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**PEER REACTIONS TO COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR**

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by

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## ABSTRACT

Counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) are phenomena that are routinely studied in Industrial Organizational Psychology. A CWB is defined as a voluntary behavior that “violates significant organizational norms and in doing so threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both” (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556). While much is known about what personality traits and situational variables can predict these incidents (e.g. Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Witt & Barrick, 2004), little is known about their consequences. Two studies, one vignette study with an organizational sample and one self-report study with a sample of employed students, were conducted to examine one consequence of CWBs, coworker reactions to CWBs. Reactions to CWB were studied in light of two variables associated with a CWB event, behavior serious and outcome severity. Behavior seriousness measured the actual behavior, or what an individual actually did. Outcome severity measured the consequences of the CWB, or the result of the individual’s behavior. These two variables were examined with three categories of reaction variables. Cognitive reactions were assessed with measurements of distributive and retributive justice. While distributive justice is a measure of one’s belief about fairness in regards to equity (Greenberg, 1984), retributive justice is a measure of how strongly one feels the individual committing the CWB should be punished (Vidmar, 2001). There was support for both behavior seriousness and outcome severity affecting retributive justice, but no support for the cognitive reaction of distributive justice. Negative emotions were also examined as a possible consequence of witnessing a coworker commit a CWB; however, none of the hypotheses regarding negative emotions

were supported. Finally, behavioral reactions were examined in regards to speaking to the individual who committed the CWB about the incident, as well as articulated, latent, and displaced dissent (Graham, 1984; Kassing, 1998). While speaking to the coworker about the incident was not predicted by either behavior seriousness or outcome severity, the two CWB variables did display relationships with the dissent variables. While a priori hypotheses were made regarding articulated dissent, latent and displaced dissent were examined in an exploratory fashion. Articulated dissent, which was defined as informing one's supervisor, or another organizational authority figure about the CWB was related to outcome severity in the vignette study. Latent dissent, or informing peers about the CWB, was predicted by behavior seriousness in the self report study. Displaced dissent, or telling an uninvolved third party, such as a friend or a spouse, was predicted by outcome severity in both the vignette and the self report study. This dissertation contributes to the literature by examining a novel aspect of CWBs, that of coworker reactions. Additionally, the variable of outcome severity was introduced to the Industrial Organizational literature on CWBs, and in the current set of studies, this variable was found to predict important outcomes, such as retributive justice perceptions, as well as organizational dissent.

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## **Chapter 1**

### **Introduction**

Perpetrators of large scale acts of employee theft or wrong-doing often find themselves receiving unwanted attention, including media coverage or even prison sentences. Jeffrey Skilling and Kenneth Lay from Enron serve as an example of how some white collar criminals have become household names. Although this is a very serious example, individuals frequently witness behaviors committed by coworkers that are against company rules or even illegal. Reactions to witnessing such actions can range from cognitive appraisals, such as believing the action deserves to be punished, to peer reporting. Although the media tends to focus on the legal consequences of counterproductive work behaviors, psychological research has focused more on using individual and situational characteristics to predict these behaviors.

There are three reasons why studying CWBs is warranted. First, they have large ramifications in terms of monetary costs to organizations. It is estimated that organizations lose between \$6 and \$200 billion each year due to CWBs (Murphy, 1993). Second, a large percentage of individuals engage in CWBs, although the consequences are not always serious. As Peterson (2002) noted, CWBs are most often smaller acts, such as petty theft, rather than individuals embezzling large sums of money. Third, the changing nature of work also necessitates research on CWBs. As Andersson and Pearson (1999) explained, the need for civility between individuals becomes more important as

interactions at work increase in both complexity and frequency, which has become the case in many industries and occupations (Offerman & Gowing, 1999).

A counterproductive work behavior is defined as a voluntary behavior that “violates significant organizational norms and in doing so threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both” (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556). It is important to study third parties in regards to CWBs because work is a social context. When an individual engages in a CWB, the effects are not limited to the individual and the organization; the behavior might also affect co-workers, customers or other third parties. Andersson and Pearson (1999) described the process by which third parties react to minor CWBs or general incivility. These reactions to the CWB may include perceptions of interpersonal injustice, negative affect, and a desire to reciprocate with another CWB. Andersson and Pearson also explained that even if the CWB is not directed at the third party, when third parties witness incivility or CWBs occurring, it can still lead to negative reactions.

The current study focuses on the reactions of third parties when they witness a counterproductive work behavior (CWB). This study examines two characteristics of the CWB that should be positively related to negative peer reactions: behavior seriousness and outcome severity. In addition, potential moderators are examined. First, awareness that the individual committing the CWB has suffered an organizational injustice is hypothesized to mitigate the third party’s negative reaction. Secondly, it is also expected that high levels of conscientiousness, belief in a just world, and negative affect will strengthen the relationship between the CWB variables and peer reaction variables.

In order to discuss the propositions summarized above, an examination of the current state of research regarding CWBs follows. This section includes the CWB variables of behavior seriousness and outcome severity. Then, the importance of third parties in regards to CWBs is discussed, along with the theoretical rationales for why third parties might react differently, depending on behavior seriousness and outcome severity. This is followed by a review of third party reactions in the literature. Finally, the proposed moderators of organizational injustice, belief in a just world, conscientiousness, and negative affect are examined.

## Chapter 2

### Overview of Counterproductive Work Behaviors

CWBs can be thought of as a type of behavior demonstrated in the overall domain of work performance. Motowidlo (2003) discussed them as one of the behavioral dimensions of job performance, explaining that some behaviors have a negative expected organizational value. There is also empirical research to support this. Rotundo and Sackett (2002) conducted a study examining to what extent raters weighted task, citizenship and counterproductive behaviors when assigning overall performance ratings. Results showed that raters generally used one of three methods to decide their overall ratings. One group rated task performance highest, another group rated counterproductive performance highest, and finally the last group rated task and counterproductive behaviors equally, but gave them more weight than organizational citizenship behaviors. This suggests that CWBs are an important avenue in which to focus research.

There are multiple ways to define CWBs in addition to the definition laid out in the introduction. Sackett's (2002) definition of a CWB is similar, stating that it refers to an intentional behavior by a member of the organization that would be viewed by the organization as contrary to its own legitimate interests. Marcus and Schuler (2004) provided three necessary requirements for an act to be considered a CWB. First, the behavior must be volitional, although intent does not have to be the driving force. Second, the act must be potentially and predictably harmful, even if the act does not

result in an undesirable outcome. Third, the act must be counter to legitimate interests and cannot be outweighed by other legitimate interests.

CWBs can also be defined by their antecedents. For example, organizational retaliatory behaviors are defined as “behavioral responses of disgruntled employees to perceived unfair treatment” (Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999, p. 100). Based on this definition, organizational retaliatory behaviors can encompass a wide range of behaviors that might also fall under the various definitions above. For example, if employees felt they were treated unfairly and responded by physically assaulting their supervisors, this behavior would fall under the definitions of both Skarlicki et al.’s organizational retaliatory behavior, and also Neuman and Baron’s (1998) definition of workplace aggression.

Additionally, many subcategories of CWB have been defined. Incivility is one such example, and it is explained as a low-intensity behavior in violation of workplace norms for respect but without intent to harm a particular person (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Workplace aggression is another more specific term, which characterizes behavior in which individuals try to harm others at work or their organization (Neuman & Baron, 1998).

Other authors categorize CWBs based on their dimensions. Robinson and Bennett (1995) examined CWBs using multidimensional scaling which resulted in a typology consisting of two dimensions. One dimension reflected interpersonal and organizational deviance and the other dimension distinguished how harmful the behavior was (minor vs. serious). These two dimensions resulted in four quadrants which can be used to classify CWBs. The first quadrant, property deviance, encompasses behaviors



that are serious and directed towards the organization, such as stealing expensive equipment. The second quadrant, production deviance, reflects behaviors that are directed at the organization, but are less serious, such as tardiness. Political deviance is the third quadrant and refers to acts that are both minor and directed towards individuals, such as gossiping. The fourth quadrant, personal aggression, reflects behaviors that are both serious and directed towards individuals, such as harassment or assault.

Robinson and Bennett's (1995) typology is especially useful because it incorporates withdrawal behaviors, such as absenteeism and tardiness, that have not been included consistently in the counterproductive behavior literature. However, one concern with their classifications is that behaviors in different quadrants are often related. A recent meta-analysis estimated the relationship between interpersonal and organizational deviance as  $\rho = .62$  (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007). Even if research does not support this distinction, Robinson and Bennett's typology would still be useful at a conceptual level, especially for considering the antecedents of CWBs. In support of the two factor model, some studies have shown that when administering Bennett and Robinson's (2000) scale, a two factor model that distinguished between interpersonal and organizational deviance does fit better than a one factor model (Lee, Ashton, & Shin, 2005; Liao, Joshi, & Chuang, 2004).

An important area of research in regards to CWBs encompasses third party reactions. This may be due to the increasing use of teams in the workplace. As mentioned in the introduction, when third parties witness a CWB, they may have negative reactions, such as perceptions of injustice and negative emotions. There has also been empirical research demonstrating the importance of team members' CWBs on

individual behavior. A study of 35 work groups in 20 different organizations found that there was a positive relationship between the level of CWBs in the group and the amount of CWBs engaged in by individual members of the group (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). In addition, the length of tenure and the amount of task interdependence moderated this relationship, so that longer tenure and more task interdependence increased the strength of the relationship between individual's and their group's CWBs. Additionally, if an individual's level of CWB was lower than their peers, the individual reported less satisfaction with group members (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly). These findings suggest that there is an important relationship to be examined when it comes to third party perceptions of CWBs.

Examining peers' reactions to CWBs is also important due to the increase in the use of 360 degree performance appraisal systems (Atkins & Wood, 2002), where peers, subordinates, and other third parties are able to contribute to an individual's performance evaluation. With Rotundo and Sackett's (2002) conclusion that CWBs do impact overall or global supervisor ratings of performance, it is likely that peers also allow an individual's CWBs to influence their ratings during 360 degree evaluations. A better understanding of third party reactions to CWBs might help us understand why and to what extent third parties take into account CWBs when it comes to rating global performance. Given the increasing use of teams, where coworkers have ample opportunity to witness CWBs, and the effect that CWB has judgments of performance, it is prudent to study third party perceptions of these negative behaviors.

Previous research focusing on CWBs has primarily focused on antecedents, rather than consequences. A general overview of antecedents is conducted to examine what

variables have been found to influence an individual's likelihood to engage in CWB and what often causes this type of behavior. The antecedents of CWBs have been divided into individual differences and situational variables (Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002). Individual differences have included personality, such as narcissism (Penney & Spector, 2002), conscientiousness, emotional stability, and agreeableness (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004), cognitive ability (Dilchert, Ones, Davis, & Rostow, 2007), age, gender, and even marital status (Lau, Au, & Ho, 2003; Marcus & Schuler, 2004).

Situational variables also have a strong influence on the likelihood that an individual will commit a CWB. Situational factors include such things as an organization's ethical climate (Peterson, 2002), the risk involved in committing the CWB (Mikulay, Neuman, & Finkelstein, 2001) and perceptions of organizational injustice (Greenberg, 1990). Although research on the antecedents of CWB is important, the current study will focus on CWB as a predictor, rather than as a criterion variable.

### **Counterproductive Work Behavior Variables**

In order to move to an examination of how different aspects of CWBs can affect third party reactions, the discussion must transition from a general overview of CWBs to a more focused examination of the variables which are hypothesized to affect peer reactions to CWBs. While no specific hypotheses are made regarding the target of the CWB, this variable will be examined. The next variable is the seriousness of the

behavior (minor vs. severe) while the last variable of interest, termed outcome severity, focuses on the consequence of the CWB.

### **Counterproductive Work Behavior Direction**

Research has delineated differences regarding the target of the CWB - such that they are classified as being directed at the organization itself (e.g. absenteeism) or at an individual (e.g. swearing at another employee) (Robinson & Bennet, 1995). Individuals may also distinguish this in some way. Peers may react differently to behaviors that are harmful to the organization compared to behaviors that are directed towards another person in the organization. For example, if an employee stole \$20, coworkers may react differently if the money came from a cash register versus another employee's purse. This variable will be termed CWB direction.

In Victor, Trevino, and Shapiro's (1993) examination of peer reporting of unethical behavior, they explained that work group members would be most likely to report misconduct if it was harming them in some way. This could also extend to harming other group members. If third parties notice that someone is committing a CWB directed at another person, they may react strongly, given that they might be able to put themselves in the place of the victim, or they might draw the conclusion that it is also possible that the individual committing the CWB might act out against them in a similar fashion. This line of thinking suggests that peers will have more negative reactions to individually directed behaviors.

On the other hand, many types of CWBs that are interpersonally focused might be less likely to be classified by the peer as a CWB. That would make it less likely that they would report the incident to the organization, although they might still have negative affective or cognitive reactions. For example, the interpersonally directed behaviors listed on Bennett and Robinson's (2000) workplace deviance measure include such behaviors as: making fun of someone, saying something hurtful, cursing at someone, acting rudely, publicly embarrassing someone, and making an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work. Some of the organizationally directed behaviors are also illegal, such as stealing or taking illegal drugs. Also, unlike some of the organizationally directed behaviors, these interpersonally directed CWBs are not explicitly illegal.

Since there are competing rationales regarding the reactions that would occur from individually and organizationally directed behaviors, this study does not have a directional hypothesis about CWB direction. However, it will be included as a variable of interest.

### **Behavior Seriousness**

Wheeler (1976) originally made the distinction between more or less serious deviant behaviors, but this distinction has become more popular after Robinson and Bennett's (1995) typology. There are a few ways one can think about behavior seriousness. First, the same type of behavior could vary in seriousness. For example, an employee can show up for work 15 minutes late, or two hours late, so while the same behavior (tardiness) is being displayed, it is being displayed to varying degrees.

Secondly, behavior seriousness can be conceptualized as contrasting two related, but distinct behaviors, such as stealing money from a cash register versus taking home a few pens from work. Finally, behavior seriousness can also be thought of as comparing completely unrelated behaviors, such as taking longer breaks than allowed, versus gossiping with coworkers about another employee. For more examples of behaviors varying in behavior seriousness, see Appendix A. One may also look to Robinson and Bennett for examples: they utilized multidimensional scaling to place different types of CWBs into a two-dimensional configuration, based on the target of the CWB and the seriousness of the behavior. Looking at their figure, one can see how different behaviors are categorized as more or less serious.

One of the tenets of the current study is the belief that more serious CWBs should have stronger negative reactions. First, many CWBs that are low in seriousness, such as daydreaming at work, or coming in 10 minutes late for work, are less likely to be noticed or classified as ‘bad behaviors’ in the eyes of the third party. There is also empirical support for the seriousness of CWBs influencing third party reactions. Regarding peer reporting, Near and Miceli (1985) noted that one factor influencing whistle-blowing (a certain type of peer reporting) was the perception that the action was serious. Support for this has also been found internationally, with both Chinese and Canadian samples (Zhuang, Thomas, & Miller, 2005). However, in regards to whistle-blowing, generally very serious or illegal behaviors are examined, so it will be interesting to study behaviors that, while being less serious than the behaviors studied with whistle-blowing, are more common at work. As the seriousness of the CWB increases, it is expected that peers

should have more negative reactions, and the likelihood of their reporting the CWB should also increase.

When it comes to behavior seriousness, one can discuss a wide range of behaviors, such as contrasting tardiness with physical assault or the theft of thousands of dollars. It is easy to see how third party reactions might differ in this instance. However, in the workplace, the types of CWBs that individuals witness are more likely to be rather benign, and less serious in nature. In a study of base rates of employee theft, a much higher percentage of respondents admitted to committing theft(s) of \$5.00 to \$9.99 (12.9% to 26.1%, depending on the instrument used to collect the responses) than to theft of over \$50.00 (2.4% to 6.7% of respondents) (Wimbush & Dalton, 1997).

The low base rates for very serious CWBs make it unrealistic to expect meaningful comparisons of very serious CWBs with more trivial CWBs. It is more likely that peers witness a greater percentage of less serious behaviors, so the behaviors that are compared are less likely to differ by a great amount in regards to behavior seriousness. However, the relationship between behavior seriousness and third party reactions is hypothesized to be linear, so the relationship should still hold, even if the types of behaviors examined are all less serious in nature.

### **Outcome Severity**

The other CWB variable examined in the current study is outcome severity. Outcome severity is a measure of the actual harm of the CWB. Outcome severity is *not* a measure of the punishment, or disciplinary action that is directed towards the culprit

committing the CWB. Rather, outcome severity is the harm that is caused to the organization, its members, or customers. One can imagine that behavior seriousness is often tied to outcome severity, in that the more serious the behavior, often the more serious the outcome. However, there should not be a perfect correlation between the two. For instance, sometimes CWBs that are low in seriousness (e.g. smoking a cigarette while working) may have very severe outcomes (e.g., starting a fire) while more serious behaviors (e.g., smoking marijuana at work) may not have any severe outcomes for the organization (e.g., nothing resulted from this action). For examples of outcomes severity, and how severe outcomes might result from both minor and serious behaviors, please see the examples in Appendix A.

In general, the more serious the consequences of someone's actions, the more likely others are to assign blame or responsibility to them (Walster, 1966). To further this explanation, Alicke (1992) explains that when people commit CWBs or other transgressions (e.g., criminal activity), how much third parties tend to blame them or call for their punishment is to a large extent, determined by the perception of the individuals' causal role in producing the harm. This is known as culpable causation (Alicke). In regards to the current study, this means that as outcome severity increases, the more an individual is perceived to be at fault for an incident. Then, because this individual is perceived to be at fault, it is more likely that a third party would have negative reactions to, or call for harsh punishments in response to the CWB. As an example, in one scenario study participants were told that a young man took reasonable safety precautions to avoid an accident, but he either ended up with a dented fender, or injuring a pedestrian (Walster). Note that in these two scenarios the behaviors are identical. Walster's study



examined assignment of responsibility, and significantly more responsibility was assigned to the young man in the condition where there was a more severe outcome. It is also likely that as consequences become more severe, that actions will be more likely to be classified as counterproductive by the peer witnessing the action. This would be supported by Jones' (1991) explanation of moral intensity, whereby individuals are more likely to judge a situation as a moral dilemma, or recognize behaviors as being either ethical or unethical in instances where there is a larger magnitude of consequences.

Some support has been found for the importance of outcome severity. For example, some studies have used vignettes where an employee starts a fire while they are smoking (which was against their organization's rules). In the vignettes, severity of the outcome can range from the fire being put out quickly, to the fire spreading and badly injuring another employee. Regarding these vignettes, it has been found that as property damage and personal injury increase, reactions as measured by the individual's judgments regarding appropriate discipline also become more severe (e.g., an oral reprimand vs. a termination) (Fukami & Hopkins, 1993). This same effect has also been found by Liden et al. (1999), who also used scenarios and found that disciplinary decisions were harsher in conditions of high outcome severity. Although disciplinary decisions have more of a relationship with managerial reactions to CWBs, the influence of outcome severity on reactions should also hold for peers.

In a similar vein, Gino, Moore, and Bazerman (2008) examined outcome severity, although they termed this variable "outcome information". However, they examined unethical behaviors by individuals or organizations, not counterproductive work behaviors. This is distinguishable because the behaviors in their scenarios did not

necessarily go against organizational rules. For example, in one scenario, a government agency decided to use either tents or temporary shacks for short terms housing. In the positive outcome condition temperatures stayed mild and the tents provided sufficient shelter, but in the negative outcome condition, the winter was colder than expected and 50 children died of exposure. They examined whether participants viewed these actions as ethical or unethical, and found that with negative outcomes, actions were rated as less ethical. Gino et al. also examined how harshly the study participants believed the individuals or organizations at fault should be punished, and found that negative outcomes also led to harsher punishments. Gino et al.'s findings would be in line with both Walster's (1966) explanation that the more serious the outcome, the more one is blamed as responsible by others and Alicke's (1992) finding that an individual's perceived casual role influences the amount of punishment that others call for regarding the incident.

Another related construct would be Jones' (1991) magnitude of consequences, which is found in the ethical decision making literature. Jones proposed a model that introduced a new construct, moral intensity, which had six components: magnitude of consequences, social consensus, probability of effect, temporal immediacy, proximity, and concentration of effect. Jones argues that these six components are characteristics of the moral issue and are important determinants of ethical decisions and behavior. In regards to the importance of these variables when it comes to influencing ethical perceptions, probability of effect has been found to be most important, followed by either magnitude of consequences or temporal immediacy, so magnitude of consequences does seem to play an important role regarding ethical perceptions (Tsalikis, Seaton, & Shepherd,

2008). Here, magnitude of consequences is defined as, “the sum of the harms (or benefits) done to victims (or beneficiaries) of the moral act in question” (Jones, 1991, p. 374). Although Jones’ model focuses on the individual making the ethical decision, there is some empirical support for why his variable of magnitude of consequences would influence third party reactions. In a vignette study, participants judged behaviors in high moral intensity scenarios to be more unethical than behaviors in low moral intensity scenarios (McMahon & Harvey, 2007). Magnitude of consequences, along with probability of effect, temporal immediacy, and social consensus all had an effect. Other researchers have found support for the relationship between Jones’ consequence magnitude and whistle-blowing (Singer, Mitchell, & Turner, 1998).

In summary, the current research is interested in examining various variables associated with CWBs. The direction of the CWB is an explanation to what party the CWB was directed at (e.g. the organization, a coworker, or even customers). Behavior seriousness examines the actual behavior that occurred, that is, what did the individual committing the CWB would actually do. Finally, outcome severity is a measure of harm, or consequence of the CWB.

