelihood of CMV bias by group-mean centering our predictors, which eliminates certain response tendencies that promote biases (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). We also collected the independent and mediating variables at separate time points during each workday (i.e., start-of-workday, mid-workday, end-of-workday), which helps to eliminate response tendencies related to consistency motifs (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Therefore, the way in which we designed our ESM study minimizes the likelihood that our results were influenced by CMV. Nonetheless, the only way to truly eliminate this concern was to utilize an experimental design, which was a core impetus for conducting Study 2. Thus, we used the strength of one study to address the weakness of the other.

Another limitation is our operationalizations of performance. In our ESM study, employee job performance is rated by coworkers. Although coworker-rated performance may be more ideal than self-reported performance to avoid rater bias, coworker-rated performance may differ from supervisor ratings. For example, supervisors and coworkers may have different performance expectations of employees, which may influence their perceptions of employees'

behaviors. Still, some scholars have argued that coworkers have more opportunities to observe peer performance and are more sensitive to variations in performance (Grandey, 2003). Therefore, coworker-rated performance variables may be optimal for detecting daily variations in performance. Further, in our experiments, participants rated the extent to which they would engage in the performance behaviors based on the scenario, or their behavioral intentions. Although behavioral intentions are distinct from actual behaviors, employees' intentions to perform provide insight into an aspect of their performance that is within their own control (Shore, Newton, & Thornton, 1990). Notwithstanding, the results of our experiment converged with the results of our ESM, mitigating concerns about potential limitations of coworker performance ratings. Future research could examine the extent to which coworker ratings of performance differ from supervisor ratings. Scholars could also investigate whether a coworker's affective state influences how they perceive a focal employee's performance behaviors.

Suggestions for Future Research

Although our work focuses on understanding how affect-driven optimistic and pessimistic states color justice perceptions, scholars could examine whether other perceiver factors promote optimistic and pessimistic states. For instance, research might explore the relationship between discrete emotions and justice perceptions with regard to specific events, such as layoffs, pay cuts, or policy changes. Scholars have often examined the outcomes of justice in these varying contexts (e.g., Brockner, Wiesenfeld, & Martin, 1995; Greenberg, 1990; Rodell & Colquitt, 2009) and the literature might also benefit from understanding how discrete emotions inform the justice perceptions that arise in each of these contexts. Further, scholars could explore the impact of non-work factors, such as post-work recovery, on justice perceptions. Engaging in certain types of recovery activities after work may impact justice perceptions in distinct ways. Additionally, we hope future research explores factors that may

transmit the effect of state affect on justice perceptions, as our ESM results did not find affect directly influenced justice perceptions without the mediating effects of optimism and pessimism. Because of it, we conducted a supplemental experiment to examine the effect of state affect (using the same manipulation in Study 2A) on justice perceptions (using the operationalizations from Studies 2B and 2C). The results replicated our ESM, showing a non-significant effect of state affect on justice perceptions.[9] Thus, beyond optimistic and pessimistic states, it would be useful to know whether other variables serve as mechanisms connecting beholder factors to justice perceptions.

Future research could also extend our theorizing to shed light on how optimistic and pessimistic states influence other interpersonal processes. For example, Visser, van Knippenberg, van Kleef, and Wisse (2013) showed that leader affect influences follower performance through emotional contagion. It may be that leader affect fosters optimistic and pessimistic states in employees that cause beneficial or harmful effects on individual and team performance, as well as, relationship quality. Research might also examine how employees react to information that contradicts their expectations. For example, research has shown that employees have stronger reactions to justice rule violation when they have high expectations of justice rule adherence (Walker, van Jaarsveld, & Skarlicki, 2014). Some of our findings support the idea that discrepancies between expectations and supervisor behavior can cause employees to react more strongly. In particular, the results of Study 2B showed that participants in the pessimistic state condition who responded to a somewhat just scenario had significantly higher perceptions of justice rule violation than participants in an optimistic state. However, future research could use our new measures of optimistic and pessimistic states to examine how employees in an

[9] Supplemental experimental study results can be viewed at https://osf.io/gzpvb/?view_only=e2cef41e7bff47b69ca7f88b3aae197c.

optimistic state respond to justice rule violation behavior and how employees in a pessimistic state respond to justice rule adherence behavior.

