

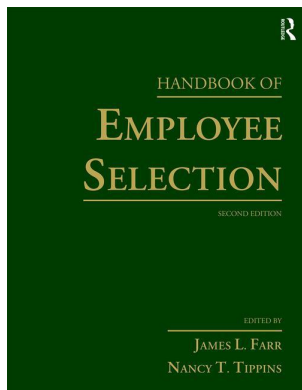
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Publisher: *Routledge*

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Handbook of Employee Selection

James L. Farr, Nancy T. Tippins, Walter C. Borman, David Chan, Michael D. Coovert, Rick Jacobs, P. Richard Jeanneret, Jerard F. Kehoe, Filip Lievens, S. Morton McPhail, Kevin R. Murphy, Robert E. Ployhart, Elaine D. Pulakos, Douglas H. Reynolds, Ann Marie Ryan, Neal Schmitt, Benjamin Schneider

New Perspectives on Counterproductive Work Behavior Including Withdrawal

Publication details

<https://test.routledgehandbooks.com/doi/10.4324/9781315690193-22>

Maria Rotundo, Paul E. Spector

Published online on: 22 Mar 2017

How to cite :- Maria Rotundo, Paul E. Spector. 22 Mar 2017, *New Perspectives on Counterproductive Work Behavior Including Withdrawal from: Handbook of Employee Selection* Routledge

Accessed on: 21 Sep 2023

<https://test.routledgehandbooks.com/doi/10.4324/9781315690193-22>

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NEW PERSPECTIVES ON COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR INCLUDING WITHDRAWAL

MARIA ROTUNDO AND PAUL E. SPECTOR

Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) subsumes a broad range of behaviors by employees that harm organizations and/or people in organizations. For this edition of the Handbook, we take a comprehensive look at the literature on CWB since 2007 when we completed the literature review for the chapter for the first edition. There has been an explosion of interest in the topic and a maturing of a previously disjointed field that has coalesced. In reviewing the literature on CWB and related topics, we began with a PsycInfo search for the term “counterproductive work behavior” and related terms including “workplace deviance” and “workplace aggression.” We found that more than two-thirds of the sources have been published since 2007, showing an accelerating interest in the topic. Clearly, CWB has become one of the most popular topics among organizational researchers.

Our goal is to provide an overview of the post-2007 CWB research literature and withdrawal, most notably absence, lateness, and turnover (and turnover intentions). We will begin with a discussion of the nature and assessment of CWB. We will discuss potential environmental and individual antecedents of CWB and potential consequences of engaging in CWB. Included will be emerging issues in the use of social media as it relates to CWB and withdrawal. Finally, we will conclude with a discussion of implications for employee selection.

NATURE OF CWB

The term CWB arose from two contemporaneous perspectives. Sackett and DeVore (2001) considered CWB from the perspective of organizations as behavior that runs counter to the legitimate interests of organizations. It is an aspect of broadly construed job performance that can be divided into task performance, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and CWB (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Fox, Spector, and Miles (2001) took research on human aggression as their basis, and defined CWB as behavior intended to harm organizations or organization members. The term *deviance* has its basis in sociology and criminology (Hollinger & Clark, 1982) and is defined as harmful behavior that violates organization norms and rules. It was introduced into the organizational literature by Robinson and Bennett (1995).

The list of CWB behaviors ranges from minor acts to serious and even criminal activities that can be directed at individuals or organizations. Included are unauthorized withdrawal such

as calling in sick when not ill, or purposely and unnecessarily coming in late. In this chapter, we discuss withdrawal separately as much of it is not CWB, as it is not intended to harm the organization, nor does it cause harm.

Although CWB, deviance, and related terms have distinct conceptualizations, research on these topics has focused on an overlapping set of behaviors that are compiled into indices that are sometimes global and sometimes specific subcategories (Langton, Piquero, & Hollinger, 2006). Our PsycInfo literature review identified 151 papers on the phenomenon. Approximately 91% of them used the terms deviance (49 papers) or CWB (88 papers), often interchangeably. In fact, some authors referred to the phenomenon as CWB, but then chose a measure of deviance to operationalize it. Some papers focused on specific forms of CWB, using terms like cyber incivility (Lim & Teo, 2009), cyber loafing (Kim, del Carmen Triana, Chung, & Oh, 2016), theft (Christian & Ellis, 2011), and time banditry (Martin, 2010).

Robinson and Bennett (1995), using the term deviance, classified a list of disparate behaviors along the dimensions of target (interpersonal versus organizational) and severity (minor versus serious). This resulted in four forms of deviance, one for each combination of target and severity. Two forms targeted the organization and two targeted people. The organizational forms reflected Hollinger and Clark's (1982) categories of Production Deviance (behaviors that affect organizational productivity such as leaving early or intentionally working slowly) and Property Deviance (behaviors directed at property such as sabotaging equipment and theft). The interpersonal forms were Political Deviance (behaviors that reflect office politics such as showing favoritism and gossiping) and Personal Aggression (verbal abuse and stealing from coworkers). Subsequent research has ignored the severity dimension and has collapsed the four categories into the interpersonal (CWB-I) and the organizational (CWB-O) forms, although not all of the original behaviors are represented.

A finer-grained five-category scheme by Spector et al. (2006) included Abuse (CWB-I), Production Deviance (behaviors that harm productivity other than withdrawal), Sabotage (destruction of property), Theft (stealing material objects), and Withdrawal (working fewer hours than required). Note that the content of Robinson and Bennett's production deviance is broader than Spector et al.'s as it is combined with withdrawal. An even finer-grained 11-dimension classification was provided by Sackett and DeVore (2001) and Gruys and Sackett (2003). This scheme is more inclusive than earlier classifications, expanding some categories and including additional behaviors. The categories are Theft, Destruction of Property, Misuse of Information, Misuse of Time and Resources, Unsafe Behavior, Poor Attendance, Poor Quality Work, Alcohol Use, Drug Use, Inappropriate Verbal Actions, and Inappropriate Physical Actions.

As part of our review, we compiled how CWB was operationalized in empirical studies. Assessing CWB-I and CWB-O in the same study was the most frequently used approach (49 studies), followed by assessing CWB with a single global score (28 studies). A smaller number of studies assessed either CWB-I (12 studies) or CWB-O (12 studies) but not both. Five studies used the Spector et al. (2006) five-category breakdown. Only a couple of studies assessed the 11 Sackett and DeVore (2001) or Gruys and Sackett (2003) categories in the same study. This is unfortunate as there are unique and understudied behaviors in this broader CWB scheme.

ASSESSMENT OF CWB

Most studies of CWB use behavior checklists in which people indicate how often individuals engage in each behavior. Individuals report on their own behavior, or in some cases, other's behavior. Studies using nonsurvey sources of data on CWB, such as archival data or objective measures, are rare.

Studies of individual withdrawal behaviors, particularly absence and turnover, generally use records. For example, in their meta-analysis linking absence, lateness, and turnover, Berry, Lelchook, and Clark (2012) found that out of 38 studies, only 5 for absence and 6 for lateness

Maria Rotundo and Paul E. Spector

used self-reports of the behavior. Furthermore, counter to concerns about correlation inflation due to common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), the self-report measures yielded smaller, not larger, correlations among the three forms of withdrawal. At least for absence, although self-reports yielded lower mean levels, their convergence with records was quite high, suggesting they can be a reasonable measure when the purpose is determining relationships with other variables (Johns & Miraglia, 2015). For more details on how CWB and withdrawal behaviors are assessed, see Rotundo and Spector (2010).

Our review found that the most popular (used in 55 studies) CWB measure is the Bennett and Robinson (2000) workplace deviance scale. This 19-item measure has subscales to assess both interpersonal and organizational deviance. The next most frequently used (22 studies) was the Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C; Spector et al., 2006). This scale provides scores for overall CWB (45 items), CWB-I and CWB-O (44 items), or the five dimensions noted earlier (33 items). The remaining papers noted a wide variety of measures used, some of which were ad hoc and some of which targeted specific forms of CWB, such as cyber incivility or theft.

There is a great deal of overlap in the content of measures, so it is not surprising that to date there has been consistency of results found across specific CWB instruments. Studies vary in the extent to which their focus is on global CWB or on understanding more specific subcategories. Such distinctions are important as correlations with criteria can vary across subscales (Spector et al., 2006). Thus, one must be cautious in assuming that if a global measure of CWB is related to another variable, that all behaviors that constitute that global measure are also related. That said, various dimensions of CWB tend to be intercorrelated. For example, in their meta-analysis, Marcus, Taylor, Hastings, Sturm, and Weigelt (2016) showed that the mean correlations among the Spector et al. (2006) five subscales ranged from .50 to .60. Furthermore, they provided evidence that global CWB can best be considered a higher-order factor that can be broken into more specific lower-order factors. In what follows, we will focus our attention primarily on higher-order global CWB findings.