## Chapter 3

### Coworker Reactions to Counterproductive Work Behaviors

As mentioned in the introduction, the majority of studies examining CWBs focus on predicting them, rather than on examining their consequences. Because fewer studies have focused on reactions to CWBs, and those that did primarily examined whistleblowing or reporting CWBs, a broader net is cast here. First, research is discussed that involves peers or other third parties in their examination of CWBs, to understand the extent of their knowledge of other's CWBs. Then, a general overview of third party reactions is given.

Although most studies of CWB rely on self-reports of the individual committing the CWB, there has been a shift toward using other methods to gather data. Fox, Spector, Goh, & Bruursema (2007) have called for research on CWBs to expand to include either more objective or non-incumbent data collection methods.

However, there is some concern about the accuracy of non-incumbent reports. This is due to the nature of CWBs, since they are less likely to be conducted out in the open, in view of others (Fox et al., 2007). Additionally, some types of CWBs are more likely to be noticed by others. For example, aggression towards another coworker would be more noticeable than spending time playing computer games.

Studies have found participant and third party reports of CWBs to be positively and significantly correlated, suggesting that third parties do have the opportunity and ability to observe the CWBs of others. Judge, Scott, and Illies (2006) collected reports of

CWBs from both participants and their immediate supervisors, and found a significant correlation of .40. In a study focused on measuring the convergence of matched coworker and self reports for CWBs, Fox et al. (2007) found that while CWBs directed at other individuals converged significantly, CWBs directed at the organization did not. Perhaps third parties are better able to identify CWBs that they recognize as harming either themselves, or others, rather than harming the organization.

In addition to finding convergence for self and peer reports of CWBs, studies have also found that self-rated variables, such as perceptions of organizational justice, can predict third party ratings of CWBs (e.g., Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). This lends support to the idea that collecting third party data on CWB can lead to meaningful results.

The research examined above suggests peers do recognize third party CWBs. The focus of the current study, however, is what happens after third parties notice these occurrences. The current study asks what types of reactions do third parties have when they witness CWBs and how their reactions differ based on both CWB characteristics and the third party's individual differences (e.g., conscientiousness). A few studies have examined different variables of interest regarding reactions to CWBs, although they are not always explicitly termed so. For example, one way that third parties can react is by reporting the CWB to their organization or manager (Victor et al., 1993). Third parties might also react to more serious CWBs by whistle-blowing, or reporting the individual(s) committing the CWB to an external authority (Miceli & Near, 1992). Peer reporting can also be classified as a type of whistle-blowing (Trevino & Victor, 1992). Studies examining whistle-blowing or other types of peer reporting often measure third party reporting by the use of scenarios, (e.g., Schultz, Johnson, Morris, & Dyrnes, 1993;

Trevino & Victor; Zhuang et al., 2005) although others collect field data regarding the reporting of CWBs (e.g., Lee, Heilmann, & Near, 2004).

Andersson and Pearson's (1999) explanation of the spiraling effect of incivility can also shed some light on peer reactions to CWBs. They postulate that small incidents at work, such as violations of workplace norms, can lead to increasingly more severe CWBs. This occurs because when individuals at work believe that they have been treated poorly (i.e., feelings that interactional justice has been violated) they then feel negative affect, and a desire to reciprocate. Andersson and Pearson's theory suggests that some individuals might react to CWBs directed at themselves by retaliating with more CWBs against the individual who engaged in the original CWB. Even more interestingly, it also suggests that when peers witness a CWB, even if it is not directed at them, or has no discernable target, they might still react in a negative way. Peers might also increase their own levels of CWB to match the levels of others in their workgroup (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). However, it should be noted that this may not be due to retaliation; rather, the individual might just be adhering to group norms regarding CWBs (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly).

One might ask why third parties react to others' CWBs at all? In equity theory, Adams (1965) suggests that an individual might judge fairness by calculating the ratio of their contributions (or inputs) to their outcomes and then they compare that ratio with a comparison other, such as a coworker. If the ratios are uneven in an unfavorable way (such as an individual putting in the same amount of work, but receiving a less favorable outcome), Adams explains that these workers may then feel under rewarded and might respond to the situation by trying to raise their outcomes. In some cases, such as when

another employee is stealing from the organization, third parties may then feel that they are being under rewarded compared to the thieving coworker. One can extend the argument of Aquino, Lewis, and Bradfield (1999), who posited that the relationship between CWB and distributive justice can be explained according to the theory of relative deprivation. This theory posits that, when outcomes that are perceived as unfair it leads to feelings of dissatisfaction and resentment that then motivate the aggrieved party to react by either modifying their behavior (e.g., stealing) or by changing the system. This argument can be applied to third parties reacting to CWBs. If a third parties witness another employee engaging in theft from the organization, the individual may then perceive the ratio of outcomes as unfair. Following the above rationale from Aquino et al., third parties may then try to respond by modifying their own behavior (e.g., reducing their inputs by performing at a lower level, or committing theft themselves) or by changing the system (e.g., telling a supervisor that the individual is engaging in a CWB with the expectation that their coworker will then have to change their behavior). In addition to these behavioral reactions, inequity can also creative negative emotions, which have been termed inequity distress (Greenberg, 1984).

An extension of Graham's (1986) theory of principled organizational dissent can also shed some light on why third parties might react to CWBs. Principled organization dissent is defined as an individual's effort to change or protest the organizational status quo due to their objection to a practice or policy in place. However, this theory must be extended. In its current form this theory applies to reactions to organizational policies and practices, meaning that it covers organizationally sanctioned behaviors. However,

CWBs are behaviors that are attributed to individuals within the organization, as opposed to the organization itself, and that go against organizational policy or practice.

There are many parallels between individual's reactions to the organization in Graham's (1986) model and the hypothesized reactions towards the individual committing the CWB. First, the model of principled organizational dissent suggests that an individual's decision to react to or report an organization's unethical act depends on the perception that the act violates some type of standard (such as justice) (Schultz et al., 1993). This is similar to the rationale based from equity theory as described above. In many cases of CWBs, a third party might view the CWB as resulting in unjust outcomes. For example, if they witnessed another worker stealing money, they might think about the unfairness of their outcomes, since their outcomes might now be less than the outcomes of their coworker. Third parties might also find their sense of deontic justice, or their sense of moral principles, violated, since they are witnessing an individual commit possibly immoral actions (Cropanzano, Goldman, & Folger, 2003).

Second, Graham's (1986) model predicts that an individual is more likely to engage in organizational dissent as the seriousness of the incident increases. This is similar to a proposition in the current study, which suggests that as the seriousness of the CWB behavior increases, the third parties reaction should also become more extreme. In regards to reporting the CWB or unethical behavior, other authors have also heralded the importance of the seriousness of the act (Near & Miceli, 1985). Near and Miceli suggest that ambiguity about the incident is also likely to influence an individual's likelihood to blow the whistle. It is likely that individual's perceive more serious acts as less ambiguous in regards to their ethicality or legality.



The third parallel of principled organizational dissent with the current paper is that a third party can react in multiple ways by telling others about the incident at hand (in this case the CWB). There are three types of dissent: articulated, latent, and displaced (Kassing, 1998). Articulated dissent occurs when employees express dissent openly to individuals who could have an effect on the incident at hand. For instance, the third party could report the behavior to a supervisor or another such authority, such as a whistle-blowing hotline (Kassing & Avtgis, 1999). Latent dissent is explained as employees expressing their opinions or thoughts on the matter to individuals within the organization who do not have authority regarding the situation, such as a third party telling another coworker about the CWB that they witnessed. The final type of dissent, displaced, involves telling others not affiliated with the organization, such as friends or spouses (Kassing & Avtgis). In regards to whistle-blowing, telling the media or an external political source would fall under articulated, rather than displaced dissent. This is because the media can have an effect on the CWB (or whatever incident occurred) by raising public awareness about the issue (although this isn't necessary for the act to fall under articulated dissent). In the current study, although the three types of dissent are examined, specific hypotheses are only made regarding articulated dissent. Articulated dissent is measured by examining third party reporting behavior. Latent and displaced dissent are measured by asking participants if they spoke about the incident to other individuals, such as a coworker, friend, or spouse.

## Types of Reaction Variables

### Cognitive Reactions

There are multiple categories of reactions that can be studied, such as cognitive, affective, and behavioral reactions. First, cognitive reactions include the judgment one makes about the situation. This can include ratings of the fairness (or unfairness) of the situation. Included in this category are various types of organizational justice reactions.

Organizational justice is defined as an individual's perceptions of fairness in organizations (Greenberg, 1987). While there are multiple types of justice recognized in Industrial Organizational Psychology, there has been some concern as to whether the different types of justice are distinct. However, a meta-analysis (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001) found that although the different justice dimensions are related, they each contribute unique variance in regards to fairness perceptions. The different types of justice consist of distributive, procedural, and interactional.

The first type, distributive justice, examines perceived fairness of outcomes. There are three ways to conceptualize distributive justice based on the different allocation rules of equity, equality, and need (Deutsch, 1985). Equity examines an input and output ratio, where an individual examines referent others' inputs to outputs to determine if theirs is satisfactory (Adams, 1965). Equality means that resources should be distributed equally and need based means outcomes should be allocated in regards to the needs of each individual. The second type of organizational justice, procedural justice, was introduced by Thiabult and Walker (1975). They expanded the focus from looking solely at the outcome to also including the *way* in which the outcome was determined.

Interactional, the last type of justice, was introduced by Bies and Moag (1986) and examines one's interpersonal treatment. Greenberg (1993b) further delineated interactional justice into interpersonal justice, which deals with how people are treated when determining outcomes or procedures, and informational justice, which focuses on explanations given for why procedures were used or why outcomes were distributed in a certain way.

Hypotheses are not offered regarding procedural, interpersonal, or informational justice. In regards to procedural justice, it is unlikely that the individual committing the CWB would have control over influencing the procedures used to determine their coworker's rewards or pay. For interpersonal justice, unless the behavior is directed at the third party, they would be unlikely to feel that they were treated unfairly. Since the current study does not ask them specifically about interpersonal CWBs directed at them, it is unlikely to get enough responses regarding this specific type of CWB to test this hypothesis. Along the same lines, the individual committing the CWB is unlikely to be perceived as influencing the amount or type of information available to the third party.

Of the types of justice discussed above, distributive justice is the one that is most likely to be affected by viewing another individual engaging in a CWB. More specifically, an individual should feel that distributive justice had been violated when the ratio of inputs to outcomes was unequal in such a way that they were either putting in more effort, or receiving a less favorable outcome. This could happen in a few ways. A peer might witness a coworker putting in less effort, such as coming in late, taking longer breaks than necessary, or other behaviors that waste time. In this situation he or she would see the individual as reducing their input. The peer might also view the individual

engaging in behaviors to raise their outcomes. This would occur with such behaviors as theft. If the third party perceives the individual engaging in the CWB as either lowering inputs, or raising their outcomes, he or she will then be more likely to view the situation as unfair. Additionally, as the severity of the outcome increases, participants should be more likely to notice the incident. This salience may increase their likelihood of comparing their inputs/outputs with the coworker committing the CWB. As the seriousness of the behavior, and the resulting severity of the outcome increase, individuals should judge the ratios of inputs to outcomes in stricter terms.

Hypothesis 1: CWB Seriousness will be negatively related to distributive justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 2: Outcome severity will be negatively related to distributive justice perceptions.

Retributive justice has not received much attention compared to other types of organizational justice (Vidmar, 2002). For instance, there was no mention of it in a recent meta-analysis on organizational justice (Colquitt et al., 2001). However, this is not an oversight, since retributive justice is traditionally examined in the criminal justice literature, rather than in psychology. Retributive justice focuses on righting a wrong or dealing with rule breaking behavior (Skarlicki, Ellard, & Kelln, 1998). It deals with the cognitions and emotions that might occur when another individual commits a CWB, as well as what consequences are necessary to deal with the injustice that was perceived to have occurred (Darley & Pittman, 2003).

Retributive justice is explained by Vidmar (2001) as a six stage process. First, there is a perceived violation of a norm or rule (in the current study, this would be

witnessing a coworker commit a CWB). Next, one must perceive the intention of the rule violator as worthy of blame. The third step occurs when the combination of steps one and two threaten or harm one's values. These values could be related to one's personal self, status, or internalized group values. In the fourth step, anger occurs. The fifth step is when a combination of the cognitions and emotions lead to some type of reaction against the individual committing the CWB. In the sixth and final step, the anger lessens, cognitions return to normal and one sees the rule or norm that was originally broken as vindicated (Vidmar, 2001).

In addition to Vidmar's (2001) process, there are other explanations for why third parties are motivated by retributive justice. One rationale comes from Tyler and Boeckmann (1997) who discuss morals and punishment. They suggest that rule breaking, such as committing a CWB, is often seen as going against social and moral values and norms. Punishment can then reassert the group norms. This idea has also been examined in studies which look at vicarious punishment effects (e.g., Atwater, Waldman, Carey, & Cartier, 2001). However, the idea of vicarious punishment effects appears to be more in line with restorative justice which argues that, "the goal when dealing with people who may have broken social rules should be to seek ways to heighten the future motivations that those people have to engage psychologically and behaviorally in society" (Tyler, 2006, p. 315).

Finally, it is clear that retributive justice is an important factor in punishment. In a review of previous studies, Darley and Pittman (2003) found that in American culture, individuals are motivated by retributive justice when assigning penalties to individuals for the crimes they have committed. This means that when assigning punishments,

individuals are concerned with having an appropriate punishment for the behavior committed, rather than being concerned with deterring future crimes. Although the current study examines reactions to CWBs rather than criminal punishments in a court of law, it is expected that retributive justice will still affect third parties reactions to CWBs.

The current study does not examine actual punishments in response to CWBs. Rather, this study examines retributive justice reactions by assessing what type of punishment the third party thinks would be appropriate for the situation they have witnessed. In organizations, punishments range from light (e.g., a verbal warning by a supervisor) to severe (e.g., firing the employee). Many organizations have progressive discipline policies, which typically include four steps: a verbal warning, a written warning, suspension without pay and a final warning, and finally, discharge of the employee (Guffrey & Helms, 2001; Redeker, 1983). In this study, participants will be given a list of possible punishments closely mirroring the ones listed above, and asked to choose which is most appropriate.

The CWB variables of behavior seriousness and outcome severity should affect retributive justice, or in this case, the punishment recommendation. Carlsmith, Darley, and Robinson (2002) explained that many individuals follow the just desserts, or deservingness perspective of punishment, which is analogous to retributive justice. This view argues that individuals who commit crimes (or CWBs in this instance) should be punished proportionally to the crime that they committed. This means that as behavior seriousness and outcome severity increase, individuals should be more likely to recommend more severe punishments.

Hypothesis 3: CWB seriousness is negatively related to retributive justice perceptions, as measured by punishment recommendation severity.

Hypothesis 4: Outcome severity is negatively related to retributive justice perceptions, as measured by punishment recommendation severity.

An interaction is also hypothesized for retributive justice perceptions. When evaluating decisions or actions, individuals tend to take into account the result or information about the outcome, if it is available (Gino et al. 2008; Mazzocco, Alicke, & Davis, 2004). This tendency is known as the outcome bias (Baron & Hershey, 1988). The study by Gino et al., which was discussed previously, found that when participants read vignettes with unethical actions, they reported the actions as more unethical and worthy of punishment when the outcome severity was high, as opposed to low. The current study extends this by expecting that outcome severity will affect the relationship between behavior seriousness and retributive justice perceptions, or punishment recommendations, such that the positive relationship between behavior seriousness and the proposed punishment should be weaker when outcome severity is high. This relationship would suggest that outcome severity matters more than behavior seriousness, so that individuals are most concerned about the consequence of the event, rather than the action when it comes to punishing the offender.

Hypothesis 5: Outcome severity moderates the relationship between behavior seriousness and retributive justice. This relationship should be weaker with high levels of outcome severity, as compared to low outcome severity.

## **Affective Reactions**

In addition to cognitive reactions, when a peer witnesses a CWB it is hypothesized to lead to negative affective reactions. To be clear, affect can be divided into trait and state affect. Trait affect is a long-term stable individual difference that colors the way one perceives the world (either positively or negatively). Trait affect has no specific target, so it is not a reaction to any type of experienced event (Barsade, Brief, & Spataro, 2003). The current paper is concerned with state affect, which fluctuates within person and is not an individual difference. State affect can be divided into the two categories of moods and emotions. Moods and emotions differ regarding their length, intensity, and whether or not they have a target (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Moods last longer than emotions, are less intense, and have no clear cause. Emotions are shorter in duration, are more intense, and have a specific target, so they can be thought of as a reaction to something (Barsade et al.). Because emotions are caused by an event, they are more appropriate to use than moods when examining peer reactions to CWBs.

Brief and Weiss (2002) explained that more research is needed to learn more about aspects of the work environment that are likely to affect moods and emotions. One reason for this is that moods and emotions can influence important work behaviors. While some authors argue that negative emotions can sometimes be beneficial at work (Judge & Ilies, 2004), the general consensus is that positive moods are associated with positive outcomes, such as creativity (Isen, 1990),



organizational citizenship behaviors (George, 1990), and general work performance (Staw & Barsade, 1993).

Certain events in the work environment, such as witnessing a coworker commit a CWB, can serve as shocks which disrupt an individual's affect. While this event is initially evaluated in regards to it being a positive or negative occurrence, the incident is then also appraised in regards to the context in which the event took place and attributions surrounding the incident (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). As mentioned above, it is hypothesized that when peers witness a CWB, they also examine the fairness of the incident. This examination of fairness should include the context in which the event took place (such as by comparing their ratio of inputs to outcomes to their coworker). It has long been thought that negative emotions, such as anger, can result from perceptions of distributive injustice (Homans, 1961). This occurrence is known as inequity distress (Greenberg, 1984). It is postulated that witnessing a CWB will serve as a shock, or incident that would disrupt the peer's affective state. Additional support stems from equity theory which theorizes that individuals will perceive distributive injustice as they witness many types of CWBs. When employees witness a coworker lower his or her inputs by engaging in CWBs, (e.g., withdrawal behaviors) or when they witness coworkers raise their outcomes, (e.g., by theft), they are likely to see inequities in regards to the ratio between employee's and their coworker's inputs and outputs.

Hypothesis 6: CWBs that are more, as opposed to less serious, lead to stronger negative emotions.

Hypothesis 7: CWB outcomes that are more, as opposed to less severe, lead to stronger negative emotions.

Like the expectations for retributive justice, it is expected that for the interaction between behavior seriousness and outcome severity, outcome severity will be more influential in predicting employee's negative emotions, so that in situations of severe outcomes, the seriousness of the behavior does not matter in regards to influencing negative emotions. However, in conditions of low outcome severity, behavior seriousness should still be positively related to negative emotions.

Hypothesis 8: Outcome severity moderates the relationship between behavior seriousness and negative emotions. This relationship should be weaker with high levels of outcome severity, as compared to low outcome severity.

### **Behavioral Reactions**

It is also hypothesized that peers have behavioral reactions. Although one could hypothesize about the effects of witnessing CWBs on important behaviors such as job performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and the peer retaliating or matching the bad behavior by engaging in CWBs themselves, it is unlikely that a noticeable and important behavioral change would occur from witnessing one CWB. It is also possible that there may be behavioral changes if one witnesses many CWBs over time, but these questions are outside of the scope of the current study.

One behavioral reaction which is likely to be influenced by CWB variables is the peer reporting of the behavior to a supervisor or the organization, or engaging in articulated dissent (Victor et al., 1993). It is hypothesized that both behavior seriousness and outcome severity influence reporting, such that the more serious the behavior and the more severe the outcome are, the more likely it is that an individual would report the CWB. Zhuang et al. (2005) found some support for this. As mentioned earlier, they used vignettes to examine whistle-blowing in two samples (a Canadian and a Chinese sample) and reported that the seriousness of the act did predict the likelihood of peer reporting. Other studies, when using vignettes or scenarios, have asked about an individual's intention to report. As an example, Victor and Trevino (1992) asked participants to respond with their inclination to engage in reporting a peer's cheating behavior in a classroom setting. They utilized a seven point scale asking the participant's agreement to the statement, "I would report the cheater." In other situations, participants are asked to judge how often a third party would report the behavior. For instance, in one study, participants were asked to use an 11 point scale to report how likely an observer witnessing an unethical action would be to report it (Schultz et al., 1993).

The social environment is another factor for why CWBs that entail less serious behaviors or have less severe outcomes are less likely to be reported. Often, work groups have norms that discourage peer reporting (Greenberger, Miceli, & Cohen, 1987). Peer reporting might be viewed as a risky behavior (Trevino & Victor, 1992). It might be that peers report CWBs only when their concern regarding the behavior exceeds their concern for any negative repercussions from their work group members.

There are several reasons why peers might (or might not) report a CWB. One model that looks at variables assessing the likelihood to report an incident predicts that the perceived seriousness of the irregularity (which would be akin to behavior seriousness), the attribution of personal responsibility to report the incident, and the perceived personal cost of reporting the incident all play a role (Schultz et al., 1993). This model was based on Graham's (1986) model of principled organizational dissent and when tested, each variable significantly predicted an employee's likelihood to report the incident at hand. Overall, Schultz et al.'s model explained 26% of the variance in the judgment to report. However, a meta-analysis by Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran (2005) has cast doubt on the relationship between reporting intentions and reporting actions. The results of their meta-analysis suggest that the predictors of the intent to whistle blow are not the same as actual whistle blowing, meaning that different factor would affect someone's reporting intentions and actual reporting behavior. As explained by Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran, "whistle blowing intention and action are logically separated by psychological, motivational, and implementation process." (p. 292).

In addition to reporting the CWB to a supervisor, reporting or discussing the CWB with other parties will also be examined. Graham's (1986) model of principled organizational dissent suggests that employees react by telling others about the incident at hand. While employees can react with articulated dissent, or telling their supervisor, this is not their only alternative (Kassing & Avtgis, 1999). Latent and displaced dissent are also examined, although specific predictions are not made. Articulated dissent has theoretical rationales for why it should be related to behavior seriousness and outcome severity. No research has been conducted on CWBs and latent or displaced dissent, so

these are viewed as exploratory dependent variables. Latent dissent involves telling a coworker about the incident, while displaced dissent involves discussing the incident with someone who is unaffiliated with the organization and does not have a position of authority, such as a spouse or a friend (Kassing, 1998).