Lastly, our work focuses on how optimistic and pessimistic states color the way employees interpret supervisor behaviors in specific instances, thus implying a focus on justice events. We draw from recent work on justice actors (Scott, Garza, Conlon, & Kim, 2014), which has shown that despite variations in supervisor discretion over the specific dimensions of justice, supervisors have some level of discretion over all of the dimensions and that it varies on a day-to-day basis. Future research could examine how optimistic and pessimistic states impact individual justice dimensions, specifically. Scholars have considered the dimensional distinction between justice events and entities (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001; Jones & Skarlicki, 2012), though empirical support has been inconclusive (Colquitt et al., 2013). Although, we conceptualize the justice dimensions as a gestalt that represents employees' overall perceptions of the appropriateness of supervisor behaviors, future research might explore the effects of state affect on perceptions across the dimensions of justice from the event versus entity paradigm perspective. Further, perceptions about justice events (e.g., pay, promotion, assignments) are considered to be more malleable than perceptions about justice entities (e.g., supervisor, organization), although research has shown that aggregate average daily ratings and global entity ratings are highly correlated (r = .89; Matta, Scott, Guo, & Matusik, 2020). Future research could examine the extent to which optimistic and pessimistic states contribute to longer-term, more stable entity justice perceptions.

Managerial Implications

Our research has implications for supervisors. In particular, supervisors should be aware that even though they might adhere to justice rules, employees may still not view them as just. Our work indicates that supervisor behavior is not the only determinant of employee justice

perceptions—employees' affect-driven optimistic and pessimistic states color their perceptions of supervisor behavior, indicating supervisors may have different perceptions of their own justice-relevant behavior than their employees. Indeed, past research shows the correlation between supervisor and employee perceptions of justice is quite low (e.g., Huang, Cropanzano, Li, Shao, Zhang, & Li, 2017; Tepper & Taylor, 2003; Zapata, Olsen, & Martins, 2013). This is a critical consideration for supervisors because our work demonstrates that employees' justice perceptions influence their performance behaviors, motivating them to enhance functional behaviors because of their optimistic expectations elicited from positive affect and dysfunctional behaviors because of their pessimistic expectations elicited from negative affect. Therefore, supervisors must go beyond focusing on their own behavior and also consider how employees' optimistic and pessimistic states, fostered by affect, impact perceptions of their supervisor's justice behaviors, which subsequently influences employees' performance behaviors (i.e., task performance, citizenship, and counterproductive behaviors).

Our work also highlights the influence of affect-induced optimistic and pessimistic states on employees' work lives. We showed that an optimistic state, driven by positive affect, colors employees' work perceptions and motivates productive performance behaviors. Conversely, a pessimistic state, driven by negative affect, influences work perceptions, motivating dysfunctional behavior. Thus, supervisors may benefit from considering how to foster optimistic states and reduce pessimistic states in employees. Our research suggests that supervisor can do this by promoting and reinforcing positive feelings, while working to prevent and diminish negative feelings. To accomplish this, research indicates helping others, positive social interactions, and listening to music via headphones promote positive affect (Dimotakis, Scott, & Koopman, 2011; Glomb, Bhave, Miner, & Wall, 2011; Oldham, Cummings, Mischel,

Schmidtke, & Zhou, 1995).

CONCLUSION

Our work demonstrates that employees' justice perceptions are shaped by affect-induced optimistic and pessimistic states. We theorize and show that employees' state affect instigates an optimistic or pessimistic state that colors their perceptions of justice, which subsequently influences their performance behaviors. Our research establishes the way in which employees' justice perceptions are subjectively influenced. Further, although we do not suggest that supervisors should ignore justice rules, our study shows that there is more to understanding how employees' justice perceptions are shaped than just supervisor behavior. We hope that our work highlights the value in exploring more proximal perceiver-focused antecedents of justice.

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TABLE 1 Study 1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Variables	*Min*	*Max*	*Mean*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. State positive affect	1.00	5.00	2.98	1.11	(.97)								
2. State negative affect	1.00	4.20	1.27	0.48	-.09*	(.91)							
3. Optimistic state	1.00	5.00	3.83	0.89	.13**	-.11**	(.94)						
4. Pessimistic state	1.00	5.00	2.23	1.13	-.05	.08*	-.47**	(.94)					
5. Justice rule adherence	1.00	5.00	3.61	0.87	.00	-.04	.38**	-.26**	(.93)				
6. Justice rule violation	1.00	5.00	1.87	0.93	-.03	.03	-.22**	.48**	-.38**	(.95)			
7. Task performance (coworker-rated)	1.00	5.00	4.17	0.72	.02	-.03	.26**	-.12**	.24**	-.17**	(.91)		
8. Citizenship behavior (coworker-rated)	1.00	5.00	3.91	0.75	.05	.02	.25**	-.11**	.17**	-.03	.62**	(.90)	
9. Counterproductive behavior (coworker-rated)	1.00	5.00	1.86	1.09	-.01	.03	-.18**	.39**	-.14**	.51**	-.42**	-.36**	(.96)