Considering the widespread use of self-reports to assess CWB, a reasonable concern is the extent to which such reports can be trusted. Berry, Carpenter, and Barratt (2012) addressed this question using meta-analysis to compare self-reports with other-reports. They found that there was convergence (significant correlations) of self with other-source CWB, with larger correlations for CWB-I than CWB-O. This makes sense because, by its nature, CWB-I is more public, as it is difficult to mistreat another person without another person's knowledge. Likely the raters would have witnessed or even been the target of the interpersonal CWB being rated. CWB-O, on the other hand, can be more hidden. If an employee steals from the company, it is unlikely that coworkers or the supervisor have knowledge of the behavior. Furthermore, Berry et al. found a similar pattern of relationships of CWB with other variables. Although many would assume that self-reports would have higher correlations with other variables due to common method variance, there was no consistent pattern of self-reports having higher correlations. For example, the correlation of interactional justice with CWB was higher for other-reports ($r = -.45$) than for self-reports ($r = -.30$). Berry et al. concluded based on several types of evidence that self-reports are a reasonable approach to the assessment of CWB.

POTENTIAL ANTECEDENTS OF CWB

The study of CWB has been guided by a basic environment–person–outcome framework in which environmental conditions are perceived, leading to feelings (emotional/attitudinal reactions), leading to behavior. Figure 22.1, based on Spector and Fox (2005), provides a framework to consider potential antecedents of CWB. It suggests that environmental conditions (e.g., high workloads) lead to negative feelings (e.g., burnout or job dissatisfaction) that lead to CWB. Individual differences play two likely roles—as a direct antecedent to feelings and as a moderator of environmental effects. The literature has focused more on the direct impact on feelings and CWB, with less attention being given to moderating effects.

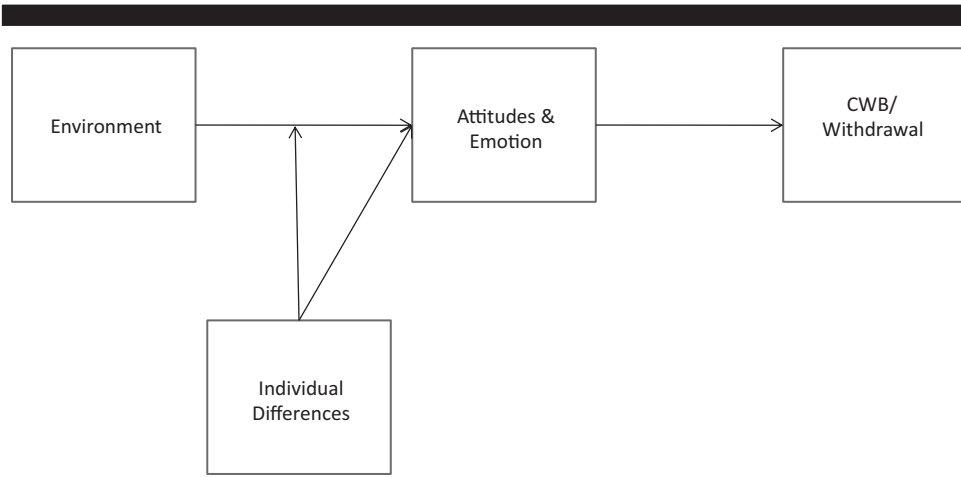


FIGURE 22.1 General Framework Depicting Various Antecedents of CWB and Withdrawal

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Individual difference characteristics can play an important role in the selection process, and their utility extends to the prediction of CWB and withdrawal. Thus, scholars have had an ongoing interest in identifying those characteristics that help screen out CWB-prone individuals, resulting in a sizeable body of research. Traditionally, this research was dominated by integrity tests and the Five-Factor Model (FFM), which showed support for integrity tests and some of the FFM factors. However, current research has focused on a deeper understanding of the interrelationship among what appear to be the more dominant of these factors in the prediction of CWB/withdrawal. Prior research also considered the role of cognitive ability and demographic or background characteristics such as gender, age, education, and organizational tenure as examples. Given the mixed findings reported in that research, attention shifted to summarizing the effect sizes via quantitative reviews. This research and some of the related meta-analytic work are summarized as follows and in Tables 22.1 and 22.2.

Integrity Tests

At the time of the first edition, we reported mean observed coefficients for CWB that ranged from 0.22 to 0.39 for personality-based and overt integrity tests, respectively (Ones, et al., 1993) (see Table 22.1). The former tests assess personality traits that explain variance in CWB, whereas the latter assess attitudes towards CWB. Mean observed correlations of 0.06 (overt integrity tests) and 0.25 (personality-based tests) were reported for a lack of absence (Ones, et al., 2003) (see Table 22.2). More recently, a meta-analysis was conducted on a smaller subset of studies and reported sample-size-weighted correlations with CWB of 0.23 and 0.30 for personality-based and overt integrity tests, respectively (Van Iddekinge, Roth, Raymark, & Odle-Dusseau, 2012a). They also reported sample-size-weighted correlations with turnover of 0.07 and 0.06 for personality-based and overt integrity tests, respectively (Van Iddekinge, et al., 2012a). This meta-analysis generated important dialogue reminding us to exert caution when comparing meta-analytic effect sizes across different studies (Harris et al., 2012; Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 2012; Sackett & Schmitt, 2012; Van Iddekinge, Roth, Raymark, & Odle-Dusseau, 2012b). Several reviews over the years support the validity of integrity tests for CWB and, to a lesser extent, withdrawal.

TABLE 22.1
Summary of Effect Sizes Reported in Meta-Analyses: CWB Correlates

Variable	CWB	CWB-I	CWB-O	Source	Comment
INTEGRITY TESTS					
Overt	.39			Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt (1993)	Mean observed correlation
Overt	.30			Van Iddekinge, Roth, Raymark, & Odle-Dusseau (2012a)	
Personality-based	.22			Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt (1993)	Mean observed correlation
Personality-based	.23			Van Iddekinge, Roth, Raymark, & Odle-Dusseau (2012a)	
PERSONALITY					
Conscientiousness	-.16			Salgado (2002)	Mean observed correlation
Conscientiousness	-.29			Dalal (2005)	
Conscientiousness		-.19	-.34	Berry, Ones, & Sackett (2007)	
Conscientiousness	-.15			Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012)	CWB rated by other
Agreeableness	-.13			Salgado (2002)	Mean observed correlation
Agreeableness		-.36	-.25	Berry, Ones, & Sackett (2007)	
Agreeableness	-.18			Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012)	CWB rated by other
Emotional Stability	-.04			Salgado (2002)	Mean observed correlation
Emotional Stability		-.20	-.19	Berry, Ones, & Sackett (2007)	
Emotional Stability	-.04			Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012)	CWB rated by other
Openness	.10			Salgado (2002)	Mean observed correlation
Openness		-.07	-.03	Berry, Ones, & Sackett (2007)	
Openness	-.10			Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012)	CWB rated by other
Extraversion	.01			Salgado (2002)	Mean observed correlation
Extraversion		.02	-.07	Berry, Ones, & Sackett (2007)	

Variable	CWB	CWB-I	CWB-O	Source	Comment
Extraversion	.03			Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012)	CWB rated by other
Machiavellianism	.20			O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel (2012)	Mean observed correlation
Narcissism	.35			O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel (2012)	Mean observed correlation
Psychopathy	.06			O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel (2012)	Mean observed correlation
Conditional reasoning test-aggression	.16			Berry, Sackett, & Tobares (2010)	
Conditional reasoning test-aggression	.44			James, McIntyre, Glisson, Green, Patton, LeBreton, . . . Williams (2005)	Mean observed correlation
COGNITIVE ABILITY					
General Mental Ability	-.02	-.03	-.11	Gonzalez-Mulé, Mount, & Oh (2014)	
DEMOGRAPHIC AND BACKGROUND					
Gender		.14	.11	Berry, Ones, & Sackett (2007)	0=female; 1= male
Gender		-.19	-.11	Herscovis, et al., (2007)	Mean observed correlation; 0= male; 1=female
Gender	-.07			Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012)	0=female; 1= male; CWB rated by other
Age		-.05	-.09	Berry, Ones, & Sackett (2007)	
Age	-.09/- .12			Ng & Feldman (2008)	CWB rated by other/self-rated
Age	-.05			Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012)	CWB rated by other
Education	-.02/ .01			Ng & Feldman (2009a)	CWB rated by other/self-rated
Organizational Tenure		-.01	-.07	Berry, Ones, & Sackett (2007)	
Organizational Tenure	-.19/- .05/- .14			Ng & Feldman (2010)	CWB rated by supervisor/ self-rated/organizational records
Organizational Tenure	-.06			Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012)	CWB rated by other