Hypothesis 9: CWB seriousness is related to articulated dissent, or reporting the CWB, so that the more serious the CWB, the more likely it is that the third party reported the CWB.

Hypothesis 10: Outcome severity is related to articulated dissent, or reporting, so that the more severe the outcome, the more likely it is that the third party reported the CWB.

Hypothesis 11: Outcome severity moderates the relationship between behavior seriousness and articulated dissent. This relationship should be weaker with high levels of outcome severity, as compared to low outcome severity.

Another behavioral reaction that has been studied infrequently would be confronting the coworker about his or her behavior. This behavioral reaction to CWBs has been studied in a sample of nurses, asking if they had ever confronted another impaired nurse (Damrosch & Scholler-Jaquish, 1993). However, while their definition of an impaired nurse covered drinking or using other chemicals on the job (which would be considered a CWB), it also covered mental illness. The study did not differentiate the type of impairment in their results; however, it is interesting to note that an equal number of participants revealed that they had confronted a coworker regarding the problem (37.4%) as had reported the impaired nurse to their immediate supervisor (Damrosch & Scholler-Jaquish). Another study examined coworker confrontation in regards to same-

sex sexual harassment, which could be considered a type of CWB (Goldberg & Zhang, 2004). They found that the intention to confront the coworker and the intention to report the harassment to a supervisor were positively related. Although the current study makes no hypothesis regarding this relationship, it is interesting to examine if confronting, or speaking to the coworker who committed the CWB and reporting the CWB to a supervisor are related.

Hypothesis 12: CWB seriousness is related to peer confrontation, or speaking to the coworker about the incident so that the more serious the CWB, the more likely it is that the peer would confront his or her coworker.

Hypothesis 13: Outcome severity is related to peer confrontation, or speaking to the coworker about the incident so that the more serious the CWB, the more likely it is that the peer would confront his or her coworker.

Hypothesis 14: Outcome severity moderates the relationship between behavior seriousness and peer confrontation. This relationship should be weaker with high levels of outcome severity, as compared to low outcome severity.

## **Chapter 4**

### **Moderators**

There are four moderators that are examined in the current study: organizational justice, belief in a just world, conscientiousness and trait negative affect.

#### **Organizational Justice**

The first moderator, organizational justice, is conceptualized differently than most other studies that examine it as a moderator. Typically, studies that look at organizational justice as a variable examine whether or not the study participants felt they were the victims of an organizational injustice. The current study examines the peer's perception of any type of justice violations for the individual who committed the CWB (e.g. distributive, procedural). In order to assess the possible moderation effect of organizational justice, different explanations and empirical support for why organizational justice violations lead to CWBs are examined, followed by a more thorough explanation of why peers might take organizational justice violations into account when reacting to others' CWBs.

There are multiple rationales for why an individual retaliates against an organization when they feel organizational justice is violated. As mentioned earlier, equity theory (Adams, 1965) suggests that workers who feel underpaid may respond to the situation by trying to raise their outcomes. While this could result in employees

asking their supervisor for a raise, it could also result in the employees taking it upon themselves to right the perceived inequity through unethical or illegal means (Kickul, 2001). Greenberg (1990) furthers this view by suggesting that employee theft can be thought of as a specific reaction to underpayment inequity, and that theft may be an attempt to bring the employee's outcomes closer to what the employee perceives as fair pay. Others have explained the relationship between organizational justice and CWB using Homans' (1961) basic exchange theory (Kennedy, Homant, & Homant, 2004). They explained that, depending on the injustice done to an employee, we might expect a corresponding level of behavior.

In addition to raising one's outputs, equity theory also suggests that employees could choose to lower their inputs. Robbins, Summers, and Miller (2000) listed many behaviors which they described as obvious inputs to adjust in response to perceptions of violations of organizational justice. Their list included performance, not stealing, attendance, and following instructions. Note that if employees would lower their inputs on some of these, the resulting behaviors, such as stealing and tardiness, are considered CWBs.

Employees may also have the intention of retaliating in some way against the organization (or their offender) (Skarlicki et al., 1999). If employees feel that their organization or its agents (such as the employee's supervisor) have treated them unfairly, the employees may attempt to harm the organization or its agents in various ways (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007). As an example, abusive supervision, which can be considered as a type of interpersonal injustice, has been found to predict objective measures of CWB at a business/unit level as measured by the amount of food loss at



restaurants (Detert, Trevino, Burris, & Andiappan, 2007). Different types of justice violations can influence the motive as well: distributive justice violations have been found to be associated with CWBs that seek to restore equity, whereas violations of interpersonal justice have been found to be associated with retaliatory CWB behavior (Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002).

Because of the consistent effects of organizational injustice on CWBs (Berry et al., 2007), third parties might have personal experience responding to situations where they feel they were a victim of an organizational injustice by committing a CWB. This retaliatory CWB can be thought of as getting even with the organization (Kickul, 2001), so third parties might be more willing to rationalize it in some way. They might be more likely to acknowledge the CWB as restoring an individual's equity (Adams, 1965), or even recognizing that the individual was lashing out at the organization so they might feel better about their unjust situation, since some studies have found that aggressive acts do increase one's positive affect (Bushman, Baumeister, & Phillips, 2001). Additionally, third parties might have more sympathy for the individual if they feel that the individual's organizational justice was violated. In a scenario study, perceived injustice was found to be positively related to support for aggression (Kennedy et al., 2004). After reading a scenario depicting organizational injustice or the control scenario, participants were asked to what extent they felt the worker in the scenario would be justified in making eight aggressive responses, ranging from working as slow as possible to physical assault. They found that even across the different manipulations of organizational justice (they examined distributive, procedural, and interpersonal), individuals believed that some CWBs were justified.

Research regarding justice climate can also shed some light on the influence of injustice done not just to the individual at hand, but to their coworkers as well. First, a study examining the interactions between one's perception of their own and other's justice found that a person's perception of high levels of procedural justice had more positive outcomes when others on their team also had higher levels of procedural justice (Colquitt, 2004). Other studies have examined procedural justice climate, which is defined as a group level cognition on how the group is treated as a whole (Naumann & Bennett, 2000). Procedural justice climate has been found to predict unit level outcomes, such as unit level organizational citizenship behaviors (Ehrhart, 2004). This suggests that individuals do not simply take into account their feelings about their own experience of organizational justice, but also react to their coworker's experiences of justice as well. Liao and Rupp (2005) examined procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice as group climate variables. They also examined two foci, the organization and the supervisor, to study a total of 6 climate variables. They tried to predict employee's levels of commitment, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors by the justice climate, after controlling for individual level perceptions. They found that some, but not all climate variables predicted these outcomes. For instance, supervisor focused procedural justice predicted satisfaction and commitment, but not organizational citizenship behaviors (Liao & Rupp). Their results, along with the results of both Ehrhart and Colquitt, strongly suggest that employees are not only aware of other's levels of organizational justice, but also react to them in some way.

In regards to peer reporting of CWBs, there is some evidence that perceptions of organizational justice will have an impact. In a restaurant study, peers who felt that pay

equity was fair were more likely to tell on other employees for giving away free food (Victor et al., 1993). Peer reporting was significantly correlated with both procedural and distributive justice.

The factors listed above, or any combination of them, should result in having weaker reactions to witnessing CWBs when third parties feel the individual committing them was a victim of organizational injustice in some way.

Hypothesis 15: If the third party perceives the individual who committed the CWB as a victim of organizational injustice, the relationships between the predictors and criterion variables investigated in this study will be weaker, as compared to situations where the individual who committed the CWB was not a victim of organizational injustice. Specifically, this should weaken the relationship between CWB Serious and Behavior Severity and the outcome variables of (a) distributive justice perceptions, (b) retributive justice, (c) negative emotions, (d) articulated dissent, and (e) confrontation of the employee.

### **Belief in a Just World**

Belief in a just world was introduced by Lerner (1965, 1970, 1980) and suggests that individuals view the world as a just place, a place where good things happen to good and kind people. This world is also a world where when bad things happen to a person, it is because the person has done something to deserve it.

Belief in a just world is appropriate to study in regards to third party retributive justice reactions, or how much they feel the individual committing the CWB should be

punished. This is because it well established in the criminal justice literature, where it has been studied in regards to its influence on sentencing and civil liability recommendations (Foley & Pigott, 2000; Freeman, 2006).

In regards to how belief in a just world should influence retributive justice reactions, Rubin and Peplau (1975) argue that individuals with a high belief in a just world are more likely to try to restore justice than are those with a low belief in a just world. More specifically, the current study posits that individuals with a high belief in a just world are more sensitive to the CWB variables of behavior seriousness and outcome severity in regards to retributive justice reactions.

Hypothesis 16: Belief in a just world moderates the relationship between CWB seriousness and retributive justice, so this relationship is stronger for individuals with high belief in a just world.

Hypothesis 17: Belief in a just world moderates the relationship between CWB outcome severity and retributive justice, so this relationship is stronger for individuals with high belief in a just world.

### **Conscientiousness**

The individual difference variable of conscientiousness is also examined as a moderator. Conscientiousness is part of the Five-Factor Model of personality that proposes that personality can be described through five higher order factors which include Openness to Experience, Emotional Stability, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and the variable of interest, Conscientiousness (Norman, 1963). Conscientiousness

encompasses factors such as dependability, perseverance, and achievement-orientation. Individuals high on conscientiousness are hardworking, achievement striving, punctual, dependable, and careful (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Colbert et al., 2004).

Conscientiousness is also significantly related to integrity test scores (Murphy & Lee, 1994). Many integrity tests (such as overt ones) directly measure an individual's likelihood to report dishonest behaviors, such as theft. Conscientious people are also more likely to comply with work policies, making it unsurprising that they admit to a greater likelihood to peer report. This idea is tested with the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 18: Individuals high in conscientiousness are more likely to report the CWB to their supervisor.

Since people who are high in conscientiousness tend to follow the rules, they should be more likely to respond negatively to witnessing a coworker's CWB. The current study hypothesizes that they are more affected by the variables of behavior seriousness and outcome severity. In effect, they should be extra sensitive to these variables.

Hypothesis 19: Individuals high in conscientiousness have stronger relationships between behavior seriousness and the criterion measures of (a) distributive justice perceptions, (b) retributive justice, (c) negative emotions, (d) articulated dissent, and (e) confrontation of the employee.

Hypothesis 20: Individuals high in conscientiousness have stronger relationships between outcome severity and the criterion measures of (a) distributive justice perceptions, (b) retributive justice, (c) negative emotions, (d) articulated dissent, and (e) confrontation of the employee.

### **Trait Negative Affect**

The predisposition of individuals to experience similar states (positive or negative) across situations and time is known as trait affect (Watson & Clark, 1984). Trait affect is conceptualized as two orthogonal dimensions, positive affect and negative affect (Watson, Wiese, Vaidya, & Tellegen, 1999). Trait negative affect is the dimension examined in the current study and it refers to a tendency to experience the negative emotional states of fear, guilt, anger, nervousness, and subjective stress (Watson & Clark). Individuals high in negative affect report high levels of distress and negative emotion, regardless of the situation (Watson, Pennebaker, & Folger, 1987). High levels of negative affect also increase the chance that individuals will have strong reactions to an event. Individuals with high levels of negative affect are also more responsive to incidents that elicit negative emotions (Larsen & Katelaar, 1991). Therefore, employees who have high levels of negative affect should have stronger emotional reactions to witnessing negative workplace events, including CWBs.

Although trait negative affect is often used as a control variable, in the job stress literature, researchers have noted concerns about controlling for negative affect, arguing that if negative affect does have a substantive role, controlling for it masks the effects of the predictor variables of interest (Spector, Zapf, Chen, & Frese, 2000). When it comes to predicting CWBs, negative affect does play a significant role, for individuals who are high in trait negative affect are more likely to engage in CWBs directed both at the organization, and at other individuals (Aquino et al., 1999). While it is accepted that

negative affect plays a role in predicting an individual's propensity to engage in CWBs, no research has examined how negative affect might affect how people react to them.

Hypothesis 21: Individuals high in trait negative affect have stronger relationships between behavior seriousness and negative emotions.

Hypothesis 22: Individuals high in trait negative affect have stronger relationships between outcome severity and negative emotions.

## **Chapter 5**

### **General Summary**

This study is the first investigation examining individual's reactions to their coworkers' CWBs with a focus on how aspects of the CWB itself, namely behavior seriousness and outcome severity, might play unique roles in this relationship. Additionally, multiple outcome variables are examined. Perceptions of justice, negative emotions, dissent, and confrontation are all different responses one might have to witnessing a coworker conduct a CWB. Finally, this study also investigates the possibility of four moderator variables: the perception of justice that their coworker had received, conscientiousness, belief in a just world, and trait negative affect. Figure 1 depicts the overall model with all variables included.



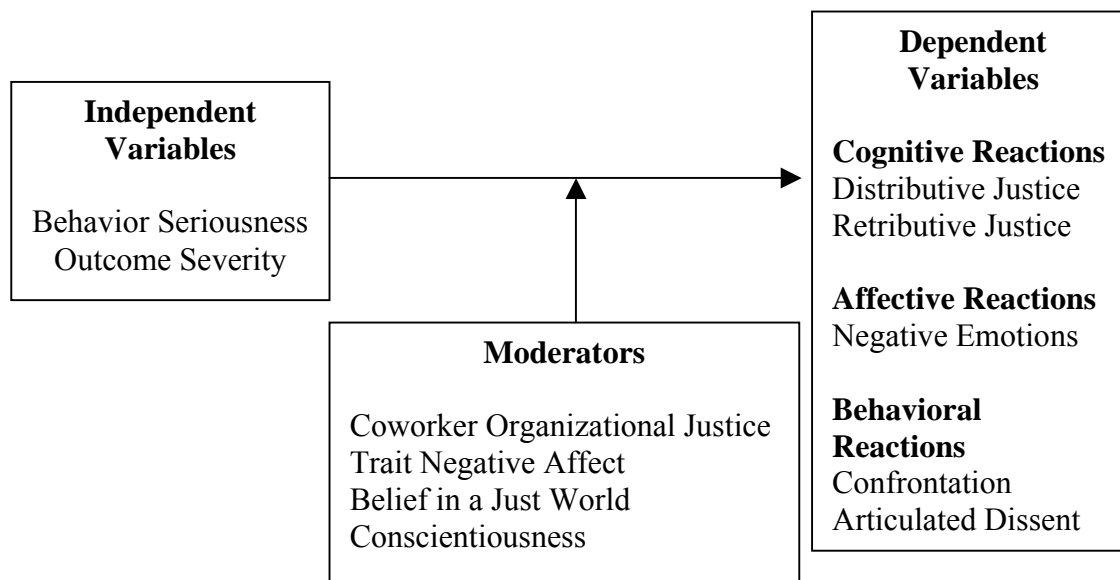


Figure : Hypothesized Model

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These relationships were analyzed with two studies. The first is a vignette study, which manipulated the variables of behavior seriousness and outcome severity in order to look at the effects on reactions to CWBs. Since this study was comprised of fictional vignettes, not all variables (e.g., coworker liking) are included. This first study took place using a sample of professional employees in a financial services organization.

The second study was a self-report study where employed students were asked to describe a CWB they had witnessed. Although it was more difficult to ensure that the variables of behavior seriousness and outcome severity were appropriately captured, this study showed what participants said they did in situations where they witnessed CWBs. The combination of these two studies allows for a greater understanding of the CWB variables, and how they influence coworker reactions.

## **Chapter 6**

### **Study 1 Method**

#### **Participants**

Employees were recruited from a government sponsored enterprise dealing with financial services located in a large urban area in the United States Mid-Atlantic region. The organization had approximately 5,000 employees. In regards to organizational context, at the time of data collection, this organization was in a period of crisis. The stock price of the organization was at a fraction of its value from the previous year, and the organization was recently put under a conservatorship by the Federal Government. Because of these organizational conditions, a low response rate was anticipated.

Participants received an email invitation to participate in this study. A total of 874 employees were initially contacted. Surveys were completed by 272 organizational members, resulting in a response rate of 31%. Surveys were examined and participants who did not complete portions of the survey were removed. There was variance in regards to the number of completed surveys in each condition. Seven conditions had between 25-30 responses, and the other two conditions had 36 and 38 responses. In order to deal with this discrepancy from the two largest cells, a random number generator (Random.org) was used to remove additional responses, resulting in 30 responses maximum per cell. As a result of these changes, the final sample size was 247, with a range of 25 to 30 responses for each cell with an average of 27.4.

Of the participants, 48.8% were female. A diverse sample of employees were included, the sample was comprised of Caucasians (53.3%), Asians, (36.9%), African Americans (4.9%), Hispanics, (2.5%), and participants reporting mixed race (2.5%). The average age of participants was 39.3 years ( $SD = 9.3$ ) and their average tenure at this organization was 3.9 years ( $SD = 5.6$ ). The sample was highly educated, with 49.6% of participants reporting that they had completed a graduate degree. Regarding supervisor status, 31.3% of respondents indicated that they had direct reports.

The same information was collected from the organization regarding the entire pool of employees originally contacted. Information about respondents versus non-respondents was not available. Given that responses were anonymous, it was not possible to track which individuals had participated in this study. Overall, the demographic characteristics of the contacted group and those who responded were very similar in terms of age and gender, but differed in regards to ethnicity, tenure, and the proportion with direct reports. Specifically, of the sample originally contacted, 47.7% were female. Regarding race, Asians were the largest category (51.8%), followed by Caucasians (36.0%), African Americans (7.7%), Hispanics (2.5%), Native Americans (0.1%), and 1.9% of employees did not specify their race with their employer. The average age of those contacted was 39.5 years ( $SD = 8.6$ ) and their average tenure at the organization was 5.8 years ( $SD = 5.2$ ). Information about education was not available from the organization. Regarding supervisor status, 19.1% of those contacted had direct reports.

## **Procedure**

Officers in various divisions of the company were contacted to ask their permission to survey their employees. Six different divisions agreed to participate. The number of employees in each division ranged from 19 to 301. Employees were then randomly placed into one of the nine experimental conditions. Each employee received an email invitation. This included an explanation of the purpose of the survey and assured them it was voluntary and in no way associated with the organization. If employees agreed to participate, they were asked to click on a link to take them to the online survey, which was hosted by [surveymonkey.com](https://www.surveymonkey.com). The survey began with an implied consent form. This was followed by instructions for the experiment. Participants were asked to read a short vignette and answer a series of questions regarding what thoughts they might have had and what behaviors they might engage in, had they witnessed the behavior in the vignette. Finally, employees were asked to fill out measures regarding individual differences, and then they were asked to answer demographic questions.

## **Materials**

### **Vignettes**

A total of 10 vignettes were originally created. Examples of these vignettes can be found in Appendix A. These short scenarios asked the participants to imagine that they were employed in a white collar job (e.g., architecture firm, law firm) and that they

witnessed another coworker engaging in a counterproductive work behavior (e.g., theft, drinking on the job). Finally, an outcome of their coworker's action was also given (e.g., losing a client's business). Regarding the degree of behavior seriousness and outcome severity, behaviors and outcomes ranged from very minimal to somewhat serious. Extreme examples were avoided (e.g., assault of another employee) given that these incidents are less frequently observed in the workplace. In order to determine if the experimental manipulations in the vignettes accurately conveyed the variables of behavior seriousness and outcome severity, manipulation checks were conducted. Graduate students were instructed in the definitions of the two variables, and were then asked to rate the seriousness of each behavior, and the severity of each outcome in the vignettes on 5 point scales. Additionally, participants were asked to code how realistic each vignette was, also on a 5 point scale. The scaling was done to ensure that the study participants would be receiving vignettes with manipulations that distinguished among the different levels of the variables of interest.

In order to determine which vignettes to use in the study, several decision rules were employed. First, any vignettes with a realism rating of below 3.0 were discarded. Second, vignettes that did not display adequate variance between conditions were removed from consideration. Next, the ratings of behavior seriousness and outcome severity were examined to ensure that one variable would not have a stronger manipulation that might inadvertently cause its effects to be stronger than the other variable (e.g., having behavior serious ratings of 1.0, 3.0, and 5.0 and outcome severity ratings of 2.5, 3.0, and 3.5 for their respective conditions). The vignette which was chosen and each of its conditions can be found in Appendix B.

## Measures

### **Retributive justice or punishment severity**

Participants were asked what punishment behavior they thought would be most appropriate, given the circumstances of this particular situation. They were given six options which reflected low punishment severity to high punishment severity. These options are partially taken from Fukami and Hopkins's (1993) vignette study. The options were rewritten to capture what the participants thought should be done, rather than what they would do if they were the supervisor of the employee. The form can be found in Appendix C.

### **Negative Emotions**

Negative emotions were measured with the negative affect questions from the Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Participants were asked to indicate how they would feel on a 5 point scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely). See Appendix D for the PANAS scale for negative emotions. For the Negative Emotions scale, the alpha was .91.

### **Peer Reporting or Articulated Dissent**

Employees were asked, "Would you alert your supervisor or your organization to this incident," and given two response options, yes or no.

**Reporting Beliefs**

The tendency to report was also measured in another way. The participants were asked about the likelihood that someone who was aware of the CWB would report it. This is similar to the Zhuang et al. (2005) study. This method is used because of findings that suggest different variables predict reporting intentions and reporting actions (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005).

**Latent Dissent**

Employees were asked if they would speak to another coworker or employee regarding the incident, and given a yes or no response option.

**Displaced Dissent**

Employees were asked if they would speak about the incident to another individual outside of work, such as a friend or a spouse, and given a yes or no response option.

