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Leadership Style and the Link with Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB): An Investigation Using the Job-Stress/CWB Model

Kari Bruursema
University of South Florida

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Leadership Style and the Link with Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB):
An Investigation Using the Job-Stress/CWB Model

by

Kari Bruursema

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts
Department of Psychology
College of Arts and Sciences
University of South Florida

Major Professor: Paul Spector, Ph.D.
Jonathan Rottenberg, Ph.D.
Joseph Vandello, Ph.D.

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justice, conflict, constraints

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Dedication

For beneficent people everywhere who agree to fill out surveys for research purposes.

Bless them.

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“I think you should do the study.”

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Leadership Style and the Link with Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB):
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ABSTRACT

Relations among job stressors, leadership style, emotional reactions to work, counterproductive work behavior (CWB), and autonomy were investigated. Participants representing a wide variety of jobs were surveyed. Results indicate that transactional leadership style is related to negative emotions and occurrence of CWB. Relationships between variables were mediated by emotions.

Chapter One

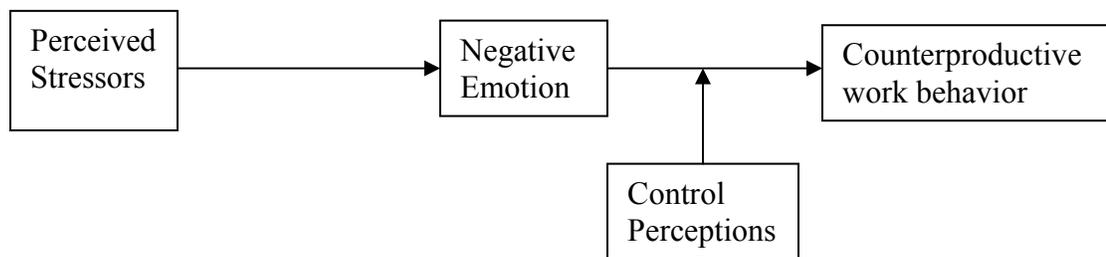
Introduction

Violence, theft, sabotage and other forms of counterproductive work behavior (CWB) are enormously costly to organizations from financial, image, and human capital perspectives. The U.S. Chamber of Commerce reports that \$50 billion are lost annually by U.S. organizations due to employee theft and fraud (U.S. Chamber of Commerce, 2002). The Chamber of Commerce (2002) also states that 20% of businesses fail due to internal theft and fraud. Nationally, as many as six people are murdered every month at the hands of a co-worker or former co-worker (U.S. Department of Labor, 1996). Moreover, the U.S. Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA), a division of the Department of Labor (DOL), reports that workplace violence costs U.S. companies 500,000 employees per year in voluntary and involuntary turnover. Due to its considerable harm, CWB, or intentional acts by employees to inflict harm on the organization or its members (Spector & Fox, 2002), is an important topic for organizations to understand and deal with.

The purpose of this study was to address the occurrence of CWB as a function of leader style. The explicit focus was on the effects of leadership on emotional reactions of subordinates and on their reports of committing acts of CWB. The influence of type of leadership on subordinates' CWBs was investigated using an emotion/stress/CWB model that has been widely tested in the literature. Thus, this study served as a replication and extension of the model. A summary of the hypothesized relationships among variables in this study is presented in figure 2.

The model, put forth by Spector and Fox (1999), casts CWB as a response to various stressors at work. This integrated CWB/job stress model has been well supported by recent work (e.g. Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Spector & Fox, 2002; Goh, Bruursema, Spector, & Fox, 2003). In this model, threats to well-being, or stressors, induce negative emotional states like anger or anxiety and these emotions, which are the affective outcomes of stressors, lead to strains. Strains are outcomes of the job stress process that can be physical (e.g. headache), psychological (e.g. job dissatisfaction), or behavioral (e.g. work withdrawal). CWB is a manifestation of a behavioral strain (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). In short, negative perceptions of the work environment (i.e. stressors) relate to negative emotion, which is positively correlated with CWB. Taken as a whole, this research has demonstrated that an organizational focus on creating a positive environment as well as monitoring and management of employee emotion may be an effective way to address the occurrence of CWB.

Figure 1. Spector and Fox's CWB Model



The relationship between job stressors and CWB

Job stressors are events that are interpreted as threats to one's well being and induce negative emotional reactions (Spector, 1998). Organizational constraints are situations at work that inhibit task performance (Peters & O'Connor, 1980).

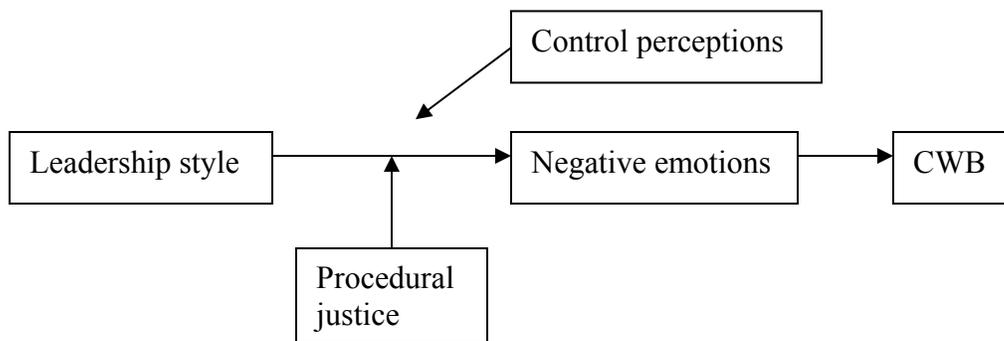
Organizational constraints have been conceptualized as job stressors in the job stress/CWB model (Spector & Jex, 1998). The relationship between organizational constraints and CWB has been demonstrated. Specifically, constraints have been linked to acts of aggression, hostility, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal (Chen & Spector, 1992; Storms & Spector, 1987). Fox et al. (2001) also reported a correlation of .47 between organizational constraints and negative emotion, thereby showing further support for its place as a stressor in the job stress/CWB model.

Interpersonal conflict, or getting into arguments with co-workers, also has a demonstrated relationship with various kinds of CWB (e.g. Chen & Spector, 1992). Not only is conflict one of the most widely cited job stressors (Keenan & Newton, 1984), it also shows a strong relationship with negative emotion ($r=.49$; Fox et al., 2001).

Justice, another type of job stressor, speaks to the perceived fairness of processes (in the case of procedural justice) and outcomes (in the case of distributive justice) at work. Research on distributive and procedural justice has established that they contribute greatly to employee decisions to engage in CWB. Correlations of $-.29$ with both procedural and distributive justice and CWB (Goh et al., 2003) show that justice is an important stressor in the job-stress/CWB process.

According to the model (Spector & Fox, 1999), stressors have their effects on CWB through perceptions of control and autonomy, and through emotions. The role of negative emotions in the model was discussed previously and has been supported by tests of mediation (e.g. Fox et al., 2001 & Storms & Spector, 1987); however, the role of control in the process is more ambiguous. Control, or the extent to which individuals perceive that they have the ability to cope with and manage threats (Fox et al., 2001), has a demonstrated relationship with levels of employee stressors and physical strains ranging in seriousness from somatic symptoms such as headaches to cardiovascular disease (Spector, 2002). However, attempts to place it as a moderator in the job-stress/CWB model have met with mixed results (e.g. Fox et al., 2001). The relationship between perceptions of control and CWB is still being examined because as Allen and Greenberger (1980) pointed out, nonconstructive behavioral responses (such as CWB) are more likely when a person perceives low control of the situation. Therefore, the job-stress/CWB model posits that an individual interprets the environment, has an emotional response, and a belief about how much control he or she has over that environment, and then chooses to engage, or not engage, in CWB.

Figure 2. The proposed model



Leadership and the work environment

The role of leadership in creating the work environment is well established. For example, Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater, and James (2002) concluded that leadership is important to subordinate performance, satisfaction and other outcomes regardless of the other individual, task, and organizational variables once thought to substitute for leadership. Specifically, the researchers found that leader member exchange (LMX), defined as the dyadic relationship between a leader and a subordinate (Graen & Cashman, 1975), and likeability of the leader correlated significantly ($r = .33$ for LMX and $r = .29$ for likeability of the leader) with the performance indicator, namely, group effectiveness. On the other hand, none of the variables thought to substitute for leadership, defined as negating a leader's ability to positively or negatively influence subordinate attitudes and effectiveness (Dionne et al., 2002), correlated in any significant way with group performance. These variables included formalization of the organization, organization inflexibility, subordinate control, spatial difference between subordinates and leaders, subordinate indifference toward rewards, and subordinate professional orientation. In order to eliminate common-method bias, Dionne and colleagues used different subordinates to provide ratings of leader behaviors, substitutes for leadership, and performance criterion. The lack of significant findings when data were collected in this way led the researchers to conclude that prior significant effects in substitutes literature may be merely a statistical artifact, resulting from common-source bias (Dionne et al., 2002).