(Continued)

TABLE 22.1 (Continued)

Variable	CWB	CWB-I	CWB-O	Source	Comment
ATTITUDES					
Job satisfaction	-.29			Dalal (2005)	
Job satisfaction		-.14	-.31	Hershcovis, Turner, Barling, Arnold, Dupre, Inness, . . . Sivanathan (2007)	Mean uncorrected correlation
Job satisfaction	-.19			Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012)	CWB rated by other
Organizational commitment	-.28			Dalal (2005)	
EMOTIONS					
Negative Affect	.34			Dalal (2005)	
Negative Affect		.22	.24	Hershcovis, Turner, Barling, Arnold, Dupre, Inness, . . . Sivanathan (2007)	Mean uncorrected correlation
Negative Affect	.25			Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes (2009)	
Negative Affect	.16			Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012)	CWB rated by other
Negative Affect – State	.37			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Envy - State	.27			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Frustration – State	.25			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Sadness – State	.23			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Anger – State	.22			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Anxiety – State	.19			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Guilt/Shame – State	.17			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Trait anger		.37	.28	Hershcovis, et al. (2007)	Mean uncorrected correlation
Anger – Trait	.34			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Hostility – Trait	.33			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Envy – Trait	.27			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Anxiety – Trait	.22			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	

Variable	CWB	CWB-I	CWB-O	Source	Comment
Guilt/Shame – Trait	.19			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Sadness – Trait	.15			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Positive Affect	-.28			Datal (2005)	
Positive Affect -- State	-.21			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Attentive – State	-.14			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Joy – State	-.10			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Pride – State	-.05			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Content – State	-.05			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Affection – State	-.04			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Attentive – Trait	-.17			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Pride – Trait	-.12			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Joy – Trait	-.07			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Affection – Trait	-.05			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
Content – Trait	-.01			Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine (2012)	
STRESSORS					
Organization constraints		.26	.31	Hershcovis, Turner, Barling, Arnold, Dupre, Inness, . . . Sivanathan (2007)	Mean uncorrected correlation
Organization constraints	.27			Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012)	CWB rated by other
Interpersonal conflict		.40	.33	Hershcovis, Turner, Barling, Arnold, Dupre, Inness, . . . Sivanathan (2007)	Mean uncorrected correlation
Interpersonal conflict	.39			Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012)	CWB rated by other
JUSTICE					
Organizational	-.18			Datal (2005)	
Distributive	-.22			Cohen-Charash & Spector (2001)	

(Continued)

TABLE 22.1 (Continued)

Variable	CWB	CWB-I	CWB-O	Source	Comment
Distributive		-.12	-.12	Hershcovis, et al. (2007)	Mean uncorrected correlation
Distributive		-.12	-.10	Berry, Ones, Sackett (2007)	
Distributive	-.07			Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012)	CWB rated by other
Distributive	-.22	-.11	-.20	Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata, Conlon, & Wesson (2013)	Mean uncorrected population correlation
Procedural	-.28			Cohen-Charash & Spector (2001)	
Procedural		-.18	-.18	Hershcovis, Turner, Barling, Arnold, Dupre, Inness, . . . Sivanathan (2007)	Mean uncorrected correlation
Procedural		-.19	-.18	Berry, Ones, Sackett (2007)	
Procedural	-.20			Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012)	CWB rated by other
Procedural	-.23	-.16	-.23	Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata, Conlon, & Wesson (2013)	Mean uncorrected population correlation
Interactional		-.22	-.18	Berry, Ones, Sackett (2007)	
Interactional	-.40			Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012)	CWB rated by other
Interpersonal		-.17	-.06	Berry, Ones, Sackett (2007)	
Interpersonal	-.20	-.12	-.16	Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata, Conlon, & Wesson (2013)	Mean uncorrected population correlation
Informational	-.23	-.18	-.18	Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata, Conlon, & Wesson (2013)	Mean uncorrected population correlation

RELATIONSHIP WITH SUPERVISOR

Supervisor aggression		.29	.34	Hershcovis & Barling (2010)	Mean observed correlation
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CONSEQUENCES

Co-worker aggression		.38	.25	Hershcovis & Barling (2010)	Mean observed correlation
Outsider aggression		.24	.18	Hershcovis & Barling (2010)	Mean observed correlation

Note. All coefficients reported in the table are mean sample-size weighted correlations unless otherwise indicated in the Comment column.

TABLE 22.2
Summary of Effect Sizes Reported in Meta-Analyses: Withdrawal Correlates

Variables	Turnover ^a / Tardiness ^b	Intent to Turnover ^c / Withdrawal ^d	Absence	Source	Comment
INTEGRITY TESTS					
All tests			.14	Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt (2003)	Mean observed correlation
All tests	.07 ^a			Van Iddekinge, Roth, Raymark, & Odle-Dusseau (2012a)	
Overt			.06	Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt (2003)	Mean observed correlation
Overt	.06 ^a			Van Iddekinge, Roth, Raymark, & Odle-Dusseau (2012a)	
Personality-based			.25	Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt (2003)	Mean observed correlation
Personality-based	.07 ^a			Van Iddekinge, Roth, Raymark, & Odle-Dusseau (2012a)	
PERSONALITY					
Conscientiousness	-.23 ^a		-.04	Salgado (2002)	Mean observed correlation
Conscientiousness	-.18 ^a	-.12 ^c		Zimmerman (2008)	
Agreeableness	-.16 ^a		.03	Salgado (2002)	Mean observed correlation
Agreeableness	-.22 ^a	-.10 ^c		Zimmerman (2008)	
Emotional stability	-.25 ^a		.03	Salgado (2002)	Mean observed correlation
Emotional stability	-.16 ^a	-.19 ^c		Zimmerman (2008)	
Openness	-.11 ^a		.00	Salgado (2002)	Mean observed correlation
Openness	.09 ^a	.01 ^c		Zimmerman (2008)	
Extraversion	-.14 ^a		.05	Salgado (2002)	Mean observed correlation
Extraversion	-.03 ^a	-.07 ^c		Zimmerman (2008)	
DEMOGRAPHIC AND BACKGROUND					
Prior Performance		-.16 ^e /-.19 ^d	-.17	Swider & Zimmerman (2014)	
Performance		-.10 ^c		Zimmerman & Darnold (2009)	
Age	-.26 ^b /-.12 ^b			Ng & Feldman (2008)	Outcome rated by other/self-rated

(Continued)

TABLE 22.1 (Continued)

Variables	Turnover ^a /Tardiness ^b	Intent to Turnover ^c / Withdrawal ^d	Absence	Source	Comment
Age			-.26/-01	Ng & Feldman (2008)	Outcome-objective measure/self-rated
Education	.02 ^b /.02 ^b		-.11/-06	Ng & Feldman (2009a)	Outcome-objective measure/self-rated
Organizational Tenure	-.10 ^b		-.04	Ng & Feldman (2010)	Outcome rated by self
Organizational Tenure	-.02 ^b		-.17	Ng & Feldman (2010)	Outcome obtained from organizational records
EMOTIONS					
Negative Affect		.26 ^c		Zimmerman (2008)	
Negative Affect		.14 ^d		Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes (2009)	
Positive Affect		-.14 ^c		Zimmerman (2008)	
Positive Affect		.05 ^d		Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes (2009)	
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT					
Affective	-.17 ^a	-.56 ^d	-.15	Meyer, Stanley, Herscck, et al. (2002)	
Normative	-.16 ^a	-.33 ^d	.05(ns)	Meyer, Stanley, Herscck, et al. (2002)	
Continuance	-.10 ^a	-.18 ^d	.06	Meyer, Stanley, Herscck, et al. (2002)	
STRESSORS					
Challenge	.04 ^a (ns)	.06 ^d (ns)		Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine (2007)	
Hindrance	.18 ^a	.17 ^d		Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine (2007)	
Workload		.14 ^c	.07	Bowling, Alarcon, Bragg, & Hartman (2015)	
JUSTICE					
Distributive		-.41 ^d		Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng (2001)	Mean uncorrected population correlation
Procedural		-.36 ^d		Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng (2001)	Mean uncorrected population correlation
PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT BREACH					
Psychological contract breach	.05 ^a	.34 ^c		Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo (2007)	
Transactional breach		.16 ^c		Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo (2007)	