**Peer Confrontation**

Employees were asked, "Would you talk to the coworker whose behavior you read about regarding this incident," and then given yes or no response options.

**Conscientiousness**

The measure of conscientiousness is drawn from the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP; Goldberg, 1999; Goldberg et al., 2006). The scale can be found in Appendix E. This scale has shown a .80 correlation (.88 corrected) with the conscientiousness scale from Costa and McCrae's (1992) NEO Personality Inventory (International Personality Item Pool). Cronbach's alpha was .91 for the conscientiousness measure.

**Belief in a Just World**

Seven items, such as, "I feel that people earn the rewards and punishments they get," from Lipkus (1991) measured participant's belief in just world. This scale can be found in Appendix F. The alpha for this scale was .83.

**Trait Negative Affect**

Trait negative affect was measured using the Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988). The trait negative affect PANAS scale can be found in Appendix G. For the Negative Affect scale, the alpha was .88.

**Demographics**

Demographic information was collected via self-report at the end of the survey.



## **Chapter 7**

### **Study 1 Results**

#### **Descriptive Statistics**

The means, standard deviations, and correlations for all of the study variables can be found in Table 1. Descriptive statistics regarding the percentage of employees who said they would engage in articulated dissent or discuss the incident with their coworker are included in Table 2.

Table : Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for the Vignette Study

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Age	39.29	9.26											
2. Gender	1.49	.50	-.01										
3. Education	4.99	1.09	-.08	-.19*									
4. Tenure	5.94	5.61	.48*	-.15*	-.15*								
5. Supervisor Status	1.31	.47	.16*	-.20*	.05	.07							
6. Negative Affect	1.66	.55	-.13	-.06	-.01	-.01	-.08						
7. Conscientiousness	3.74	.53	-.04	.12	.12	-.11	.01	-.17*					
8. Belief in a Just World	2.78	.69	-.19*	-.14*	.05	-.19*	.07	-.12	.21*				
9. Behavior Seriousness	1.97	.83	-.05	-.01	-.05	.01	.17*	.01	.07	.07			
10. Outcome Severity	1.99	.81	.04	.08	-.01	.01	.03	-.10	.10	.07	-.01		
11. Retributive Justice	2.91	1.21	.18*	-.04	-.08	.11	.10	.01	.11	.03	.12	.22*	
12. Negative Emotions	1.59	.68	-.10	-.07	.22	-.04	-.06	.21*	.08	.16*	.01	-.01	.09
13. Confrontation	1.57	.50	-.01	-.01	.07	.01	.10	-.01	-.05	-.01	.04	-.05	-.15
14. Reporting Beliefs	1.82	.91	-.03	-.10	.17*	-.13	.04	-.01	.17*	.17*	.02	.23*	.21
15. Dissent – Supervisor	1.58	.49	-.02	-.04	.02	-.05	.10	-.10	.21*	.19*	.06	.14*	.20
16. Dissent – Coworker	1.53	.50	-.12	-.03	.04	-.03	-.04	.10	-.22*	-.08	-.06	.01	-.13
17. Dissent – Other	1.72	.45	-.06	.14	-.10	.06	-.08	.15*	-.15*	-.06	.02	.13*	.09

Note: N = 247; \* means  $p < .05$

Table 1 (continued): Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for the Vignette Study

Variable	12	13	14	15	16	17
13. Confrontation	-.01					
14. Reporting Beliefs	.32*	.05				
15. Dissent – Supervisor	.24*	.12	.48*			
16. Dissent – Coworker	.01	.08	-.08	-.21*		
17. Dissent – Other	.01	-.02	-.02	-.15*	.35*	

Note: N = 247; \* means  $p < .05$

Table : Percentage of Employees Engaging in Dissent and Confrontation

Variable	Vignette Study	Self-Report Study
Confrontation	42.5%	33.6%
Articulated Dissent	40.9%	35.1%
Latent Dissent	43.7%	60.4%
Displaced Dissent	26.7%	67.1%

### Tests of Hypotheses

For the dependent variables of retributive justice, negative emotions, and perceptions of reporting behavior, MANCOVA was used. This is appropriate given that the two manipulated independent variables, behavior seriousness and outcome severity, were ordinal, rather than continuous. In order to test hypotheses with MANCOVA, first the overall model was tested, then differences among the conditions of the manipulated independent variables and levels of the moderator variables were examined (Bray & Maxwell, 1982). Although the moderators were continuous, they were partitioned into quartiles in order to examine their effects. This allowed the moderators to be tested in the MANCOVA model. If differences were found to be significant, post-hoc tests then explored which groups were significantly different from the other groups. The data were also examined to ensure they met the assumptions of MANCOVA. First, observations were independent of one another and the independent and dependent variables were measured appropriately (e.g., categorical/ordinal IVs and continuous/internal DVs). The covariates also displayed low measurement error, as evidenced by their reliability coefficients. As mentioned above, group sizes were approximately equal.

For the categorical criterion variables, which are articulated dissent, latent dissent, displaced dissent, and confrontation, logistic regression was used. Logistic regression can be used to test both the effects of categorical and continuous predictor variables, and it has the ability to test for interactions (Jaccard, 2001).

First, the overall model for the MANCOVA analysis was significant,  $F(3,142) = 29.20$ , Wilks' Lambda = .62,  $p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .38$ . The overall model can be found

in Table 3 . Hypotheses regarding main effects were tested in this model. In order to test moderation effects, separate MANCOVAS were run for each moderator. For these analyses, the other two moderators were kept as covariates if they were significant at the  $p < .10$  level. This is consistent with other research (e.g., Hunter, Bedell-Avers, & Mumford, in press). As explained by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), this approach maximizes the degrees of freedom.

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Table : Multivariate Analysis of Covariance for Study 1 Variables

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	$\eta^2$
Covariates				
Conscientiousness	3, 142	0.86	.47	.02
Belief in a Just World	3, 142	2.10	.10	.04
Negative Affect	3, 142	4.12*	.01	.08
Behavior Seriousness (BS)	6, 284	2.95*	.01	.06
Outcome Severity (OS)	6, 284	2.97	.06	.04
BS x OS	12, 375	0.80	.66	.02

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Note: MANCOVA for overall model was significant,  $F(3,142) = 29.20$ , Wilks' Lambda = .62,  $p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .38$ .

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In regards to the main effects, which are tested in Table 4 , analyses of each individual dependent variable showed that behavior seriousness did have a significant effect on retributive justice  $F(2,144) = 8.17$ ,  $p = .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .10$ . An examination of the means for retributive justice for each of the conditions found that while participants in the high behavior seriousness conditions reported they believed that the individual committing the CWB should be punished to a greater extent than the other two conditions ( $M = 3.27$ ,  $SD = 1.32$ ), the participants in the moderate condition had less severe retributive punishment recommendations ( $M = 2.54$ ,  $SD = 1.02$ ) than those in the low behavior seriousness condition ( $M = 2.90$ ,  $SD = 1.19$ ). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was only

partially supported. For, Hypothesis 6, regarding negative emotions, behavior seriousness was not significant,  $F(2, 144) = 1.68$ , *ns*, partial  $\eta^2 = .02$ . Regarding the third dependent variable, perceptions of reporting behavior, behavior seriousness did not have a significant effect,  $F(2, 144) = 0.19$ , *ns*, partial  $\eta^2 = .01$ , meaning that Hypothesis 9 was not supported.

The tests of the main effect of outcome severity can also be found in Table 4. Outcome severity did have a significant effect on retributive justice  $F(2, 144) = 4.10$ ,  $p = .02$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .05$ . An examination of the means of retributive justice for each condition supported a linear relationship between the two variables, supporting Hypothesis 4. Specifically, participants in the high outcome severity conditions had the strongest retributive justice reactions ( $M = 3.25$ ,  $SD = 1.38$ ), followed by those in the moderate condition ( $M = 2.88$ ,  $SD = 1.11$ ), and finally the low outcome severity condition ( $M = 2.60$ ,  $SD = 1.07$ ). Regarding Hypothesis 7, the effect of outcome severity on negative emotions, outcome severity was not significant  $F(2, 144) = 0.26$ , *ns*, partial  $\eta^2 = .01$ . Outcome severity did have an effect on perceptions of reporting behavior  $F(2, 144) = 3.42$ ,  $p = .04$ ; partial  $\eta^2 = .05$ . Analyses of the means supported a linear relationship; participant's in the high outcome severity condition reported that individuals in their organization would be more likely to report this incident ( $M = 2.03$ ,  $SD = 1.01$ ), followed by those in the moderate condition, ( $M = 1.93$ ,  $SD = 0.95$ ), and finally the low condition ( $M = 1.51$ ,  $SD = 0.65$ ), supporting Hypothesis 10.

Table : Analysis of Covariance for the Independent Variables of Behavior Seriousness and Outcome Severity

Source	<u>Dependent Variables</u>								
	<u>RJ</u>			<u>Negative Emotions</u>			<u>Reporting Beliefs</u>		
	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$
Covariates									
Belief in a Just World	0.05	0.05	.00	0.47	1.11	.01	4.81	5.91*	.04
Conscientiousness	0.07	0.07	.00	0.93	2.20	.02	4.81	5.90*	.04
Negative Affect	0.29	0.26	.01	4.83	11.49*	.08	2.65	3.26	.0
Behavior Seriousness (BS)	8.17	7.53*	.07	0.71	1.68	.02	0.15	0.19	.01
Outcome Severity (OS)	4.45	4.10*	.05	0.11	0.26	0.01	2.79	3.42*	0.4
BS x OS	1.15	1.06	.03	0.43	1.02	.03	0.38	0.47	.01

As mentioned above, separate MANCOVAs were run for each moderator. The results for this test of conscientiousness can be found in Table 5. For conscientiousness, both belief in a just world and negative affect were found to be significant control variables at the  $p < .10$  level, and hence, both were retained in the analyses. Conscientiousness did exhibit a significant interaction with behavior seriousness,  $F(18,329) = 1.70, p = .04, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .08$ . However, the proposed interactions with outcome severity were not supported by this test,  $F(18,329) = 1.49, ns, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .07$ . Further tests to examine which variables were affected by this interaction can be found in Table 6. The interaction between conscientiousness and behavior seriousness was not significant for either retributive justice or negative emotions. However, it was significant for reporting beliefs, or the employees' perceptions that the CWB would be reported in their organization,  $F(6,118) = 2.08, p = .01, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .13$ . Further examination revealed that conscientiousness mattered primarily in the low behavior seriousness condition, where there was the largest difference between reporting perceptions for those with low versus high conscientiousness. In the moderate and high behavior seriousness conditions, although individuals high in conscientiousness still had higher reporting beliefs, the difference was not nearly as great as it was in the low behavior seriousness condition. This relationship is depicted in Figure 2.



Table : Multivariate Analysis of Covariance for the Moderator of Conscientiousness

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	$\eta^2$
Covariates				
Belief in a Just World	3, 116	2.55	.06	.06
Negative Affect	3, 116	3.60*	.02	.09
Behavior Seriousness (BS)	6, 232	2.46*	.02	.06
Outcome Severity (OS)	6, 232	2.34*	.03	.06
Conscientiousness	9, 282	1.59	.12	.04
BS x OS	12, 307	0.90	.12	.04
Conscientiousness x BS	18, 329	1.70*	.04	.08
Conscientiousness x OS	18, 329	1.49	.09	.07

Table : Analysis of Covariance for the Moderator of Conscientiousness  
Dependent Variables

Source	<i>MS</i>	<u>RJ</u>		<u>Negative Emotions</u>			<u>Reporting Beliefs</u>		
		<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$
Covariates									
Belief in a Just World	0.90	.096	.01	0.07	0.16	.01	5.09	7.10*	.06
Negative Affect	2.35	2.50	.02	3.63	8.34*	.06	0.67	0.94	.01
Behavior Seriousness (BS)	5.72	6.07*	.09	0.64	1.46	.03	0.77	1.07	.02
Outcome Severity (OS)	2.43	2.58	.04	0.13	0.32	.01	4.28	5.98*	.09
Conscientiousness	1.91	2.02	.05	0.83	1.91	.05	0.56	0.78	.02
BS x OS	0.92	0.97	.03	0.48	1.10	.04	0.57	0.80	.03
Conscientiousness x BS	1.82	1.93	.09	0.26	0.60	.03	2.08	2.91*	.13
Conscientiousness x OS	2.00	2.12	.10	0.29	0.60	0.3	0.79	1.11	.05

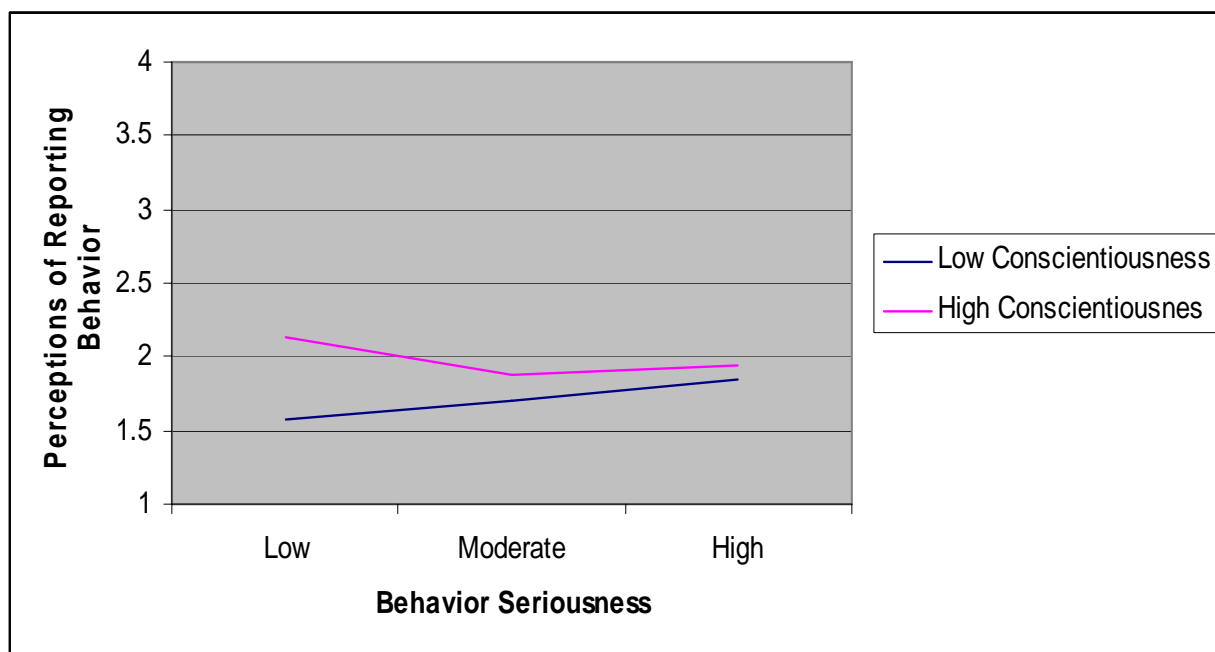


Figure : Interaction of Behavior Seriousness and Conscientiousness on Perceptions of Reporting Behavior

When testing the moderator of negative affect, neither of the control variables, belief in a just world and conscientiousness, exhibited a p value below the  $p < .10$  threshold, so both were dropped from the analyses. In the overall MANOVA, displayed in Table 7, negative affect did not display significant interactions with either behaviors seriousness or outcome severity. Because specific interactions were hypothesized a priori, an examination of the interaction term's relationship with each of the dependent variables was examined in Table 8, but none was significant.

Table : Multivariate Analysis of Covariance for the Moderator of Negative Affect

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	$\eta^2$
Behavior Seriousness (BS)	6, 364	4.47*	.00	.07
Outcome Severity (OS)	6, 364	2.09	.05	.03
Negative Affect	9, 443	1.81	.07	.03
BS x OS	12, 481	0.77	.68	.02
Negative Affect x BS	18, 515	0.88	.61	.03
Negative Affect x OS	18, 515	0.44	.98	.02

Table : Analysis of Covariance for the Moderator of Negative Affect

Source	<u>Dependent Variables</u>								
				<u>Negative Emotions</u>			<u>Reporting Beliefs</u>		
	<i>MS</i>	<u>RJ</u> <i>F</i>	$\eta^2$	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$
Behavior Seriousness (BS)	12.77	9.94*	.10	1.95	4.66*	.05	0.68	0.79	.01
Outcome Severity (OS)	2.13	1.66	.02	0.06	0.15	.01	4.04	4.66*	.05
Negative Affect	0.05	0.04	.01	2.12	5.05*	.08	0.97	1.12	.02
BS x OS	0.72	0.56	.01	0.66	1.56	.03	0.51	0.59	.01
Negative Affect x BS	0.95	0.74	.03	0.73	1.74	.05	0.43	0.49	.02
Negative Affect x OS	0.51	0.40	.01	0.15	0.37	.01	0.38	0.44	.01

For analyses regarding the belief in a just world moderator, only the control variable of negative affect was significant; therefore, it was retained in the analyses. Although Hypothesis 15 and 16 only postulated that belief in a just world should moderate the relationships between behavior seriousness and outcome severity and retributive justice, this was tested in the overall MANCOVA. As can be seen in Table 9, belief in a just world did not display significant interactions with either behavior seriousness or outcome severity. Consistent with the examination of negative affect, because specific interactions were hypothesized a priori, follow up tests are still reported in Table 10. Here, there was a significant interaction effect for belief in a just world and outcome severity in regards to reporting beliefs,  $F(6,125) = 1.43, p = .04$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .10$ . This interaction was not hypothesized, so results should be interpreted with caution. As Figure 3 shows, for the low outcome severity condition, there was virtually no difference in reporting beliefs for those high or low in conscientiousness. However, for the moderate and high outcome severity conditions, individuals with high levels of belief in a just world had higher levels of reporting beliefs than those with low levels of belief in a just world.

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Table : Multivariate Analysis of Covariance for the Moderator of Belief in Just World

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	$\eta^2$
Covariates				
Negative Affect	3, 123	3.98*	.01	.09
Behavior Seriousness (BS)	6, 246	3.77*	.01	.08
Outcome Severity (OS)	6, 246	2.45*	.03	.06
Belief in a Just World (BJW)	9, 300	2.09*	.03	.05
BS x OS	12, 326	1.18	.30	.04
BJW x BS	18, 349	1.54	.30	.04
BJW x OS	18, 349	1.28	.20	.06

---

Table : Analysis of Covariance for the Moderator of Belief in a Just World

Source	<i>MS</i>	<u>RJ</u>		<u>Dependent Variables</u>			<u>Reporting Beliefs</u>		
		<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$
Covariate									
Negative Affect	0.23	0.22	.01	4.05	10.17*	.08	3.10	4.73*	.04
Behavior Seriousness (BS)	9.95	9.72*	.14	1.05	2.64	.04	0.70	1.06	.02
Outcome Severity (OS)	2.53	2.48	.04	0.03	0.07	.01	3.66	5.59*	.08
Belief in a Just World (BJW)	0.82	0.80	.02	1.16	2.90*	.07	2.93	4.48*	.10
BS x OS	1.07	1.04	.03	0.90	2.26	.07	0.45	0.69	.02
BJW x BS	1.85	1.81	.08	0.55	1.40	.06	0.96	1.47	.07
BJW x OS	1.37	1.46	.06	0.15	0.38	.02	1.43	2.18*	.10

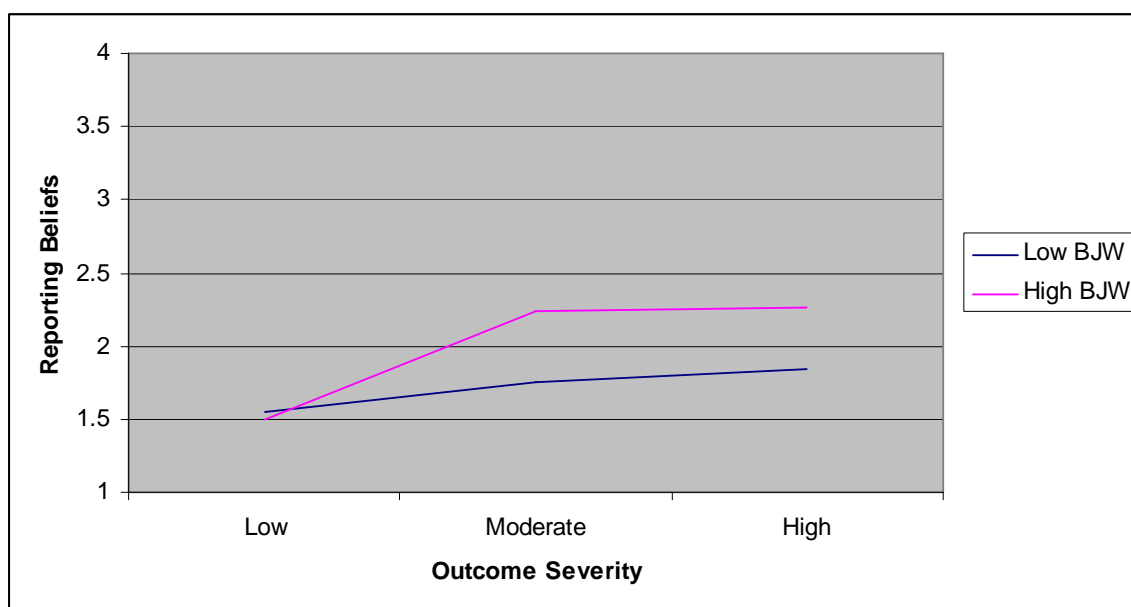


Figure : Interaction of Belief in a Just World and Outcome Severity on Perceptions of Reporting Behavior

The next set of hypotheses examined the behaviors the employees reported that they would engage in, had they witnessed the CWB incident. These criterion measures were dichotomous, so logistic regression was used for these analyses (Jaccard, 2001). The dependent variables were coded so that 1 = yes (the act occurred) and 0 = no (the act did not occur). Reported statistics include a pseudo  $R^2$  which is a measure of how much variance is accounted for by the model (Jaccard). However, the pseudo  $R^2$  gives a measure of association similar to that of an  $R^2$ . The  $B$  coefficient reported is associated with each step of the logistic regression, so the  $B$  coefficients in step 1 would reflect the value in only the first step of the regression, not the final model. The exponent of the coefficient ( $\text{Exp}(B)$ ) is a measure of the predicted odds ratio (Jaccard). For instance, in Table 11 the exponent of the coefficient for conscientiousness predicting articulated



dissent is 2.21. This means that when participants had high levels of conscientiousness, they were 2.21 times as likely to report their coworker to a supervisor or another organizational authority. The Wald statistic is used to test the significance of the individual regression coefficients for each independent variable (Jaccard). Although Menard (2002) warned that in some cases the Wald statistic is likely to lead to Type II errors, in this instance it is not likely, because the problem only occurs when there are large logit coefficients and the current model does not have them. In regards to statistical significance, as is traditional,  $p$  values were reported. However, 95% confidence intervals are also included because they are more informative than  $p$  values (Cohen, 1990), since they provide an estimate of the range of values of the coefficient of the exponent. Additionally, some authors warn against making judgments about relationships based on significance testing (e.g., Breaugh, 2003).