Other studies have also explored high LMX relationships and their influence on subordinate and organizational outcomes. These studies seem to underscore the value of good leadership in effecting positive outcomes. In a meta-analysis by Gerstner and Day (1997), LMX was correlated .41 with subordinate/member performance ratings, .62 with satisfaction with supervision, .46 with overall job satisfaction, and .35 with organizational commitment. In a slightly different vein, Tierney, Bauer, and Potter (2002) found that leader member exchange related positively to subordinate willingness to perform extra-role behaviors. Extra-role behaviors are defined as helpful, beneficial behaviors that go beyond an employee's formal work requirements.

Outside of the LMX domain, other studies of leadership have shown that what a leader does and the feelings he or she creates in followers has important effects on follower behavior. For instance, George (1995) found that leader positive mood predicted group performance even after controlling for group positive affective tone. Similarly, Williams, Podsakoff, and Huber (1992) found that subordinate ratings of leader behaviors correlated with subordinate satisfaction with supervision, performance, and organizational commitment.

Further evidence demonstrating the importance of the leader to follower outcomes comes from work on bad or abusive leadership. For instance, Xin and Pelled (2003) found that task and particularly emotional conflict between supervisors and subordinates had negative associations with subordinate evaluations of leader behaviors. Another study examining the effects of conflict found that conflict with supervisors was negatively related to organizationally relevant variables such as job satisfaction,

organizational commitment, and turnover intentions (Frone, 2000). Tepper (2000) not only examined subjective perceptions of leader behaviors but also objective indicators of subordinate satisfaction in his study of the consequences of abusive supervision. Abusive supervision referred to subordinate perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engaged in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact. The researcher found that reports of abusive supervision correlated negatively with job satisfaction ($r = -.35$), normative commitment ($r = -.27$), and affective commitment ($r = -.24$), while correlating positively with self-reports of emotional exhaustion ($r = .36$), work to family conflict ($r = .22$), and anxiety ($r = .21$). Taken as a whole, this research reveals that poor leader-subordinate relationships have harmful effects on subordinates and the overall work environment just as positive leader-subordinate relations have beneficial effects.

Leadership and its effects on CWB

Despite the repeated finding that leadership exerts important effects on subordinates, only a few studies have looked at characteristics of the leader or leader-subordinate relationship as predictors of CWB. One study looking at this relationship examined the effects of high or low leader member exchange (LMX) on citizenship and retaliation behaviors (Townsend, Philips, & Elkins, 2000). The theoretical basis of LMX is that dyadic supervisor-subordinate relationships and work roles are negotiated over time through many interactions in which both supervisor and subordinate determine the type and quality of the relationship (Bauer & Green, 1996). High-quality leader-member exchange relationships have been associated with many positive outcomes including

citizenship behaviors, subordinate satisfaction, and subordinate promotions (Bauer & Green, 1996). In an attempt to examine the flip side, Townsend and colleagues (2000) looked at outcomes of poor LMX relationships. They found that supervisors reported a higher incidence of CWB (which they termed retaliatory behaviors) against the organization among subordinates in poor exchange relationships. High LMX relationships, on the other hand, were negatively correlated with supervisor reports of subordinate retaliation. This research suggests that leaders do have some impact on subordinate readiness to commit retaliatory acts that fit the definition of CWB.

Tepper's (2000) aforementioned work on outcomes of abusive supervision spoke to this relationship as well. He found that self-reports of abusive supervision correlated with many psychological strains such as anxiety, depression ($r=.18$), and emotional exhaustion. However, this research did not examine the effects of abusive supervision on behavioral strains such as CWB.

Marrs (2000) found that verbal aggression from supervisory sources, both witnessed and experienced, is negatively related to the affective outcomes of job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, trust in management, and positively related to stress. Moreover, verbal aggression from supervisors is associated with higher levels of deviant acts (CWB) on the part of organizational members and is associated with higher levels of intentions to leave the organization (Marrs, 2000). In order to understand deviance as Marrs conceptualized it, it is necessary to refer to Robinson and Bennett's (1995) work. Robinson and Bennett break deviance into four distinct categories: production deviance (e.g. purposely working

slowly), property deviance (e.g. wrecking supplies), political deviance (e.g. manipulating gossip to affect promotions), and personal aggression (e.g. beating someone up at work). Since deviance is operationally similar to CWB, relationships among the variables in Marrs's study should be similar when CWB is used as the dependent variable instead of deviance.

Further support for this contention comes from a study by Penney (2003) who found a correlation of .468 between self-reports of experienced incivility and self-reports of CWB. Incivility is defined as low intensity antisocial behavior that occurs at work (Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001). Although this study did not make a distinction between supervisor and other/co-worker sources of incivility, it shows that even low-grade negativity has detrimental effects on employee willingness to commit CWB.

In a somewhat different vein, Giesburg (2001) examined employee perceptions of the causes and prevention of workplace violence and sabotage. In his study, 80% of employees stated that better communication by management could prevent the proliferation of workplace violence. This finding indicates that employees look to their leaders to improve the flow of communication and that they hold their leaders responsible when things go awry. Therefore, leadership creates the work environment both in terms of objective productivity, as described previously, and in terms of subjective employee perceptions, as this study indicates.

Transactional and Transformational Leadership and the link with CWB

Transformational leadership is the instilling of pride, self-respect and faith in the leader and is centered on the articulation of a vision for the organization (Masi & Cooke,

2000). Conversely, transactional leadership is characterized by the exchange of one thing of value for another between leader and subordinates and careful correction of mistakes by the leader (Masi & Cooke). Bass (1985) operationalized the two types of leadership into multiple dimensions. Transformational leadership was operationalized as charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Transactional leadership was operationalized into three dimensions: management by exception, contingent reward, and laissez-faire (i.e. passive management by exception). Dimensions such as these have been empirically supported but the exact factor structure has varied across samples (e.g. Avolio, 1999; Hater & Bass, 1988).

There is considerable evidence that transformational leadership is effective in promoting positive follower and organizational results. Survey studies using the MLQ (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire) and similar questionnaires find that transformational leadership relates positively with subordinate satisfaction, motivation, and performance (Bass, 1996; Wofford, Whittington, & Goodwin, 2001). Moreover, Sparks and Shenk (2001) found that transformational leadership did indeed transform followers by encouraging them to see the higher purpose in their work. They also found positive relationships between belief in this higher purpose and job satisfaction, group cohesion, and subordinate effort (Sparks et al., 2001). Through structural equation modeling, McColl and Anderson (2002) found that transformational leadership has a significant direct influence on frustration and optimism, with the negative influence on frustration exerting a stronger effect on performance than the positive effect on optimism. The emotion, frustration, and the belief, optimism, exert direct effects on performance

and fully mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and performance (McCull et al., 2002). This finding, with its emphasis on the importance of emotion, also lends support to the idea that leadership style could be a stressor in the Spector/Fox (1999) model.

Elsewhere, researchers examined the effects of type of leadership on subordinate motivation, commitment to quality, organizational productivity, and self-image. A significant positive relationship was found between transformational leadership and subordinate motivation, while negative relationships were found between transactional leadership and both commitment to quality and organizational productivity (Masi & Cooke, 2000). These results imply that transactional leadership may be related to CWB in that it relates negatively with both quality and quantity of work. Perhaps the lowered commitment to quality is expressed in sabotage or wasting supplies while lowered organizational productivity is due to CWBs such as taking longer breaks, purposefully slow work, showing up to work late, or theft. The particular question of how transactional leadership relates with CWB has not been addressed in the research, however.

Another study addressed the impact of transformational and transactional leadership on sales performance and citizenship behaviors among sales agents. The researchers found that transformational leader behaviors had stronger relationships with both sales performance and citizenship behavior than transactional leader behaviors (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001). Though this study found that transactional

leadership was associated to a lesser degree with positive outcomes, it stopped short of addressing the possible negative consequences of transactional leadership.

In other literature, however, the detrimental effects of transactional leadership have been examined. In a study examining the effects of transactional and transformational leadership on consolidated business unit performance, Howell and Avolio (1993) found that contingent reward and active management by exception, two facets of transactional leadership, correlated negatively with consolidated unit performance ($r = -.25$ and $-.41$ respectively). The other facet of transactional leadership measured, namely, contingent reward behavior, correlated positively with unit performance ($r = .37$). This finding went contrary to the researchers' expectations that transformational leadership would be uniformly positively related to unit performance while transactional leadership would be uniformly negatively related. The authors suggested that it may have been due to problems with the contingent reward scale. Later researchers found that the scale loaded on two separate factors, implicit and explicit rewards, and that the implicit factor loaded on other transformational leadership scales while the explicit factor related to transactional leadership (Goodwin, Wofford, & Whittington, 2001). As predicted by Howell et al. (1993), transformational leadership correlated positively with consolidated unit performance. The specific components of transformational leadership examined were charisma ($r = .34$ with performance), intellectual stimulation ($r = .26$), and individualized consideration ($r = .36$; Howell et. al, 1993). This research shows that outcomes of transactional leadership can be negative, at least in the performance domain.

