THE ROLE OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND LEADER MEMBER EXCHANGE IN THE STRESSOR-EMOTION MODEL OF COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORKPLACE BEHAVIOR

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Abstract

Although researchers have examined the effects of inappropriate supervisor behavior on subordinate counterproductive workplace behavior (CWB), fewer researchers have examined the effects of non-hostile supervisory behaviors on CWB. In this study, I attempt to understand how leader-member relations and individual differences affect the occurrence of CWB. One hundred and eighty participants completed surveys assessing their perceived quality of leader-member exchange (LMX) relationship, entitlement, negative emotions, self-control, and CWB. Twenty-six supervisors provided information on 88 subordinate's CWB. Data reveal that negative emotions mediate the relationship between supervisor-subordinate relations and CWB, and self-control moderates the negative emotion-CWB relationship. Individuals with lower levels of self-control are more likely to engage in CWB when experiencing negative emotion as compared to individuals with higher self-control. Although entitlement was significantly related to negative emotions and CWB, it did not moderate the supervisor-subordinate relationship effects on CWB. Implications of these data are that supervisors do not have to treat subordinates poorly for subordinates to engage in CWB.

1. Introduction

Counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) are volitional acts harming, or intending to harm the organization or any of its members (Spector & Fox, 2005). They include, but are not limited to, behaviors such as stealing from the organization, taking longer and/or unauthorized breaks, arguing with coworkers, or intentionally doing work incorrectly. CWB is a general term similar to other constructs outlined in the literature such as workplace aggression (Neuman & Baron, 1997), which is any form of behavior intending to harm others in the workplace (Neuman & Baron, 2005). CWB is broader than workplace aggression as CWB includes behaviors that do not necessarily harm others, such as daydreaming at work, or taking longer breaks. Another important distinction between these two constructs is that CWB does not require specific intent to harm but only that the behavior is intentional (Spector & Fox, 2005). As such, an employee must make a choice to engage in a certain type of behavior. For example, taking a pen home from work would only be considered CWB if the employee intended to steal the pen and would not be CWB if it was accidental.

CWB has negative effects on employees as well as organizational functioning. Organizations suffer from both lost productivity and increased costs because of CWB. For example, Jones (1981) found nurses extended their work and food breaks up to 30 minutes each per week. Projecting these estimates to yearly figures suggest employees take approximately 50 hours a year in unauthorized or extended breaks. Employee theft in retail organizations alone is estimated at $20 billion annually (National Retail Federation, 2007),

with costs of employee theft for all organizations estimated at $40-$200 billion annually (Fischer & Green, 2004; Friedrichs, 2004).

Not only do organizations suffer, but CWB also carries negative implications for employees. The frequency of CWB relate to dissatisfaction at work (Keashly, Trott, & MacLean, 1994; Tepper, 2000) and higher levels of job stress (Penney & Spector, 2005) that in turn can lead to adverse effects on health and well being (Baron & Neuman, 1996; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002). Given that CWB is ubiquitous in the workplace and carries severe negative implications for both the organization and its employees (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Latham & Perlow, 1996; Mikulay, Neuman, & Finkelstein, 2001; Penney & Spector, 2005; Spector & Fox, 2005), it is important to try to identify antecedents to CWB, why those antecedents affect CWB, and factors that might exacerbate the impact of those antecedents on CWB

2. Review of the Literature

Researchers have conceptualized CWB in three different ways. First, CWB is often conceptualized as being directed towards other individuals in the organization (CWB-I) or the organization itself (CWB-O; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). CWB-I includes behaviors such as stealing from, arguing with, or playing pranks on coworkers, whereas CWB-O includes behaviors such as wasting employer's materials or supplies, purposely damaging work equipment or property, and leaving work earlier than allowed. Second, Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, and Kessler (2006) categorize CWB under different types of behaviors; including abuse against others, production deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal. Abuse against others consists of physically or psychologically harmful behaviors directed towards coworkers and others (Spector et al., 2006). Production deviance is the purposeful failure to effectively perform job tasks. Sabotage includes the destruction of physical property at work (Chen & Spector, 1992). Theft consists of stealing from either the organization or coworkers (Spector et al., 2006). Last, withdrawal is an attempt to avoid or escape a situation rather than doing direct harm, and includes behaviors such as taking longer breaks, tardiness, and absenteeism (Spector, 1978; Spector et al., 2006). Finally, as done in this study and others (e.g. Fox & Spector, 1999), CWB can be conceptualized under one broad category, which includes all deviant behaviors identified above.

Models of CWB

Several researchers have proposed models describing why CWB occurs. For example, O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, and Glew (1996), emphasized characteristics of the

organizational environment and the actions organizations take in motivating aggression and violence within employees. Using Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986) as a framework, they suggest that aversive treatment of employees or modeling of aggression by coworkers contributes to organizational aggression. Folger and Skarlicki (1998) describe a model where perceived injustices, based on social comparison of outcomes, adversely affects individuals' internal states, thereby leading to organizational retaliatory behaviors. This model highlights the importance of both individual differences and situational factors on perceptions of injustice. For example, interactional injustice, defined as unjust perceptions of interpersonal treatment by supervisors (Bies & Moag, 1986) and individuals with higher levels of negative affectivity, which is the tendency to experience negative emotions across time and in different situations (Watson & Clark, 1984), leads to more organizational retaliatory behaviors (Folger & Skarlicki, 1998; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

Martinko, Gundlach, and Douglas (2002) presented a model focusing on the role attribution plays in predicting CWB. Based within motivational aspects of Attribution Theory (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978; Martinko & Gardner, 1982; Weiner, 1986, 1995), Martinko et al. (2002) stressed that an individual's evaluation of the quality of their outcomes and their beliefs about the causes of their outcomes influence subsequent behavior and affective reactions. Unjust outcomes attributed to internal causes are likely to lead to negative feelings about the self that, in turn, lead to self-destructive behaviors such as substance abuse. On the other hand, individuals who attribute an unjust outcome to an external cause are likely to engage in revenge or sabotage.

Martinko et al.'s (2002) model also integrates the CWB research into a framework incorporating individual differences and situational factors. They noted that CWB

antecedents include appraisals of situational variables that produce aversive states as well as individual differences that increase the likelihood of unfair attributions. They observed that some individual difference and situation interactions lead to more frequent deviant behavior. For example, individuals higher in negative affectivity are more likely to engage in deviant behaviors when perceiving organizational injustices than those lower in negative affectivity (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki et al., 1999). CWB is the result of a complex set of interactions between individuals and their environment where attributions of and expected outcomes from the environment drive behaviors (Martinko et al., 2002). Moreover, the link between aversive states and CWB highlights the importance of understanding negative emotional reactions at work. Indeed, others have also recognized the central role of negative emotional responses in predicting CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Spector and his colleagues' CWB research highlight the importance of frustration (e.g. Chen & Spector, 1992; Fox & Spector, 1999; Spector, 1975; 1978; Storms & Spector, 1987). In their research, negative affective reactions to frustrations mediate the relationship between stressful job conditions and CWB. For example, negative emotions mediate the relationship between situational constraints and CWB (Fox & Spector, 1999).

The Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB. The Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB suggests that perceived stressors in the workplace leading to the arousal of negative emotions increase the likelihood of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005). This model includes both situational variables that lead to perceive stressors, and individual differences in personality and perceptions of control that affect each stage of the stressor–emotion–CWB process.

The Stressor-Emotion Model is rooted in the frustration-aggression hypothesis (Berkowitz, 1989; Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, & Sears, 1939) and occupational stress

literature (e.g. Fox & Spector, 1999; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Miles, Borman, Spector, & Fox, 2002; Spector, 1975, 1987, 1997). That hypothesis suggests that frustration, defined as the unexpected blockage of goal-attainment, always leads to aggression (Dollard et al., 1939). Berkowitz (1989) reformulated and extended Dollard et al.'s (1939) work, by suggesting that aggression does not always result from frustration. Rather, frustration produces a readiness for aggressive behavior (Berkowitz, 1989). Furthermore, Berkowitz (1989) highlighted the role of negative emotional responses between frustrations and aggressive responses. In this case, the importance lies on both the intensity of the resulting negative emotional response and the individual's appraisal of the situation. A more moderate view suggests that frustration is simply one of several important determinants of aggression, and that frustration sometimes facilitates aggression (Baron & Richardson, 1994). The Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005) highlights the mediating role of negative emotions in explaining the relationship between stressors and CWB.

The Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005) builds on the frustration-aggression hypothesis (Dollard et al., 1939) and its reformulation (Berkowitz, 1989) in three important ways. First, Spector and Fox (2005) suggest that negative affect does not only occur in response to unanticipated goal-blockage. Any stressful work conditions can induce negative emotion. For example, although a slow day at work may not block any anticipated goals, it still can elicit boredom that may result in an employee taking a longer coffee break. Second, previous theoretical explanations of negative emotional reactions and aggression focused primarily on frustration and anger. The Stressor-Emotion Model considers the role a wide variety of negative emotional responses

play in predicting CWB such as boredom, anxiety, depression and misery (Spector & Fox, 2005). Third, the complexity of the past research on stress and workplace aggression is reflected in the Stressor-Emotion Model by adding key elements such as perceived control and personality differences that account for differences in individual's interpretation and response to stressful workplace situations (Fox & Spector, 2006). The Stressor-Emotion Model highlights the importance of examining situational variables, individual differences, and their interactions that contribute to CWB.