Variables	Turnover ^r / Tardiness ^s	Intent to Turnover ^r / Withdrawal ^t	Absence	Source	Comment
Relational breach		.30 ^c		Zhao, Wayne, Gitbowski, & Bravo (2007)	
RELATIONSHIP WITH SUPERVISOR					
Leader-Member Exchange		-.28 ^c		Banks, Batchelor, Seers, O'Boyle, Pollack & Gower (2014)	Mean observed correlation
Supervisor aggression		.26 ^c		Hershcovis & Barling (2010)	Mean observed correlation
HRM PRACTICES					
Organization Wellness Program			-.30	Parks & Steelman (2008)	Difference score (d)
Telecommuting		-.08 ^c		Gajendran & Harrison (2007)	Mean observed correlation
PERSON AND ENVIRONMENT					
Person-Organization Fit		-.29 ^c		Oh, Guay, Kim, Harold, Lee, Heo & Shin (2014)	
Person-Organization Fit	-.13 ^a	-.29 ^c	-.05	Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson (2005)	
Person-Job Fit	-.07 ^a	-.37 ^c		Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson (2005)	
Person-Job Fit		-.31 ^c		Oh, Guay, Kim, Harold, Lee, Heo & Shin (2014)	
Person-Group Fit		-.17 ^c		Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson (2005)	
Person-Group Fit		-.25 ^c		Oh, Guay, Kim, Harold, Lee, Heo & Shin (2014)	
Person-Supervisor Fit		-.35 ^c		Oh, Guay, Kim, Harold, Lee, Heo & Shin (2014)	
On-the-job embeddedness	-.15 ^a	-.44 ^c		Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell (2012)	
Off-the-job embeddedness	.10 ^a	-.21 ^c		Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell (2012)	
CONSEQUENCES					
Co-worker aggression		.20 ^c		Hershcovis & Barling (2010)	Mean observed correlation
Outsider aggression		.15 ^c		Hershcovis & Barling (2010)	Mean observed correlation
Bullying		.28 ^c	.11	Nielsen & Einarsen (2012)	

Note. All coefficients reported in the table are mean sample-size weighted correlations unless otherwise indicated in the Comment column. ^a Is for turnover; ^b Is for tardiness; ^c Is for intent to turnover, ^d Is for withdrawal

Personality: Five-Factor Model

Earlier research on the role of personality in predicting CWB and withdrawal focused for the most part on the Five-Factor Model (FFM) and the independent effect of each of the five traits (i.e., conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability, openness, and extraversion), resulting in five separate meta-analyses (Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Dalal, 2005; Salgado, 2002; Zimmerman, 2008). Most of these reviews were based on self-reports (Berry, et al., 2007) or combined self- and other-reports of CWB or withdrawal (Dalal, 2005; Salgado, 2002; Zimmerman, 2008). As noted earlier in this chapter, the meta-analysis conducted by Berry et al. (2012) focused on reports of CWB that were provided by supervisors or coworkers, noting some of the disadvantages associated with self-reports (e.g., Barclay & Aquino, 2011; Fox, Spector, Goh, & Bruursema, 2007; Stewart, Bing, Davison, Woehr, & McIntyre, 2009). Tables 22.1 and 22.2 summarize the coefficients reported in these meta-analyses. Based on these reviews, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and emotional stability are more consistently related to CWB and turnover.

Recently, studies have moved away from studying whether the FFM and CWB are related and more toward improvements in the measurement of these traits or toward a more nuanced understanding of the three dominant traits. For example, one study reported that the negative relationship between conscientiousness and CWB holds when personality is measured in adolescence and CWB in adulthood (Le, Donnellan, Spilman, Garcia, & Conger, 2014). Other research showed that personality assessed by acquaintances (i.e., conscientiousness, agreeableness, and emotional stability) had incremental validity in predicting CWB over self-ratings (Kluemper, McLarty, & Bing, 2015). Similar findings have been reported for the predictive validity of personality ratings provided by others when the criterion was job performance or academic achievement (Connelly & Ones, 2010). Thus, future studies of the personality–CWB relationship may consider employing other-ratings of the target's personality instead of self-ratings. However, who the other-rater is matters. Not only is the frequency of the interaction between the target and the other-rater important for improving personality rating accuracy but interpersonal intimacy between the two also matters (Connelly & Ones, 2010).

Scholars have studied the interaction among the FFM traits in predicting CWB since these interrelationships can provide further insight into the behavioral manifestation of personality. As an example, two individuals who are both low in emotional stability (i.e., high in neuroticism) may demonstrate different levels of CWB due to their standing on one or more of the other traits. Indeed, a study reported that conscientiousness moderated the positive relationship between CWB and neuroticism (Bowling, Burns, Stewart, & Gruys, 2011). Conscientiousness played a greater role in tempering CWB at high levels of neuroticism (low emotional stability) compared to low levels of neuroticism. In contrast, another study examined emotional stability as a moderator of the conscientiousness–CWB relationship (Penney, Hunter, & Perry, 2011). The level of emotional stability mattered more when conscientiousness was high than when it was low. Individuals were less inclined to engage in CWB when they were high in both conscientiousness and emotional stability compared to when they were high in conscientiousness and low in emotional stability. Emotional stability demonstrated a similar effect in the moderation of the agreeableness–CWB relationship (Penney, et al., 2011). Future researchers may seek to clarify the pattern of the interactions among these three personality traits, as there seems to be potential to further explicate the FFM–CWB relationship.

Research has also sought to better understand the FFM–CWB relationship by studying the explanatory power of the narrow facets underlying each of the five traits. Hastings and O'Neill (2009) reported that the facets of Excitement Seeking (Extraversion), Cooperation (Agreeableness), Dutifulness (Conscientiousness), Anger (Neuroticism), and Emotionality (Openness) had the largest relationships with CWB. In fact, when CWB was regressed on these five narrow facets, the *r*-square was 0.33 compared to 0.35 when CWB was regressed on the broad five traits, suggesting the potential importance of facet-level relationships.

Together, these individual studies lend support to the findings from the quantitative reviews showing that conscientiousness, agreeableness, and emotional stability are important traits in

the prediction of CWB. However, the findings also suggest that our understanding of the FFM-CWB relationship can be improved by using other-ratings to assess personality and by looking deeper into the relationship among the three dominant traits and their respective facets.

Individual Personality Traits

Research that studies personality traits other than the FFM or integrity has considered the role of the dark triad in predicting CWB (O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel, 2012; Wu & LeBreton, 2011). Typically, these traits include Machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy. The rationale for focusing on these traits is that they are considered maladaptive and thus should be relevant for explaining unique variance in the CWB criterion above the FFM. Although these traits have been shown to be related to some of the FFM traits, the findings are not always consistent, and there appears to be variance in these aberrant traits that is unrelated to the FFM (Wu & LeBreton, 2011). As for their role in explaining CWB, the research findings have also been mixed (e.g., Dahling, Whitaker, & Levy, 2009; Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006; Penney & Spector, 2002). However, a recent meta-analysis by O'Boyle et al. (2012) reported positive and significant relationships with CWB for narcissism and Machiavellianism, whereas the relationship for psychopathy was not significant (see Table 22.1). Future research may want to tease out the unique value of these aberrant personality traits in explaining CWB above the FFM, which may necessitate analyses at the facet level of all traits in the FFM and dark triad included.

Research has also considered honesty–humility, risk taking, and implicit measures of personality in relation to CWB. For example, O'Neill and Hastings (2011) found that risk taking and integrity explained incremental variance in CWB over conscientiousness, agreeableness, and extraversion; Oh, Lee, Ashton, and de Vries (2011) reported that honesty–humility and extraversion interacted to explain deviance (i.e., high extraversion was related to more deviance than low extraversion for individuals who were low in honesty–humility). Lastly, conditional reasoning tests of aggression (an implicit test that assesses personality indirectly) have been studied as alternatives for predicting CWB among job applicants. Two meta-analyses reported positive and significant relationships between scores on conditional reasoning tests and CWB (see Table 22.1; Berry, Sackett, & Tobares, 2010; James et al., 2005).

Cognitive Ability and Education

Cognitive ability is said to be the best predictor of job performance, not to mention important for success in many work and life outcomes (e.g., Gottfredson, 1997). Although the evidence is vast for many criterion outcomes of interest, less research exists for the predictive role of cognitive ability in explaining CWB, and the research that does exist is mixed (e.g., Dilchert, Ones, Davis, & Rostow, 2007; Marcus & Schuler, 2004). It has been argued that individuals who are high in cognitive ability have a better capacity to reason and anticipate the consequences of their actions, which should thus inhibit the negative work behaviors like CWB (Gonzalez-Mulé, Mount, & Oh, 2014). However, a recent meta-analysis reported a nonsignificant negative relationship between cognitive ability and overall CWB and CWB-I and a significant negative relationship for CWB-O (see Table 22.1; Gonzalez-Mulé et al., 2014).