In a meta-analysis by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996), substitutes for leadership (e.g. professional orientation, indifference to rewards) accounted for more of the variance in criterion variables (e.g. job satisfaction, organizational commitment) than did leader behaviors. This finding should not be surprising, however, as all of the leader behaviors examined in the meta-analyzed studies were strictly transactional. The seven examined leader behaviors were leader clarification, specification of procedures, supportive leader, contingent reward, contingent punishment, noncontingent reward, and noncontingent punishment. None of the studies included in the meta-analysis investigated such leader behaviors as individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, idealized influence, or intellectual stimulation. This meta-analysis thereby demonstrated that it is possible to substitute for transactional leader behaviors, and it established that the substitutes have stronger influences on such outcome variables as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), in-role performance, and organizational commitment than do transactional leader behaviors. Yet the analysis did not show that there is any substitute for transformational leadership.

In order to conceptualize transactional leadership as a stressor, it should fit the definition as being a situation that elicits negative emotional reactions (Spector, 1998). Transactional leadership, particularly active management by exception, could be stressful to subordinates because it involves vigilant attention to subordinate mistakes. Active management by exception is operationally defined as looking for mistakes or enforcing rules to avoid mistakes (Yukl, 1999). To subordinates, this type of monitoring could be interpreted as controlling and intrusive. The leader's careful correction of mistakes could

also cause the subordinate to lose faith in his or her own abilities, creating low self-efficacy and a sense of learned helplessness. Passive management by exception, or waiting until problems are serious before the leader responds to the subordinate (Yukl, 1999), could also be very stressful to subordinates. The employee could feel that he or she is being persecuted or that the leader fails to notice his or her positive contributions.

Similarly, the lack of transformational leadership could be considered just as critical of a stressor. A leader who lacks charisma, defined as the instilling of pride, faith and respect, a gift for seeing what is important, and the ability to transmit a sense of mission (Lowe et al., 1996), may leave followers without a sense of the bigger picture and without pride and faith in the organization and its goals. This could lead to such negative emotions as boredom or discouragement and also to CWB. A leader who lacks individualized consideration, defined as delegation of learning projects, coaching, and teaching (Lowe et al., 1996), may cause followers to feel that the workplace is impersonal or that the leader does not notice them as an individual. This could lead to anger or sadness and in turn to CWB. Finally, a leader who does not provide intellectual stimulation, defined as the emphasis of problem solving skills and logical reasoning (Lowe et al., 1996), to followers may cause them to feel a host of negative emotions including boredom or anxiety. In order to establish it as a stressor, the link between leadership style and negative emotions will be examined.

Though research has established that transactional leadership can have negative consequences, it is not clear that we can describe it as a stressor unless it is known to relate to negative emotions and CWB in a similar fashion as other stressors such as

constraints, justice, and conflict. Therefore, linking leadership style with other stressors and outcomes of the job stress/CWB model is an important goal of the present study.

Leadership style and the link with justice

Organizational justice is concerned with fair treatment of people in organizations (Muchinsky, 2000). Two types of justice are distributive, or people's perceptions of fairness of outcomes received by self and others, and procedural, or perceptions of fairness in the process that determines outcomes (Fox et al., 2001). Although procedural justice has demonstrated stronger relationships to emotions and CWB (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Fox, Spector, Miles, 2001), both types of justice have shown significant correlations within Spector and Fox's (1999) job-stress/CWB model. Distributive justice correlated -.38 with negative emotion while procedural justice correlated -.44. In addition, distributive justice correlated -.17 with organizational CWB but non-significantly ($r = -.09$) with personal CWB. Procedural justice correlated -.26 and -.15 with CWBO and CWBP respectively (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001).

In the leadership literature, there is a demonstrated relationship between transformational leadership and OCB through justice (Rajandini, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999). The structural model developed by the researchers showed a relationship fully mediated by justice and trust. However, research to date has not examined the relationship of CWB to transformational leadership and justice.

In terms of the job-stress/CWB model, one would expect an interaction between the environmental stressors of transactional leadership style and procedural justice in the relationship with the strain, namely, CWB. This relationship is expected because of a

prior study in this area. This study examined the effects of procedural justice and charismatic leadership on cooperation and OCB. The results indicated that charismatic leadership and procedural justice both exerted positive effects on cooperation, but the two variables interacted so that their effects were stronger together than alone (De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002). Another interaction observed in this study was that when procedural justice was low, charismatic leadership was associated with higher levels of OCB, but when procedural justice was high, the extent to which the leader was charismatic did not matter. A similar interaction is expected in the relationship with CWB; When procedural justice is high, leader style matters less than when justice is low.

Transactional Leadership and Organizational CWB

In Spector and Fox's (1999) model, there is a distinction between two types of CWB. This distinction was first developed by Robinson and Bennett (1995) in a multidimensional scaling study where, by using both rational and empirical methods, they derived a typology of deviant workplace behaviors. Results show that deviant behaviors differ on two dimensions: minor versus serious and interpersonal versus organizational. Organizational CWB (CWBO) refers to all behaviors directed at the organization as a whole (e.g. stealing money from the cash register); personal CWB (CWBP) covers behaviors directed at individuals within the organization (e.g. stealing money from a co-worker's purse). Fox et al.'s (2001) study showed a significantly stronger negative relationship between procedural justice and CWBO ($r = -.26$) than procedural justice and CWBP ($r = -.15$). Since leadership style is directly related to

organizational processes, much like justice, relationships between the variables may be similar.

In a similar vein, Bruk (2003) found that subordinate, self-reported conflict with supervisors correlated positively with CWBO ($r = .21$), but it did not correlate with CWBP. These findings suggest that employees target their counterproductive behaviors to the source of the problem; they do not randomly respond to environmental stressors. For this reason, the relative strength of relationship between transactional leadership and CWBO versus CWBP was examined in this research.

Study Objectives

This study sought to cast leadership style as a job stressor in Spector and Fox's (1999) model. Previous research demonstrated the superiority of transformational leadership over transactional leadership for many work outcomes. However, transactional leadership had not been examined as part of the job stress process or as a predictor of CWB. Therefore, this study investigated whether leadership style related with CWB in similar ways as established job stressors such as organizational constraints, justice, and conflict do. In short, this study served as a replication and extension of Spector and Fox's (1999) model.

Furthermore, this study examined the effects of high and low justice in moderating the relationship between leadership style and CWB. Since justice had previously only been examined as a moderator in the leadership and OCB relationship, this inquiry will be the first of its kind. Finally, the study explored the differential effects of transactional leadership on the two types of CWB, organizational and personal.

Research suggests that transactional leadership may be a stressor in Spector and Fox's (1999) job-stress/CWB model. Several studies support the relationship between transactional leadership and both low productivity and poor job attitudes (e.g. Masi & Cooke, 2000; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001; Howell & Avolio, 1993). If transactional leadership does conform to the model as expected, it should show similar relationships to negative emotions and CWB as other stressors previously examined in the research such as conflict and constraints (e.g. Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001).

Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: High levels of conflict, organizational constraints, and transactional leadership and low levels of justice and transformational leadership will be associated with high levels of negative emotions and CWB.

Negative emotions mediate the relationship between stressors and CWB in Spector and Fox's model (Fox et al., 2001). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2: Negative emotions will mediate the relationship between stressors/leadership style and CWB.

Studies have shown that subordinates respond to stressors from the organization with organization focused CWB (i.e. CWBO) and stressors from co-workers with co-worker focused CWB (i.e. CWBP) (e.g. Bruk, 2003; Penney, 2003). Since leadership style deals specifically with organizational processes, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3: Leadership style will be more strongly related to organizational CWB (CWBO) than personal CWB (CWBP).

It is believed based on some prior research, that leader style matters less to subordinates when organizational justice is high than when organizational justice is low. Based on a study showing that justice and charismatic leadership interacted in their effects on OCB (i.e. DeCremer & van Knippenberg, 2002), and because it is important to check for expected moderation effects before looking at main effects, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 4: The effects of leadership style on CWB will be moderated by procedural justice such that when procedural justice is high, leadership style matters less to subordinate CWB than when procedural justice is low.

Chapter Two

Method

Participants

Participants were 172 employees from the Tampa Bay area, recruited from three sources. Participants were asked to choose one co-worker to independently rate their common supervisor on leadership style. Of the 172 respondents, 116 returned the co-worker survey as well, resulting in 116 matched pairs. Sixty-two of the 172 participants were male (36%); 40 participants were in managerial positions (23%); 132 participants were in white collar jobs (76%); and the remaining participants reported having blue collar jobs. Participants had to work at least 20 hours to be included in the study, and on average they worked 37.7 hours per week. To ensure anonymity, no names or specific places of employment were collected.

Procedure

Surveys were administered to employed graduate students in programs including education, physics, economics, business, public health, and women's studies. The researcher obtained permission from instructors to visit graduate classes and request participation from students. Participation was voluntary and did not affect course grade. Participants were asked to recruit a co-worker to complete the co-worker survey and complete their own survey. They then had two options for returning the surveys to the researcher. The first option was for the participant to place the two surveys in the same envelope and send them via intra-campus mail to the researcher's mail stop. The second option was to return it directly to the researcher who would visit the class the following

week. Fifty-five percent of the sample was generated in this manner. The remainder of the sample is made up of two distinct groups: undergraduates who participated for extra course credit and to whom surveys were administered in the same manner as the graduate students, and employees from an outside organization not associated with the university. The organizational participants returned their completed surveys in a manila envelope to an in-basket upon completion. The researcher picked up completed surveys from the in-basket after the specified deadline.