Situational Variables in CWB

Situations in the workplace that arouse negative emotions adversely affect employee behaviors (Spector & Fox, 2005). For example, bullying (Ayoko, Callan, & Hartel, 2003), organizational constraints (Fox & Spector, 1999; Miles et al., 2002; Penney & Spector, 2005), and perceived organizational injustice (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999; Fox et al., 2001; Greenberg, 1990; Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Scott & Colquitt, 2007; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki, et al. 1999) relate to more frequent CWB. Other situational factors increasing the likelihood of CWB include aversive treatment (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996), pay cuts (Greenberg, 1990, 1993), and controlling organizational policies and structure (Folger & Skarlicki, 1998; Martinko & Zellars, 1998; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996). Recent research on the Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB focused on workplace stressors such as organizational constraints, organizational injustices, and conflict with supervisors. Findings demonstrate that higher levels of perceived organizational constraints, organizational injustices and supervisor conflict are associated with negative emotions and CWB (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006; Fox & Spector, 1999; Fox et al., 2001; Miles et al., 2002).

Individual Differences in CWB

The Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB also focuses on individual differences relating to CWB. Spector and Fox (2005) emphasize the importance of individual differences relating to emotional reactivity and perceptions of control.

Personality & CWB. Assuming that negative emotions are a precursor to CWB, it stands to reason that individual differences that increase the likelihood of employees experiencing negative emotions are important. Indeed, researchers have documented a variety of individual differences that relate to CWB. Negative affectivity is one example (Aquino et al., 1999; Penney & Spector, 2005; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999). In addition, Penney and Spector (2005) document the moderating role of negative affectivity between CWB and job stressors such as workplace incivility, interpersonal conflict, and job constraints (Penney & Spector, 2005). Affective traits that increase the likelihood a person will experience certain emotions such as trait-anger (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Fox & Spector, 1999; Fox et al., 2001; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Miles et al., 2002; Penney & Spector, 2002) and trait-anxiety (Fox & Spector, 1999; Fox et al., 2001) also relate to the frequency of CWB.

Narcissism is another individual difference relating to CWB (Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006; Penney & Spector, 2002). Narcissists possess a desire to maintain a sense of superiority over others (Penney & Spector, 2002) and hold the expectation that others will affirm this superiority (Judge et al., 2006). In a work setting, these perceptions can challenge or threaten the narcissist's ego thereby increasing their experience of negative emotions (Penney & Spector, 2002). Ego threats that elicit negative emotions lead the

narcissist either to act aggressively towards others or to emit withdrawal behavior (Penney & Spector, 2002).

Control & CWB. Control affects both the stressor-emotion relationship and the emotion-CWB relationship. Spector (1998) suggests that controllable situations are less likely to result in negative emotions because they are less likely to be initially perceived as stressors and thus less likely to arouse negative emotions. Control also affects the ability to adapt to, and deal with anger and other negative emotions at work (Spector & Fox, 2005). Perhaps that is why some researchers have found that locus of control predicts CWB (Perlow & Latham, 1993) and moderates the relation between frustration and CWB (Storms & Spector, 1987). Individuals with an external locus of control believe that the cause of events in their environment is controlled by fate, luck, or the power of others. People with an internal locus of control believe they have control over the causes of events (Rotter, 1966). These perceptions of control develop over time through reinforcements such as rewards and punishments, and have consequences on subsequent behaviors. Individuals possessing an external locus of control are more likely to engage in CWB than those with an internal locus of control.

Another individual difference related to control and CWB is self-control. Those with high self-control will avoid acts whose long-term costs exceed momentary advantages (Hirschi & Gottfredson, 1994). Proponents of Self-Control Theory contend that low self-control is the major cause of criminal and other analogous behavior such as excessive drinking, smoking, unprotected sex, and swearing (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). Researchers in the criminological literature have documented the negative relation between self-control and crime (Grasmick, Tittle, Bursik, & Arneklev, 1993). Individuals lower in

self-control commit more personal and property crime (Longshore, 1998). They also tend to experience negative life outcomes such as poor social bonds, and low socio-economic attainment (Evans, Cullen, Burton, Dunaway, & Benson, 1997). Further evidence in the educational literature from Bolin (2004) documents the effects of lower self-control and academic dishonesty. Specifically, Bolin (2004) found that lower self-control relates to academic dishonesty for people possessing more favorable attitudes towards academic dishonesty than others possessing less favorable attitudes towards academic dishonesty.

Self-control is a strong predictor of deviant workplace behaviors (Marcus & Schuler, 2004). Among 25 independent variables, Marcus and Schuler (2004) found that self-control was the strongest predictor of workplace deviance. Others have documented the strong relationship between self-control and workplace deviance (Bechtoldt, Welk, Hartig, & Zapf, 2007; Marcus & Wagner, 2007).

Some researchers studying control have focused on over-control and rigidity (Megargee, 1966). Latham and Perlow (1996) suggested that over-controlled, rigid employees are more likely to release bottled up tension through extreme aggressive behavior. Data support the link between over-control and aggressive behavior, as over-controlling employees were more likely to engage in both client-directed aggression and nonclient-directed aggressive behaviors such as fistfights with coworkers or verbally assaulting a supervisor. At first glance, these data appear inconsistent with researchers who have found that individuals with lower self-control are more likely to engage in workplace aggression than those with higher levels of self-control (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Hepworth & Towler, 2004). The differences in results do not necessarily conflict as these studies operationalized their criterion variables differently. Specifically, Latham and

Perlow (1996) examined more severe aggressive behaviors such as kicking, hitting, and slapping clients. Others examined more general and less severe aggressive behaviors such as doing or saying unkind things to hurt coworkers (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Hepworth & Towler, 2004).

Gaps in the Literature

Although the current research on situational variables and individual differences involved in CWB contribute to the literature in meaningful ways, gaps in our knowledge of CWB remain. Considering a) the impact supervisors have on subordinate work situations and behaviors (e.g. Anderson & Williams, 1996; Dunegan, Uhl-Bien, & Duchon, 2002; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002) and b) the impact supervisor behaviors have on employee stress and well being (Kelloway, Sivanathan, Francis, & Barling, 2005), we need a better understanding of how stressors stemming from supervisory treatment of subordinates impact CWB. Interactions among individual differences in emotional reactivity and perceptions of control with situational variables may also be important antecedents of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Supervisory Behavior

Researchers have established a relation between supervisor behaviors and subordinate CWB. Abusive supervisors (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper, 2000; Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008), social undermining by supervisors (Duffy, Ganster & Pagon, 2002) and conflict with supervisors (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006; Frone, 2000) increases the likelihood of subordinates engaging in deviant work behavior.

While the research I cite above has contributed to our understanding of situational antecedents to CWB, gaps in the literature remain. Past research has focused on severe

interpersonal stressors, such as supervisory abuse and conflict. While important, one issue with focusing on extreme behaviors is that they are often infrequent. Not everyone in the organization experiences conflict with supervisors or abusive supervision. What remains less understood is whether and why less severe patterns of supervisor-subordinate interactions lead to CWB. Indeed, Kelloway et al. (2005) suggest that passive leadership behaviors can result in negative employee outcomes because of increased levels of stress. Perhaps between subordinate variations in day-to-day supervisor-subordinate interactions contribute to subordinate CWB.

LMX Relationships

Theorists suggest that supervisors treat subordinates differently (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Leader-Member Exchange Theory, and its precursor Vertical Dyad Linkage Theory, focuses on how leaders develop different relationships with their subordinates through a series of work-related exchanges (Dansereau et al., 1975; Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987). Some dyads develop higher-quality exchange relationships (higher-LMX) while others develop lower-quality relationships (lower-LMX). Trust, interaction, support and rewards characterize the quality in LMX relationships (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Based on these relationships, supervisors consider some members as *trusted assistants* (higher-LMX) and others as *hired hands* (lower-LMX; Dansereau et. al, 1975). One reason different relations develop is due to time constraints. Supervisors do not have the time to develop high quality, close relations will all subordinates (Graen, 1976). That constraint also increases the likelihood that employees receive differential treatment. Differential treatment can be problematic for lower-LMX employees because they are more likely to report differential

treatment as being unfair than those with higher-LMX (Sias & Jablin, 1995).

Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964) and the Norm of Reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) state that individuals establish relationships based on an analysis of the costs and benefits and that they will respond to each other with commensurate behavior. Based on these perspectives, I expect higher-LMX employees are more likely to return positive behaviors (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) whereas those with lower-LMX will be more likely to return negative behaviors (Sahlins, 1972). Perhaps subordinates' awareness of supervisory differential treatment leads to increased perceptions of inequalities and CWB (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Greenberg, 1990; 1993; Greenberg & Scott, 1996).

Research documents that subordinates with higher-LMX receive more attention and support from supervisors (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982). These employees are also more likely to develop mutual, loyal, trusting and supportive commitments with their supervisors (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Dansereau et al., 1975; Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In contrast, individuals with lower quality LMX relationships are less likely to receive favorable work assignments, promotions, and raises (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Scandura, 1999).

Research also documents the relationship between LMX and organizational retaliatory behaviors (Townsend, Phillips, & Elkins, 2000). Organizational retaliatory behaviors refer to employee's reciprocation of perceived injustice and mistreatment by the organizations and its representatives (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Using negative reciprocity (Sahlins, 1972) and the norm of retaliation (Gouldner, 1960), Townsend et al. (2000) argued that employees experiencing poor LMX relationships would reciprocate with what

they perceive to be comparable negative behaviors. This research documents the negative relationship between organizational retaliatory behaviors and LMX relationships (Townsend et al., 2000). Considering that CWB and organizational retaliatory behaviors are similar (Spector & Fox, 2005), LMX should be negatively related to CWB.