The results for articulated dissent can be found in Table 11. Hypothesis 9 stated that individuals who witnessed a CWB high in behavior seriousness would be more likely to engage in articulated dissent, or report it to a manager or other authority at the organization. This hypothesis was not supported ( $\beta = 0.09$ ,  $ns$ ). Hypothesis 10 also dealt with articulated dissent, but suggested that individuals witnessing CWBs with high outcome severity would be more likely to report the CWB. This hypothesis was marginally supported ( $\beta = .30$ ,  $p = .07$ ). However, since the  $p$  value is less than the traditional .05 value, caution should be used when interpreting results. However, as mentioned above, there is an ongoing debate about the usefulness of significance testing, so the confidence intervals for this relationship can be found in Table 11. While confidence intervals give information regarding significance (if the range does not include zero),

they also provide an estimate of the range of values the true effect may have. (Cohen, 1990). Hypothesis 11 proposed an interaction of behavior seriousness and outcome severity, which was not supported ( $\beta = 0.27, ns$ ). Although conscientiousness is typically examined in this study as a moderator, Hypothesis 17 predicted that it would exhibit a main effect on articulated dissent, and this relationship was significant ( $\beta = 0.79, p = .01$ ). There was a significant interaction term for conscientiousness and behavior seriousness, ( $\beta = -0.76, p = .03$ ). In all three conditions the participants high in conscientiousness were more likely to engage in articulated dissent. However, the difference is of greatest magnitude in conditions of low behavior seriousness, followed by moderate, and then high. In the high behavior seriousness condition, there was no difference in reporting behavior as a function of conscientiousness. A graph depicting this relationship can be found in Figure 4. Additionally, the interaction term for conscientiousness and outcome severity was marginally significant ( $\beta = -0.63, p = .06$ ). The pattern for this interaction is similar to the one above. Although high conscientiousness individuals were always more likely to engage in articulated dissent, the difference was greatest in the low outcome severity condition. Figure 5 depicts this relationship.

Table : Results of Hierarchical Logistical Regression Predicting Articulated Dissent for Study 1

Variable	Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	B	SE	Wald	p	Lower 95% C.I. Exp(B)	Upper 95% C.I. Exp(B)	Exp(B)
<i>Step 1</i>								
	.08							
Behavior Seriousness		0.09	0.17	0.33	.57	0.80	1.51	1.10
Outcome Severity		0.30	0.17	3.20	.07	0.97	1.89	1.36
Conscientiousness		0.79	0.27	3.93*	.01	1.31	3.72	2.21
<i>Step 2: Two-way interactions</i>								
	.13							
Behavior Seriousness x Outcome Severity		0.27	0.22	1.59	.21	0.86	2.00	1.31
Behavior Seriousness x Conscientiousness		-0.76	0.35	3.47*	.03	0.24	0.93	.469
Outcome Severity x Conscientiousness		-0.65	0.35	3.47	.06	0.26	1.04	0.52

Note: Dependent variable coded as 0 = it did not occur and 1 = it did occurred.

\* p < .05

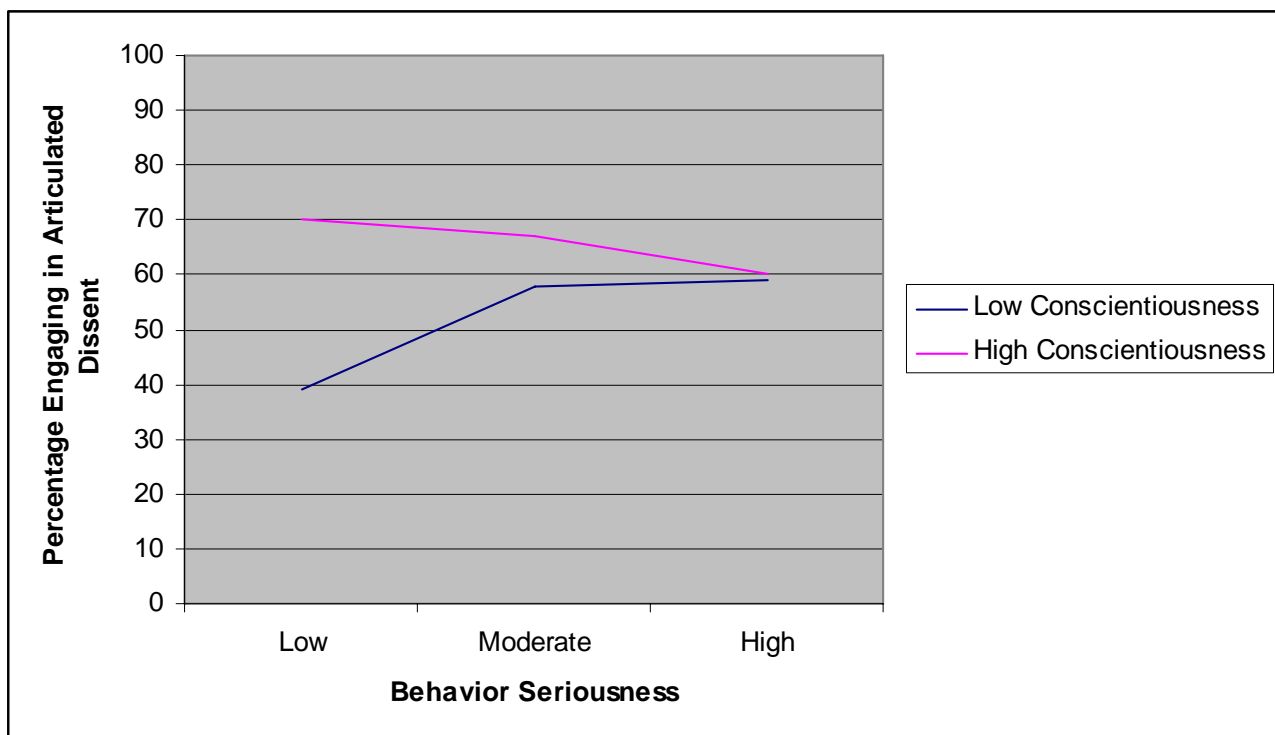


Figure : Interaction of Behavior Seriousness and Conscientiousness on Articulated Dissent

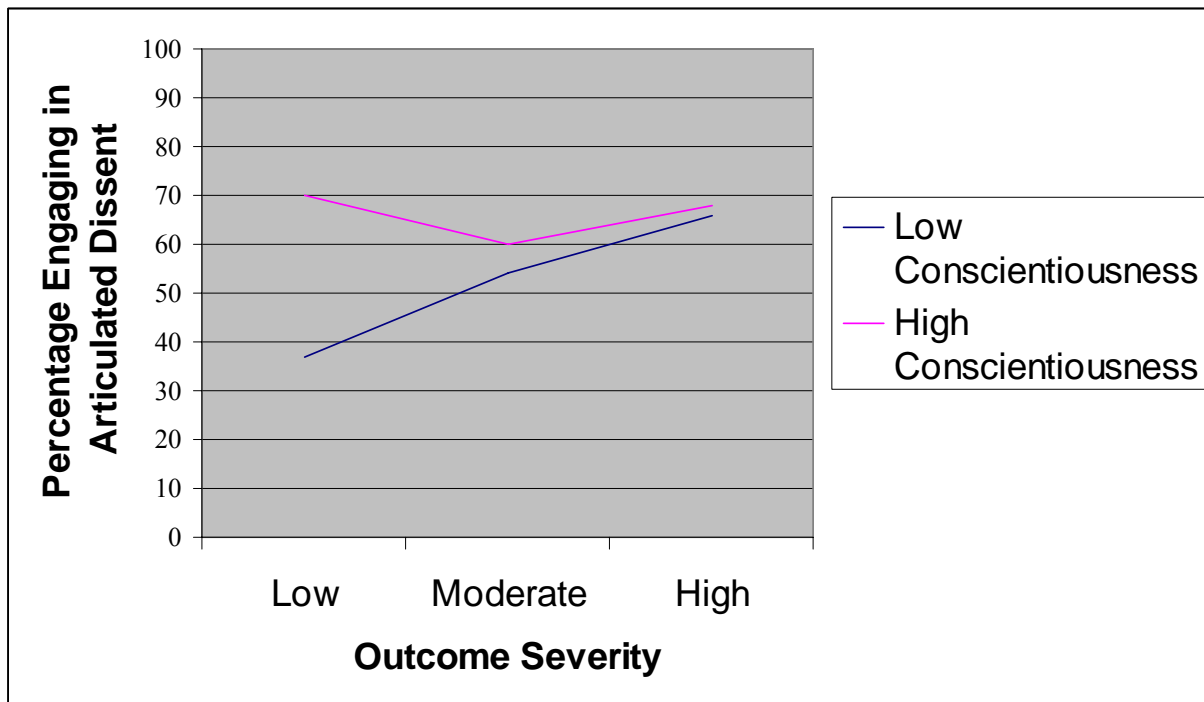


Figure : Interaction of Outcome Severity and Conscientiousness on Articulated Dissent

Although no specific hypotheses were made, the criterion variables of latent and displaced dissent were also examined with regard to the independent variables. Results can be found in Table **12** and Table **13**, respectively. Neither behavior seriousness nor outcome severity predicted latent dissent, or telling a coworker. In regards to displaced dissent, or telling someone outside of work about the CWB, outcome severity was a significant predictor ( $\beta = 0.36, p = .04$ ).

Table : Results of Hierarchical Logistical Regression Predicting Latent Dissent for Study 1

Variable	Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	B	SE	Wald	p	Lower 95% C.I. Exp(B)	Upper 95% C.I. Exp(B)	Exp(B)
<i>Step 1</i>								
Behavior Seriousness	.01	-0.15	0.16	0.84	.36	0.63	1.18	0.87
Outcome Severity		0.01	0.16	0.01	.94	0.74	1.40	1.01
<i>Step 2: Interactions</i>								
Behavior Seriousness x Outcome Severity	.01	-0.25	0.20	1.61	.20	0.53	1.15	0.77

*Note:* Dependent variable coded as 0 = it did not occur and 1 = it did occurred.

\* p < .05

Table : Results of Hierarchical Logistical Regression Predicting Displaced Dissent for Study 1

Variable	Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	B	SE	Wald	p	Lower 95% C.I. Exp(B)	Upper 95% C.I. Exp(B)	Exp(B)
<i>Step 1</i>								
	.02							
Behavior Seriousness		0.04	0.17	0.05	.83	0.74	1.47	1.04
Outcome Severity		0.36	0.18	3.88*	.04	1.01	2.06	1.44
<i>Step 2: Interactions</i>								
	.04							
Behavior Seriousness x Outcome Severity		0.34	0.23	2.27	.13	0.90	2.18	1.40

*Note:* Dependent variable coded as 0 = it did not occur and 1 = it did occurred.

\* p < .05

In addition to looking at the behavior of dissent, peer confrontation was also examined. Hypothesis 12 stated that peer confrontation would be more likely in cases of high behavior seriousness. As Table **14** shows, this hypothesis was not supported ( $\beta = 0.07, ns$ ). Hypothesis 13 stated that employees who witnessed a CWB with high levels of outcome severity will be more likely to confront a coworker. This hypothesis was not supported ( $\beta = -0.06, ns$ ). The Hypothesis regarding the interaction between behavior seriousness and outcome severity was not supported ( $\beta = 0.06, ns$ ). Finally, the variable of conscientiousness was examined in regards to confrontation, but neither the main effect nor interaction terms with the independent variables were found to be significant.



Table : Results of Hierarchical Logistical Regression Predicting Confrontation for Study 1

Variable	Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	B	SE	Wald	p	Lower 95% C.I. Exp(B)	Upper 95% C.I. Exp(B)	Exp(B)
<i>Step 1</i>								
	.01							
Behavior Seriousness		0.07	0.16	0.17	.68	0.78	1.46	1.07
Outcome Severity		-0.06	0.16	0.14	.71	0.68	1.30	0.94
Conscientiousness		-0.20	0.25	0.64	.43	0.50	1.34	0.82
<i>Step 2: Interactions</i>								
	.10							
Behavior Seriousness x Outcome Severity		-0.06	0.20	0.11	.74	0.72	1.58	1.07
Behavior Seriousness x Conscientiousness		-0.21	0.31	0.47	.49	0.68	2.24	0.92
Outcome Severity x Conscientiousness		-0.08	0.31	0.38	.54	0.51	1.69	0.92

Note: Dependent variable coded as 0 = it did not occur and 1 = it did occurred.

\* p < .05

## Chapter 8

### Study 1 Discussion

The purpose of Study 1 was to examine the CWB variables of behavior seriousness and outcome severity in a controlled fashion in order to assess their possible effects on reactions to witnessing CWBs. As hypothesized, retributive justice, or beliefs about what punishment would be appropriate, was related to both behavior seriousness and outcome severity. While the follow up tests for behavior seriousness suggested a more complex relationship, there was a linear relationship with outcome severity. As outcome severity increased, the participant's feelings of retributive justice also increased.

The relationship between outcome severity and a participant's reported willingness to engage in articulated dissent or whistleblowing was also supported. This relationship was found for both the self-report measures of articulated dissent and reporting beliefs. As mentioned previously, some studies have used reporting beliefs (e.g. Zhuang et al., 2005) as a measure of the likelihood to engage in articulated dissent because the relationship between reporting intentions and actual reporting is not as strong as one might think. As mentioned previously, using reporting perceptions is an alternative way to measure the likelihood of reporting. In the current study the relationship between outcome severity and both articulated dissent and reporting beliefs was significant. Here, the additional measurement of reporting beliefs strengthens the ability to draw conclusions about this relationship. Additionally, conscientiousness exhibited a main effect on articulated dissent. Given that conscientious individuals are

more likely to place importance on rules and follow the rules themselves, it is not surprising that they might also be more interested in ensuring that others are conforming to the same rules as well (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Colbert et al., 2004).

The significant interactions between conscientiousness and behavior seriousness and outcome severity for articulated dissent displayed similar patterns. Although there was a significant main effect of conscientiousness, so that those high in conscientiousness were more likely to say they would report the behavior to a supervisor, it seems that this relationship was stronger in situations where behavior seriousness and outcome severity were low. It is possible that individuals who are high in conscientiousness have a lower threshold for recognizing behaviors that are against the rules or inappropriate. Or it may be that all individuals recognize the behaviors and only conscientiousness individuals choose to report them.

Negative emotions were not affected by either of the CWB variables. One rationale for the lack of this relationship can be explained by the scenarios captured in the vignettes. In the vignettes, a coworker borrows a company car (which is against the company rules) and ends up either with a scratch, a dent, or in a car accident (depending on the condition). This CWB only affected the organization, not the participant or their coworkers. Employees are extremely likely to respond with negative emotions if they feel that they (or others) have been treated unfairly. Fitness (2000) examined what events at work were likely to cause anger. She found that being treated unjustly by another was the largest cause, and contributed to 44% of all cases of anger reported. Because of the nature of interpersonal justice and CWBs that are directed toward individuals, this would be likely to occur in situations where the employee's coworker is either engaging in a

CWB that is interpersonally oriented at either themselves, or one of their group members. Finally, scenario or vignette studies may be less likely to cause emotional reactions and it may be difficult for participants to judge what emotional reactions they might have in these hypothetical situations. This factor will also be discussed in the limitations section.

Additionally, the CWB example in the vignette was a behavior that was not intentionally aimed at harming the organization. If the behavior was intentional, such that the employee scratched, dented, or wrecked the car intentionally, employees may have been likely to respond with negative emotions.

One interesting finding was the interaction between belief in a just world and outcome severity on reporting beliefs. Reporting beliefs for individuals with high levels of belief in a just world were strongly affected by the level of outcome severity. These individuals believed that the more severe the outcome, the more likely individuals in their organization would report it. Although participants with low levels of belief in a just world exhibited this same trend, the effect of outcome severity on reporting beliefs was not nearly as strong for individuals with low levels of belief in a just world. This should not be surprising, given the definition of the belief in a just world construct. Individuals with high levels tend to believe that people get what they deserve and that the world is a fair place, so it is easy to understand why they would also believe that the consequences of actions would be reported more frequently as the severity of the consequence increased.

In addition to the vignette study, a second study utilized self-reports of employed students in order to more thoroughly examine the proposed hypotheses. This self-report

study also examined some additional variables that were not able to be captured in Study 1 due to methodology constraints, such as distributive justice reactions.

## Chapter 9

### Study 2 Method

#### Participants

A total of 152 undergraduates from a large public university participated in the study. However, the responses of four students were not included in the analyses. One individual reported that he or she could not think of any instance in which a CWB was witnessed, and the other three neglected to follow instructions and reported about general behaviors they witnessed, rather than one specific event. Of the remaining 148 participants included, 56.1% were female. The average age of participants was 19.69 years ( $SD = 3.03$ ). The average tenure at their current organization was 1.82 years ( $SD = 1.65$ ), although they had an average of 4.20 years ( $SD = 2.98$ ) of work experience. The most frequent industries reported included leisure or hospitality (41.5%) and retail or trade (26.2%). Regarding supervisor status, 23.8% of respondents indicated they had direct reports. Table 15 displays the various industries represented in this sample. The most common industries represented were the leisure and hospitality industries, as well as retail and trade.

Table : Makeup of the Employed Student Sample

Industry	Number	Percentage
Agriculture, Mining, or Construction	5	3.3
Education	10	6.6
Finance Activities	6	4.0
Healthcare	7	4.6
Information	3	2.0
Leisure and Hospitality	54	41.5
Manufacturing	5	3.8
Military	1	0.7
Professional and Business Services	2	1.3
Retail/Trade	34	22.5
Transportation and Utilities	3	2.0
Other	21	13.9

### Procedure

The participants were recruited through a general psychology subject pool. However, in order to qualify to take the survey, the students had to be employed at the same organization for the preceding six months. Once they signed up to participate in the experiment, they were given a link to the online survey. The survey was hosted by surveymonkey.com. After agreeing with an implied consent form, the participants first read about CWBs (e.g., definitions and examples). They were then asked to describe a CWB they witnessed at work. A few examples of participants' descriptions can be found in Appendix H. After their description they were asked to respond to the dependent variables, then they were asked to fill out the surveys for the individual difference measures, and finally, they were asked demographic questions.

## Measures

### **CWB description**

The survey began with a definition of CWBs and then gave some example CWBs (such as those identified by Bennett & Robinson, 1995). The participant was then asked to describe a situation they witnessed where a coworker conducted a CWB. Specifically, they were asked to describe the situation in detail, and discuss both the behavior and what outcomes or consequences resulted because of the incident.

### **Behavior seriousness**

Third party trained coders read the participants' descriptions of the situation and rated the seriousness of the behavior. The instructions the participants were given are captured in Appendix I. The intraclass correlation coefficient for behavior seriousness was .77. The intraclass correlation coefficient is appropriate for interval data.

### **Outcome severity**

Third party trained coders read the participants' description of the situation and rated the severity of the outcome. The instructions the participants were given are captured in Appendix J. The intraclass correlation coefficient for outcome severity was .69.



**Target of the CWB**

Participants were asked to indicate the target of their coworker's behavior.

**Distributive Justice Reactions**

A modified version of Colquitt's (2001) measure of distributive justice was used to assess participant's distributive justice perceptions. The scale was slightly modified to ask them to compare themselves to their coworker when responding to the questions. The scale is made up of four items and asks respondents to rate the extent to which they agree with statements (1= to a small extent, 5 = to a large extent). The alpha for this scale was .91. This scale can be found in Appendix K.

**Interpersonal Justice Reactions**

A modified version of Colquitt's (2001) measure of interpersonal justice was used to assess participant's perceptions regarding whether their coworker had violated interpersonal justice. The scale was made up of four items and asked respondents to rate the extent to which they agreed with statements (1= to a small extent, 5 = to a large extent). The alpha for this scale was .90. This scale can be found in Appendix L.

**Retributive justice or punishment severity**

Participants were asked what punishment behavior they thought would be most appropriate, given the circumstances of this particular situation. They were given six options which reflected low punishment severity to high punishment severity. These options are partially taken from Fukami & Hopkins's (1993) vignette study. The options were rewritten to capture what the participants thought should be done, rather than what they would do if they were the supervisor of the employee. The scale can be found in Appendix C.

**Negative Emotions**

Negative affective reactions were measured using the negative affect questions from the Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988). The PANAS contains 10 items which measure negative affect (e.g., distressed, nervous). Participants were asked to indicate how they felt after the incident on a 5 point scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely). See Appendix D for the PANAS scale measuring negative emotions. For the Negative Affect scale, the alpha was .86.

**Peer Reporting or Articulated Dissent**

Employees were asked, "Would you alert your supervisor or your organization to this incident," and given two response options, yes or no.