Measures

Participants' surveys included measures of supervisor's leadership style, participant's constraints, justice, conflict, participant's counterproductive work behavior, participant autonomy, and participant's positive and negative affect. Coworker surveys contained only the measure of supervisor's leadership style.

Leadership Style. Supervisor's leadership style was measured using the MLQ Form 5x – Short instrument (Bass & Avolio, 1995). This measure was chosen because it distinguishes between active and passive management by exception and because of its frequent use in the literature. Participants and coworkers responded based on a 5-point Likert scale (0=not at all, 4=always) to how often their supervisor displays specific leader behaviors. Five scales measure transformational leadership and four scales measure transactional leadership (Turner et. al, 2002). The scales measuring transformational leadership are: (a) Attributed Idealized Influence (sample item: "Goes beyond his or her own self-interest for the good of the group"). Average coefficient alpha (for participant and co-worker reports) for this facet in the present study was .81, (b) Behavioral

Idealized Influence (e.g. “Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose). Average coefficient alpha for this facet in the present study was .75. (c) Inspirational Motivation (e.g. “Articulates a compelling vision of the future”). Average coefficient alpha for this facet in the present study was .87. (d) Intellectual Stimulation (e.g. “Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems”). Average coefficient alpha for this facet in the present study was .80. (e) Individualized Consideration (e.g. “Treats each of us as individuals with different needs, abilities, and aspirations”). Average coefficient alpha for this facet in the present study was .81. The scales measuring transactional leadership are: (a) Contingent Reward (e.g. “Makes clear what I can expect to receive if my performance meets designated standards”). Average coefficient alpha for this facet in the present study was .78. (b) Management-by-Exception Active (e.g. “Keeps track of my mistakes”). Average coefficient alpha for this facet in the present study was .71. (c) Management-by-Exception Passive (e.g. “Things have to go wrong for him/her to take action”). Average coefficient alpha for this facet in the present study was .75. (d) Laissez-faire (e.g. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise). Average coefficient alpha for this facet in the present study was .75.

Conflict. Work conflict was measured using Frone’s (2000) modified version of the Interpersonal Conflict at Work Scale (ICAWS; Spector & Jex, 1998). Each set of questions measures the extent to which the employee experiences arguments, yelling, and rudeness while interacting with the supervisor or co-workers, respectively. The scale consists of 4 items rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1=Never to 5=Every day. High

scores represent high levels of conflict. Frone (2000) reported a Cronbach alpha of .86 for conflict with supervisors and .85 for conflict with co-workers.

Constraints. The Organizational Constraints Scale (OCS), developed by Spector and Jex (1998), was used to measure job constraints. This 11-item scale is based on the constraints identified by Peters and O'Connor (1980). Respondents indicate on a five-point scale ranging from never to every day how frequently their work performance was hindered by constraints such as inadequate help from supervisors, incorrect instructions, or lack of equipment. High scores indicate high levels of constraints. Spector and Jex (1998) reported a mean Cronbach alpha of .85 for this scale.

Justice. Procedural justice was measured using Moorman's (1991) 12-item scale. Response choices range from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree, with high scores representing high levels of procedural justice. Mean alpha for this scale is .94 (Moorman, 1991).

Affect. The Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS), developed by VanKatwyk, Fox, Spector, and Kelloway (2000), measures a wide range of emotions drawn out in response to the job. Respondents indicated how often they experience each of 20 emotional states. Response choices are in the standard 1 to 5 Likert format where a 1 indicates almost never and a 5 indicates extremely often or always. Therefore, high scores represent high levels of each emotion. Ten positive emotion items are summed to yield a positive affect score and ten negative emotion items are added to obtain a negative affect score. Only the negative emotions score were used in the hypotheses in the current study, however both were collected in order to keep the scale balanced and to look at

relationships with the leadership variables and positive emotions. VanKatwyk et al. (2000) reported a .95 coefficient alpha for this scale. For this study, coefficient alpha for the negative emotion scale was .88 while alpha for the positive emotion scale was .91.

Autonomy. Work autonomy was measured using the Factual Autonomy Scale (FAS; Fox, Spector, & VanKatwyk, 1997), which provides items that are factual in nature and resistant to affective bias. The reduced seven-item scale (as used in prior work such as Goh, et al., 2003) has a reported alpha of .87 (Fox et al., 2001). A sample item is: Do you have to ask permission to take a rest break? Answer choices range from 1=never to 5=always. Therefore, higher scores indicate less autonomy.

Counterproductive Work Behavior. CWB was assessed using a behavioral checklist based on a master list compiled from a number of existing measures and previously used by Goh and colleagues (2003). The checklist includes as many distinct behaviors as possible without duplicating items. The 45-item list requires respondents to indicate the frequency with which they engage in specific behaviors; there are 5 response choices ranging from 1=never to 5=every day. Therefore, high scores indicate high incidence of CWB. Subscale scores were computed consisting of items that targeted the organization (e.g. showing up late for work) and behaviors targeting individuals within the organization (e.g. insulting someone's work).

Chapter Three

Results

To determine if I was justified in combining the graduate student, undergraduate student, and non-student samples, one-way ANOVAs were run for all study variables (see Table 1). Significant differences were found for autonomy ($F(2, 169) = 5.60, p = .0044$), negative emotion ($F(2, 169) = 4.67, p = .0106$), conflict ($F(2, 169) = 4.23, p = .0162$), CWB ($F(2, 169) = 3.79, p = .0247$), transactional leadership ($F(2, 169) = 5.32, p = .0057$), and hours worked per week ($F(2, 169) = 10.90, p < .0001$). Recall that for the autonomy variable, higher scores indicate less autonomy; therefore, the graduate sample reported significantly more autonomy ($M = 15.49, SD = 6.95$) than did the undergraduate sample ($M = 19.58, SD = 7.43$). Constraints, procedural justice, distributive justice, positive emotion, and transformational leadership showed no significant differences among the three groups. Since these differences were relatively minor, the samples were combined for further analysis.

Table 1. One way ANOVAs for examining differences in 3 samples

	F(2, 169)	R ²	Undergraduates M (SD)	Graduates M (SD)	Non-students M (SD)
Autonomy	5.60**	.06	19.58 (7.43)a	15.49 (6.95)b	16.46 (5.96)
Negative Emotion	4.67*	.05	26.63 (8.39)a	24.85 (8.16)	20.71 (7.87)b
Conflict	4.23*	.05	12.19 (4.09)a	10.51 (2.88)b	10.61 (3.48)
Transactional Leadership	5.32**	.06	29.38 (8.32)a	25.96 (7.94)b	23.43 (7.94)b
Transformational Leadership	1.40	.02	44.94 (19.26)	46.58 (17.81)	39.96 (18.95)
Hours worked	10.90***	.11	32.95 (7.74)a	39.70 (9.11)b	39.00 (6.28)b

Table 1. (Continued)

Procedural Justice	.45	.01	56.56 (17.79)	56.56 (16.00)	59.75 (14.92)
Distributive Justice	3.40*	.04	19.92 (5.71)	17.78 (6.64)	20.89 (6.82)
Positive Emotion	.16	.00	28.92 (9.06)	29.85 (9.75)	29.79 (9.14)
Constraints	1.58	.02	24.92 (7.89)	27.01 (8.26)	24.61 (8.03)
CWB	3.79*	.04	64.67 (20.64)a	58.36(10.12)b	57.18 (12.59)

Different letters across a column indicate that the two means are significantly different from each other.

Descriptive statistics were calculated for all study variables. Means, standard deviations, and ranges (observed and possible) can be found in Table 2. The observed values of most variables spanned the range of possible values. However, CWB, conflict, and both participant reported and co-worker reported transactional leadership had observed ranges that were much smaller than possible. This restriction in range could attenuate correlations with these variables.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for all study variables

IV	Mean	SD	Observed range	Possible range	Coefficient alpha
Constraints	26.02	8.15	11-48	11-55	.86
Procedural Justice	57.11	16.14	14-84	12-84	.95
Distributive Justice	18.89	6.53	6-30	6-30	.93

Table 2. (Continued)

Autonomy	16.81	7.14	7-35	7-35	.87
Negative Emotion	24.63	8.43	10-48	10-50	.88
Positive Emotion	29.54	9.45	10-50	10-50	.91
CWB	59.73	13.95	44-167	44-220	.92
Conflict	11	3.42	8-24	8-40	.81
Contingent Reward	9.18	4.34	0-16	0-16	.81
Passive mngmt. by exception	5.68	4.03	0-16	0-16	.73
Active mngmt. by exception	6.98	3.76	0-16	0-16	.71
Laissez-faire	4.59	3.59	0-15	0-16	.75
Intellectual Stimulation	8.36	4.03	0-16	0-16	.82
Behavioral Idealized Influence	8.57	3.88	0-16	0-16	.73
Attributed Idealized Influence	9.14	4.32	0-16	0-16	.81
Inspirational Motivation	10.03	4.23	0-16	0-16	.86
Individualized Consideration	8.85	4.32	0-16	0-16	.82