> H1: *Leader-member relations affect CWB, in that lower-LMX employees will be more likely to engage in CWB than higher-LMX employees.*

What needs further clarification is the mechanism by which lower quality LMX relations affect CWB. The Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005) offers an explanation as to why LMX affects CWB. Negative emotions play an important role because situations in the workplace that arouse negative emotions adversely affect employee behaviors (Spector & Fox, 2005).

LMX & Negative Emotion

The Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB provides an explanatory mechanism as to why LMX relates to CWB. Consistent with Kelloway et al. (2005) who suggest that passive leadership behaviors can lead to increased levels of stress, lower quality LMX relationships should serve as an environmental stressor, thereby increasing the likelihood of subordinate negative emotions. Lower quality LMX relationships are likely to lead to subordinate negative emotions for several reasons. First, dyads reporting lower quality LMX relationships do not invest as much time and effort into the relationship as compared to those reporting higher quality LMX relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The additional time and effort exerted by those in higher quality LMX relationships is likely to have an important mitigating effect on workplace stressors because the dyad will be more likely to address the stressor immediately and put more effort into resolving it. Second,

subordinates with higher quality LMX relationships are more likely to discuss issues of organizational justice with their supervisors as compared to employees with lower quality LMX relationships (Manogran, Stauffer, & Conlon, 1994). Discussing perceived injustices with ones supervisor provides the employee with an additional coping resource. Additional coping resources are important in reducing negative emotions because negative emotions result when employees perceive that their adaptive resources are strained or inadequate to meet environmental challenges (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Furthermore, researchers conjecture that employees with lower quality LMX relationships will experience more negative emotions because they receive less attention, support, consideration and communication from their supervisors (Dansereau et al., 1975; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Major, Kozlowski, Chao, & Gardner, 1995; Turban, Jones & Rozelle, 1990). Therefore, lower quality LMX relationships should relate to an increase in the experience of negative emotion at work.

> *H2: Leader-member relations affect subordinates' experience of negative emotions. Lower-LMX employees will experience more negative emotions than higher-LMX employees.*

Entitlement as Moderator between the Stressor-Emotion Relationship

Some individuals' do not mind having or even want to have lower quality LMX relations (Vecchio, 2007). Conversely, perhaps some individuals believe they deserve to have high quality LMX relations. If that is the case, then the individual difference entitlement may have a role in moderating the LMX-negative emotion relation.

Entitlement. Psychological entitlement refers to the notion that one feels more deserving and entitled than others (Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004).

Not only do entitled individuals try to obtain repayment for what they deserve (Bishop & Lane, 2002). They also desire to acquire more than others even if doing so causes harm to others (Exline, Baumeister, Bushman, Campbell, & Finkel, 2004; Raskin & Hall, 1979). These perceptions may drive entitled individual to perform more CWB than less entitled individuals. For example, entitled individuals may take longer and more frequent coffee breaks than less entitled individuals because they feel more deserving. Likewise, an entitled employee may fulfill their drive to acquire more than others by stealing office supplies.

H3: Entitled individuals will report engaging in more CWB than individuals feeling less entitled.

Negative emotions will not occur in everyone experiencing a lower quality LMX relationship because individuals vary in their perceptions and emotional reactions to workplace situations (Martinko & Zellars, 1998; Skarlicki et al., 1999; Spector & Fox, 2005). Entitled individuals should experience more negative emotions at work than individuals holding less entitled perceptions because they are both easier to offend (Exline et al., 2004), and more likely to take offence to perceived injustices (McCullough, Emmons, Kilpatrick & Mooney, 2003). King and Miles (1994) document the relation between job satisfaction and entitlement. Recent evidence documents the relation between entitlement and job satisfaction as mediated by self-serving attribution styles (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). This suggests that entitled individuals can develop negative workplace attitudes because they tend to blame others for negative outcomes while attributing positive outcomes to them self. As such, it is likely that entitlement perceptions will impact negative affect.

H4: Entitled individuals will report more negative emotion than individuals feeling less entitled.

Considering that special treatment is not always forthcoming (Exline et al., 2004), and that entitled individuals are more likely to report conflict with supervisors (Harvey & Martinko, 2009), entitlement perceptions should interact with the quality of leader-member relations to predict negative affect. Entitled individuals are also more likely to report conflict with supervisors (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). Naumann, Minsky, and Sturman (2002) argue that entitlement is based on unbalanced perceptions of reciprocity; thus, entitled individuals with lower-LMX relations will likely experience multiple situations in which they are receiving less than they expect. This is likely to occur because individuals in lower-LMX relationships receive less support and attention from their supervisors (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982). Less support and attention is something I do not expect entitled individuals to react favorably towards.

H5: Entitlement will moderate the LMX-negative emotion relationship. Entitled individuals will experience more negative emotion because of lower quality LMX than individuals reporting lower entitlement beliefs.

Negative Emotion & CWB

Negative emotions have a central role in the Stressor-Emotions Model of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005). The focus on negative emotions in the CWB process is important because emotions are adaptive responses to environmental events (Plutchik, 1989), and emotions help formulate intentions to engage in certain behaviors (Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997). When experiencing negative emotions in the workplace, resulting behaviors are often attempts to reduce the negative emotion and increase positive emotions (Lazarus, 1982, 1995). As negative emotions often result from stressful situations (Peters &

O'Connor, 1980), employees' will deal with negative emotions in several ways. One response is to pursue alternative actions to achieve their goal and reduce negative emotions. Another response is withdrawal from the situation and goal abandonment. A third reaction is to can engage in counterproductive behavior towards either other individuals in the organization or the organization itself (Spector, 1978).

> *H6: Negative emotion will positively relate to CWB. Employees experiencing higher levels of negative emotion will engage in more CWB than people experiencing lower levels of negative emotions.*

Negative Emotion as Mediator between the LMX-CWB Relation

Stressors in the workplace that lead to the arousal of negative emotions increase the likelihood of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005). Findings demonstrate that higher levels of perceived organizational constraints, organizational injustices, supervisor conflict, and supervisor interpersonal injustice are associated with the arousal of negative emotions in the workplace and consequently more CWB (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006; Fox & Spector, 1999; Fox et al., 2001; Miles et al., 2002; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009). The above stressors lead to CWB through negative emotions such as frustration, annoyance, and anger (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006; Fox et al, 2001; Miles et al., 2002; Spector & Fox, 2002, 2005). Research also documents that negative emotions, such as anger and hostility mediate the relationship between fairness perceptions and retaliation. (Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005).

Employees in lower quality LMX relationships experience less motivation from supervisors, more work-related problems, more stress (Dansereau et al., 1975; Lagace, Castleberry, & Ridnour, 1993), and less organizational support than employees with higher quality LMX (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002).

Therefore, it stands to reason that employees with lower quality LMX relationships will engage in more CWB because they experience more negative emotions at work than those with higher quality LMX relationships.

> *H7a: Negative emotions will mediate the LMX-CWB relationship. Lower-LMX employees will experience more negative emotions, and ultimately engage in more CWB, than higher-LMX employees.*

Given that the Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB suggests that individual differences and environmental stressors affect emotions and subsequent behaviors (Spector & Fox, 2005). It follows that negative emotions should also mediate the LMX-entitlement interaction to predict CWB.

> *H7b: Negative emotions will mediate the LMX-entitlement interactive effect on CWB. Entitled employees with lower-LMX will experience more negative emotions, and ultimately engage in more CWB, than employees with higher-LMX and lower entitlement scores.*

Self-Control as Moderator between the Negative Emotion-CWB Relationship

Not everyone who experiences negative emotions at work engages in CWB. One explanation for this difference is the ability of people to control their behavior when they are experiencing negative emotions. Given that the quality of one's supervisory relationships and entitlement perceptions can lead to negative emotions, self-control may be one reason why some individuals engage in CWB while others seek alternative courses of action.

Self-Control Theory suggests that individuals reporting lower self-control engage in deviant behavior because they focus on the immediate gratification of an activity and do not consider potential long-term negative consequences of their actions (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Hirschi & Gottfredson, 1994). Individuals lower in self-control commit more crime

(Pratt & Cullen, 2000), and are more likely to engage in violent crime such as murder (Piquero, MacDonald, Dobrin, Daigle, & Cullen, 2005) than individuals higher in self-control. Furthermore, lower self-control relates to individual's intentions to engage in employee theft (Langton, Piquero, & Hollinger, 2006). Failing to properly account for the potential long-term consequences of their actions is one explanation for their behaviors (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1900; Hirschi & Gottfredson, 1994; Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004). Furthermore, Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) state that individuals with lower self-control must be presented with the opportunity to carry through with their deviant behavior. It could be that the experience of negative emotions serves as an opportunity for those with lower self-control to engage in CWB.

> *H8. Self-control moderates the negative emotion-CWB relationship. When experiencing negative emotion at work, individuals lower in self-control will engage in more CWB than people with greater self-control.*

To summarize, I believe that negative emotions and CWB are a function of the situation and individual differences. Figure 1 contains the variables I examined in my study as well as the proposed relations among them.