**Reporting Beliefs**

The tendency to report was also measured in another way. The participants were asked about the likelihood that someone who was aware of the CWB would report it. This is similar to the Zhuang et al. (2005) study. This method was used because of findings that suggest different variables predict reporting intentions and reporting actions (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005).

**Latent Dissent**

Employees were asked if they spoke to another coworker or employee regarding the incident. They were given the same response options as articulated dissent, and the resulting data were treated in the same way.

**Displaced Dissent**

Employees were asked if they spoke about the incident to another individual outside of work, such as a friend or a spouse. They were given a yes or no response.

**Peer Confrontation**

Employees were asked, "Did you talk to the coworker whose behavior you described about this incident," and then given a yes or no response.

### **Previous organizational justice violations**

To assess whether the student believed the individual who committed the CWB was a victim of organizational injustice, participants were asked the extent to which they agreed to four statements which were revised from Berry et al.'s (2007) definitions of procedural, distributive, interpersonal, and informational justice. These statements can be found in Appendix N.

### **Conscientiousness**

The measure of conscientiousness is drawn from the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP; Goldberg, 1999; Goldberg et al., 2006). The scale can be found in Appendix E. This scale has shown a .80 correlation (.88 corrected) with the conscientiousness scale from Costa and McCrae's (1992) NEO Personality Inventory (International Personality Item Pool). Cronbach's alpha was .91 for the Conscientiousness measure.

### **Belief in a Just World**

Seven items, such as, "I feel that people earn the rewards and punishments they get," from Lipkus (1991) measured participant's belief in a just world. The alpha for this scale was .86. Appendix F contains this scale.

### **Trait Negative Affect**

Trait negative affect was measured with the negative affect questions using the Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988). Participants were asked to indicate how they generally feel on a 5 point scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely). See Appendix G for the PANAS scale measuring trait negative affect. For the Trait Negative Affect scale, the alpha was .89.

### **Demographics**

Demographic information was collected via a self-report. This also included a question about the type organization they were employed with when they witnessed the CWB.

### **Control Variables**

Two variables, the participant's reported liking of their coworker and their judgment of their coworker's performance, were controlled for since they are not of interest in the current study, but are theoretically related to many of the dependent variables. Specifically, a halo effect (Palmer & Feldman, 2005; Viswesvaran, Schmidt, & Ones, 2005) may have caused the participant to respond less harshly to a coworker's CWB if they liked their coworker and/or viewed the coworker as having exceptional performance. Research regarding performance appraisal ratings supports that interpersonal affect, or liking is positively related to ratings of performance, (Varma,

DeNisi, & Peters, 2006), as well as a disinclination to punish poor performers (Lefkowitz, 2000). Similarly, individuals may view the actions of poor performers, or of those they dislike, in a harsher light. As Landy and Farr (1980) noted, ratings of others are subject to systematic error – and although they were discussing ratings of performance, the general perception of one’s coworker is likely to influence the results of this study. Both coworker liking and coworker performance were assessed with a one item measure. Regarding coworker liking, participants were asked if they liked the coworker more than, about the same, or less than most coworkers. For coworker performance, participants were asked to rate the performance of the coworker who performed the CWB. They were asked if they are below average, average, or an above average performer.

### **Coding Qualitative Data**

Two trained raters, a doctoral graduate student who had received her M.S., and a recent doctoral graduate, both from an Industrial Organizational Psychology program, read over the responses of participants, and then coded them for the variables of interest. For the two CWB variables they were asked to rate the seriousness of the behavior and the severity of the outcome. They were also asked to rate some variables that would serve as background, or descriptive information, rather than be used in any hypothesis testing. Specifically, they were asked to code the question, “Why do you think your coworker engaged in the behavior you described?” They coded whether the participant’s explanation highlighted individual factors, situational factors, or both. They were also

asked if the participant made any reference to a violation of organization justice. Additionally, since little is known about coworker confrontation in regards to CWBs, participants were asked to respond to this open-ended question if they reported confronting their coworker, “What did you tell them? Please give as much information as possible.” Raters coded whether the participant sought to gain information or understanding of their coworker’s behavior, or if they reprimanded the coworker, expressed displeasure, or asked them to change their behavior.

Regarding rater training, these raters were initially provided with materials to familiarize themselves with the variables of behavior seriousness and outcome severity. After having a chance to review these materials, they met with the primary investigator to ask any clarification questions. At this point, they practiced coding 15 of the 148 participant responses. This allowed them to ask additional questions, and establish a shared mental model in regards to the meanings of the ratings of each variable. Subsequently, they individually coded the remaining responses. As mentioned above, the intraclass correlations for behavior seriousness and outcome severity were .77 and .69, respectively.

## **Chapter 10**

### **Study 2 Results**

#### **Descriptive Statistics**

The means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations for all of the study variables can be found in Table 16. Frequencies for the target of the CWB are found in Table 17. Table 18 displays the length of time that had passed since the participant witnessed the CWB, and Table 19 lists the different types of CWBs identified by participants. Descriptive statistics regarding the percentage of employees who said they would engage in articulated dissent or discuss the incident with their coworker are included in Table 2 in the Study 1 results section.

Coding of the qualitative data provided additional descriptive information about the coworker's interpretation of the incident, and their responses to it, although no a priori hypotheses were made regarding this information. When the participants were asked why they thought the individual committed the counterproductive work behavior, 20.7% responded with an individual factor (e.g., he was lazy), 44.8% responded with a situational factor (e.g., stress on the job), 30.3 % reported a combination of individual and situational factors, and 4.0% of the participant's explanations were not classifiable as individual or situational factors (e.g., if the participant reported that they were unaware as to why their coworker engaged in this behavior). The perceptions of coworker justice were examined as a moderator in this study. While the following analyses used a scale



based from Berry et al. (2007), whether the person's explanation of their coworkers behavior referenced an instance of their coworker retaliating because of organizational injustice was also coded. However, only 6.0% of respondents alluded to this in their open-ended response. Finally, since confrontation, or speaking to the coworker about the incident witnessed, is a relatively novel variable in regards to studies of counterproductive work behavior, this was also examined descriptively. Participants were asked to describe what occurred when they spoke with their coworker about the incident they witnessed. Of those who confronted their coworker, 35.4% reported that they were trying to gather more information about the incident, while 50% expressed displeasure, reprimanded, or asked their coworkers to change their behavior in the future. This is of note because even though the variable is termed confrontation, it seems that not all incidents were adversarial in nature. While these descriptive statistics may provide information about this subject, given that no a priori hypotheses were made, one should be hesitant to draw strong conclusions or infer too much from these data.

Table : Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for the Student Sample Study

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Age	19.69	3.03												
2. Gender	1.56	.50	.01											
3. Education	2.76	.44	.09	-.03										
4. Tenure	1.82	1.65	.59*	.03	.09									
5. Experience	4.2	2.98	.80*	.04	.07	.57*								
6. Supervisor Status	1.25	.43	.01	.04	-.13	-.01	.07							
7. Negative Affect	1.51	.52	-.02	.01	.10	-.12	-.04	-.03						
8. Conscientiousness	3.51	.61	.06	.18*	-.01	.11	.07	.10	-.32*					
9. Belief in a Just World	3.14	.66	-.12	-.01	-.01	.11	-.04	.17*	-.20*	.26*				
10. Coworker Liking	2.11	.67	.06	.01	.05	-.03	-.09	.12	-.05	.02	.09			
11. Coworker Performance	2.18	.60	.15	.10	-.02	.13	.15	.12	-.04	.13	.15	.31*		
12. Coworker Justice	3.28	.91	-.17*	.14	.01	.02	-.01	.07	-.04	.09	.26*	-.31*	-.12	
13. Behavior Seriousness	3.25	.87	.01	.04	.08	.02	-.03	-.01	.06	.06	-.03	.01	.24*	-.15
14. Outcome Severity	2.38	.67	.02	.20*	-.02	-.02	.03	-.02	.02	.11	-.04	.01	.18*	-.22*
15. Retributive Justice	3.55	1.88	.03	.09	-.03	-.01	-.01	.08	.02	.02	-.04	.33*	.32*	-.28*
16. Distributive Justice	3.57	.92	-.06	.01	-.16	.02	-.03	.20*	-.10	.27*	.34*	-.02	.20*	.44*
17. Interpersonal Justice	3.10	1.00	-.11	.14	-.04	.05	-.01	-.16	-.04	.15	.15	-.48*	-.22*	.49*
18. Negative Emotions	1.70	.65	-.08	.09	-.01	-.02	-.06	.26*	.12	.01	-.03	.12	.17*	-.23*
19. Confrontation	1.67	.47	.12	-.02	.09	.14	.09	.10	.18*	-.10	-.03	-.17*	.09	.06
20. Reporting Beliefs	1.76	.91	.05	.06	-.08	-.04	.01	.08	.03	.07	.11	.12	-.09	-.03
21. Dissent – Supervisor	1.83	.38	.25*	.11	-.01	.20*	.20*	.25*	-.06	.27*	.11	.23*	.29*	-.04
22. Dissent – Coworker	1.40	.49	.06	.13	.06	.01	.10	.04	.26*	.03	.01	.08	.17*	-.08
23. Dissent – Other	1.33	.47	.02	.24*	.11	.10	.08	.03	.10	.04	-.05	.06	.23*	-.13

Note: N = 148; For all correlations, \* means  $p < .05$

Table 16 (continued): Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for the Student Sample Study

Variable	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
14. Outcome Severity	.44*										
15. Retributive Justice	.29*	.38*									
16. Distributive Justice	-.03	-.07	.06								
17. Interpersonal Justice	-.15	-.20*	-.42*	.20*							
18. Negative Emotions	.14	.13	.38*	.03	-.33*						
19. Confrontation	.10	.10	-.05	-.04	.07	.03					
20. Reporting Beliefs	.13	.16	.31*	.04	-.16	.23*	-.09				
21. Dissent – Supervisor	.02	.08	.14	.05	-.14	.13	-.01	.32*			
22. Dissent – Coworker	.31*	.23*	.28*	.06	-.08	.20*	.25*	.15	.08		
23. Dissent – Other	.12	.22*	.23*	-.01	-.14	.25*	.16	-.02	.01	.46*	

Note: N = 148; For all correlations, \* means  $p < .05$

Table 17: Counterproductive Work Behavior Targets

Target of the Behavior	Number	Percentage
Self	9	6.1%
Familiar Coworker	43	29.1%
Unfamiliar Coworker	10	6.8%
Customer	17	11.5%
The Organization	67	45.3%
Other	35	26.3%

Note: Participants were asked to check all that applied; therefore, percentages do not add to 100%.

Table 18: Length of Time since the Incident was Witnessed

How long ago was the behavior witnessed?	Number	Percentage
Less than 1 month ago	32	21.6%
Between 1 and 3 months ago	34	23.0%
Between 3 and 6 months ago	43	29.1%
More than 6 months ago	38	25.7%

Table 19: Types of Counterproductive Work Behavior Witnessed

Type of Counterproductive Work Behavior	Number	Percentage
Theft (Including Time Theft)	47	31.5%
Use of Drugs or Alcohol	37	24.8%
Interpersonal Aggression	19	12.8%
General Violation of Company Rules	16	10.7%
Sexual Harassment or Relations at Work	11	7.4%
Withdrawal Behaviors	9	6.0%
Sabotage	2	1.3%
Other	7	0.5%

### *Tests of Hypotheses*

In the analyses, both logistic regression and hierarchical linear regression were utilized, since both continuous and dichotomous criterion variables were included. Each of the predictors and moderators were continuous variables. These predictors and

moderators were centered to reduce multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991). The criterion variables were a mixture of both continuous and categorical/dichotomous variables. For the continuous criterion variables, which are the cognitive and affective reactions, hierarchical linear regression was utilized. For the categorical criterion variables, which are articulated dissent, latent dissent, displaced dissent, and confrontation, logistic regression was used. Logistic regression can be used to test both the effects of categorical and continuous predictor variables, and it has the ability to test for interactions (Jaccard, 2001).

For the hypotheses tested with hierarchical linear regression, the control variables, main effects, and interaction terms were entered in three steps into the regression. Each criterion variable was regressed first on the control variables, then on the predictor variables and moderator variables, and finally on the hypothesized two-way interactions.

The first set of hypotheses stated that CWB seriousness and outcome severity should be negatively related to distributive justice perceptions. Table 20 reports these results. Regarding Hypothesis 1, behavior seriousness was not related to distributive justice perceptions ( $\beta = -.02, ns$ ). Hypothesis 2 examined this relationship with outcome severity, and found it was not related to distributive justice ( $\beta = .04, ns$ ). None of the hypotheses regarding interactions were supported. Examined were the relationships between behavior seriousness and outcome severity ( $\beta = -.11, ns$ ), conscientiousness ( $\beta = -.04, ns$ ), and coworker justice ( $\beta = -.08, ns$ ). Outcome severity was also examined with the proposed moderators of conscientiousness ( $\beta = -.02, ns$ ) and coworker justice ( $\beta = .07, ns$ ), but neither interaction was significant.

Table 20: Summary of hierarchical regression analyses for Distributive Justice

Variable	R <sup>2</sup>	Δ R <sup>2</sup>	B	SE B	β	p	95% C.I.	95% C.I.
<i>Step 1: Control variables</i>								
	.04*	.043						
Coworker Liking			-0.11	0.12	-0.08	.35	-0.35	0.12
Coworker Performance			0.33*	0.13	0.22	.02	0.07	0.59
<i>Step 2: Main effects</i>								
	.30*	.26						
Behavior Seriousness			-0.02	0.09	0.02	.85	-0.19	0.16
Outcome Severity			-0.06	0.12	0.04	.62	-0.28	0.17
Conscientiousness			0.33*	0.11	0.22	.01	0.10	0.55
Coworker Justice			0.50*	0.08	0.45	.01	0.29	0.61
<i>Step 3: Two-way interactions</i>								
	.32	.02						
Behavior Seriousness x Outcome Severity			-0.15	0.12	-0.11	.22	-0.39	0.09
Behavior Seriousness x Conscientiousness			-0.09	0.16	-0.04	.59	-0.41	0.24
Behavior Seriousness x Coworker Justice			-0.09	0.10	-0.08	.41	-0.29	0.12
Outcome Severity x Conscientiousness			-0.05	0.21	-0.02	.82	-0.48	0.37
Outcome Severity x Coworker Justice			0.09	0.13	0.07	.51	-0.17	0.35

The next set of hypotheses made predictions about retributive justice, or the employee's thoughts about what type of punishment is appropriate. These analyses can be found in Table 21. Hypothesis 3, which stated that retributive justice would be negatively related to behavior seriousness, was not supported ( $\beta = .10, ns$ ). The relationship between retributive justice and outcome severity was examined with Hypothesis 4, and it was found that this was supported ( $\beta = .27, p = .002$ ). Hypothesis 5 stated that the relationship between behavior seriousness and retributive justice would be moderated by outcome severity. The results demonstrate that outcome severity did not moderate this relationship ( $\beta = .07, ns$ ). Additionally, behavior seriousness was also examined with three moderators, conscientiousness ( $\beta = -.06, ns$ ), belief in a just world ( $\beta = .01, ns$ ), and coworker justice ( $\beta = .03, ns$ ), but none of the interactions reached significance. Outcome severity also had no significant moderation effects, with either conscientiousness ( $\beta = -.05, ns$ ), belief in a just world ( $\beta = .05, ns$ ), or coworker justice ( $\beta = .02, ns$ ).

Table 21: Summary of hierarchical regression analyses for Retributive Justice

Variable	R <sup>2</sup>	Δ R <sup>2</sup>	B	SE B	β	p	95% C.I.	95% C.I.
<i>Step 1: Control variables</i>								
	.15	.14*						
Coworker Liking			0.70*	0.23	0.25	.01	0.23	1.16
Coworker Performance			0.73*	0.25	0.24	.01	0.23	1.23
<i>Step 2: Main effects</i>								
	.28	.13*						
Behavior Seriousness			0.23	0.18	0.10	.22	-0.14	0.59
Outcome Severity			0.76*	0.24	0.27	.01	0.29	1.22
Conscientiousness			-0.06	0.24	-0.02	.79	-0.54	0.41
Belief in a Just World			-0.12	0.23	-0.04	.60	-0.57	0.33
Coworker Justice			-0.23	0.17	-0.11	.19	-0.56	0.11
<i>Step 3: Two-way interactions</i>								
	.29	.01						
Behavior Seriousness x Outcome Severity			0.11	0.28	0.04	.70	-0.44	0.66
Behavior Seriousness x Conscientiousness			-0.25	0.35	-0.06	.47	-0.94	0.43
Behavior Seriousness x Belief in a Just World			0.01	0.30	0.01	.98	-0.58	0.59
Behavior Seriousness x Coworker Justice			0.07	0.22	0.03	.76	-0.37	0.51
Outcome Severity x Conscientiousness			-0.24	0.46	-0.05	.60	-1.16	0.68
Outcome Severity x Belief in a Just World			0.17	0.38	0.05	.65	-0.57	0.92
Outcome Severity x Coworker Justice			0.04	0.29	0.02	.89	-0.54	0.62



The relationship between the CWB variables and emotions were examined in Hypotheses 6, 7, and 8, and the results can be found in Table 22. Hypothesis 6 stated that CWBs that are more, as opposed to less serious, will result in stronger negative emotions. This hypothesis was not supported ( $\beta = -.04$ , *ns*). Hypothesis 7 predicted that higher outcome severity would result in more negative emotions, and this was not supported ( $\beta = .07$ , *ns*). Hypothesis 8, which expected an interaction between these variables was also not supported ( $\beta = .04$ , *ns*). In addition, behavior seriousness was also examined in regards to the moderators of conscientiousness ( $\beta = -.06$ , *ns*), coworker justice ( $\beta = -.10$ , *ns*), and negative affect ( $\beta = -.01$ , *ns*), and none of these interactions was significant. Outcome severity did not exhibit significant interactions with either conscientiousness ( $\beta = -.13$ , *ns*), coworker justice ( $\beta = -.25$ , *ns*), nor negative affect ( $\beta = -.06$ , *ns*).

Finally, reporting beliefs of the participant were examined. No a priori hypotheses were made regarding this variable, although it should provide additional information about reporting behaviors. Results for the analyses can be found in Table 23. Neither behavior seriousness, outcome severity, nor conscientiousness significantly affected individual's beliefs about reporting behaviors.

The next set of hypotheses examined the behaviors of the participant after witnessing a CWB. As noted above, these criterion measures are dichotomous, so logistic regression was used for these analyses (Jaccard, 2001) and the results can be found in Table 24 and Table 25. The dependent variables were coded so that 1 = yes (the act occurred) and 0 = no (the act did not occur).

Table 22: Summary of hierarchical regression analyses for Negative Emotions

Variable	R <sup>2</sup>	Δ R <sup>2</sup>	B	SE B	β	p	95% C.I.	95% C.I.
<i>Step 1: Control variables</i>								
	.04	.04						
Coworker Liking			0.12	0.09	0.12	.19	-0.06	0.29
Coworker Performance			0.14	0.10	0.13	.16	-0.05	0.33
<i>Step 2: Main effects</i>								
	.09	.05						
Behavior Seriousness			-0.03	0.08	-0.04	.65	-0.18	0.12
Outcome Severity			0.07	0.09	0.07	.46	-0.12	0.26
Conscientiousness			0.03	0.10	0.02	.81	-0.17	0.22
Coworker Justice			-0.13	0.07	-0.18	.05	-0.26	0.01
Negative Affect			0.15	0.11	0.12	.19	-0.07	0.38
<i>Step 3: Two-way interactions</i>								
	.14	.05						
Behavior Seriousness x Outcome Severity			0.03	0.10	0.04	.73	-0.16	0.23
Behavior Seriousness x Conscientiousness			-0.08	0.14	-0.06	.58	-0.37	0.21
Behavior Seriousness x Coworker Justice			-0.08	0.09	-0.10	.37	-0.25	0.09
Behavior Seriousness x Negative Affect			-0.02	0.19	-0.01	.93	-0.40	0.36
Outcome Severity x Conscientiousness			-0.25	0.18	-0.14	.17	-0.62	0.11
Outcome Severity x Coworker Justice			0.22	0.11	0.25	.05	-0.01	0.44
Outcome Severity x Negative Affect			-0.11	0.19	-0.06	.55	-0.48	0.26

Table 23: Summary of hierarchical regression analyses for Reporting Beliefs

Variable	R <sup>2</sup>	Δ R <sup>2</sup>	B	SE B	β	p	Lower 95% C.I.	Upper 95% C.I.
<i>Step 1: Control variables</i>								
	.02	.02						
Coworker Liking			0.16	0.12	0.12	.19	-0.08	0.39
Coworker Performance			0.09	0.13	0.06	.48	-0.17	0.35
<i>Step 2: Main effects</i>								
	.06	.04						
Behavior Seriousness			0.10	0.10	0.09	.31	-0.10	0.29
Outcome Severity			0.18	0.13	0.14	.14	-0.06	0.43
Conscientiousness			0.05	0.13	0.04	.69	-0.20	0.30
<i>Step 3: Two-way interactions</i>								
	.07	.01						
Behavior Seriousness x Outcome Severity			-0.06	0.12	-0.05	.59	-0.30	0.17
Behavior Seriousness x Conscientiousness			0.08	0.18	0.04	.68	-0.28	0.43
Outcome Severity x Conscientiousness			0.15	0.24	0.06	.53	-0.32	0.62

Table 24: Results of hierarchical logistical regression predicting Articulated Dissent

Variable	Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	B	SE	Wald	p	Lower 95% C.I. Exp(B)	Upper 95% C.I. Exp(B)	Exp(B)
<i>Step 1</i>								
	.10							
Coworker Liking		-0.61	0.39	2.46	.12	0.86	3.96	1.84
Coworker Performance		-1.16	0.45	6.74*	.01	1.33	7.62	3.18
<i>Step 2</i>								
	.16							
Behavior Seriousness		-0.27	0.34	0.63	.43	0.68	2.51	1.30
Outcome Severity		0.26	0.40	0.41	.52	0.35	1.71	0.77
Conscientiousness		1.22	0.45	7.38*	.01	1.40	8.11	3.37
<i>Step 3: Two-way interactions</i>								
	.17							
Behavior Seriousness x Outcome Severity		-0.02	0.44	0.01	.97	0.44	2.34	0.98
Behavior Seriousness x Conscientiousness		0.44	0.70	0.40	.53	0.40	6.10	1.55
Outcome Severity x Conscientiousness		-1.17	0.85	1.89	.17	0.06	1.65	0.31

Note: Dependent variable coded as 0 = it did not occur and 1 = it did occurred.