Table 2. (Continued)

Overall Transactional	26.39	8.28	9-48	0-64	.65
Overall Transformational	44.36	18.39	0-78	0-80	.94
Coworker Contingent reward	9.88	3.77	0-16	0-16	.75
Coworker Passive mngmt. by exception	5.23	3.89	0-15	0-16	.76
Coworker Active mngmt. by exception	7.82	3.44	0-16	0-16	.71
Coworker Laissez-faire	4.30	3.52	0-13	0-16	.75
Coworker Intellectual Stimulation	8.79	3.76	0-16	0-16	.77
Coworker Behavioral Idealized Influence	9.27	3.87	0-16	0-16	.76
Coworker Attributed Idealized Influence	9.42	4.17	0-16	0-16	.81
Coworker Inspirational Motivation	10.20	4.15	0-16	0-16	.87
Coworker Individualized Consideration	9.37	4.06	0-16	0-16	.79
Coworker Overall Transactional	27.20	7.20	12-47	0-64	.56
Coworker Overall Transformational	46.88	17.72	0-78	0-80	.94

Zero-order Pearson correlations were computed for both organizational and personal CWB with leadership style and other job stressors (i.e. constraints, conflict, justice, autonomy). These correlations are reported in table 3. Correlations among the dependent variables are given in table 4; correlations among the independent variables are given in table 5. Thus, tables 3, 4, and 5 collectively give correlations among all study variables.

It was also necessary to look at the degree of relationship between self and co-worker reports of leadership style. Participant and co-worker reports of leadership style were significantly correlated. All correlations were significant at the .001 level except for active management by exception which was significant at .01 level. Correlations for the facets ranged from $r = .27$ (for active management by exception) to $r = .57$ (for attributed idealized influence). The overall self and co-worker reports of leadership style also correlated significantly ($r = .47$) for both transformational and transactional leadership. Correlations between participant and co-worker reports for all facets of the leadership scale can be found in table 6.

Table 3. Correlations among independent and dependent variables.

IV	CWB	CWBO	CWBP	Negative emotions	Positive Emotions
Constraints	.30***	.31***	.21**	.52***	-.33***
Procedural Justice	-.29***	-.26***	-.25***	-.54***	.29***
Distributive Justice	-.17*	-.15	-.14	-.46***	.26***

Table 3. (Continued)

Autonomy	.16*	.18*	.11	.16*	-.25***
Conflict	.47***	.40***	.47***	.47***	-.21**
Conflict with supervisors	.47***	.46***	.39***	.44***	-.23**
Conflict with co-workers	.37***	.24**	.41***	.34***	-.08
Transactional Leadership	.24**	.19*	.20*	.30***	-.08
Transformational Leadership	-.16*	-.21**	-.05	-.24**	.35***
Passive mngmt. by exception	.25**	.22**	.22**	.41***	-.23**
Laissez-faire	.31***	.30***	.23**	.40***	-.22**
Contingent Reward	-.11	-.18*	-.02	-.26***	.30***
Active mngmt. by exception	.07	.08	.01	.18*	-.09
Individualized consideration	-.20*	-.28***	-.06	-.30***	.38***
Attributed Idealized Influence	-.24**	-.28***	-.14	-.27***	.30***
Intellectual Stimulation	-.13	-.20**	-.03	-.19*	.27***
Behavioral Idealized Influence	-.13	-.18*	-.04	-.11	.23**

Table 3. (Continued)

Inspirational Motivation	-.14	-.16*	-.08	-.21**	.25***
Co-worker Transactional	.19*	.15	.17	.19*	-.06
IV	CWB	CWBO	CWBP	Negative emotion	Positive emotion
Co-worker Transformational	-.13	-.09	-.13	-.10	.16
Co-worker Contingent Reward	-.15	-.13	-.13	-.21*	.19*
Co-worker Passive mngmt. By exception	.23*	.22*	.16	.28**	-.15
Co-worker Active mngmt. By exception	.06	-.02	.14	.04	-.03
Co-worker Laissez-faire	.22*	.21*	.16	.26**	-.13
Co-worker Intellectual Stimulation	-.08	-.05	-.09	-.07	.14
Co-worker Behavioral Idealized Influence	-.13	-.07	-.17	.02	.07
Co-worker Attributed Idealized Influence	-.11	-.09	-.10	-.13	.18
Co-worker Inspirational Motivation	-.11	-.06	-.14	-.04	.13
Co-worker Individualized Consideration	-.15	-.15	-.09	-.20*	.17

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

Table 4. Correlations among dependent variables

DV	1	2	3	4
1. Negative emotion				
2. Positive emotion	-.38***			
3. CWB	.52***	-.14		
4. CWBO	.51***	-.18*	.90***	
5. CWBP	.42***	-.09	.89***	.61***

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

Table 5. Correlations among independent variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Constraints										
2. Procedural Justice	-.47***									
3. Distributive Justice	-.42***	.50***								
4. Autonomy	.20**	-.14	.00							
5. Conflict	.45***	-.40***	-.38***	.29***						
6. Conflict w/ supervisor	.37***	-.39***	-.36***	.27***	.88***					
7. Conflict w/ coworker	.39***	-.28***	-.27***	.20**	.79***	.40***				
8. Transactional Leadership	.25***	-.17*	-.12	.30***	.40***	.36***	.31***			
9. Transformational Leadership	-.30***	.49***	.41***	-.08	-.34***	-.38***	-.17*	.15*		
10. Co-worker transactional	.17	-.18*	-.07	.07	.19*	.15	.16	.46***	.16	
11. Co-worker transformational	-.25**	.32***	.27**	-.04	-.30**	-.27**	-.20*	.00	.49***	-.03

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

Table 6. Agreement between sources.

Variable	Correlation between self and co-worker reports
Overall Transformational Leadership	.49***
Intellectual Stimulation	.39***
Individualized Consideration	.34***
Behavioral Idealized Influence	.45***
Attributed Idealized Influence	.57***
Inspirational Motivation	.51***
Overall Transactional Leadership	.46***
Contingent Reward	.47***
Passive Management by Exception	.51***
Active Management by Exception	.27**
Laissez-faire	.45***

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 1 predicted that high levels of stressors would relate to high levels of negative emotions and high levels of CWB. Replicating prior work, constraints, conflict, and procedural justice showed significant correlations with both negative emotions and overall CWB. Autonomy and distributive justice showed smaller, yet significant, correlations with CWB and emotions. Examining the part of the hypothesis unique to this study, participant data show that participant-reported transformational leadership is related negatively and significantly with CWB ($r = -.16$) while participant-reported transactional leadership is significantly positively related with CWB ($r = .24$). Similarly, co-worker-reported transactional leader behaviors were significantly positively related with CWB ($r = .19$), but co-worker reports of transformational leader behaviors were not significantly related to CWB ($r = -.13$), although the correlation was in the expected direction. It is important to note here that co-worker reports were based on a sample size of 116 while participant reports are based on the full sample of 172. Finally, all stressors

were significantly related to negative emotions and in the expected direction. Therefore, hypothesis 1 receives almost full support.

Table 7. Analysis of mediating role of negative emotion

	Step 1 beta weight	Step 2 beta weight	Step 1 R ²	Step 2 R ²	R ² delta	F
Transactional	.36**	.08	.04**	.27***	.23	31.73
Negative emotion		.88***				
Laissez-faire	1.20***	.45	.09***	.28***	.19	33.15
Negative emotion		.82***				
Passive management by exception	.93***	.20	.07***	.27***	.20	31.85
Negative emotion		.86***				
Transformational	-.15*	-.05	.04*	.28***	.24	32.08
Negative emotion		.87***				
Attributed Idealized Influence	-.80**	-.35	.06**	.28***	.22	33.10
Negative emotion		.85***				
Individualized Consideration	-.66**	-.16	.04**	.27***	.23	31.77

Table 7. (Continued)

Negative emotion		.88***				
Constraints	.54***	.08	.09***	.27***	.18	31.67
Negative emotion		.86***				
Conflict	2.13***	1.42***	.26***	.36***	.10	47.37
Negative emotion		.63***				
Procedural Justice	-.26***	.00	.09***	.27***	.18	31.46
Negative emotion		.89***				
Distributive Justice	-.38*	.19	.03*	.28***	.25	32.34
Negative emotion		.97***				
Autonomy	.33*	.17	.03*	.28***	.25	32.60
Negative emotion		.88***				

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

To test hypothesis 2, the mediation hypothesis, the procedure recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used. This procedure entails investigating three regression models, regression of CWB on the stressor, the proposed mediator (negative emotion) on the stressor, and the CWB on the stressor and negative emotion together. If the beta of

the stressor variable is significant in the first model, but nonsignificant or substantially reduced in the combined model, that is a pattern consistent with mediation. Results are presented in Table 7. All stressor variables except for conflict displayed full mediation by negative emotion. Hypothesis 2 was well-supported in all but one case.