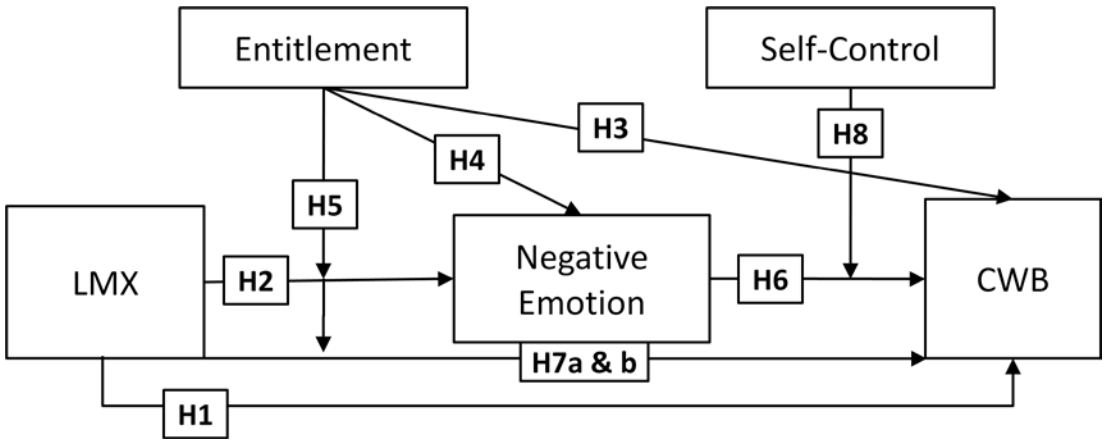

Figure 1. Hypothesized Model

3. Methodology

Participants & Procedure

I collected data from a variety of western Canadian organizations. Organizations included a municipal government, a college and a car dealership. I contacted HR departments to set up on-site data collection times. I brought donuts for all employees and asked them if they would volunteer to participate in the study. I asked supervisors to provide CWB data on three or four randomly chosen subordinates. Specifically, I told them to report on a mix of subordinates as opposed to reporting on only their favorite subordinates or only their least favorite subordinates. Subordinates provided data on all measures. Participants were aware that they could withdraw from the study at any time. Upon completion, both supervisors and subordinates returned their surveys in a sealed manila envelope directly to me.

I received 180 subordinate surveys from the 187 that I had distributed (96% response rate). I discarded two surveys because they were unusable due to obvious atypical response patterns (i.e. individuals circled multiple response choices across multiple questions). I distributed 90 surveys to supervisor and received data on 88 subordinates from the 26 supervisors who had returned completed surveys (98% response rate).

Participants worked in a variety of jobs including 80 manual laborers (44.4%), 35 professionals (19.4%), 35 customer service representatives (19.4%), 15 library staff (8.3%), 11 clerical staff (6.1%), and 4 sales staff (2.2%). Eighty-six participants were male (47.5%) and 119 participants were full-time workers (65.7%). The subordinate sample consisted of 172 White people (95.6%), 2 Asian people (1.1%), 2 First-Nations people (1.1%), 1 Black person (.6%), and 1 Hispanic person (.6%). Fifteen supervisors were male (57.7%) and all

supervisors were full-time workers (100.0%). The supervisor sample consisted of 23 White people (88.5%), 2 Asian people (7.7%) and 1 Black person (3.8%).

Measures

Leader-Member Relations. I used the 12-item multidimensional measure of LMX (LMX-MDM; Liden & Maslyn, 1998) to assess the quality of the LMX relationship. Four subscales comprise the LMX-MDM: Affect, Loyalty, Contribution, and Professional Respect (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Affect is the mutual affection members have for each other and is based primarily on interpersonal attraction rather than work or professional values (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Loyalty refers to the extent to which both the leader and member publicly support each other's actions and character (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Contribution is the perception of the amount, direction, and quality of work-oriented activity each member puts forth toward mutual goals (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Lastly, Professional Respect refers to the degree to which each member of the dyad had built a reputation, within and/or outside the organization, of excelling at his or her line of work (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Scale items include, "I respect my immediate supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job" and "I like my immediate supervisor very much as a person." Participants rated each item on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree).

Evidence suggests that most subscale scores are reliable and that the scores yield valid inferences on LMX relations. Using an employee sample, Liden and Maslyn (1998) obtained acceptable scores on most LMX subscales: affect (α = .90), loyalty (α = .74), contribution (α = .57), and professional respect (α = .89). Using a composite measure of LMX-MDM, Bauer, Erdogan, Liden, and Wayne (2006) found scores yielding acceptable

alpha levels (α = .90). Liden and Maslyn (1998) provide validity evidence in their factor analytic study, obtaining acceptable fit indices for a 4-factor model of LMX. Fit indices from the 4-factor model provided better support than the four competing models: a null-model, a single factor model, a 2-factor model and a 3-factor model (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The scale is also related highly to a one-dimensional scale LMX scale (i.e. LMX-7, Scandura & Graen, 1984) thereby providing convergent evidence. In the present study, I obtained an acceptable reliability estimate for the composite measure of LMX-MDM (α = .94).

Negative Affect. I used the 15 negative emotions on the Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS; Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000) to assess negative affect. Participants indicated how often they experienced emotions such as anger, boredom, and anxiety because of any part of their job within the last 30 days (Van Katwyk et al., 2000). Participants rated each item on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Every Day). Researchers have found the JAWS yields reliable scores (e.g., Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006: α = .91; Fox et al., 2001: α = .88, Spector & Fox, 2003:α = .95). JAWS scores relate to variables that one would expect relate to negative affect (e.g. organizational constraints and job satisfaction; Van Katwyk et al., 2000). In the present study, I obtained an acceptable reliability estimate for the JAWS-negative emotion scores (α = .93).

Entitlement. I used the Psychological Entitlement Scale (Campbell et al., 2004) to measure individual's sense of entitlement. The 9-items are scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). Campbell et al. (2004) provide validity and reliability evidence. They found entitlement scores related to the Entitlement sub-scale of Raskin and Terry's (1988) Narcissistic Personality Inventory, thereby

providing convergent evidence. Campbell et al.'s (2004) confirmatory factor analysis of the Psychological Entitlement Scale yields an adequate fit for a single-factor model (GFI = .98; CFI = .98; SRMR = .13). The test-retest reliability coefficients obtained from two independent student samples were satisfactory over a 1 month (r = .72) and 2 month (r = .70) period. Campbell et al. (2004) obtained Cronbach's alphas ranging from .83 to .88. In the present study, I obtained an acceptable internal consistency estimate (α = .84).

Self-Control. I used the shortened 16-item version (Higgins, 2007) of the 24-item Self-Control Scale (Grasmick et al., 1993). Scale anchors range from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 4 (Strongly Agree). Sample items include, "I often act on the spur of the moment without stopping to think" and "I am more concerned with what happens to me in the short run than in the long run." Six subscales comprise the original measure. I used the abbreviate version because the original version does not reflect the unidimensionality of self-control as outlined in Self Control Theory (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Hirschi & Gottfredson, 1994). Higgins (2007) provides support for the unidimensionality of the 16-item shortened version thereby better reflecting the construct as specified in Self-Control Theory. Specifically, principal components analysis of the shortened 16-item version yielded a single factor accounting for 50.2% of variance. I reversed scored all items to aid interpretability. Thus higher scores reflect higher levels of self-control. In the present study, I obtained an acceptable internal consistency estimate (α = .76).

Counterproductive Workplace Behavior. I used the 45-item CWB-Checklist (CWB-C, Spector et al., 2006) to assess subordinate CWB. This measure, a refinement of the Job Reaction Survey (Spector, 1975), contains five subscales: Abuse Against Others, Production Deviance, Sabotage, Theft, and Withdrawal. Participants read each statement

and indicated the frequency with which they engage in the behavior on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Everyday).

Spector et al. (2006) provides content evidence for the CWB-C. Previous research obtained internal consistency estimates that ranged from .87-.89 (Fox et al., 2001; Miles et al., 2002; Penney & Spector, 2005). In the present study, I obtained an acceptable reliability estimate for the CWB-C scale scores (α = .90).

Workplace Deviance. Supervisors completed the Workplace Deviance (WD) Scale (Bennett & Robinson, 2000) to assess subordinate's level of CWB. The WD is a 19-item behavioral scale using an 8-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 7 (Daily), including 8 (Do Not Know). Bennett and Robinson (2000) used nine subject matter experts (SMEs) to refine the WD from 113 items to 58 items based on several criteria. First, items must either be potentially harmful for the organization or any of its members, or violate strong organizational norms. Second, SMEs considered the clarity and conciseness of the items. Finally, SMEs considered the relevance of items for a wide variety of organizations and occupations.

Bennett and Robinson (2000) conducted a factor analysis on the responses from a sample of 226 students and full-time employees and obtained a two-factor solution comprising of organizational deviance (16 items) and interpersonal deviance (8 items). On a second sample (n = 352), they conducted a second factor analysis. After inspecting modification indices, standardized residuals, and factor loadings, they removed 4 organizational deviance items and 1 interpersonal deviance item. These modifications yielded acceptable fit indices $\chi 2$ (147) = 198.37, $p < .00$, RMSR = .05, GFI = .87, CFI = .90, and NFI = .88. The scale's scores related to scores from Lehman and Simpson's

(1992) scales: Antagonistic Work Behaviors, Psychological Withdrawal Scale, and Physical Withdrawal Scale. The scale's scores also related to Hollinger and Clark's (1982) Property and Production Deviance Scales. Previous research documents that the WD scale scores are reliable, with estimates ranging from .78-.91 (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Judge et al., 2006; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). In the present study, I obtained an acceptable reliability estimate (α = .75).