\* p < .05

Table 25: Results of hierarchical logistical regression predicting Latent Dissent

Variable	Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	B	SE	Wald	p	Lower 95% C.I. Exp(B)	Upper 95% C.I. Exp(B)	Exp(B)
<i>Step 1</i>								
	.04							
Coworker Liking		0.09	0.27	0.10	.75	0.64	1.85	1.09
Coworker Performance		0.54	0.30	3.20	.07	0.95	3.11	1.72
<i>Step 2</i>								
	.16							
Behavior Seriousness		0.64	0.25	6.87*	.01	1.18	3.08	1.90
Outcome Severity		0.40	0.34	1.41	.24	0.77	2.92	1.50
<i>Step 3: Interactions</i>								
	.20							
Behavior Seriousness x Outcome Severity		-0.79	0.35	4.97*	.03	0.23	0.91	0.46

Note: Dependent variable coded as 0 = it did not occur and 1 = it did occur.

\* p < .05

Hypothesis 9 stated that individuals who witnessed a CWB high in behavior seriousness would be more likely to engage in articulated dissent, or report it to a manager or other authority at the organization. This hypothesis was not supported ( $\beta = -.27, ns$ ). Hypothesis 10 also dealt with articulated dissent, but suggested that individuals witnessing CWBs with high outcome severity would be more likely to report the CWB. This hypothesis was not supported ( $\beta = .26, ns$ ). Hypothesis 11 proposed an interaction of behavior seriousness and outcome severity, which was not supported ( $\beta = -.02, ns$ ). Although conscientiousness is typically examined in this study as a moderator, Hypothesis 17 predicted that it would exhibit a main effect on articulated dissent, and this relationship was significant ( $\beta = 1.22, p = .007$ ).

Although no specific hypotheses were made, the criterion variables of latent and displaced dissent were also examined. The results for latent dissent can be found in Table 11. Here, behavior seriousness was a significant predictor ( $\beta = .64, p = .009$ ). Additionally, there was a significant interaction between behavior seriousness and outcome severity ( $\beta = -.79, p = .03$ ). This interaction is depicted in Figure 6. The interaction graph shows that while latent dissent was more common in situations of high outcome severity than in low outcome severity, this difference was smaller for behaviors that were also high in seriousness. In other words, when both behavior seriousness and outcome severity were low, participants were the least likely to engage in latent dissent. For displaced dissent only outcome severity was significant ( $\beta = .74, p = .04$ ). Results for displaced dissent are located in Table 26.



Figure : Interaction of Behavior Seriousness and Outcome Severity on Latent Dissent

Table 26: Results of hierarchical logistical regression predicting Displaced Dissent

Variable	Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	B	SE	Wald	p	Lower 95% C.I. Exp(B)	Upper 95% C.I. Exp(B)	Exp(B)
<i>Step 1</i>								
	.07							
Coworker Liking		-0.05	0.29	0.02	.87	0.55	1.69	0.96
Coworker Performance		0.85*	0.33	6.77	.01	1.23	4.40	2.33
<i>Step 2</i>								
	.12							
Behavior Seriousness		-0.05	0.24	0.04	.84	0.60	1.52	0.96
Outcome Severity		0.74	0.36	4.17*	.04	1.03	4.23	2.09
<i>Step 3: Interactions</i>								
	.11							
Behavior Seriousness x Outcome Severity		-0.43	0.30	2.10	.15	0.36	1.17	0.65

Note: Dependent variable coded as 0 = it did not occur and 1 = it did occur.

\* p < .05



In addition to looking at the behavior of dissent, peer confrontation was also examined. Hypothesis 12 stated that peer confrontation would be more likely in cases of high behavior seriousness. As Table 27 shows, this hypothesis was not supported ( $\beta = .18, ns$ ). Hypothesis 13 stated that employees who witness a CWB with high levels of outcome severity would be more likely to confront a coworker. This hypothesis was not supported ( $\beta = .30, ns$ ). The Hypothesis regarding the interaction between behavior seriousness and outcome severity was not supported ( $\beta = -.16, ns$ ). Interactions between conscientiousness and behavior seriousness ( $\beta = -.41, ns$ ), and outcome severity ( $\beta = -.69, ns$ ) were also not supported.

Table 27: Results of hierarchical logistical regression predicting Confrontation

Variable	Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	B	SE	Wald	p	Exp(B)	Lower 95% C.I.	Upper 95% C.I.
<i>Step 1</i>								
	.03							
Coworker Liking		-0.53	0.28	3.42	.07	0.34	1.03	0.59
Coworker Performance		-0.15	0.31	0.22	.64	0.47	1.59	0.86
<i>Step 2</i>								
	.06							
Behavior Seriousness		0.18	0.24	0.60	.44	0.76	1.90	1.20
Outcome Severity		0.30	0.29	1.07	.30	0.76	2.41	1.36
Conscientiousness		-0.41	0.31	1.74	.19	0.36	1.22	0.64
<i>Step 3: Interactions</i>								
	.09							
Behavior Seriousness x Outcome Severity		-0.16	0.31	0.28	.60	0.46	1.56	0.85
Behavior Seriousness x Conscientiousness		-0.43	0.44	0.98	.32	0.28	1.56	0.65
Outcome Severity x Conscientiousness		-0.69	0.64	1.16	.28	0.14	1.76	0.50

Note: Dependent variable coded as 0 = it did not occur and 1 = it did occurred.

\* p < .05

## Chapter 11

### Study 2 Discussion

The goal of Study 2 was to examine whether employees reacted to CWBs in different ways depending on the CWB variables of behavior seriousness and outcome severity. While behavior seriousness did not predict any outcome variables, outcome severity was significantly related to retributive justice. This finding is consistent with the theoretical rationale presented earlier that takes into account research conducted by Walster (1966) and Alicke (1992). Walster's work suggests that the more serious the outcome, or consequences of one's behavior, the more others assign blame or responsibility to them. Alicke's work extends Walster's conclusions by her explanation that the perception of the individual's responsibility for the harm affects how much others believe the individual should be punished. Using this logic, it is possible that when outcomes were more, as opposed to less severe, the employees who witnessed the incident assigned more responsibility to their coworker committing the CWB, and, hence, believed more strongly that the coworker should be punished.

Neither behavior seriousness nor outcome severity affected perceptions of distributive justice or emotional reactions related to the CWB. Distributive justice was hypothesized to be affected because many CWBs consist of the individual raising their outcomes (e.g., by theft) or lowering their inputs (e.g., by taking additional breaks). However, the range of CWBs recalled by participants was much broader than this, meaning that many of the CWBs described did not involve situations where inputs were

lowered or outcomes were raised. This issue suggests that any future research examining distributive justice reactions to CWBs should take into account the type of CWB witnessed, and potentially focus on CWBs that are especially likely to affect an individual's perception of inputs and outcomes. In regards to the lack of findings for emotional reactions, given that some behaviors referenced by participants occurred approximately six months in the past, perhaps the time interval was too long for them to accurately describe their emotions at that particular point in time. This possibility is also discussed in the limitations section.

With regard to the proposed moderators of conscientiousness, belief in a just world, coworker organizational justice and negative affect, none of the proposed moderating relationships was significant.

For the variable of conscientiousness, a direct relationship was hypothesized in relation to articulated dissent, or whistle-blowing about the behavior to an authority figure at the organization, such as a supervisor. This relationship was significant, for individuals high in conscientiousness were more likely to report a CWB to an authority figure. As mentioned in the Study 1 Discussion, this is not surprising given that individual high in conscientiousness are especially likely to pay attention to and follow rules themselves.

## Chapter 12

### General Discussion

In order to examine coworker reactions to CWB, data were gathered in two methodologically distinct studies with very different samples. The vignette study examined a diverse sample of primarily middle-aged adults employed at a financial services company. The self-report study utilized employed college students in lower level service or retail jobs. The design of these different studies allows unique insights into the relationships among the variables examined since in Study 1 behavior seriousness and outcome severity were examined as independent variables, and in Study 2, real examples of reactions to CWB in the workplace were examined. A table summarizing the results for these studies can be found in Table 28.

These studies are unique in that they examine the variable of outcome severity in the context of CWBs. Although similar variables have been examined in studies of perceptions of organizational ethics (Gino et al., 2008; Jones 1991), the current two studies contribute to the existing research literature in that they focus on reactions to an individual's behavior, not that of a larger entity. Results suggest that outcome severity is distinct from the variable of behavior seriousness, as evidenced by only a moderate correlation ( $r = .44$ ) in the self-report study. The vignette study manipulated these variables, so a measure of their associated relationship is not available. Additionally, the pattern of correlations with other related variables gives some support to the idea that individuals regard these two variables differently. For instance, in Study 1, outcome

severity was significantly correlated with retributive justice, reporting perceptions, and both articulated and displaced dissent, whereas behavior seriousness did not exhibit significant correlations with any other study variables. The pattern of results for Study 2 was less clear, possibly due to the moderate correlation between the two variables, but there were some differences in the relationships of behavior seriousness and outcome severity to the other study variables. However, the goal of the current study was not to empirically distinguish these two variables, although if outcome severity is to become a variable studied more frequently in CWB research, an examination of this should be undertaken. The findings regarding behavior seriousness and outcome severity are discussed with each of the outcome variables in turn below.

Two variables assessing cognitive reactions were examined. The first variable, distributive justice, was hypothesized to affect reactions to CWB because witnesses might view a discrepancy between what their coworker either puts into, or gets out of the job, compared to themselves (Adams, 1965). As suggested in the Study 2 Discussion, the range of CWBs detailed by participants in this study did not consistently deal with CWBs that would affect inputs or outputs. An examination of distributive justice reactions to CWBs should focus on CWBs that directly affect an individual's inputs, such as withdrawal behaviors, or CWBs that focus on the raising one's outcomes, such as theft. Many studies of CWB have a targeted focus on employees who reduce their inputs, such as Pelled and Xin (1999) who focused on withdrawal behavior, or Lim (2002) who examined the withdrawal behavior of cyberloafing, or wasting time on the internet. Other studies have examined CWBs that raise one's outputs, such as or Colquitt, Scott, and Judge (2006) or Greenberg (1993a) who all examined theft. Although their studies

were done in the laboratory, they do provide precedent for examining a very specific type of CWB in relation to other variables. One field study examined coworker reports of theft in a restaurant chain, although this study focused on whether the behavior was labeled as a theft (Schmidtke, 2007). Another study examined the theft that employed students engaged in, so their sample is even similar to the self-report study examined in the current research (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2008). Since many other authors have already paved the way in examining specific CWBs, studying a more focused set of them to judge other's distributive justice reactions should be a realistic avenue to look at this relationship.

The second variable assessing cognitive reactions was retributive justice. There was mixed support for the relationship between behavior seriousness and retributive justice, as this relationship was supported only in the vignette study. The relationship between outcome severity and retributive justice was supported in both the vignette and the self report study. Although both CWB variables were hypothesized to affect retributive justice, there is additional support for outcome severity playing a stronger role than behavior seriousness. Gino et al.'s (2008) study examined outcome information, which is similar to outcome severity, in that they manipulated the outcome information conditions to reflect both a positive/neutral and a negative outcome in their vignette study. They discovered that in conditions with negative outcomes, participants viewed the responsible party as more deserving of punishment.

Affective reactions were examined by assessing participant's reported levels of negative emotions. Neither the vignette, nor the self report study supported a relationship between either behavior seriousness or outcome severity with negative emotions. As

described in the Study 1 Discussion section, there are a variety of reasons for why the vignette may not have been sufficient to affect individual's beliefs about how they might feel after witnessing an incident. Alternatively, for the self report study, the length of time between when the incident was witnessed and the survey was completed (which can be found in Table 18) may have been too long for participants to accurately recall their emotions. Additional thoughts about these possibilities are discussed in the limitations section below. Alternatively, it is also possible that although there is theoretical support for the reaction of negative emotions, it may be that emotions are not affected by witnessing CWBs. However, with the dearth of research regarding reactions to CWBs, it is too soon to draw definitive conclusions regarding this relationship.

Behavioral reactions to CWBs were assessed by looking at both confrontation and three types of dissent: articulated, latent, and displaced. However, latent and displaced dissent did not have a priori hypotheses, given that there was not enough theory or research to support an empirical relationship between them and the two CWB variables.

The first behavioral reaction variable, confrontation, was hypothesized to be related to both behavior seriousness and outcome severity. Previous research has examined the confrontation of coworkers in a sample of nurses, finding that almost 40% of employees reported that they had confronted a coworker in the past regarding impairment while on the job (Damrosch & Scholler-Jaquish, 1993). It may be that, given the potential for extremely severe consequences of making mistakes while in a hospital, these individuals were motivated to confront other coworkers regarding their behaviors and state while on the job. However, in the current set of studies, neither CWB variable predicted confrontation.



Articulated dissent, or reporting the incident to individuals are in a position of authority (Kassing, 1998), was hypothesized to be related to both behavior seriousness and outcome severity. Results of the current studies found that there was no support for the relationship between behavior seriousness and articulated dissent. There was mixed evidence regarding the relationship with outcome severity. Outcome severity was marginally related to articulated dissent ( $p = .07$ ), but only in the vignette study. As can be seen in Table 11, individuals in conditions of high outcome severity were 1.36 times more likely to engage in articulated dissent.

Conscientiousness was hypothesized to exhibit a main effect on articulated dissent, given that individuals higher in conscientiousness are much more likely to comply with work policies and rules than those individuals lower in conscientiousness. This relationship was supported in both studies. For the vignette study, Table 11 shows that individuals high in conscientiousness were 2.21 times more likely to say they would report the CWB to a supervisor. In the self-report study, individuals high in conscientiousness were 3.34 times as likely to engage in articulated dissent after witnessing a CWB, as evidenced in Table 15.

Conscientiousness moderated the relationships between both behavior seriousness and outcome severity in the vignette study. In both cases, there was a large difference between the likelihood to engage in articulated dissent for those high and low in conscientiousness when behavior seriousness and outcome severity were low. However, as the seriousness and severity of these conditions increased, the gap between those high and low on conscientiousness became markedly smaller. This suggests that individuals

low in conscientiousness are less likely to report CWBs they witness that are more benign.

Reporting beliefs were examined as an alternative measure of articulated dissent. This approach asked individuals to report what percentage of coworkers they believe would report the situation that they witnessed (Zhuang et al., 2005). As mentioned previously, this is useful given the discrepancy between what people say they would report, and what they actually do report (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvara, 2005). The interaction of behavior seriousness and conscientiousness for reporting beliefs found in Study 1 strengthens the conclusion in the prior paragraph, which suggests that individuals low in conscientiousness are less likely to report benign CWBS, since this finding also suggests that they do not believe that others report less serious CWBs.

Latent and displaced dissent were examined in an exploratory fashion, as a priori hypotheses were not made regarding them. There was some support to suggest that latent dissent, or telling a coworker or another individual at work about the CWB (Kassing, 1998), is predicted by behavior seriousness, since this relationship was supported by the self-report study (but not the vignette study). Serious behaviors that are witnessed should be more likely to be noticed, and remembered, given that they deviate from the typical pattern of behavior at work. This makes it more likely that individuals might recall these types of incidents when speaking with coworkers. Gossip at work (which itself can be considered a CWB) is something that might also contribute to this finding. For instance, gossip can be used to undermine other individuals, such as when one tells others of the negative behavior they witnessed in order to harm another's reputation or character at work (Michelson & Mouly, 2001).

The final type of dissent examined was displaced dissent, which involved telling a non-influential person outside of work such as a spouse or friend about the CWB (Kassing, 1998). In both the vignette and the self-report studies, outcome severity was found to predict displaced dissent. Like latent dissent, displaced dissent in these instances might stem from the CWB incident being something out of the ordinary. When individuals leave work and then interact with friends, family, or spouses, incidents that are high in CWB seriousness and severity would be more likely to stick out in their minds compared to non CWB incidents, or even CWBs that were relatively harmless.

### **Contributions of the Present Research**

The primary contribution of this research is an initial examination into employees' reactions to coworkers CWBs. Although the field of CWB research has significantly grown over the past decade, few studies have examined the effects of CWB. One such example is Payne and Gainey's (2003) research, which delved into how supervisors and business owners are affected by employee theft. However, the current research is unique in that in the self report study, a broad range of CWBs (e.g., theft, drug or alcohol use, and interpersonal aggression) were examined.

The pattern of results suggests that individuals do notice and react to individual CWBs. This suggests that for CWBs to have ramifications in the workplace in regard to individual reactions, it is not necessary to have a high frequency of such behaviors. Rather, just one CWB can have an effect on the individuals who may have witnessed the incident. Of particular note, both behavior seriousness and outcome severity exhibited

unique effects on some of the variables of interest (e.g., retributive justice). While behavior seriousness is a variable that is familiar in the CWB literature (e.g., Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennett, 1995), the inclusion of the variable of outcome severity in relation to CWBs is a unique contribution to CWB research. Although similar variables have been examined in studies related to ethics (Gino et al., 2008), this variable has not yet been incorporated in Industrial Organizational Psychology's research on CWBs or other deviant behaviors.

Given that not all of the dependent variables exhibited significant relationships with either behavior seriousness or outcome severity, a revised model of the study variables is depicted in Figure 7. The current set of studies found that distributive justice reactions, negative emotions, and confrontation were not significantly influenced by either of the CWB variables, so they are dropped in the revised model. Additionally, the proposed moderators of coworker organizational justice and trait negative affect did not exhibit moderation effects, so they too are dropped from the final model. On the other hand, retributive justice, along with the behavioral reaction measures of articulated, latent, and displaced dissent, were all affected by either the behavior seriousness or the outcome severity of the CWB, so these variables are retained in Figure 7.

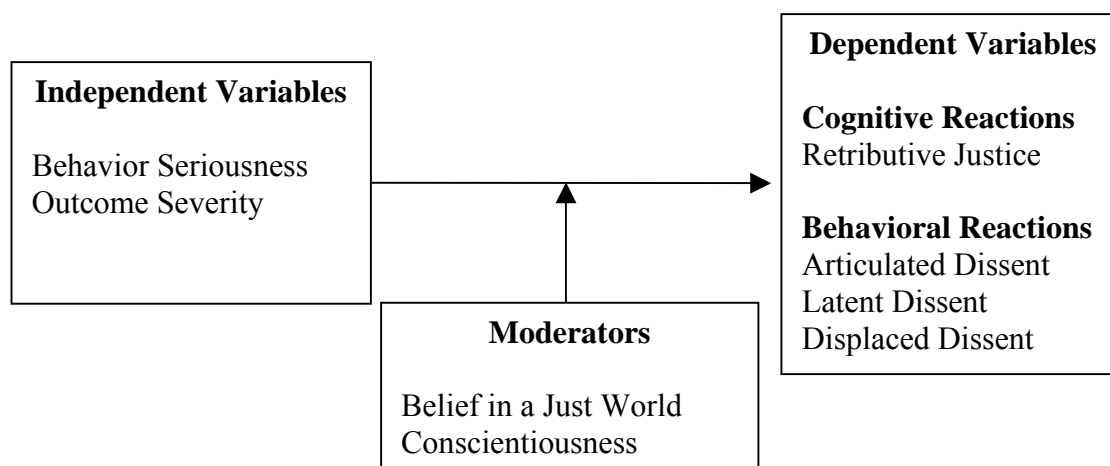


Figure : Revised Model

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### Limitations

Although these two studies had different strengths and weaknesses, their methodological differences allow them to complement each other, with one study's strengths at least partially addressing the weaknesses of the other. More specifically, the use of written vignettes offered a way to examine how employees might react to infrequently witnessed work behaviors of hypothetical co-workers within a design that had a relatively high level of internal validity. However, while being able to control for potential confounding variables and to randomly assign participants to experimental conditions, the resulting vignettes were rather simplistic descriptions of a work situation and the outcome measures were self-reports of behavioral intentions, resulting in a relatively low level of external validity. In addition, the vignette study drew its

respondents from the full-time employees of one organization; the sample had strong diversity, including participants of various ages, and ethnic and racial backgrounds.

In contrast, the study in which participants described an actual work experience involving counterproductive behavior had considerable salience and realism for each individual, although there was limited similarity in the incidents that were described. The loss of similarity in the events being described no doubt affected the judgments that project coders made concerning the counterproductive behaviors and their correlates. However, the gain in generalization to actual work situations was considerable in contrast to the vignette study. While the participants in this study were college students with similar demographic characteristics of age and race, they were employees in a large number of companies in several industry sectors and had been employed for at least several months in their current job.

One limitation for the vignette study is that the demographic characteristics of the respondent sample differed from the sample that was originally contacted. Specifically, employees who responded had lower average tenure and were more likely to be supervisors compared to those who did not respond. There were also differences in terms of the ethnic makeup of the sample contacted, and the respondents. Although Asians and Caucasians comprised the majority of both samples, although more Asians were in the originally contacted sample, more Caucasians completed the survey. A possible explanation for this would be the similar-to-me effect which could have been caused by the name of the researcher (Rand & Wexley, 1975). Although the samples were similar in regards to gender and age, the final sample used in the study was not completely representative of the full sample contacted.