Educational attainment has been associated with more favorable work outcomes (e.g., Elman & O'Rand, 2004; Torche, 2011). Education level can also serve as a proxy for knowledge, skills, cognitive ability, and some personality traits such as achievement orientation (e.g., Berry, Gruys, & Sackett, 2006; Poropat, 2009). These factors explain in part why higher education attainment is expected to yield better job performance and why it is used in selection systems to screen potential employees. It is less clear whether the beneficial outcomes of educational attainment extend to domains of job performance beyond task performance. Some scholars have reasoned that the education system imparts upon students the values of discipline, respect, honesty, and concern for others, among other values, which would suggest less engagement in

CWB and fewer withdrawal behaviors such as absence, lateness, and involuntary turnover (Ng & Feldman, 2009a). However, a meta-analysis reported that education level was unrelated to CWB and tardiness but negatively related to absence (see Tables 22.1 and 22.2; Ng & Feldman, 2009a). Thus, as with cognitive ability, educational attainment does not seem to play a strong or consistent role in explaining CWB.

Demographic and Background Variables

Gender

Research has reported that young males have a greater propensity toward serious forms of crime (e.g., Steffensmeier & Allan, 1996). However, the gender gap appears to be narrowing, and the degree of the difference depends on which types of data are examined (e.g., arrest records, self-report, victimization data; Kruttschnitt, 2013). Meta-analyses of gender differences in aggression would seem to support an aggressive male stereotype (Card, Stucky, Sawalani, & Little, 2008), although much of the gender literature is with children, and the differences between genders is often quite small. Results of meta-analyses with CWB are somewhat mixed, with men having somewhat higher levels, especially for CWB-I, but comparisons are not always statistically significant (see Table 22.1; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Hershcovis, et al., 2007; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). Berry, Carpenter, and Barratt (2012) compared self-reports of CWB with other-reports, finding larger gender differences with self-reports.

Although it is possible that males engage in more CWB than do females, an alternative explanation for observed gender relationships is reporting bias differences between men and women. As discussed by Spector and Zhou (2014), aggressive behavior is more socially acceptable for men, as it is more consistent with male than female gender norms. Given that aggressive behavior is acceptable, and in some circles desirable for men, while frowned upon for women, it is likely that males have less reluctance than females to report their CWB. For this reason it seems plausible that women under report their CWB so their behavior appears more socially acceptable. The fact that self-reported CWB yields larger gender differences than other-reported CWB supports this possibility.

In addition to mean differences in CWB, two studies have shown that gender acts as a moderator of relationships of CWB with other variables. Both studies showed gender-moderating effects, whereby men are more reactive than women to external (stressors) and internal (personality and attitude) conditions associated with CWB (Bowling & Burns, 2015; Spector & Zhou, 2014). Both papers found that gender moderated the relationship of stressors to CWB, with gender differences only at high levels of stressors. Thus, men are no more likely to engage in, or at least report engaging in, CWB under relaxed conditions. They only reported higher levels of CWB when stressors were reported as high. Bowling and Burns found a similar pattern with job attitudes, for example, only finding gender differences in CWB among dissatisfied employees. Spector and Zhou found a similar pattern with personality traits that relate to CWB, for example, agreeableness and trait anger. Agreeable men and women and those low in trait anger showed little difference in their CWB reports. However, men who were disagreeable or high in trait anger reported higher levels of CWB than did their female counterparts.

Age

An aging workforce and the corresponding stereotypes associated with older workers has prompted research on the individual difference characteristics, attitudes, and work outcomes associated with older employees (e.g., Hedge, Borman, Lammlein, 2006). Some outcomes that have long been studied are the productivity and job performance of older workers or age differences in various forms of withdrawal behavior such as absenteeism or turnover, with research findings being mixed as to whether or not age differences exist (e.g., Ng & Feldman,

2009c). Other than studies comparing rates of crime or other forms of societal deviance among different age groups (e.g., Sampson & Laub, 1992; Steffensmeier, Allan, Harer, & Streifel, 1989), there has been little research in which the primary focus was on age differences in CWB. However, age is a demographic sample characteristic, so many studies report an age-CWB (or age-withdrawal) correlation coefficient, which can then be analyzed in quantitative reviews or meta-analyses. These meta-analyses reported a small but significant negative relationship between age and overall CWB, and a significant negative relationship with tardiness and absence suggesting that older employees may engage in less CWB and withdrawal (see Tables 22.1 and 22.2; Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Ng & Feldman, 2008). The review by Ng and Feldman re-analyzed the age-CWB relationship within three separate age categories (i.e., less than 25 years old, 25–39 years old, and 40 years and older). They reported larger negative coefficients in the latter two age categories (−0.12 and −0.17, respectively) compared to the first category, which included younger workers, in which the relationship was close to zero.

Organizational Tenure

Researchers have considered whether organizational tenure is related to CWB and withdrawal. The rationale is that the longer the tenure of an employee, the more likely he or she is to become embedded in the job and the organization, and that both parties (i.e., organization and employee) have deemed the relationship to be a good fit and worth maintaining, resulting in higher job performance and lower negative behavior (Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Poor performers or those with whom there is a mismatch of organizational values or a poor fit have been managed out or have voluntarily exited (Jiang, et al., 2012; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Indeed, meta-analyses have shown that employee job performance has a negative and significant relationship with turnover intention, absenteeism, and withdrawal (see Table 22.2; Swider & Zimmerman, 2014; Zimmerman & Darnold, 2009). However, organizational tenure typically correlates positively with age, which raises a concern that any relationship that may arise is confounded by age. Indeed, meta-analyses reported that organizational tenure was significantly and negatively correlated with CWB when the latter was assessed by the supervisor or obtained from organizational records (see Table 22.1; Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Subsequent moderator analyses showed that after controlling for age, the size of the negative organizational tenure–CWB coefficient decreased to nonsignificance when CWB was obtained from organizational records but remained negative and significant for self-ratings of CWB (Ng & Feldman, 2010). Although organizational tenure was also significantly and negatively related to objective measures of absence (see Table 22.2; Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Ng & Feldman, 2010), the negative relationship became positive and was significant in the analyses that controlled for age (Ng & Feldman, 2010). Thus, although there is some support for a negative relationship with CWB and a positive relationship with absence, the relationships are small.

Other Characteristics

There has been some research on the role of national culture as it relates to withdrawal and CWB. Addae, Johns, and Boies (2013) reported differences among countries as to how acceptable absence is perceived to be and on the extent to which employees should be held accountable for their absenteeism. Rotundo and Xie (2008) reported some differences between Canadian and Chinese managers on the extent to which they valued task performance and CWB but less difference in which behaviors constituted CWB. These findings suggest that attention should be placed on aligning expectations and norms surrounding appropriate behaviors, especially in diverse workplaces.

ATTITUDES AND EMOTIONS

Typically, the job attitudes that are most studied in organizational behavior are job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Research, including four meta-analyses, has reported that job satisfaction and organizational commitment have a negative and significant relationship with CWB and that organizational commitment has a negative relationship and significant relationship with some forms of withdrawal (see Tables 22.1 and 22.2; Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012; Dalal, 2005; Hershcovis, et al., 2007; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnysky, 2002). Thus, organizational attitudes continue to be important for explaining CWB and withdrawal. Research has also sought to understand the relative contribution of individual differences compared to organizational attitudes (O'Brien & Allen, 2008).

Emotions have been widely studied since it is believed that they mediate the relationship between several antecedent variables and acts of CWB and withdrawal (e.g., Spector & Fox, 2005). The findings from six separate meta-analyses are summarized in Tables 22.1 and 22.2, which show significant positive relationships between various negative emotions and CWB or withdrawal and significant negative relationships between positive emotions and CWB or withdrawal (Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012; Dalal, 2005; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009; Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine, 2012; Zimmerman, 2008). Research has typically focused on trait or dispositional affect. However, Shockley et al. (2012) sought to differentiate between dispositional affect and state affect in a meta-analysis that also considered discrete emotions (see Table 22.1). They reported stronger relationships between negative affect or negative discrete emotions and CWB compared to positive affect or positive discrete emotions and CWB. Of the negative discrete emotions, anger (trait), hostility (trait), envy (trait and state), and frustration have the largest relationships, whereas attentiveness (trait and state) had the largest relationship among the positive emotions.