Hypothesis 3 stated that leadership style would more strongly relate to organizational forms of CWB than to personal forms of CWB. To test hypothesis 3, relationships among transactional leadership and CWBO and CWBP were examined, as were relationships between transformational leadership and CWBO and CWBP. In table 3, it is noteworthy that transactional leadership relates positively and significantly with both CWBO ($r = .19$) and CWBP ($r = .20$) while transformational leadership is negatively correlated with only CWBO ($r = -.21$). In addition, all facets of transformational leadership except for inspirational motivation were more strongly inversely related with CWBO than with CWBP. Similar to the transformational leadership facets, the contingent reward subscale of the transactional leadership scale showed a significantly stronger negative correlation with CWBO ($r = -.18$) than CWBP ($r = -.02$). Comparisons between the correlations were calculated by using Hotelling's t-test for dependent correlations. Results for these analyses can be found in table 8. The relationships of CWBO and CWBP with co-worker reported leadership style were not significant, but two facets of co-worker reported transactional leadership, passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership, were significantly positively correlated with CWBO ($r = .22$ and $r = .21$ respectively) but not CWBP (although the two correlations were not

significantly different from each other). Considering these findings, hypothesis 3 is partially supported.

Table 8. Results for Hotelling-Williams t-tests for Dependent Correlations

	r CWBO	r CWBP	t value
Transformational Leadership	-.21**	-.05	-2.42**
Individualized Consideration	-.28***	-.06	-3.41***
Attributed Idealized Influence	-.28***	-.14	-2.15*
Intellectual Stimulation	-.20**	-.03	-2.57**
Behavioral Idealized Influence	-.18*	-.04	-2.10*
Inspirational Motivation	-.16*	-.08	-1.19
Contingent Reward	-.18*	-.02	-2.41**
Laissez-faire	.30***	.23**	1.08

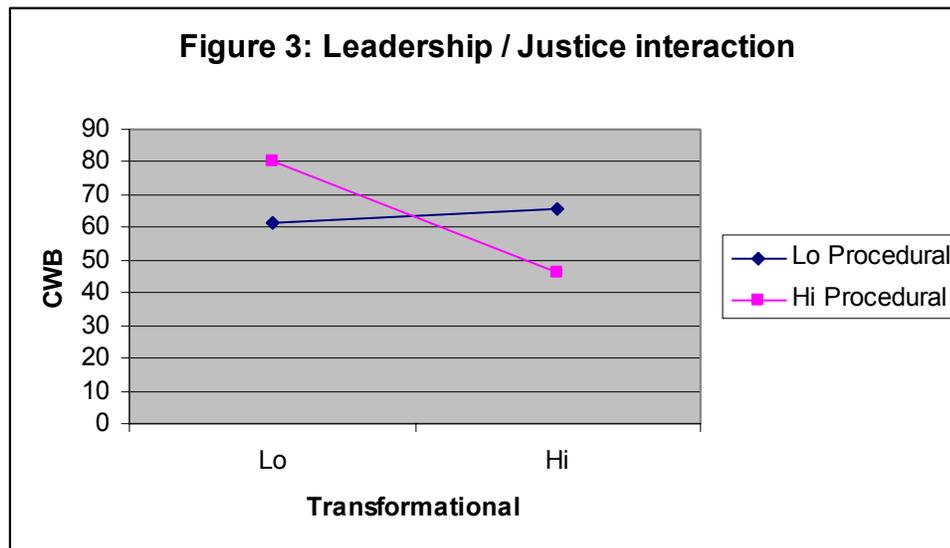
* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

Hypothesis 4 stated that procedural justice would moderate the relationship between leadership style and CWB. Hypothesis 4 was tested using moderated regression analysis as done by Fox et al. (2001). As expected, transformational leadership was moderated by procedural justice in its relationship with CWB. However, results for transactional leadership, procedural justice, and CWB did not show a significant moderator term. Results of the moderator analysis can be found in table 9. A graph of the interaction is shown in figure 3.

Table 9. Results for moderated regression analysis with procedural justice as moderator.

Step	Independent variable	Unstandardized bs	CWB	
			Total R ²	Change in R ²
1	Transformational Leadership	.34	.04*	.04*
2	Procedural justice	.06	.09***	.05**
3	Transformational x Procedural	-.01	.12***	.03*
1	Transactional Leadership	.72	.04**	.04**
2	Procedural justice	-.02	.11***	.07**
3	Transactional x Procedural	-.01	.12	.01

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001



The significant ($p = .027$) interaction between transformational leader style and procedural justice (as pictured in figure 3), is exactly the opposite of the predicted interaction. Given the data, transformational leader style matters less when procedural justice is low than when procedural justice is high. Moreover, this is a strong, crossover

interaction, so more can be stated regarding how the effects of transformational leadership on CWB are bounded by procedural justice. At low levels of procedural justice, CWB rises slightly as transformational leadership increases. Conversely, at high levels of procedural justice, CWB decreases sharply as transformational leadership increases. Essentially, the form of the relationship between transformational CWB and leadership is very different at high and low levels of procedural justice. Thus, hypothesis 4 receives no support in that there is a significant interaction, but the form of the relationship is different than what was hypothesized.

Chapter Four

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of different types of leader behaviors at work on subordinate readiness to commit CWBs using an emotion centered model. Research that has examined the effects of transformational and transactional leadership found positive effects on motivation for transformational leadership and negative effects on commitment to quality and organizational productivity for transactional leadership (Masi & Cooke, 2000). Findings from many studies have demonstrated the ill effects of transactional leadership and positive outcomes associated with transformational leadership (e.g. McColl & Anderson, 2002; Sparks et al., 2001; Mackenzie et al., 2001). Other research has indicated that employees direct their CWBs toward the source of the problem (Bruk, 2003). Because of the dearth of studies directly examining leadership style's effects on different counterproductive workplace behaviors, this study assessed leader style using two data sources and also assessed both organizational and personal CWBs. Given the importance of emotion demonstrated in much prior work (e.g. Fox & Spector, 2001; Goh, Bruursema, Fox, & Spector, 2003), mediation tests were run. And given the role of fairness in how a leader is perceived (DeCremer & van Knippenberg, 2002), moderator tests for justice were also conducted.

Generally, results of the current study provide support for the replication and extension of the job stress/emotion/CWB model (Spector et al., 1998). Specifically, it was found that transactional and transformational leadership relate directly and inversely, respectively, with CWB (Hypothesis 1); that negative emotions fully mediate the

relationship between leadership style and CWB (Hypothesis 2); that CWBO relates inversely with transformational leadership while CWBP does not (Hypothesis 3); and that transformational leadership is moderated by procedural justice in its effect on CWB (Hypothesis 4).

Hypothesis 1: Relationships among the stressors, leadership style, negative emotions, and CWB.

As predicted by hypothesis 1, participant reports of transactional leadership style were significantly and directly associated with negative emotions and CWB. As expected, and in accord with prior work, constraints and conflict showed this pattern of relationships as well. Meanwhile, transformational leadership and distributive and procedural justice showed inverse relationships with CWB and negative emotions, also as hypothesized. The co-worker reports of transactional leadership style were also significantly and directly related to participant reports of negative emotions and CWB, albeit with a smaller correlation ($r = .19$ for both). However, co-worker reported transformational leadership did not rise to the level of significance in its relationships with negative emotions or CWB, although correlations were in the expected direction ($r = -.10$ and $-.13$ respectively).

Although the relationships with overall leadership style are interesting, we are able to obtain a more detailed view of the findings when we examine the relationships with the facets of leadership and CWB. First, for both participant and co-worker sources, the transactional facets of passive management by exception and laissez-faire related significantly and positively with participant reported negative emotions and CWB.

Passive management by exception deals mainly with the leader failing to take action in the early stages of a problem. Some example items are, “Waits for things to go wrong before taking action,” and, “Fails to interfere until problems become serious.” Laissez-faire leadership deals mainly with being unavailable when direction or assistance is needed. Some example items are, “Is absent when needed,” and, “Delays responding to urgent questions.” Perhaps the higher reported incidence of CWB associated with these two facets is due simply to reduced supervisor monitoring and subordinates’ perceptions about the reduced likelihood of being caught committing CWBs. However, passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership are strongly and positively related to negative emotions ($r = .41$ and $.40$ respectively) and moderately and negatively related to positive emotions ($r = -.23$ and $-.22$ respectively); this would tend to suggest that subordinates view their “independence” negatively and feel badly about this type of supervisor treatment.

Active management by exception, on the other hand, shows no correlation with CWB. This facet deals mainly with supervisor scrutiny of subordinate mistakes. Some example items are, “Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards,” and, “Keeps track of all mistakes.” The lack of a significant correlation with CWB could be because subordinates feel like they would have a very high likelihood of being caught, but of note is the significant but relatively small correlation with negative emotions ($r = .18$) and the lack of a significant negative correlation with positive emotions, although in the expected direction ($r = -.09$). The correlation with active management by exception and negative emotion is significantly

smaller than both the laissez faire ($t = 2.39, p < .01$) and passive management by exception ($t = 2.52, p < .01$) correlations with negative emotions. Therefore, subordinates feel worse about an absent or uninvolved supervisor than they do about a supervisor who points out failures. This would seem to indicate that subordinates find some attention, even negative attention, better than no attention. When we link all this back to CWB, it makes sense that participants who report passive leader behaviors also report more CWB than participants who report the negative leader monitoring behaviors; those who have passive leaders have more negative feelings about their jobs and therefore more reason to engage in CWBs.