Notes. Within-person correlations reported, $n = 873$ observations (between-person, $n = 101$). Coefficient alphas (averaged across days) are reported on the diagonal. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

TABLE 2 Study 1 Multilevel Path Analyses Full Results

	Optimistic State		Pessimistic State		Justice Rule Adherence		Justice Rule Violation		Task Performance		Citizenship Behavior		CP Behavior	
Intercept	3.83***	(.07)	2.25***	(.09)	3.11***	(.16)	1.66***	(.09)	3.82***	(.19)	3.49***	(.21)	1.39***	(.33)
Predictors														
State positive affect	**.18*** **	**(.05)**	-.08	(.05)	-.04	(.04)	-.02	(.04)	.00	(.03)	.05	(.04)	-.02	(.05)
State negative affect	-.33***	(.08)	**.32** **	**(.12)**	-.05	(.06)	.02	(.07)	-.10	(.13)	.09	(.09)	.04	(.08)
Optimistic state					**.12** **	**(.04)**	-.05	(.03)	.07*	(.03)	.03	(.05)	.07	(.04)
Pessimistic state					-.03	(.03)	**.09*** **	**(.02)**	.05	(.03)	-.01	(.04)	.00	(.05)
Justice rule adherence									**.12***	**(.05)**	**.11***	**(.05)**	**-.05**	**(.07)**
Justice rule violation									**-.03**	**(.04)**	**.01**	**(.04)**	**.33*** **	**(.08)**
Lagged controls														
Previous-day optimistic state	.02	(.07)												
Previous-day pessimistic state			-.05	(.04)										
Previous-day justice rule adherence					.00	(.05)								
Previous-day justice rule violation							.07	(.05)						
Previous-day task performance (coworker-rated)									-.06	(.07)				
Previous-day citizenship behavior (coworker-rated)											.11	(.05)		
Previous-day counterproductive behavior (coworker-rated)													-.06	(.06)
Other controls														
Day	.01	(.01)	-.01	(.01)	.02***	(.01)	.00	(.01)	-.02	(.01)	-.00	(.01)	.01	(.01)
Sine	.05	(.03)	.05	(.04)	.01	(.02)	.00	(.02)	.01	(.02)	.00	(.03)	.01	(.04)
Cosine	.04	(.03)	-.04	(.03)	-.01	(.02)	-.00	(.02)	-.00	(.03)	.00	(.03)	-.08*	(.04)
Sleep	-.01	(.02)	-.03	(.03)	-.00	(.01)	-.01	(.02)	-.02	(.02)	-.02	(.02)	.01	(.02)
Anticipatory stressors	-.03	(.06)	.11	(.06)	-.02	(.04)	.00	(.04)	.02	(.04)	.01	(.04)	.07	(.04)
State positive affect (mid-day)					.03	(.03)	-.01	(.04)						
State negative affect (mid-day)					.02	(.08)	-.01	(.07)						
Justice rule adherence (coworker-rated)					.11**	(.04)								
Justice rule violation (coworker-rated)							.24***	(.06)						

Notes. CP = counterproductive. Hypothesized coefficients are bolded. Standard errors in parentheses to the right of the corresponding coefficients. Level 1 N = 873. Level 2 N = 101. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

TABLE 3 Study 2A Results by Condition

Conditions	Optimistic State		Pessimistic State	
State positive affect (n = 105)	4.16[a]	(.75)	1.83	(.90)
State neutral affect (n = 72)	3.82	(.77)	2.04	(.93)
State negative affect (n = 96)	3.52	(1.10)	2.48[a]	(1.13)
$F(2, 270)$	12.85***		10.89***	

[a] Means significantly greater than means in the comparison conditions ($p < .05$), as indicated by the Bonferonni correction for multiple comparison.
*** $p < .001$

TABLE 4 Study 2B Results by Condition

Conditions	Justice Rule Adherence		Justice Rule Violation	
Optimistic state (n = 96)	4.33	(.48)	1.56	(.87)
Pessimistic state (n = 103)	4.16	(.66)	1.86	(1.04)
$F(1, 197)$	4.25*		4.65*	