Other research has considered emotion regulation strategies (Kleumper, DeGroot, & Choi, 2013; Scott & Barnes, 2011) or the interplay between personality and emotion (Côté, DeCelles, McCarthy, Van Kleef, & Hideg, 2011). For example, research has shown that the ability to manage emotions has a negative relationship with CWB even after controlling for general mental ability and personality (Kleumper et al., 2013). Other researchers reported a positive relationship between surface acting and withdrawal and a negative relationship between deep acting and withdrawal (Scott & Barnes, 2011).

ENVIRONMENT

Selection doesn't occur in a vacuum, so it is important to understand the context in which CWB occurs. Environmental conditions that might serve as antecedents to CWB are those where selection is likely to have the largest impact. Jobs or work conditions that are particularly stressful, for example, might benefit most by selecting individuals who are least likely to respond to precipitating conditions with CWB. We review those environmental conditions that have been most linked to CWB.

Stressors

The negative health and work outcomes associated with stress have been established (e.g., Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010; Ganster & Rosen, 2013; Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008). Tables 22.1 and 22.2 summarize the results of meta-analyses that reported on the stressor-CWB/withdrawal relationship. The literature often distinguishes between challenge and hindrance stressors, as the outcomes associated with these stressors are not always the same. Challenge stressors include those work demands that test individuals' capabilities and that provide them with the opportunity to advance their skills and knowledge (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000; Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). Examples of these demands

are high workload, time pressure, a broad job scope, or more responsibility at work. Meta-analyses have shown them to be positively linked to employee engagement, burnout, and turnover intention (Crawford, et al., 2010), yet unrelated to turnover and withdrawal behavior (see Table 22.2 Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). However, a meta-analysis solely on workload, which is one of the most studied job demands, reported that it is associated with poorer psychological and physical well-being, lower job attitudes, and higher turnover intentions and absence (see Table 22.2; Bowling, Alarcon, Bragg, & Hartman, 2015). Thus, challenge stressors such as workload might increase motivation, but it can be at the cost of increased physical and psychological strain, (e.g., burnout), which can lead to withdrawal. In fact, meta-analyses on the consequences of burnout, work strain, and psychological and physical illness support their association with increased turnover and absence (Darr & Johns, 2008; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010).

In contrast, hindrance stressors include work demands that present a threat or an obstacle and that impede the achievement of goals (e.g., Podsakoff, et al., 2007). Examples are role conflict (including work-family conflict), role ambiguity, organizational politics, organizational constraints, or job insecurity. These stressors have been linked to negative outcomes such as decreased job performance (Gilboa, et al., 2008), decreased engagement (Crawford, et al., 2010), increased burnout (Crawford, et al., 2010), increased CWB (Ferguson, Carlson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2012; Semmer, Tschan, Meier, Facchin, & Jacobshagen, 2010), increased absence (ten Brummelhuis, ter Hoeven, de Jong, & Peper, 2013), and increased turnover and withdrawal behavior (see Table 22.2; Fugate, Prussia, & Kinicki, 2012; Podsakoff, et al., 2007). Meta-analyses on specific hindrance stressors as they relate to CWB showed that organizational constraints and interpersonal conflict are positively and significantly related to CWB (see Table 22.1; Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012; Hershcovis et al., 2007). The constraints-CWB relationship appears to hold when CWB is assessed at a later point in time (Meier & Spector, 2013) and when studied in other countries (e.g., Bayram, Gursakal, & Bilgel, 2009). Thus, there is consistent support for the negative outcomes associated with these types of stressors.

Job resources, on the other hand, are functional job characteristics that can facilitate the achievement of work goals and job demands. Examples include job control, autonomy, participative decision making, task variety, task feedback, work-role fit, and organizational support. Job resources have been linked to increased engagement, decreased burnout (Crawford, et al., 2010), less indiscipline (Tucker et al., 2009), and less absence (Giardini & Kabst, 2008; Hystad, Eid, & Brevik, 2011; Soane et al., 2013). Thus, these research findings would suggest that job resources can play an important role in reducing these negative work outcomes.

Some preliminary evidence suggests that the extent to which stressors result in CWB or withdrawal depends on individual differences. For example, the negative effect of stressors as it pertains to CWB have been found to be more pronounced for individuals who are low in conscientiousness, agreeableness, or emotional stability (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Zhou, Meier, & Spector, 2014). Less resilient individuals were more absent when they experienced high job demands combined with high job control compared to more resilient individuals (Hystad, et al., 2011). Research shows that stress relates to CWB through negative affect (Yang & Diefendorff, 2009). These findings lend further support to the important role that individual differences can play under potentially negative environmental conditions in managing workplace behaviors.

Relationship with Supervisor

An important factor in the environment at work is the relationship an individual has with his or her supervisor or leader. This relationship can be a positive and constructive one characterized by high-quality leader-member exchange or a social stressor as with abusive supervision. Research continues to show the positive outcomes associated with good-quality leader-member exchange including lower turnover intentions (see Table 22.2; Banks et al., 2014). It also supports the negative consequences of abusive supervision (Avey, Wu, & Holley, 2015; Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012; Liu, Kwan, Wu, & Wu, 2010; Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2009) or supervisor aggression. The consequences can include higher CWB toward the supervisor (Tepper

Maria Rotundo and Paul E. Spector

et al., 2009), other individuals, or the organization (see Tables 22.1 and 22.2; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Mawritz, Dust, & Resick, 2014), higher turnover intentions, more coworker sick leave, and more customer service sabotage (Kao, Cheng, Kuo, & Huang, 2014). Abusive supervision has been linked to greater frustration (Avey et al., 2015), increased hostility (Mayer, Thau, Workman, Van Dijke, & De Cremer, 2012), and lower self-esteem (Farh & Chen, 2014), which in turn are related to higher CWB. However, individuals who are embedded in their jobs do not react with such high frustration and reported engaging in less CWB (Avey et al., 2015). The degree to which abusive supervision increased CWB also differed depending on employee characteristics and the environment. That is, supervisor abuse was more strongly related to reports of CWB for employees who score low on moral identity (Greenbaum, Mawritz, Mayer, & Priesemuth, 2013), score low on self-control (Lian, Ferris, Morrison, & Brown, 2014), report high perceptions of distributive injustice (Thau & Mitchell, 2010), or a high intent to quit (Lian et al., 2014). Thus, the negative work outcomes associated with stress extend to social stressors like abusive supervision, even though the extent of this influence can depend further on individual differences and other characteristics of the work environment.

Organizational Justice

Perceptions of organizational justice are related to less CWB and withdrawal. This relationship holds for all forms of justice, whether distributive, procedural, interpersonal, interactional, or informational justice. The results of seven meta-analyses in which organizational justice–CWB/withdrawal coefficients were analyzed are summarized in Tables 22.1 and 22.2 (Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013; Dalal, 2005; Hershcovis et al., 2007). Recent research has focused on identifying the mechanisms that explain the justice-CWB/withdrawal link, and findings suggest that this link can operate through negative affect (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2013), the desire for revenge (Hoffmann, 2008; Jones, 2009), perceived organizational support (El Akremi, Vandenberghe, & Camerman, 2010), leader-member exchange (El Akremi et al., 2010), or self-esteem (Ferris, Spence, Brown, & Heller, 2012). Research has also shown that the strength of the justice-CWB/withdrawal link can depend on employee values of justice (Holtz & Harold, 2013), occupational rank (Cronin & Smith, 2011), or social identity (Enns & Rotundo, 2012).

Perceptions of injustice can arise from a breach in the psychological contract with an employer. Several studies have reported a positive relationship between psychological contract breach and various forms of CWB and withdrawal (Chao, Cheun, & Wu, 2011; Chiu & Peng, 2008; Jensen, Opland, & Ryan, 2010; Zagenczyk, Restubog, Kiewitz, Kiazad, & Tang, 2014; Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007). This relationship has been found to be stronger for relational breach compared to transactional breach (i.e., for withdrawal; see Table 22.2; Zhao, et al., 2007), for individuals who score higher on hostile attribution style (i.e., individuals who attribute negative outcomes to something external, stable, and controllable; Chiu & Peng, 2008), and when employees attribute the breach to something that the organization initiated (e.g., renegeing; Chao et al., 2011). Others have reported that employees' desire to seek revenge after a breach mediated the positive breach–CWB relationship (Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008). Overall, these findings lend further support to the importance of managing perceptions of justice at work and to the interaction of the person and the environment.