In examining the transformational leader facets, we find that only individualized consideration ($r = -.20$) and attributed idealized influence ($r = -.24$) show inverse relationships with overall CWB. Individualized consideration is generally about individually-focused, mentoring-type behaviors. Some sample items are, “Spends time teaching and coaching,” and, “Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.” This variable has the highest correlation ($r = .38$) with positive emotions of all variables included in the study. This finding, in concert with the findings for laissez-faire and passive management by exception, again seems to highlight the importance of subordinates feeling attended to rather than ignored. Throughout this study, subordinates who report more attention of any kind (positive or negative) from supervisors also report less negative emotion and less CWB. A fruitful area for further research would be to look more directly at leader neglecting or leader ignoring behaviors with subordinate stress, emotions, job performance, and counterproductivity.

With respect to attributed idealized influence, all relationships were again significant in the expected directions ($r = -.27$ for negative emotion, $r = -.30$ for positive emotion). Attributed idealized influence deals with the overall feeling one's supervisor projects. Some example items are, "Displays a sense of power and confidence," and, "Acts in ways that builds my respect," and "Instills pride in me for being associated with him or her." This is different from behavioral idealized influence, which did not show significant relationships with CWB or negative emotions, in that it deals not with what a supervisor says, but with the feeling one gets from how the supervisor behaves. This is similar to Lowe et al's (1996) definition of charisma: the instilling of pride, faith, and respect, a gift for seeing what is important, and the ability to transmit a sense of mission. It seems that lacking this subtle touch, a sort of leading by example rather than by lesson, is perceived negatively by subordinates, and they tend to engage in more CWBs. This finding, that subordinates are less likely to commit undermining or retaliatory acts at work when they respect and admire their supervisor, is attractive since it suggests that being a respected leader has implications for important organizational outcomes. More research should examine what specifically about a leader deems him or her respectable and what other positive outcomes this could be associated with on the organizational and the individual subordinate level.

Little support was garnered for the relationship between intellectual stimulation or behavioral idealized influence and CWB. However, both facets were strongly related to positive emotions and significantly negatively related with CWBO ($r = -.20$ and $r = -.18$, respectively). This makes intuitive sense since feeling stimulated by your job may make

you happy and less willing to harm your organization, but it will probably matter little in terms of how you treat co-workers.

Hypothesis 2: The mediating role of negative emotions

It was reasoned that negative emotions were the process by which stressors and leadership style exert their effects on counterproductive behaviors. Therefore, full mediation by negative emotions of all independent-dependent variable relationships was expected. The findings of this study provide almost full support for this hypothesis. As evidenced in table 5, all independent variables except for conflict were fully mediated by negative emotions in their effects on CWB. Concurrent with prior work (Bruk, 2003), conflict showed partial mediation by negative emotion.

A key takeaway message here is that all four facets of transactional and transformational leadership that displayed significant relationships with CWB were included in the mediation analysis (laissez-faire, passive management by exception, attributed idealized influence, and individualized consideration), and all four showed full mediation by negative emotion. This yields further support for the idea that these facets of transactional leadership are upsetting to subordinates, and that they are engaging in CWB because of these bad feelings, not simply because they can get away with them when no one is watching. Taken together with the transformational facet findings, these results would indicate that subordinates do not so much need monitoring and control to stop engaging in CWBs, but they need emotional management from a leader they respect who gives them specific, individualized attention and who is present when needed.

Hypothesis 3: Differential relationships between leadership style and CWBO and leadership style and CWBP

Hotelling's (1940) t test for dependent correlations was used to assess differences between correlations with CWBO and CWBP and the leadership facets. No support was found for the predicted stronger relationship between overall transactional leadership and CWBO ($r = .19$ versus $r = .20$ for CWBP). However, as evidenced in table 8, transformational leadership did show a more significantly negative relationship with CWBO than CWBP. Specifically, all transformational facets except for inspirational motivation displayed significantly stronger correlations with CWBO than with CWBP. Interestingly, however, neither procedural nor distributive justice showed this same pattern, contradicting prior work with these variables (Fox et al., 2001). Also, one facet of transactional leadership, namely, contingent reward, showed a significantly stronger relationship with CWBO than with CWBP. Reasons for these results are congruent with reasons put forth for the hypotheses, employees are less likely to harm the organization when they feel positive emotions, lack negative emotions, and feel good about and admire their supervisor. Also, as Bruk (2003) and Penney (2003) found, employees target their CWB responses at the perceived sources of their bad feelings.

A puzzling finding is the significant correlation between laissez-faire leadership and CWBP and passive management by exception and CWBP. None of the other facets of transactional or transformational leadership bore any relationship with CWBP. One explanation for this could be that without a strong leader presence, subordinates experience fighting with co-workers and engage in power struggles. A closer look at the

individual CWB items that correlated significantly with laissez-faire leadership and passive management by exception revealed that 5 CWB items were related to both facets of transactional leadership. Those 5 are: insulted someone about their job performance, made fun of someone's personal life, refused to help someone at work, played a mean prank to embarrass someone at work, and destroyed property belonging to someone at work. It could be that there is just a negative, hostile environment, perhaps similar to low morale, when subordinates feel abandoned by their supervisor. Negative emotions, as discussed previously are quite high when these two facets are high so it could be that these feelings spill over into other domains. For instance, for the conflict variable, where correlations with negative emotion are equally high ($r = .34$ to $r = .47$), conflict with supervisors relates strongly to both CWBO and CWBP as does conflict with co-workers. It could be that after a certain point, negative emotions are expressed to others in CWB regardless of their source. This same relationship is present for constraints and procedural justice, two other variables with high correlations with negative emotions.

Hypothesis 4: Moderation by justice of the leadership-CWB relationship

It was expected that justice would determine when the leadership-CWB relationship was strong. Specifically, it was predicted that leader style would matter less when procedural justice was high than when procedural justice was low. Support was found for justice as a moderator in the relationship between transformational leadership and overall CWB, but no support was found for a moderating role of justice in the relationship between transactional leadership and CWB.

The finding that the interaction did not occur in the expected fashion is not completely surprising as the rationale for the hypothesis was derived from very little prior work. However, this finding is quite interesting for two reasons. First, it is very difficult to find a significant moderator effect with such a relatively small sample ($N = 172$). These tests have notoriously low power as multicollinearity is generally a problem. Although it depends on the reliability of the measurement instrument for the variables, a sample size of over 220 is generally recommended to detect moderator effects (Aguinis, Boik, & Pierce, 2001). Given this, and given the strength of the interaction, we can expect that this finding is relatively robust.

The graphed interaction is also interesting because it shows that when a person's workplace is perceived as procedurally unfair, an exceptionally transformational leader may slightly increase the occurrence of CWB. Though the really remarkable finding is that when procedural justice is high, and transformational leadership is low, CWB is highest than in any other condition. And conversely, when procedural justice is high and transformational leadership is high, the occurrence of CWB is lowest than in any other condition. Therefore, the behaviors of the leader and feelings projected by the leader are most important when organizational procedures are exceptionally fair and just.

More work is needed to determine the theoretical significance of the procedural justice moderator on the leadership style/CWB or leadership style and other dependent organizational variables.

Convergence between Self and Coworker Reports

Correlations between the two leadership reports showed moderate to high agreement between sources (see table 6). Active management by exception revealed the lowest between-source correlation ($r = .27$); this could be because supervisors don't keep track of all subordinates' mistakes equally. Perhaps a low-performing subordinate receives more of this type of negative attention than a better performing subordinate. Therefore, this may reflect actual differences in leader behavior. Oddly, the highest inter-source agreement coefficient was for attributed idealized influence ($r = .57$). This factor, measuring a sort of esoteric respectability factor, was easiest for two co-workers to agree on. Passive management by exception and inspirational motivation were the second highest correlations at ($r = .51$). It seems that co-workers came to reasonable agreement regarding how indecisive and unhelpful the leader is and how articulately the leader spells out a vision for the organization.

Limitations

Limitations of this study include the single source for CWB data. Although respondents would be the experts on which CWBs they engage in or do not engage in, there has been concern that they may be motivated to lie or misremember for social desirability purposes. Previous research tends to find good inter-source agreement for co-worker or supervisor reports of CWB (e.g. Goh et al., 2003; Bruk, 2003), and there is the question of when the sources disagree, who is more accurate? While respondents may be motivated to deflate their estimates of their own CWB, co-workers may not

notice all of the respondents' CWBs and/or may be motivated to inflate or deflate their estimates of the respondent's CWB depending on their opinion of the respondent.

Further limitations are the cross-sectional design of the study. This could be problematic since respondents indicated what they thought of their supervisors, how they felt about work, and how much CWB they engaged in all at the same point in time. Reactivity could have occurred if respondents guessed that bad feelings should go with conflict, constraints, and unfairness at work. Or, respondents could have been primed to feel badly (or good as the case may be) after thinking of all the things wrong with their jobs. A longitudinal design for CWB could offer more support for the findings in this and other CWB studies. Part of the concern about single source, single time data was addressed by having a co-worker fill out the leadership questionnaire. Findings with this additional measure were somewhat supportive of findings with only the participant report data.