Control Variables

In this study, I assessed the impact of four variables previously documented to exhibit relations with CWB. I assessed gender because research has shown that males are more aggressive than females (Baron & Richardson, 1994; Dupre & Barling, 2006; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Perlow & Latham, 1993; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998; but, see Eagly and Steffan, 1986 who found that although males are more physically aggressive than females, gender differences were less pronounced for psychological aggression). I also assessed the impact of age and tenure because older employees are less likely to engage in CWB than younger works (Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2008). Finally, I assessed hours worked per week because the more hours worked increases the likelihood of CWB (Harvey & Keashly, 2003).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

I ran a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess the degree to which my scales measured different constructs (i.e. discriminant evidence). In my analysis, I compared two models. My 4-factor model was a model specifying four latent constructs: LMX relations, entitlement, negative emotion, and self control. I created 3 manifest indicators for each construct. For example, I divided the entitlement scale into thirds with each subscale

serving as a manifest indicator. The second model was a 1-factor model specifying that all constructs were part of the same factor. I used four fit indices to assess the fit of the two models: $\chi 2$ statistic, goodness-of-fit index (GFI), comparative fit index (CFI) (Bentler, 1990), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Table 1 contains the results of the competing models CFA and demonstrates that the 4-factor measurement model yields fits better than the 1-factor measurement model. I did include the subordinate reported or supervisor reported CWB scales in my CFA because Spector et al., (2006) suggest that it is inappropriate to run such an analysis on a causal indicator. A cause indicator is a measure in which the content of the items defines the construct rather than the reverse (Bollen & Lennox, 1991); therefore, items are not necessarily intercorrelated (Spector et al., 2006).

Table 1. *Confirmatory Factor Analysis.*

Measurement Model	$\chi 2$	*df*	*GFI*	*CFI*	*RMSEA*
4-factor measurement model	160.6***	54	.87	.93	.11
1-factor measurement model	828.5***	54	.55	.46	.29

Note. *** $p < .001$.

4. Results

Descriptive Statistics & Correlations

Table 2 contains means, standard deviations, correlations and Cronbach's alphas of all variables. As expected, subordinate and supervisor reports of counterproductive behavior are related to leader-member relations, negative affect and self-control. Subordinate reports of CWB were related to entitlement. Leader-member relations were related to negative affect and self-control. Subordinates' sense of entitlement was related to negative emotions and subordinate reported CWB. Subordinate's gender was related to entitlement, self-control, and subordinate reports of CWB. The number of hours worked per week was related to leader-member relations and negative affect.

Table 2. *Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for CWB, Antecedent Variables and Demographic Variables.*

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	.51	0.50	-										
2. Age	35.00	13.08	.00	-									
3. Hours / Week	34.89	8.73	.21**	.23**	-								
4. Education	13.96	2.18	.15	-.05	-.07	-							
5. Tenure	58.89	84.84	-.08	.50***	.13	-.05	-						
6. LMX	5.72	1.15	.04	-.07	-.18*	-.05	.04	(.94)					
7. Entitlement	3.59	1.02	-.20**	-.11	.06	.06	-.04	-.03	(.84)				
8. Negative Emotion	2.13	0.72	-.08	.09	.19**	-.03	.05	-.51***	.16*	(.93)			
9. Self-Control	2.84	0.36	.17*	.07	-.14	-.08	.09	.15*	-.31***	-.20**	(.76)		
10. Self Reported CWB	1.33	0.25	-.30**	-.14	.06	.05	.05	-.26***	.16*	.38***	-.42***	(.90)	
11. Supervisor Reported CWB	1.47	0.50	-.09	.16	.20	.08	.12	-.49***	.02	.53***	-.22*	.41***	(.75)

Note. n = 188, listwise deletion. For supervisor reported CWB n = 88. Age and education measured in years. Tenure measured in months. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

I used hierarchical multiple regression (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006) and procedures Baron and Kenny (1986) specified to assess the hypothesized relationships. I centered the predictor variables to improve interpretation of the conditional effects of the beta coefficients when assessing my hypothesized moderation relationships (Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003). Each predictor's beta coefficient represents the predictors' conditional effect on the criterion when the other predictor is equal to its mean. For example, using centered variables, the entitlement beta coefficient in Table 5, Step 3 represents the conditional effect of entitlement on negative emotion when LMX is equal to its mean. If the predictor variables were not centered, the beta coefficient would represent the conditional effect of entitlement on negative emotion when LMX is equal to 0. This value falls outside the range of possible values for LMX (i.e. 1-7) and therefore increases the likelihood of interpreting an inaccurate beta coefficient.

Baron and Kenny (1986) specify four criteria for the evaluation of mediating relationships. First, the predictor variable should be related to the criterion variable. Second, the predictor variable must be related to the mediator. Third, the mediator must be related to the criterion variable. Finally, the state of full mediation occurs when the predictor does not account for unique criterion variance above and beyond the criterion variance accounted for by the mediator.

I conducted hierarchical regression analysis to assess whether negative emotions mediate CWB. Tables 3 through 5 contain the results. Leader-member relations are related to CWB. Regression analyses reveal that leader-member relations accounts for 7% of the variance in subordinate reported CWB above and beyond the variance accounted for by gender and work hours (β = -.26, p < .001, see Table 3). Leader-member relations' account

for 22% of the variance in supervisor reported CWB above and beyond the variance accounted for by gender and work hours (β = -.47, p < .001, see Table 4). These data support the first hypothesis, which states that LMX relates to CWB.

Table 3. *Regression Analysis of Leader-Member Relations and Negative Emotion on Subordinate Reports of CWB.*

Step	β	R^2	*Adj.* R^2	Δ R^2	*F*
Step 1					
Gender	-.30***				
Hrs. Week	.00				
		.09	.08		8.70***
Step 2					
LMX	-.26***				
		.16	.14	.07	10.73***
Step 3					
Negative Emotion	.32***				
LMX	-.10				
		.23	.21	.07	12.91***

Note: n = 180.
* p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Table 4. *Regression Analysis of Leader-Member Relations and Negative Emotion on Supervisor Reports of Subordinate CWB*

Step	β	R^2	*Adj.* R^2	Δ R^2	*F*
Step 1					
Gender	.00				
Hrs. Week	.20				
		.04	.02		1.72
Step 2					
LMX	-.47***				
		.26	.23	.22	9.86***
Step 3					
Negative Emotion	.33**				
LMX	-.27*				
		.33	.29	.07	10.00***

Note: n = 88.
* p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Inspection of Table 5 reveals that leader-member relations are related to subordinates' experience of negative emotions. Regression analyses reveal that leader-member relations account for 23% of the variance in subordinate reported negative emotion above and beyond the variance accounted for by gender and work hours (β = -.31, p < .001, see Table 5). These data support the second hypothesis, stating that leader-member relations affect subordinates experience of negative emotion.

Table 5. *Regression Analysis of Leader-Member Relations and Entitlement on Negative Emotion*.

Step	B	R^2	*Adj.* R^2	ΔR^2	*F*
Step 1					
Gender	-.05				
Hrs. Week	.02*				
		.04	.03	.04	3.57*
Step 2					
LMX (A)	-.31***				
		.27	.26	.23	22.03***
Step 3					
Entitlement (B)	.09*				
		.29	.27	.02	17.90***
Step 4					
A x B	.00				
		.29	.27	.00	14.24***

Note: n = 180. Predictor variables are mean-centered.
* p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

An individual's sense of entitlement is related to subordinate reported CWB (r = .16, p < .05), but not to supervisor reported CWB (r = .02, p > .05, see Table 2). These data provide partial support for the third hypothesis, which states that subordinates' entitlement perceptions relate to CWB.

An individual's sense of entitlement is related to their experience of negative emotion at work. Regression analysis reveal that entitlement accounts for 2% of the variance in negative emotion above and beyond the variance accounted for by gender, work

hours, and leader-member relations (β = -.09, p < .05, see Table 5). These data support the fourth hypothesis, which states that entitlement relates to negative emotion.

An individual's sense of entitlement does not interact with leader-member relations to predict negative emotion. Regression analysis reveals that the interaction term does not account for any additional variance in negative emotion above and beyond the variance accounted for by the control variables, leader-member relations, and entitlement separately (β = .00, p > .05, see Table 5). These data do not support the fifth hypothesis, which states that entitlement interacts with leader-member relations to predict subordinates' experience of negative emotion.

The experience of negative emotion is related to CWB. Regression analyses reveal that negative emotion accounts for 7 percent of the variance in subordinate reported CWB above and beyond the variance accounted for by gender, work hours, and leader-member relations (β = -.32, p < .001, see Table 3). Negative emotion accounts for 7 percent of the variance in supervisor reported CWB above and beyond the variance accounted for by gender, work hours, and leader-member relations (β = -.33, p < .01, see Table 4). These data support the sixth hypothesis, which states that negative emotion relates to CWB.