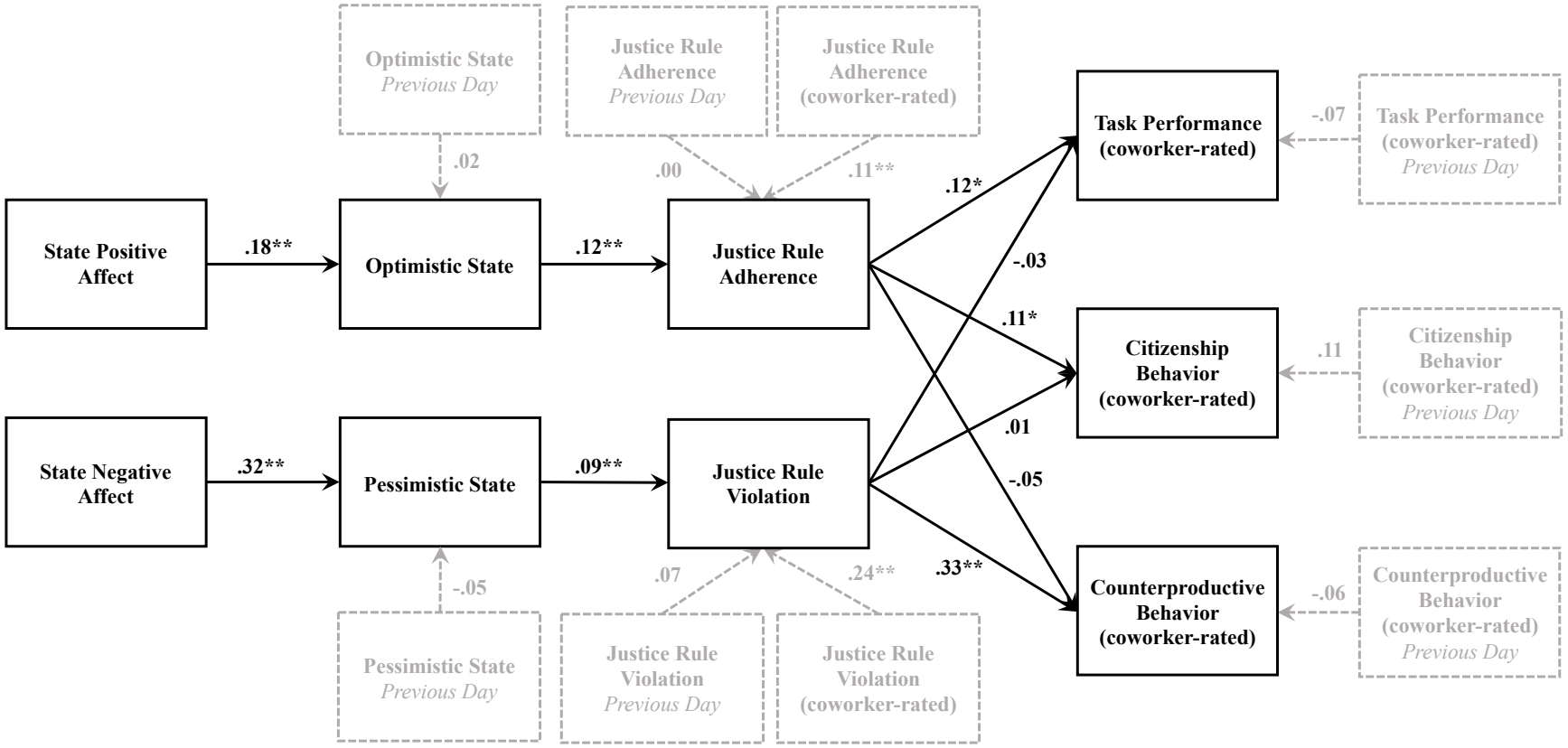
* $p < .05$

TABLE 5 Study 2C Results by Condition

Conditions	Task Performance		Citizenship Behavior		Counterproductive Behavior	
Justice rule adherence (n = 92)	4.58	(.52)	4.13	(.61)	1.28	(.49)
Justice rule violation (n = 92)	4.20	(.70)	2.32	(.95)	2.87	(.91)
$F(1, 182)$	17.94***		237.26***		216.79***	

*** $p < .001$

FIGURE 1 Multilevel Path Analyses Results



Notes. The total effect of state positive affect on justice rule adherence is -.02 and the total effect of state negative affect on justice rule violation is .05. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

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