Another limitation is the influence of common method bias, and in these studies multiple types of common method bias may have been present. Although the independent variables of behavior seriousness and outcome severity were coded by third parties, all of the moderators and dependent variables were gathered from the participant, allowing method effects produced by a common source to come into play (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Item characteristics may have also contributed additional method effects, such as social desirability. This effect is more likely in the organizational sample than the student sample. Since the organizational sample completed their survey while at work, they may have been primed to answer certain questions in more socially desirable ways. For example, many of the items measuring conscientiousness asked the participant to reveal negative information about themselves (e.g., I leave a mess in my room), and participants may have been especially hesitant to reveal this negative information in a workplace setting. Although these common method bias influences may have had unique contributions to the variance in this study, two of the suggestions from Podsakoff et al. were implemented to help counteract this effect. As mentioned above, the measures of the independent and dependent variables were obtained from different sources. The participants were also assured of anonymity and confidentiality to reduce evaluation apprehension.

In regards to the self-report study, a limitation is that data were collected after the incident occurred. As explained by Zaheer, Albert, and Zaheer (1999), a critical specification in research is the time scale in which it takes place. In this case, the existence interval, or the length of time for the process or phenomena to occur, is likely to be rather short. For example, after an individual witnesses a coworker engaged in a

CWB, they are likely to have emotional and cognitive reactions very quickly, and their behavioral patterns, such as confronting their coworker, or telling the supervisor or others about the incident are most likely to occur in a narrow time frame, say over a few days. However, our observation interval is at a time after all of these events have occurred. This has the potential to change the participant's recollection of how they reacted to the behavior. For example, imagine that an employee witnessed a coworker steal a small amount from an organization, and at the time, this employee does not have much of a negative reaction, or is not overly concerned about the incident. If this coworker spoke to another individual about the incident, the person they were speaking to could react in a very negative way, or frame the situation so that the employee then judged the situation to be more serious than they had originally conceived. As a result, when they are then asked to recall this incident months later, this conversation with another may influence their recollections about how they actually felt while witnessing the incident. This limitation suggests that research in 'real time' is necessary, perhaps with an experience sampling methodology, or a laboratory study in which multiple measurements take place.

Retributive justice was assessed with a single item. Although single item scales have been used in psychology literature (e.g., Britt, 2000; MacLeod, LaChapelle, Hadjistavropoulos, & Pfeifer, 2001), they are unlikely to be as reliable as scales with multiple items.



### **Future Research Directions**

As noted in the limitations section, one issue casting doubt on the authenticity of findings for the self report study, especially in regards to emotional reactions, was the time lag between when the employee witnessed the event, and when information about their reactions was captured in a survey format. Future research could mitigate this issue in a few ways. First, laboratory studies in which participants witness others breaking the rules could capture reaction information in a much shorter temporal time period. Experience sampling methodology would also be a provocative avenue to study reactions to CWBs. However, because CWBs have a lower base rate than other workplace behaviors, it might be difficult to collect data in this way.

Although the current studies investigated how both individual differences and aspects of the CWB affected coworker reactions to CWBs, theory suggests that other contextual or situational factors should also influence reactions. These factors could include the employee's relationship with the individual engaging in the CWB (e.g., coworker or supervisor), organizational tenure, the level of CWBs that are typical within the group, or even the witness's past behavior in regards to engaging in CWBs themselves. These contextual factors could be explored in future research in this area.

Research in the area of punishment should also consider reactions to CWBs. In an organizational context, punishment is defined as "the manager's application of a negative consequence or the withdrawal of a positive consequence from someone under his or her supervision" (Trevino, 1992, p. 649). Although not all punishment is administered in response to CWBs (e.g., punishment for poor performance), many

organizations do use punishment or discipline when employees break organizational rules or harm the organization in some way. One of the most common organizational approaches to punishment is known as progressive or corrective discipline (Grote, 1995). This approach became popular in American organizations in the 1930s due to union demands that an employee should not lose his or her job without being aware that they were at risk to do so (Grote). Progressive discipline policies have a progression of warning steps, and each step contains a more serious element, to stress to the employee the importance of compliance, as well as the risk of termination (Redeker, 1989). Traditionally, most policies include these four steps: a verbal warning, a written warning, suspension without pay and a final warning, and finally, the employee is discharged (Guffrey & Helms, 2001; Redeker, 1983).

Many studies have already examined coworker reactions to punishment or discipline events (Ball, 1991; Ball, Trevino, & Sims, 1992; Niehoff, Paul, & Bunch, 1998; Trevino & Ball, 1992). These authors have already laid groundwork in regards to coworker reactions to punishment. Future research should examine how employee reactions to witnessing CWBs might also affect their reactions to any punishment that is doled out to the offender.

Counterproductive work behaviors are an important avenue of research, and although the monetary costs are high (Murphy, 2002), there are a variety of other ways that they negative impact businesses and other employees. Business owners, supervisors, and other employees can all be negatively impacted by CWBs, including mental anguish and a loss of trust in employees and coworkers (Payne & Gainey, 2003). Additionally, CWBs can also negatively affect customers, clients, or even individuals who need to rely

almost completely on employees, such as evidenced in a study examining employee theft of patient's belongings in a nursing home facility (Harris & Benson, 1998). Although there were mixed findings for support of many of the current research hypotheses, there was support for the effect of both behavior seriousness and outcome severity affecting different types of reactions to CWBs. More information about reactions to CWBs is necessary to discern the extent of consequences from witnessing CWBs, since only a handful of reaction measures were included in the current set of studies. Additionally, CWB research should consider integrating the variable of outcome severity when studying specific incidents of CWB.

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## Appendix A

### Vignette Examples Initially Created

Level of Behavior Seriousness	Level of Outcome Severity	Vignette Example
Low	Low	Blake works with you at a law firm. You overheard Blake saying that they just got a new pool, so he called in sick so he could enjoy it. You knew Blake had called in sick for 1 day last week. Because Blake called in sick, an all-hands staff meeting had to be delayed until Blake came back into the office.
Low	Moderate	Chris is employed with you at an architectural firm. Recently, you saw Chris stealing office supplies for architecture models worth approximately \$10.00. In order to finish an important model for a client, more supplies had to be ordered. This caused a one week delay in the project.
Low	High	You work in a counseling office and even though smoking isn't allowed in the building, you saw your coworker, Lauren smoking a cigarette in the break room. As a result of this, a small fire started, causing approximately \$200 worth of office supplies before it was put out.
Moderate	Low	You and Jesse are recruiters at an internet start up firm. At a job fair recently you saw Jaime roll his eyes and give a dirty look to a job applicant who was asking many questions about your hiring policies. The applicant and all others who were at your booth then left, since they were no longer interested in applying for work at your company.
Moderate	Moderate	You work in a bank, and recently you overheard your coworker Dallas state that she intentionally ignored a coworker's urgent request for a full day, since she was busy planning a party for a friend. The coworker wasn't able to finish their task and an important project at the bank was delayed two additional days.
High	Low	You work in sales at a large office supply company. You recently overheard your coworker, Raine, say he cursed out a client on the phone because he was tired of hearing him complain. The client then called back and asked to be transferred to another sales representative.
High	High	You work at a pharmaceutical company, and you overheard your coworker Mel, mention that they were using the company car for personal use (which is against company policy). Mel used the car for a short weekend trip, and ended up getting into a car accident.

## Appendix B

### Vignettes Used

Level of Behavior Seriousness	Level of Outcome Severity	Vignette Text
Low	Low	You work at a pharmaceutical company, and you overheard your coworker, Mel, mention that he used the company car for personal use (which is against company policy). Mel used the car to go to a doctor's appointment and ended up with a scratch on the car door.
Low	Mod	You work at a pharmaceutical company, and you overheard your coworker, Mel, mention that he used the company car for personal use (which is against company policy). Mel used the car to go to a doctor's appointment and ended up with a big dent in the car door.
Low	High	You work at a pharmaceutical company, and you overheard your coworker, Mel, mention that he used the company car for personal use (which is against company policy). Mel used the car to go to a doctor's appointment and ended up getting into a car accident.
Mod	Low	You work at a pharmaceutical company, and you overheard your coworker, Mel, mention that he used the company car for personal use (which is against company policy). Mel used the car to go to lunch with friends and ended up with a scratch on the car door.
Mod	Mod	You work at a pharmaceutical company, and you overheard your coworker, Mel, mention that he used the company car for personal use (which is against company policy). Mel used the car to go to lunch with friends and ended up with a big dent in the car door.
Mod	High	You work at a pharmaceutical company, and you overheard your coworker, Mel, mention that he used the company car for personal use (which is against company policy). Mel used the car to go to lunch with friends and ended up getting into a car accident.
High	Low	You work at a pharmaceutical company, and you overheard your coworker, Mel, mention that he used the company car for personal use (which is against company policy). Mel used the car for a short weekend trip and ended up with a scratch on the car door.
High	Mod	You work at a pharmaceutical company, and you overheard your coworker, Mel, mention that he used the company car for personal use (which is against company policy). Mel used the car for a short weekend trip and ended up with a big dent in the car door.
High	High	You work at a pharmaceutical company, and you overheard your coworker, Mel, mention that he used the company car for personal use (which is against company policy). Mel used the car for a short weekend trip and ended up getting into a car accident.

## **Appendix C**

### **Retributive Justice Measure**

Which of the following behaviors do you think is justified in this situation?

Please choose only one.

1. The incident is ignored, and nothing is done.
2. The employee is verbally warned, and told that they have committed a violation of company rules.
3. A written reprimand is placed in the employee's permanent file.
4. The employee is suspended from work for one day without pay.
5. The employee is suspended from work for one week without pay.
6. The employee is fired.



## Appendix D

### PANAS Measure for Negative Emotions

Directions: This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you would feel this **AFTER WITNESSING THE INCIDENT DESCRIBED ON THE PREVIOUS PAGE.**

Use the following scale to record your answers.

(1) = Very slightly (2) = A little (3) = Moderately (4) = Quite a bit (5) = Extremely or not at all

	<b>Very slightly or not at all</b>	<b>A little</b>	<b>Moderately</b>	<b>Quite a bit</b>	<b>Extremely</b>
1. Interested	1	2	3	4	5
2. Distressed	1	2	3	4	5
3. Excited	1	2	3	4	5
4. Upset	1	2	3	4	5
5. Strong	1	2	3	4	5
6. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5
7. Scared	1	2	3	4	5
8. Hostile	1	2	3	4	5
9. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
10. Proud	1	2	3	4	5
11. Irritable	1	2	3	4	5
12. Alert	1	2	3	4	5
13. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
14. Inspired	1	2	3	4	5
15. Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
16. Determined	1	2	3	4	5
17. Attentive	1	2	3	4	5
18. Jittery	1	2	3	4	5
19. Active	1	2	3	4	5
20. Afraid	1	2	3	4	5

## Appendix E

### Conscientious Scale

Instructions: Below are phrases describing people's behaviors. Please use the rating scale below to describe how accurately each statement describes *you*. Describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you honestly see yourself, in relation to other people you know of the same sex as you are, and roughly your same age. So that you can describe yourself in an honest manner, your responses will be kept in absolute confidence. Please read each statement carefully, and then select your response.

#### Response Options

- 1: Very Inaccurate
- 2: Moderately Inaccurate
- 3: Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate
- 4: Moderately Accurate
- 5: Very Accurate

20 Item scale (Note: items 11-20 are reverse coded)

1. Am always prepared.
2. Pay attention to details.
3. Get chores done right away.
4. Like order.
5. Follow a schedule.
6. Am exacting in my work.
7. Do things according to a plan.
8. Continue until everything is perfect.
9. Make plans and stick to them.
10. Love order and regularity.
11. Like to tidy up.
12. Leave my belongings around.
13. Make a mess of things.
14. Often forget to put things back in their proper place.
15. Shirk my duties.
16. Neglect my duties.
17. Waste my time.
18. Do things in a half-way manner.
19. Find it difficult to get down to work.
20. Leave a mess in my room.

## Appendix F

### Measure for Belief in a Just World

Please your agreement the following items on a scale from 1 to 5.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree

1. I feel that people get what they are entitled to have.
2. I feel that a person's efforts are noticed and rewarded.
3. I feel that people earn the rewards and punishments they get.
4. I feel that people who meet with misfortune have brought it on themselves.
5. I feel that people get what they deserve.
6. I feel that rewards and punishments are fairly given.
7. I basically feel that the world is a fair place.

## Appendix G

**PANAS Measure for Trait Negative Affect**

Directions: This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you have felt this way in general, that is, on the average. Use the following scale to record your answers.

(1) = Very slightly or not at all (2) = A little (3) = Moderately (4) = Quite a bit (5) = Extremely

	<b>Very slightly or not at all</b>	<b>A little</b>	<b>Moderately</b>	<b>Quite a bit</b>	<b>Extremely</b>
1. Interested	1	2	3	4	5
2. Distressed	1	2	3	4	5
3. Excited	1	2	3	4	5
4. Upset	1	2	3	4	5
5. Strong	1	2	3	4	5
6. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5
7. Scared	1	2	3	4	5
8. Hostile	1	2	3	4	5
9. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
10. Proud	1	2	3	4	5
11. Irritable	1	2	3	4	5
12. Alert	1	2	3	4	5
13. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
14. Inspired	1	2	3	4	5
15. Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
16. Determined	1	2	3	4	5
17. Attentive	1	2	3	4	5
18. Jittery	1	2	3	4	5
19. Active	1	2	3	4	5
20. Afraid	1	2	3	4	5

## Appendix H

**Example of Participants' Qualitative Responses**

Behavior Seriousness Explanation	Outcome Severity Explanation
<p>On shift one day, two employees came into work after smoking pot. The managers did not notice but all the other employees did. It was very frustrating because the two employees were working much slower than usual and were in constant need of a cigarette break. One of the employees who smoked pot ended up leaving early because of "sickness". Which just annoyed the rest of the people on shift even more.</p>	<p>The coworkers took extra break to go smoke cigarettes and one ended up leaving early from work. - It took longer to get customers their food because we were short workers - employees got frustrated because were forced to pick up extra slack - one employee had to stay late in order to cover for the employee to went home early</p>
<p>I witnessed the harassment of a female employee. He was making crude comments would on occasion put his arm around her when she asked him not to. The incident didn't last long as the management did not tolerate this activity very long, after repeated attempts asking him to stop.</p>	<p>The incident occurred away from customers. The female's friends would block the guy that was harassing her and asked him to leave her alone. Often the female would be emotionally distressed and would ask to leave. Also, she began to work different shifts.</p>
<p>While on the job I had other workers drink alcohol and smoke marijuana. The drinking of alcohol was not found upon since every one including the boss were drinking at the end of the day with only an hour left of work on a Friday. However; the smoking was not acceptable, but the boss never found out and other employees never told the boss that a certain employee was doing so.</p>	<p>There was no bad outcome in my situation. With the drinking part there was only an hour of work left so it didn't affect anyone's performance and the smoking incident didn't seem to hinder the employees' ability to work.</p>
<p>The employee, well first I should tell you that I work at a clothing store, in question engaged in theft of merchandise. Stuffing shirts down his pants, after having taken the sensors off in the stock room, and walking out the door with them. Also the garbage bag trick, where you bag up unsensored merchandise in a smaller garbage bag, then put it in a bag of actual garbage so you can't see the merchandise and then taking it out back and to the dumpster. Then he proceeded to the dumpster after his shift and removed the merchandise.</p>	<p>Well for me and those who knew about it it was awkward and uncomfortable because we didn't want to snitch out someone we were friends with. The company lost lots of money in merchandise that they could've sold.</p>

## **Appendix I**

### **Instructions for Behavior Seriousness**

This research study is investigating some common work behaviors that most individuals have witnessed or engaged in themselves at some point.

Most organizations and businesses have rules regarding what employees should and should not do at work. However, the current study is interested in what happens when employees break the rules! More specifically, we are interested in a time when you have witnessed one of your coworkers breaking the rules at work, or doing other types of behaviors that would negatively impact your company, its employees, or its customers.

To help clarify what we mean by employees breaking the rules, or engaging in negative behaviors while on the job, here are some examples:

- Tried to get another employee fired
- Took home valuable work supplies without permission
- Sexually harassed another employee or customer
- Intentionally sabotaged another employee's efforts
- Used alcohol or illegal drugs while on the job
- Threatened other employees or customer
- Discussed confidential information with an unauthorized person

Going back to the last 6 months, think about an incident that occurred at work when an employee broke a company/organization rule or engaged in behavior that might be harmful to other employees, customers, or the company/organization. Use the example behaviors listed above to help you recall such an incident, but your incident does not have to be highly similar to one that is listed.

Please describe this incident in as much detail as possible. Be sure to be specific about what behavior the other employee engaged in.

## Appendix J

**Instructions for Outcome Severity**

Next, we are interested in what happened as a consequence of the employee's rule-breaking or negative behavior. The possible consequences could range from minor to very serious. See below some examples of minor and more serious consequences that might result from various negative behaviors.

A coworker showed up 15 minutes late

- They angered other employees who had to wait until they arrived so they could leave
- They missed an important phone call, and the company lost that client's business

A coworker was telling inappropriate sexual jokes

- Nothing occurred because of it
- A lawsuit was filed and the company settled for \$10,000

Another employee took 3 extra breaks in their shift

- A long line formed at the checkout stand
- Stocking of merchandise didn't get done, so another employee had to stay for an extra hour

A coworker said, "Whatever" in a sarcastic way while responding to a customer complaint

- The customer left the store, without purchasing the item they were interested in
- All of the customers within earshot left the store without buying their purchases

Thinking about the incident you described on the previous page, what were the direct outcomes of the coworker's behavior, that is, how did you, your peers, or customers react to the behavior?

Note that in this question we are not asking if the coworker was punished or disciplined by management.

Please describe the result, or outcome of your coworkers behavior in as much detail in the box below.

## Appendix K

### Distributive Justice Reactions

The following scale asks you some questions about your perceptions of your work outcomes compared to the coworker who committed the counterproductive work behavior.

Please rate the following items on a scale from 1 to 5.

1	2	3	4	5
To a small Extent				To a large Extent

The following items refer to your outcome (such as what you receive from work, e.g. your pay). To what extent:

1. Does your outcome reflect the effort you have put into your work compared to your coworker?
2. Is your outcome appropriate for the work you have completed compared to your coworker?
3. Does your outcome reflect what you have contributed to the organization compared to your coworker?
4. Compared to your coworker, is your outcome justified, given your performance?



## Appendix L

### Interpersonal Justice Measure

The following questions ask about how you feel your coworker has treated others.

Please rate the following items on a scale from 1 to 5.

1	2	3	4	5
To a small Extent				To a large Extent

1. Has your coworker treated others in a polite matter?
2. Has your coworker treated others with dignity?
3. Has your coworker treated others with respect?
4. Has your coworker refrained from improper remarks or comments?

## **Appendix M**

### **Measure of Beliefs Regarding Coworker Organizational Justice**

The following statements will ask about your beliefs about your coworker. Please rate your agreement with each statement on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 = Strongly Disagree and 5 = Strongly Agree.

#### Distributive Justice

- My coworker has been treated fairly in regards to the outcomes or rewards (e.g. pay) they have received for their work.

#### Procedural Justice

- My coworker has been treated fairly in regards to how decisions are made about them (e.g. their pay, promotions).

#### Interactional Justice

- My coworker's communication from our supervisor and the organization has been personal and respectful.

#### Informational Justice

- My coworker has been treated sensitively and is respected by our manager and the organization.

## VITA

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#### Education

**Ph.D.**, Industrial Organizational Psychology, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA. May 2009.

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#### Publications

Cherney, I. D., Lawrence, E., Carroll, A., Leak, K., Kalar, J., **Neff, N.**, Stein, A., & Voss, J. (2004). The Nature of Nurture and Gender. *Journal of Psychological Inquiry*, 9, 46-49.

Cherney, I. D. & **Neff, N. L.** (2004). Role of strategies and prior exposure in mental rotation. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 98, 1269-1282.

#### Selected Presentations

**Neff, N. L.** (2009, April). *Coworker reactions to counterproductive work behavior*. In **N. L. Neff** and M. J. Cullen's (Co-Chairs) Third Party Observations of Counterproductive Work Behaviors. Symposium conducted at the Society for Industrial Organizational Psychology Conference, New Orleans, LA.

**Neff, N.**, Brooks-Shesler, L., Brill, J., & Tetrick, L. (2007, April). *Satisfaction with Work and Family Policies: The Role of Supervisory Support*. In J. N Cleveland, M. M. Harrison, and A. M. Jones' (Co-Chairs) Social Support, Leadership, and Work-Family Outcomes Symposium conducted at the Society for Industrial Organizational Psychology Conference, New York, NY.

**Neff, N. L.** (2007, March). *Do Integrity Test Scores Moderate the Relationship between Organizational Justice Violations and Counterproductive Work Behaviors?* Poster presented at the Industrial Organizational and Organizational Behavior Conference, Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis, Indianapolis, IN.

**Neff, N. L.**, & Baytalskaya, N. (2007, March). *The Effect of Moods on Problem Identification and Idea Generation*. Symposium presented at the Industrial Organizational and Organizational Behavior Conference, Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis, Indianapolis, IN.

**Neff, N. L.**, Diamond, A. L., & Brady, J. L. (2007, March). *Fairness Does Matter: Employee Reactions to Customer Injustice*. Poster presented at the Industrial Organizational and Organizational Behavior Conference, Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis, Indianapolis, IN.

Harrison, M., **Neff, N. L.** Schwall, A., & Zhou, R. (2006, May). *A Meta-analytic Investigation of Creativity and Innovation in the Workplace*. In J. L. Farr's (Chair) Creativity and Innovation in Work Organizations: Multilevel Approaches. Symposium conducted at the Society for Industrial Organizational Psychology Conference, Dallas, TX.