A final limitation of this study is that the co-worker questionnaires were based on a sample size of 116 rather than the full participant sample of 172. This is a very large decrement in sample size from which to conduct analyses and many of the correlations could have been attenuated because of this. It was not possible to tell if the small sample size was responsible for the lack of findings with co-worker reported transformational leadership or if it was just differential perspectives between sources, but source agreement correlations would tend to implement the reduced sample size in the problem.

Conclusions

The major findings of this study suggest that good leaders are those who lead by example, pay attention to individual people, and who respond to problems quickly, decisively, and ably. This is an over-simplification, but worth remembering, and also worth further study using different dependent variables (e.g. organizational productivity, customer satisfaction, subordinate reactions) and a different theoretical perspective than the work stress angle presented here.

In short, this study provided good support for the inclusion of transactional and transformational leadership style as a stressor in the job-stress/emotion/CWB model. The strongest support was found for including laissez faire, passive management by exception, attributed idealized influence, and individualized consideration as variables in the model. It also provided a point from which to start in examining which leader behaviors are important to how an employee feels about his or her job and to his or her willingness to participate in CWB. More research should examine other kinds of leader behaviors with respect to these outcomes.

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The following questions ask about situations and conditions in your workplace. For each statement indicate how often it occurs on your present job.

How often do you find it difficult or impossible to do your job because of ... ?

1=Never 2=Once or twice 3=Once or twice per month 4=Once or twice per week
5=Every day

Poor equipment or supplies.	1	2	3	4	5
1. Organizational rules and procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Other employees.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Your supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Lack of equipment or supplies.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Inadequate training.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Interruptions by other people.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Lack of necessary information about what to do or how to do it.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Conflicting job demands.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Inadequate help from others.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Incorrect instructions.	1	2	3	4	5

The purpose of this section is to examine your perceptions about **workplace equity**. In answering the following questions, think about the day-to-day decisions made about worker responsibilities, schedules, rewards, and general treatment on your present job. For each statement, indicate your AGREEMENT or DISAGREEMENT:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|
| 1 = Strongly disagree | 5 = Slightly agree |
| 2 = Disagree | 6 = Agree |
| 3 = Slightly disagree | 7 = Strongly agree |
| 4 = Neither disagree or agree | |

When decisions about other employees in general or you in particular are made in this company...

11. requests for clarification and additional information are allowed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. you are treated with respect and dignity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13.you are dealt with in a truthful manner.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14.all the sides affected by the decisions are represented.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15.the decisions are applied with consistency to the parties affected.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16.you are offered adequate justification for the decisions.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17.accurate information upon which the decisions are based is collected.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18.complete information upon which the decisions are based is collected.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19.opportunities are provided to appeal or challenge the decisions.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20.you are treated with kindness and consideration.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21.you are shown concern for your rights as an employee.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22.you are helped to understand the reasons for the decision.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

For the next set of questions, please use the following choices:

1 = Very unfairly 2 = Unfairly 3 = Undecided 4 = Fairly 5 = Very fairly

To what extent are you fairly rewarded...

23.considering the responsibilities that you have.	1 2 3 4 5
24.taking into account the amount of education and training you have had.	1 2 3 4 5
25.in view of the amount of experience that you have.	1 2 3 4 5
26.for the amount of effort that you put forth.	1 2 3 4 5
27.for the work that you have done well.	1 2 3 4 5
28.for the stresses and strains of your job.	1 2 3 4 5

In your present job, how often do you have to ask permission...

1 = Never

2 = Rarely

3 = Sometimes

4 = Quite often

5 = Extremely often or always

29.... to take a rest break?	1	2	3	4	5
30.... to take a lunch/meal break?	1	2	3	4	5
31.... to leave early for the day?	1	2	3	4	5
32.... to change the hours you work?	1	2	3	4	5
33.... to leave your office or work station?	1	2	3	4	5
34.... to come late to work?	1	2	3	4	5
35.... to take time off?	1	2	3	4	5

Below are a number of statements that describe different emotions that a job can make a person feel.

Please indicate **how often any part of your present job (e.g., the work, co-workers, supervisor, clients, pay) has made you feel** the listed emotion, by circling the appropriate response, using the following choices.

1=Never 2=Once or twice 3=Once or twice per month 4=Once or twice per week
5=Every day

36.My job made me feel angry.	1	2	3	4	5
37.My job made me feel anxious.	1	2	3	4	5
38.My job made me feel at ease.	1	2	3	4	5
39.My job made me feel bored.	1	2	3	4	5
40.My job made me feel calm.	1	2	3	4	5
41.My job made me feel content.	1	2	3	4	5
42.My job made me feel depressed.	1	2	3	4	5
43.My job made me feel discouraged.	1	2	3	4	5
44.My job made me feel disgusted.	1	2	3	4	5
45.My job made me feel ecstatic.	1	2	3	4	5
46.My job made me feel energetic.	1	2	3	4	5
47.My job made me feel enthusiastic.	1	2	3	4	5

48. My job made me feel excited.	1	2	3	4	5
49. My job made me feel fatigued.	1	2	3	4	5
50. My job made me feel frightened.	1	2	3	4	5
51. My job made me feel furious.	1	2	3	4	5
52. My job made me feel gloomy.	1	2	3	4	5
53. My job made me feel inspired.	1	2	3	4	5
54. My job made me feel relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5
55. My job made me feel satisfied.	1	2	3	4	5

Modified Interpersonal Conflict at Work Scales for Employees

The following questions ask about your interpersonal relationships in your workplace. Please mark the number for each question that best indicates how often the following events occur in your present job with your supervisor or with coworkers, respectively.

- 1 = Never
- 2 = Once or Twice
- 3 = Once or Twice a Month
- 4 = Once or Twice a Week
- 5 = Every Day

1. How often do you get into arguments with your <i>supervisor</i> ?	1	2	3	4	5
2. How often does your <i>supervisor</i> yell at you at work?	1	2	3	4	5
3. How often is your <i>supervisor</i> rude to you at work?	1	2	3	4	5
4. How often does your <i>supervisor</i> do nasty things to you at work?	1	2	3	4	5

1. How often do you get into arguments	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

- with your *coworkers*?
2. How often do your *coworkers* yell at you at work? 1 2 3 4 5
3. How often are your *coworkers* rude to you at work? 1 2 3 4 5
4. How often do your *coworkers* do nasty things to you at work? 1 2 3 4 5

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

1=Never 2=Once or twice 3=Once or twice per month 4=Once or twice per week
5=Every day

56.Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies	1	2	3	4	5
57.Daydreamed rather than did your work	1	2	3	4	5
58.Complained about insignificant things at work	1	2	3	4	5
59.Told people outside the job what a lousy place you work for	1	2	3	4	5
60.Purposely did your work incorrectly	1	2	3	4	5
61.Came to work late without permission	1	2	3	4	5
62.Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't	1	2	3	4	5
63.Purposely damaged a piece of equipment or property	1	2	3	4	5
64.Purposely dirtied or littered your place of work	1	2	3	4	5
65.Stolen something belonging to your employer	1	2	3	4	5

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

1=Never 2=Once or twice 3=Once or twice per month 4=Once or twice per week
5=Every day

66. Started or continued a damaging or harmful rumor at work	1	2	3	4	5
67. Been nasty or rude to a client or customer	1	2	3	4	5
68. Purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done	1	2	3	4	5
69. Refused to take on an assignment when asked	1	2	3	4	5
70. Purposely came late to an appointment or meeting	1	2	3	4	5
71. Failed to report a problem so it would get worse	1	2	3	4	5
72. Taken a longer break than you were allowed to take	1	2	3	4	5
73. Purposely failed to follow instructions	1	2	3	4	5
74. Left work earlier than you were allowed to	1	2	3	4	5
75. Insulted someone about their job performance	1	2	3	4	5
76. Made fun of someone's personal life	1	2	3	4	5
77. Took supplies or tools home without permission	1	2	3	4	5
78. Tried to look busy while doing nothing	1	2	3	4	5
79. Put in to be paid for more hours than you worked	1	2	3	4	5
80. Took money from your employer without permission	1	2	3	4	5
81. Ignored someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
82. Refused to help someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
83. Withheld needed information from someone at work	1	2	3	4	5

84.Purposely interfered with someone at work doing his/her job	1	2	3	4	5
85.Blamed someone at work for error you made	1	2	3	4	5
86.Started an argument with someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
87.Stole something belonging to someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
88.Verbally abused someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
89.Made an obscene gesture (the finger) to someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
90.Threatened someone at work with violence	1	2	3	4	5
91.Threatened someone at work, but not physically	1	2	3	4	5
77. Hid something so someone at work couldn't find it	1	2	3	4	5
78.Did something to make someone at work look bad	1	2	3	4	5
79.Played a mean prank to embarrass someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
80.Destroyed property belonging to someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
81.Looked at someone at work's private mail/property without permission	1	2	3	4	5
82.Hit or pushed someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
83.Insulted or made fun of someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
84.Avoided returning a phone call to someone you should at work	1	2	3	4	5