Taken together these data support the hypothesis that LMX can effect CWB through negative affectivity because a) LMX relates to CWB, b) LMX relates to negative emotion, c) negative emotion relates to CWB, and d) leader-member relations do not account for a statistically significant amount of variance in subordinate reported CWB (β = -.10, p > .05, see Table 3). These findings indicate a fully mediated model. Unlike findings with the subordinate data, using supervisor reported CWB, leader-member relations accounted for unique variance in CWB upon adding negative emotion in Step 3 (β = -.27, p < .05, see

Table 4). These findings indicate a partially mediated model. These data support Hypothesis 7a, which states that negative emotions mediate the relation between leader-member relations and CWB, although the nature of the mediation relation is not clear. On the other hand, Hypothesis 7b, which states that negative emotion mediates the leader-member relations–entitlement interaction to predict CWB, was not supported. The interaction between leader-member relations and entitlement did not account for unique criterion variance over and above leader-member relations and entitlement alone ($\beta = .00$, $p > .05$, see Table 5).

An individual's level of self-control moderates the relationship between negative emotion and CWB. Regression analyses reveal that the interaction between negative emotion and self-control accounts for 2 percent of variance in subordinate reported CWB above and beyond the variance accounted for by the control variables, negative emotion and self-control ($\beta = -.13$, $p < .05$, see Table 6). The interaction between negative emotion and self-control accounts for 4 percent of variance in supervisor reported CWB above and beyond the variance accounted for by the control variables, negative emotion and self-control ($\beta = -.41$, $p < .05$, see Table 7).

Table 6. *Regression Analysis of Negative Emotion and Self-Control on Subordinate Reports of CWB.*

Step	β	R^2	*Adj.* R^2	Δ R^2	*F*
Step 1					
Gender	-.15***				
Hrs. Week	.00				
		.09	.08		8.70***
Step 2					
Negative Emotion (A)	.13***				
		.22	.21	.13	16.55***
Step 3					
Self-Control (B)	-.23***				
		.32	.30	.10	20.50***
Step 4					
A x B	-.13*				
		.34	.32	.02	18.05***

Note: n = 180. Predictor variables are mean-centered.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 7. *Regression Analysis of Negative Emotion and Self-Control on Supervisor Reports of Subordinate CWB*

Step	*β*	R^2	*Adj.* R^2	Δ R^2	*F*
Step 1					
Gender	.00				
Hrs. Week	.01				
		.04	.02		1.72
Step 2					
Negative Emotion (A)	.30***				
		.28	.25	.24	10.81***
Step 3					
Self-Control (B)	-.11				
		.28	.25	.00	8.19***
Step 4					
A x B	-.41*				
		.32	.28	.04	7.84***

Note: n = 88. Predictor variables are mean-centered.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The observation of a self-control moderating effect is necessary but not sufficient support for the eighth hypothesis. I conducted a simple slope analysis (Aiken & West,

1991) to assess directionality. First, I ran two separate regression analyses to determine the simple regression lines at two values of self-control. One analysis involved values 1 standard deviation below the mean of SC and the other analysis involved values 1 *SD* above self-control. Using the intercept and the self-control beta coefficient from these two simple regression lines, I plotted the slopes for low self-control (1 *SD* below) and for high self-control (1 *SD* above). Individuals lower in self-control engage in more CWB as negative emotions increase, whereas when those with higher levels of self-control do not necessarily engage in more CWB as a result of negative emotion. Simple slope analysis reveals this for both subordinate reported CWB (see Figure 2) and supervisor reported CWB (see Figure 3). These data support the eighth hypothesis, which states that self-control interacts with negative emotions to predict CWB.

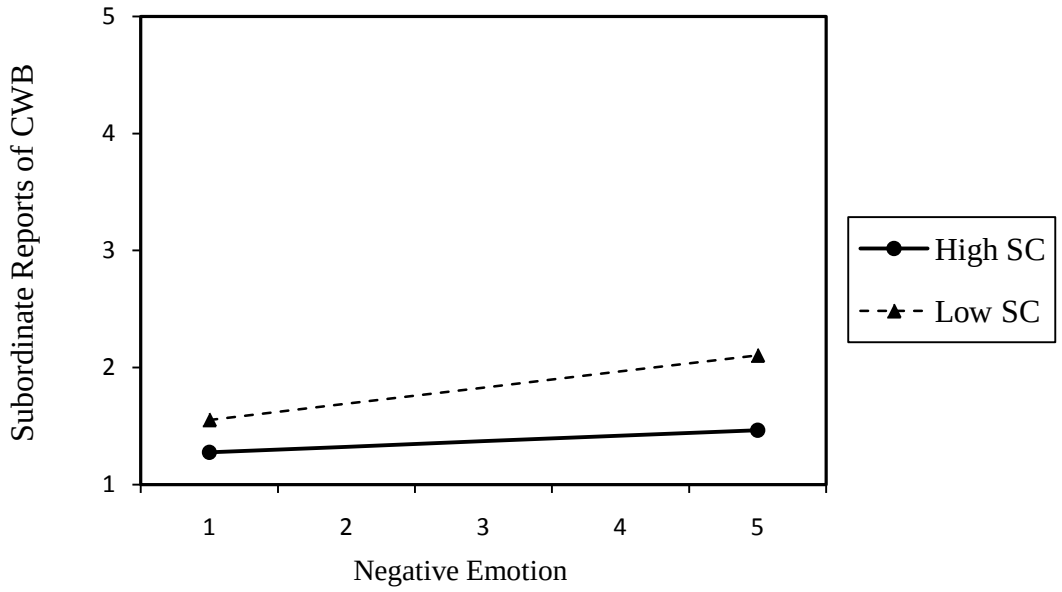

Figure 2. Interaction of Negative Emotion and Self-Control Predicting Subordinate Reports of CWB

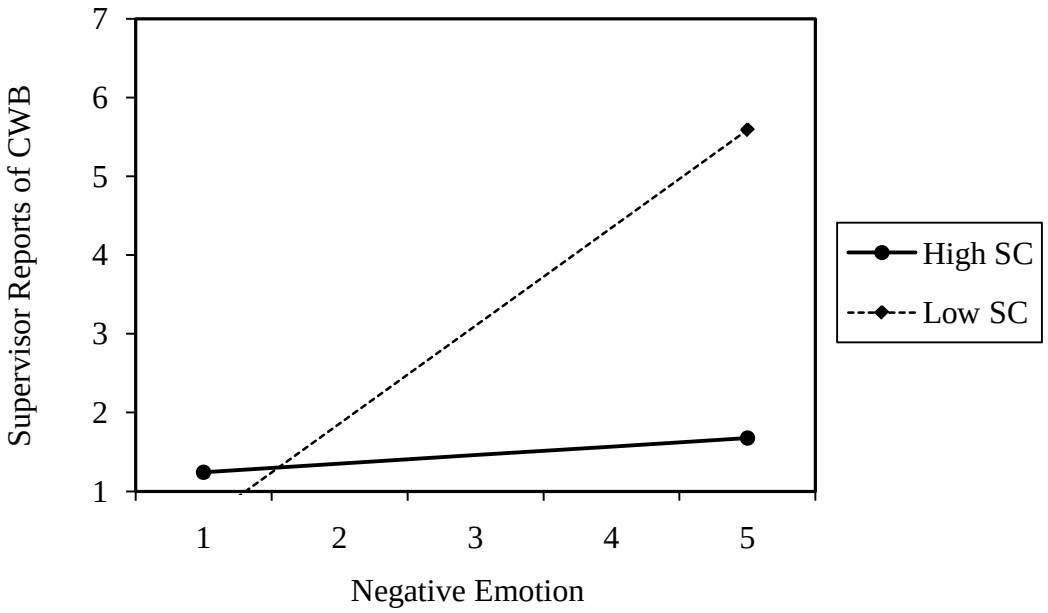

Figure 3. Interaction of Negative Emotion and Self-Control Predicting Supervisor Reports of Subordinate CWB

5. Discussion

Results support the majority of the hypotheses. Negative emotion mediates the LMX-CWB relation. Although, entitlement is related to both negative emotions and CWB, it does not moderate LMX effects on negative emotion. Self-control moderates the effect negative emotion has on CWB.

Findings between leader-member relations and CWB are consistent with initial research on LMX and organizational retaliatory behaviors (i.e. Townsend et al., 2000). These findings also support the Norm of Reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) and negative reciprocity (Sahlins, 1972) as individuals who receive lower quality treatment reciprocate with negative behaviors. Retaliation, however, is a response to a specific action. Research on LMX is set out to understand how the quality of leader-member relations develops, and how resulting relationships impact relevant organizational activities and processes. What my research demonstrates is that lower quality leader-member relations lead to negative consequences for organizations, in the form of increased subordinate negative affectivity and CWB. Consistent with other LMX studies (e.g. Bauer et al., 2006) employees in my study tended to report higher quality leader-member relations. Given the range restriction, what my study reveals is that treating some employees *exceptional*, while treating other employees *well*, may be enough to instigate CWB.

Negative affectivity mediates the LMX-CWB relationship. My findings are consistent with previous research using the Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB (e.g. Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006; Fox & Spector, 1999; Fox et al., 2001; Spector et al., 2006).

Accordingly, poor leader-member relations lead to CWB because individuals with lower quality relations tend to experience more negative emotions.

The current results extend the stressor-emotion literature in three important ways. First, leader-member relations can be conceptualized as a workplace stressor. Stress literature supports the idea that leadership is a ubiquitous potential stressor (Kelloway et al., 2005); however, research examining supervisor behaviors in relation to subordinate CWB often includes the assumption that employees react with CWB when supervisors treat them poorly. Indeed, previous researchers documented a relation between CWB and abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2008), social undermining by supervisors (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007), and conflict with supervisors (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006). However, researchers have yet to explore subordinate CWB as a result of indirect and unintentional supervisory behavior. My study extends the literature in that supervisors do not necessarily need to engage in conflict with subordinates for subordinates to engage in CWB. Rather, unintentional supervisory behaviors can increase the likelihood of CWB. With varying qualities of leader-member relations developing between subordinates and supervisors, minor differences in exchange qualities can elicit CWB, thereby implying that CWB can easily occur in all organizations without direct provocation.