Human Resource Management Practices

Organizations implement employment practices in part based on the expectation that they improve work outcomes for various stakeholders. Examples of some of these practices or work arrangements are high-performing human resource practices, diversity management programs,

telecommuting arrangements, organizational wellness programs, electronic performance monitoring, or initiatives to control absence. Research has shown that some of these practices are related to lower levels of withdrawal (see Table 22.2; Armstrong et al., 2010; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Parks & Steelman, 2008; Peretz & Fried, 2012). In the few instances when CWB is considered as an outcome, there appears to be no relationship (see Table 22.1; Bhave, 2014). Furthermore, research has shown that the programs that organizations implement to manage absenteeism can be related to the types of absence that emerge (e.g., absence due to illness or medical reasons, low motivation; Hopkins, 2014; Johnson, Holley, Morgeson, LaBonar, & Stetzer, 2014) and may even relate to employee pressure to work when ill, recently coined *presenteeism* (e.g., Baker-McCleary, Greasley, Dale, & Griffith, 2010; Johns, 2010). Thus, although there is some support for the role that employment practices can play in managing absenteeism, it is important to consider the reasons for absence when devising a strategy to combat it.

Climate

The climate of an organization or workgroup has to do with the context in which employee behavior is enacted. Organizational climate is defined as shared perceptions regarding what is rewarded and supported in the organization (Zohar & Luria, 2004) and therefore provides cues as to what is appropriate and inappropriate behavior. It concerns employee perceptions of management practices regarding a set of behaviors or what is emphasized by supervisors (Schneider & Bowen, 1985). Although it is important to distinguish individual perceptions of climate (psychological climate) from shared perceptions (organizational climate), relationships of both forms of climate with other variables are often quite similar (e.g., Beus, Payne, Bergman, & Arthur, 2010; Law, Dollard, Tuckey, & Dormann, 2011).

Several climate variables have been studied in relation to CWB. Most of the research has focused on CWB-I from the perspective of targets rather than actors, looking at various forms of mistreatment, both physical and psychological. Such studies do not always separate mistreatment from organizational insiders, which would be CWB-I, from similar mistreatment from outsiders, such as clients or patients, which would not be defined as CWB since it is not performed by employees. Nevertheless, this literature has been consistent in suggesting that climate plays a role in CWB and that certain climates might encourage, whereas others discourage, such behaviors.

Climates have been studied that relate specifically to mistreatment and violence in the workplace by insiders and outsiders. Violence prevention climate concerns practices by management that focus on minimizing both the physical violence and psychological abuse experienced by employees (Kessler, Spector, Chang, & Parr, 2008). Incivility climate concerns the control of uncivil behaviors in the workplace (Ottinot, 2011). Bullying climate, as the name implies, is concerned with the control of bullying behavior at work (Hutchinson, Jackson, Wilkes, & Vickers, 2008). These various forms of what they termed *mistreatment climate* were shown in a meta-analysis to relate to workplace incivility, psychological abuse, and physical violence (Yang, Caughlin, Gazica, Truxillo, & Spector, 2014).

An even broader climate is psychosocial safety climate, which is concerned not just with mistreatment but also with the protection of workers from all sorts of conditions that would adversely affect their psychological health and safety (Dollard & Bakker, 2010). Included would be CWB-I ranging from mild incivility to serious bullying. In a multilevel study of both psychological and organizational psychosocial safety climate, Law et al. (2011) found that climate at each level related to employees being bullied and harassed at work. Taken together, these lines of research on climate suggest a clear link between context and CWB-I.

A climate that has been shown to be more directly related to CWB performed specifically by organizational insiders is ethical climate. This form of climate is concerned with what is considered ethically acceptable behavior in an organization, in other words, what actions are considered right or wrong from a moral perspective (Victor & Cullen, 1988), for example, is it okay to lie to or cheat a customer? In another multilevel study with ethical climate measured

at the organizational level, Chen, Chen, and Liu (2013) investigated the interaction of climate with personality. They found that the relationship of negative affectivity to overall CWB was moderated by ethical climate, such that a climate encouraging ethical behavior inhibited CWB in individuals who were high in negative affectivity.

Research has also emphasized the role of climate, especially as it relates to withdrawal behavior. More specifically, a lenient organizational lateness climate has been shown to relate to higher lateness frequency compared to a stricter climate (Elicker, Foust, O'Malley, & Levy, 2008). Research also reported a positive relationship between manager absence and employee absence (Duff, Podolsky, Biron, & Chan, 2015; Nielsen, 2008) and that absence increased more in the presence of permissive absence norms (Biron & Bamberger, 2012).

PERSON AND ENVIRONMENT

Scholars continue to study the outcomes of the fit between an individual based on various personal characteristics and the environment where they work (e.g., Biron & DeReuver, 2013; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Liao, Chuang, & Joshi, 2008; Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013; Oh et al., 2014). This research is based on the premise that individuals whose knowledge, skills, abilities, interests, and values match those required of the job, organization, supervisor, or group are more likely to succeed on the job and to stay. Two meta-analyses have shown that these various forms of fit are related to lower turnover intentions and lower withdrawal (see Table 22.2; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Oh et al., 2014).

In 2001, scholars introduced a new construct they labelled *job embeddedness*, which reaches beyond an individual's fit with the job and work environment to also include ties among colleagues, family, and friends at work and in the community and the costs or sacrifices associated with leaving (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001). These scholars and others since have proposed that individuals who are more embedded in their jobs, organizations, and the community are less likely to seek employment elsewhere and are more likely to perform effectively on the job (Kiazad, Holtom, Hom, & Newman, 2015; Mitchell et al., 2001). A meta-analysis found support for some of these relationships. On-the-job embeddedness was negatively and significantly related to turnover intentions and to actual turnover, whereas off-the-job embeddedness was negatively related to turnover intentions (see Table 22.2). These relationships held even after controlling for job attitudes and job alternatives (Jiang et al., 2012). Furthermore, research has shown that employees who are employed in jobs that match their interests and for which the job environment is compatible or are more embedded engage in less CWB (Iliescu, Ispas, Sulea, & Ilie, 2015; Ng & Feldman, 2009b). Thus, achieving greater fit for employees at work and beyond the workplace through relationships in the community can be useful for managing negative discretionary behaviors and withdrawal.

CONSEQUENCES

Our chapter in the first edition of this book reported that limited research had considered the costs of CWB or withdrawal, possibly because it is assumed that the costs are high. More recently, research has shed light on some of the consequences experienced by the various stakeholders. For example, Simpson (2013) summarized some of the costs of white-collar crime to be punishment of leaders, a decrease in firm value, and status loss of the firm. As for the consequences of withdrawal, a meta-analysis reported that turnover is more negatively related to customer service and quality/safety and less related to firm performance (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2013). At the employee level, researchers have reported that employee CWB was related to less mentoring received (Lapierre, Bonaccio, & Allen, 2009), and coworker aggression was related to higher turnover intentions, absence, and higher CWB (see Tables 22.1 and 22.2; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012).

At the same time, recent research has noted some of the positive consequences of CWB. For example, Reynolds, Shoss, and Jundt (2015) present a model that delineates favorable and unfavorable outcomes of organizational citizenship behavior and CWB for individuals, peers, and the organization. They noted as favorable outcomes instigating change by drawing attention to problematic situations, increasing efficiency/effectiveness, restoring relationship balance among employees, and improving employee performance. Other research found that CWB and withdrawal moderated the relationship between organizational justice and emotional exhaustion (Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010). That is, when employees reported lower perceptions of distributive or procedural justice, they also reported higher levels of emotional exhaustion. However, the strength of this relationship decreased for those employees who also reported withdrawal behavior or production deviance (Krischer et al., 2010). Research also showed that employees reported higher self-evaluation when they worked with a coworker who was perceived to be a rule breaker (Markova & Folger, 2012), and although employees reported experiencing guilt when they were informed that they had engaged in CWB, they compensated by performing organizational citizenship behavior (Ilies, Peng, Savani, & Dimotakis, 2013). Although no one is endorsing engaging in CWB in response to a negative work environment, this type of research is useful for sorting out how employees react to it and deal with it.

Research has also considered the consequences of CWB and withdrawal by studying how others react to this behavior. For example, Patton (2011) reported that judgments of responsibility for the act matter. That is, when an employee is judged to be responsible for his or her absence, others will experience more anger and intent to punish and less sympathy and intent to help. Furthermore, research found that the status of the perpetrator and the perceiver, and the perceived reasons for the CWB or withdrawal, influenced people's reactions to it. Bowles and Gelfand (2010) found that punishment for negative behavior was more likely by high-status evaluators than by low-status evaluators when the target was low status. Race and sex were the variables used to represent status. In a scenario study, Luksyte, Waite, Avery, and Roy (2013) reported that lateness resulted in fewer advancement opportunities for Black employees compared to White employees. Together these findings suggest that potential biases may be at play when CWB or withdrawal are evaluated.