Second, my results offer an explanatory mechanism as to why LMX relates to CWB. Employees with lower quality leader-member relations are more likely to engage in CWB because they experience more negative emotion than employees with higher quality leader-member. This explanation is consistent with the main tenant of the Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB, which suggests that stressful situational variables leading to the experience of negative emotions increase the likelihood of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Third, most of the CWB research uses subordinate reports of CWB. Therefore, my research extends the literature on the use of single source data. Specifically, results support the mediating effect of negative emotion between leader-member relations and CWB using by both subordinates' and supervisors' reports of CWB.

This is the first study that I know of, that documents a relation between entitlement and subordinate reported CWB. Perhaps entitled individuals engage in CWB as a way to restore balance between what they receive and what they feel they deserve (Crino & Leap, 1989). Supervisor reports of CWB, however, do not support the entitlement–CWB link. Entitled employees, who feel they deserve more, may be cognizant that good behaviors in front of supervisors are important to fulfilling their inflated perceptions of deserving more than others deserve. Considering that supervisors are not aware of all subordinate CWB (Fox, Spector, Goh, & Bruursema, 2007), entitled individuals may be more likely to engage in private CWB. Integrating Crino and Leap's (1989) work with Fox et al. (2007), perhaps an entitled individual may restore perceived imbalances by covertly stealing office supplies, or taking longer breaks when the supervisor is unaware.

While a main effect between leader-member relations and entitlement exists, there was no support that there was an interactive effect on negative emotions. Personality research provides a reason as to why the LMX-entitlement interaction effect on negative emotion and CWB was not supported. Hough and Oswald (2005, 2008) suggest that personality variables can have a weak effect on criterion variables when they are not aligned to a commensurate level of analysis. As such, it may have been more applicable to measure entitlement behaviors that are more specific to supervisor interactions as opposed to using a general measure of entitlement. Entitlement sample questions such as "I feel I

deserve more *from my supervisor*", or "I deserve the best *from my supervisor* because I'm worth it" may result in a stronger entitlement–LMX interaction effect on negative emotions than the more general entitlement items used in my study.

The strong negative relation between self-control and CWB is similar to other organizational studies using self-control as outlined by Self-Control Theory (e.g. Bechtoldt et al., 2007; Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Marcus & Wagner, 2007). Both subordinate and supervisor reports of CWB yield identical conclusions thereby suggesting that self-control is an important determinant of CWB.

The supporting evidence for the interaction between self-control and negative emotion to predict CWB is consistent with two perspectives. First, the Stressor-Emotion Model suggests that control affects one's ability to adapt to, and deal with, anger and other negative emotions at work (Spector & Fox, 2005). Second, Self-Control Theory suggests that those with lower self-control are unable to avoid acts whose long-term costs exceed momentary advantages (Hirschi & Gottfredson, 1994). As such, individuals with lower self-control are unable to constrain their behaviors, and consequently, engage in more CWB when experiencing negative emotions than those with higher levels of self-control. Both supervisor and subordinate data on CWB support this finding. In combination with the mediating effect of negative emotion on leader-member relations to predict CWB, it is likely that individuals with lower self-control develop a negative feedback loop with the supervisor. Given their subordinates' behaviors, supervisors solidify their belief that the subordinates are a hired hand thereby perpetuating lower quality leader-member relations, negative emotion, and CWB cycles.

Contribution

There are several notable features of my study. First, I collected data from two sources, and the conclusions based on these two sources converged. There has been debate about the reliance of single-source data (Hurrell, Nelson, & Simmons, 1998; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Spector, 2006; Vandenberg, 2006). A true test of the usefulness of single source data is to compare conclusions drawn from single source data with conclusions derived from alternative sources. To the degree the results converge, the criticism over the use of single source data diminishes. My observations that the subordinate and supervisors reports of CWB results converge are consistent with other research using multiple sources (e.g., O'Brien & Allen, 2008).

Evans (1985) suggests that the concern of common method bias is reduced when a significant interaction is obtained among variables assessed by the same source because interactions accounting for even small amounts of criterion variance (e.g. 1%) in moderated multiple regression are quite substantial moderating effects. The concern of common method bias is further reduced, considering that the results from both supervisor and subordinate reports of CWB support the interaction between negative emotions and self-control with CWB.

The convergent evidence is important considering that the two sources of data each carry their own contamination and deficiency tendencies for under- and over-reporting CWB (Fox et al., 2007). In terms of subordinate reported CWB, employees are likely to underreport CWB for fear of being caught (Lee, 1993; Murphy, 1993; Spector & Fox, 2005) or believe their behavior is functionally beneficial and thus do not conceptualize it as CWB (Fox et al., 2007). Supervisor reports of CWB are more likely to suffer due to the

lack of access to subordinates' private behaviors (Fox et al., 2007). There were also differences in sample sizes and thus dissimilar statistical power.

Practical Implications

This research has several practical implications. First, stress caused by the quality of leader-member relations is important to organizations because supervisors establish relations with all subordinates and the quality of those relationships vary thereby increasing the potential for CWB. As such, it is important that organizations establish and facilitate dynamics that help foster and sustain high quality leader-member relations. Conversely, it is also important to understand that supervisors will naturally develop better exchange relationships with some employees over others. Therefore, these results have important implications for the treatment of the average employee.

With supervisors spending much of their time with daily operations, or dealing with poor employees, an average employee may be inadvertently overlooked. Active interest and support regarding an average employee's work could reduce that employee's likelihood of engaging in CWB. For example, supervisors could help to reduce CWB simply by dropping in on an average employee to tell them they appreciate their contribution to the organization. Furthermore, considering that an employee's awareness of differential treatment between them self and other co-workers increases perceptions of injustice (Sias & Jablin, 1995), it is especially important that supervisors do not get caught displaying favoritism within their work groups.

Boundary Conditions

Although I tested the mediation hypotheses using conservative techniques (i.e. Baron & Kenny, 1986), the use of cross-sectional data and this study's non-experimental

design does not allow one to infer causality (Rosopa & Stone-Romero, 2008). Results from the mediation test of negative emotion only provide support for the prediction power of the assumed model (Rosopa & Stone-Romero, 2008; Stone-Romero & Rosopa, 2008). Therefore, the results support the prediction power of the Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB. They do not imply that lower-LMX causes negative emotions, which in turn causes CWB. Furthermore, Spector and Fox (2005) emphasize that the stressor–emotion–CWB relationship is only one possible causal flow, and that causality likely runs in many directions. As such, more frequent CWB may lead to lower quality LMX and thus the experience of more negative emotions.

I used parcels to assess the degree to which my scales measured different constructs. While I found the 4-factor model fit the data better than a 1-factor model, the possibility exists that different combinations of the parcels affected the results I obtained. While there is still some controversy with using parcels as they can lead to erroneous conclusions of measurement invariance (Meade & Kroustalis, 2006) specifically with multidimensional scales (Bandalos, 2002), I did not draw conclusions based on the parcels. Despite this, caution is advised when interpreting my results.

Direction for Future Research

Although these data support the majority of my hypotheses across various types of jobs at an aggregate level, the extent to which job-type affects these relationships could not be determined because of the small sample sizes for each job-type. Given that unintentional supervisory behavior can impact the frequency of CWB, future research should investigate the effects of leader-member relations on negative emotion and CWB at various levels of analysis (e.g. within work groups, departments, organizations, job types).

Depending on the levels of negative emotions experienced and the quality of exchange relationships with supervisors, the strength of the hypothesized relationships could differ. Further research into unintentional supervisor behaviors should also examine supervisor incivility and subordinate CWB. This is a fruitful avenue for future research, considering that incivility is low intensity deviant behavior (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

While my study found support for the interaction between self-control and an aggregate level of negative emotion to predict CWB, future research should examine the interaction of self-control and discrete negative emotions. Indeed, different affective states should relate to varying consequences (Izard, 1991). As outlined in Russell et al.'s (1980) two-dimensional model of affective well-being, with pleasure-displeasure on one axis and arousal on the other, it could be that individuals with lower self-control are more likely to engage in CWB when experiencing high arousal negative emotions such as anger, hostility, or frustration. This is consistent with Lee and Allen's (2002) suggestion to investigate the relation between discrete negative emotions and CWB. Therefore, considering that anger and frustration are conceptually different from negative emotions such as boredom, it is likely that some negative emotion–self-control interactions have stronger effects than others.

Examining discrete emotions is similar recommendations that Spector & Fox (2005) suggest when they call for examination of the different CWB subscales (i.e. Abuse against Others, Production Deviance, Sabotage, Theft, and Withdrawal) and their antecedents. For example, certain emotions are likely stronger mediators for some types of CWB over other types of CWB. These examinations must be theoretically guided, and thus

testing different subscales and their relationships with individual and situational differences requires further theoretical development.

Future research on CWB should also use a longitudinal approach for data collection. This is especially important as Lazarus (1995) suggests that the study of emotion be undertaken using longitudinal study designs, and Spector and Fox (2005) suggest that longitudinal tests of their Stressor-Emotion Model of CWB are also required.