EMERGING ISSUES WITH SOCIAL NETWORKING WEBSITES

The focus of this chapter has been on types of CWB and withdrawal that typically occur in the workplace. Given the strong presence of social media and that its use extends beyond the workplace, future research may seek to understand how to motivate the effective and appropriate use of social networking websites by employers, employees, or other stakeholders. Several social networking websites arose for the purpose of helping individuals share information and connect with their friends. However, they have made their way into the working lives of individuals, raising concerns that certain behaviors and activities on social networking websites can be inappropriate (e.g., Black, Stone, & Johnson, 2015; Chauhan, Buckley, & Harvey, 2013; Davis, 2012; Dreher, 2014; Jain et al., 2014; Lucero, Allen, & Elzweig, 2013; Miller, 2013; Pate, 2012; Roberts & Sambrook, 2014; Roth, Bobko, Van Iddekinge, & Thatcher, 2016). It would appear that some of these behaviors even satisfy the broad parameters associated with counterproductive work behavior that were summarized earlier in this chapter (e.g., counter to the interests of the organization or intend to harm the organization or its members). Behavior may come into question even though it is engaged in outside of work hours or away from the workplace. For example, public online posts in which coworkers are attacked or abused, the organization is disparaged, or confidential organizational information is made public may be considered counterproductive and may result in disciplinary action or termination (e.g., Chauhan et al., 2013; Lucero et al., 2013; Mainiero & Jones, 2013; Miller, 2013; Roberts & Sambrook, 2014). Even behaviors that do not involve directly the organization or other members and that are engaged in outside of work hours (e.g., posting provocative photos online) have attracted the attention of recruiters (e.g., Chauhan et al., 2013; Davis, 2012; Lucero et al., 2013; Pate, 2012).

Employers and employees are urged to exert caution when engaging in online activities or when reacting to them (e.g., Brice, Fifer, & Naron, 2012; Davis, 2012; Lucero et al., 2013; Miller, 2013). The circumstances surrounding each case often appear to be relevant when disciplinary consequences are considered and evaluated (e.g., Brice et al., 2012; Davis, 2012; Lucero et al., 2013; Mainiero & Jones, 2013). Consequently, some guidelines have been developed for use when evaluating cases that arise (e.g., Brice et al., 2012; Davis, 2012). Organizations are urged to provide employees with training on social media use and to create social media policies that specify behavior that is deemed to be inappropriate (e.g., Black et al., 2015; Davis, 2012; Dreher, 2014; Lucero et al., 2013; Mainiero & Jones, 2013; Miller, 2013; Pate, 2012).

Some employers have resorted to scanning online profiles of applicants during the selection process or to requesting passwords to social networking websites. However, these practices have been met with some caution (e.g., Black et al., 2015; Chauhan et al., 2013; Pate, 2012; Roberts & Sambrook, 2014; Roth et al., 2013). Part of employers' motivation to scan online profiles is to protect against negligent hiring (e.g., Black et al., 2015; Chauhan et al., 2013; Levashina & Campion, 2009; Lucero et al., 2013; Pate, 2012). This concern is heightened for high-risk jobs deemed sensitive in which individuals are in contact with customers, the public, the elderly, or children, such as jobs in education, medical professions, or security, among other jobs (e.g., Connerley, Arvey, & Bernardy, 2001; Levashina & Campion, 2009). Although there is research and legal precedent on the need for employers to conduct background checks for these high-risk occupations that is even mandated for some (e.g., Connerley et al., 2001; Levashina & Campion, 2009; Pate, 2012), the evidence is less clear as to whether it is necessary for employers to scan profiles on social networking websites (e.g., Levashina & Campion, 2009; Pate, 2012). Furthermore, concerns have been raised that scanning social media profiles and relying on them for selection may have the unintended consequence of adverse impact or invisible discrimination (e.g., Black et al., 2015; Chauhan et al., 2013; Pate, 2012; Roth et al., 2013). That is, profiles contain information about applicants' demographic characteristics and non-job-related information (e.g., age, religion, sexual orientation, disability status, marital status, political affiliation) that is otherwise not typically available at the time of hire. Scanning profiles also assumes that individuals use social media, which may vary disproportionately by ethnicity, age, or other characteristics (e.g., Pate, 2012; Roth et al., 2013).

Research on the antecedents of social media use is limited, and some has focused on the role of personality (e.g., Karl, Peluchette, & Schlaegel, 2010; Kluemper, Rosen, & Mossholder, 2012; Newness, Steinert, & Viswesvaran, 2012). For example, in a survey of college students, Newness et al. (2012) found that individuals who scored higher on conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness, emotional stability, honesty–integrity, or emotional intelligence posted less inappropriate content on Facebook. Chou, Hammond, and Johnson (2013) found that the frequency with which individuals updated their Facebook profiles was positively related to a form of withdrawal, whereas the time spent with friends offline was negatively related to the same form of withdrawal. McFarland and Ployhart (2015) draw attention to the unique context that social media represents and propose a contextual framework to motivate future research and practice. Given the rise in social media use and its spillover into work, it may be prudent for researchers, practitioners, and the courts to study this behavior further and to continue to revise and update guidelines surrounding its use (e.g., Black et al., 2015; Dreher, 2014; Mainiero & Jones, 2013; Newness et al., 2012; Roth et al., 2013).

IMPLICATIONS FOR EMPLOYEE SELECTION

Employee selection tests are validated against criterion constructs of interest, many of which are components of employee job performance. Thus, the quality and relevance of performance criteria have important implications for the validity of selection tests. Counterproductive work behavior and withdrawal are domains of employee job performance that have gained widespread attention over the years, and there is great interest in selecting employees who are less likely to engage in these behaviors. Consequently, scholars have developed reliable measures that have seen widespread use, primarily in research studies. Withdrawal measures used as criteria

for selection usually rely on records rather than individual reports. CWB measures are generally checklists of behaviors completed by the employee or others. Although these measures have shown evidence for validity, it is not clear to what extent they could be subject to reporting bias, both by the self and others.

The first edition of this chapter reviewed some research on employee theft and the efforts that organizations expend to reduce employee theft both pre- or post-hire (Langton & Hollinger, 2005). This research suggested that strategies aimed at selecting out high-risk employees were more effective than most post-hire efforts at reducing shrinkage rates. This strategy remains a useful one today. Research findings support the role that integrity tests, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and emotional stability can play in predicting employee CWB, which would support their use in employee selection, especially since they also predict other dimensions of job performance. Preliminary research also suggests that these personality traits can interact with environmental triggers, such as stressors or injustice, to reduce the negative outcomes associated with these triggers, providing further support for their use in selection. Having said this, we could benefit from additional research on the interplay among these individual difference factors, including facet-level comparisons, to see if there is any efficiency to be gained in selection by focusing on specific facets over broad traits. This suggestion includes the aberrant personality traits of Machiavellianism or narcissism to see if they have any potential incremental role in explaining CWB and withdrawal above integrity tests and the FFM traits mentioned above.

Going beyond selection, research also shows that once an employee is hired, characteristics of the work environment can motivate CWB or withdrawal behaviors. As noted, such factors can interact with characteristics of people, having a bigger impact on some individuals than on others. As reported earlier, gender has been shown to moderate the relationship between job stressors and CWB (Bowling & Burns, 2015; Spector & Zhou, 2014). Obviously, no one would use gender as a selection factor, but such research underscores the notion that individuals vary in their response to the work environment, so that one should not assume that if some employees seem unaffected by a workplace practice, that practice will have no impact on CWB or withdrawal across the board.

The environmental triggers that can motivate CWB or withdrawal should not be ignored. Hindrance and social stressors, a negative or unethical work climate, perceptions of organizational injustice including a breach in the psychological contract are consistently related to higher levels of CWB and certain forms of employee withdrawal. In contrast, job resources, job embeddedness and fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and strong relationships with leaders show the opposite pattern. Less support has been found for the role of demographic characteristics, with the exception of some support between age and withdrawal. Such workplace conditions should be carefully considered, as one should not assume that selection alone will be sufficient for dealing with issues of CWB and withdrawal. An integrated approach that considers selection in the context of a work environment that supports employee effectiveness and well-being will likely have a positive impact on reducing counterproductive and increasing productive work behavior.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Preparation of this chapter was supported in part by a grant to the first author from the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada.

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