Finally, examining employee motives for engaging in certain CWB is an important avenue for future research (Spector & Fox, 2005). Considering that CWB is harmful for both organizations and its employees, it is easy to assume that eliminating all CWB is ideal. Although many CWB, such as theft and sabotage, are always bad for the organization, some CWB may be beneficial. Applying this understanding to CWB and the Stressor-Emotion Model suggests that some employees engage in CWB to cope with workplace stressors. For example, previous research examining individuals in considerably dissatisfying jobs found more absences relate to better job performance (Staw & Oldham, 1978). Furthermore, Steers and Rhodes (1978) document that a small degree of absenteeism helps by temporarily relieving employees from stressful organizational conditions. These findings suggest that some organizations, by permitting some CWB, may actually benefit from their employees' increased task performance after permitting some CWB. Perhaps simply taking a longer break at lunch helps employees improve their task performance in the afternoon. Although appearing counter-intuitive, a similar benefit may also apply to different types CWB. For example, employees performing monotonous duties (e.g. working on an assembly line) are better able to deal with these stressful conditions when they engage in informal interactions with coworkers, such as horseplay or

verbally insulting each other (Roy, 1959). These types of CWB could be seen as a beneficial form of coping with boredom at work, thereby enabling employees to better deal with job demands. An analysis of employees' motives will provide researchers, and organizations alike, with a better understanding of the causes of CWB, ways to reduce negative CWB and perhaps determine possible benefits of some CWB.

Conclusion

The current study documents the importance that leader-member relations play in predicting subordinate CWB. The occurrence of CWB increases because employees with lower quality leader-member relations tend to experience more negative emotions at work than those who have higher quality leader-member relations. Employees in my study tended to report higher quality leader-member relations; therefore it is not only individuals with poor quality leader-member relations that engage in CWB. Rather, it is that relatively lower-LMX quality leads to higher levels of CWB. This suggests that supervisors do not have to engage in highly aversive behaviors to elicit CWB in subordinates but that unintentional supervisory behaviors may elicit CWB in subordinates. Furthermore, some employees, such as those lower in self-control, are more likely to engage in CWB when experiencing negative emotions than people who are better able to control their actions. Understanding the relationships among interpersonal work stressors, negative emotions, and individual differences such as self-control, is essential to understanding CWB and creating better working environments for all.

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Appendix A

LMX-MDM
(Liden & Maslyn, 1998)

Directions: Please circle the response choice that best describes your relationship with your immediate supervisor.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I like my immediate supervisor very much as a person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I do not mind working my hardest for my immediate supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. My immediate supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My immediate supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I am impressed with my immediate supervisor's knowledge of his/ her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I admire my immediate supervisor's professional skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I do work for my immediate supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my immediate supervisor's work goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. My immediate supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. My immediate supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I respect my immediate supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. My immediate supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix B

Job-related Affective Well-being Scale
Van Katwyk et al. (2000)

Directions: Below are a number of statements that describe different emotions that a job can make a person feel. Please indicate the amount to which any part of your job (e.g., the work, coworkers, supervisor, clients, pay) has made you feel that emotion in the past 30 days.

	Never (less than once a month)	**Rarely**	**Sometimes** (weekly)	**Quite often**	**Extremely often** (daily)
1. My job made me feel angry	1	2	3	4	5
2. My job made me feel annoyed	1	2	3	4	5
3. My job made me feel anxious	1	2	3	4	5
4. My job made me feel bored	1	2	3	4	5
5. My job made me feel confused	1	2	3	4	5
6. My job made me feel depressed	1	2	3	4	5
7. My job made me feel disgusted	1	2	3	4	5
8. My job made me feel discouraged	1	2	3	4	5
9. My job made me feel frightened	1	2	3	4	5
10. My job made me feel frustrated	1	2	3	4	5
11. My job made me feel furious	1	2	3	4	5
12. My job made me feel gloomy	1	2	3	4	5
13. My job made me feel fatigued	1	2	3	4	5
14. My job made me feel intimidated	1	2	3	4	5
15. My job made me feel miserable	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix C

Self-Control Measure
(Higgins, 2007, adapted from Grasmick et al., 1993)

Directions: Please circle the response choice that best describes your beliefs.

	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1. I often act on the spur of the moment without stopping to think.	1	2	3	4
2. I like to get out and do things more than I like to read or contemplate ideas.	1	2	3	4
3. I am more concerned with what happens to me in the short run than in the long run.	1	2	3	4
4. I frequently try to avoid projects that I know will be difficult.	1	2	3	4
5. The things in life that are easiest to do bring me the most pleasure.	1	2	3	4
6. I dislike really hard tasks that stretch my abilities to the limit.	1	2	3	4
7. When I'm really angry, other people better stay away from me.	1	2	3	4
8. I sometimes find it exciting to do things for which I might get into trouble.	1	2	3	4
9. I almost always feel better when I am on the move than when I am sitting and thinking.	1	2	3	4
10. I often do whatever brings me pleasure here and now, even at the cost of some distant goal.	1	2	3	4
11. I lose my temper pretty easily.	1	2	3	4
12. I try to look out for myself first, even if it means making things difficult for other people.	1	2	3	4
13. I'm not very sympathetic to other people when they are having problems.	1	2	3	4
14. I seem to have more energy and a greater need for activity than most other people my age.	1	2	3	4
15. Sometimes I will take a risk for the fun of it.	1	2	3	4
16. When I have a serious disagreement with someone, it's usually hard for me to talk calmly about it without getting upset.	1	2	3	4

Appendix D

Psychological Entitlement
(Campbell et al., 2004).

Directions: Please circle the response choice that best describes your beliefs.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I honestly feel I'm more deserving than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Great things should come to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. If I were on the Titanic, I would deserve to be on the first lifeboat.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I demand the best because I'm worth it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Things should go my way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I deserve more things in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. People like me deserve an extra break now and then.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I do not necessarily deserve special treatment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I feel entitled to more of everything.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix E

Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C)
Spector et al. (2006)

Directions: How often have you done each of the following things on your present job?

	Never	Once or Twice	Once or Twice per month	Once or Twice per week	Every day
1. Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies	1	2	3	4	5
2. Daydreamed rather than did your work	1	2	3	4	5
3. Complained about insignificant things at work	1	2	3	4	5
4. Told people outside the job what a lousy place you work for	1	2	3	4	5
5. Purposely did your work incorrectly	1	2	3	4	5
6. Came to work late without permission	1	2	3	4	5
7. Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't	1	2	3	4	5
8. Purposely damaged a piece of work equipment or property	1	2	3	4	5
9. Purposely dirtied or littered your place of work	1	2	3	4	5
10. Stolen something belonging to your employer	1	2	3	4	5
11. Started or continued a damaging or harmful rumor at work	1	2	3	4	5
12. Been nasty or rude to a client or customer	1	2	3	4	5
13. Purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done	1	2	3	4	5
14. Refused to take on an assignment when asked	1	2	3	4	5
15. Purposely came late to an appointment or meeting	1	2	3	4	5
16. Failed to report a problem so it would get worse	1	2	3	4	5
17. Taken a longer break than you were allowed to take	1	2	3	4	5
18. Purposely failed to follow instructions	1	2	3	4	5
19. Left work earlier than you were allowed to	1	2	3	4	5
20. Insulted someone about their job performance	1	2	3	4	5
21. Made fun of someone's personal life	1	2	3	4	5

	Never	Once or Twice	Once or Twice per month	Once or Twice per week	Every day
22. Took supplies or tools home without permission	1	2	3	4	5
23. Tried to look busy while doing nothing	1	2	3	4	5
24. Put in to be paid for more hours than you worked	1	2	3	4	5
25. Took money from your employer without permission	1	2	3	4	5
26. Ignored someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
27. Refused to help someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
28. Withheld needed information from someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
29. Purposely interfered with someone at work doing his/her job	1	2	3	4	5
30. Blamed someone at work for error you made	1	2	3	4	5

31. Started an argument with someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
32. Stole something belonging to someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
33. Verbally abused someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
34. Made an obscene gesture (the finger) to someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
35. Threatened someone at work with violence	1	2	3	4	5

36. Threatened someone at work, but not physically	1	2	3	4	5
37. Said something obscene to someone at work to make them feel bad	1	2	3	4	5
38. Hid something so someone at work couldn't find it	1	2	3	4	5
39. Did something to make someone at work look bad	1	2	3	4	5
40. Played a mean prank to embarrass someone at work	1	2	3	4	5

41. Destroyed property belonging to someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
42. Looked at someone at work's private mail/property without permission	1	2	3	4	5
43. Hit or pushed someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
44. Insulted or made fun of someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
45. Avoided returning a phone call to someone you should at work	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix F

Workplace Deviance Scale
(Robinson & Bennett, 2000)

Directions: *Please circle the response choice that best describes your beliefs about employee ____.*

This employee has:	Never	Once a Year	Twice a Year	Several Times a Year	Monthly	Weekly	Daily	Don't Know
1. Made fun of someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
2. Said something hurtful to someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
3. Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
4. Cursed at someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
5. Played a mean prank on someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
6. Acted rudely toward someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
7. Publicly embarrassed someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
8. Taken property from work without permission	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
10. Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than they spent on business expenses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
11. Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
12. Come in late to work without permission	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
13. Littered their work environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
14. Neglected to follow your instructions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
15. Intentionally worked slower than they could have	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
16. Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
17. Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
18. Put little effort into their work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
19. Dragged out work in order to get overtime	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8