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# Determinants of Deviance in the Workplace: An Empirical Examination in Canada and Mexico

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A Thesis

in

the John Molson

School of Business

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at
Concordia University
Montreal, Quebec, Canada

August 2002

## ABSTRACT

Determinants of Deviance in the Workplace:
An Empirical Examination in Canada and Mexico

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Workplace deviance is becoming an increasingly important issue for organizations. Destructive deviant behaviors, such as theft, workplace aggression, and sabotage, can result in substantial economic and social costs for organizations. To date, employee deviance has generally been conceptualized as destructive. While deviant behavior may be harmful, employee deviance can be constructive and functional as well. Employees who engage in constructive deviance, such as innovative behaviors, can provide organizations with necessary creativity.

Despite the importance of understanding employee deviance, little is known on the determinants of employee deviant behavior. In this study, the determinants of both destructive and constructive deviance were investigated. The relationship between deviance and individual, job, organizational, and cultural factors were examined. Furthermore, it was proposed that the extent to which people feel confident in performing their roles would have an impact on the relationship between job factors and workplace deviance. It was hypothesized that role breadth self-efficacy (RBSE) both moderates and mediates the relationship between job autonomy and deviant behavior.

The hypotheses were tested using a total sample of employees (N=668) from two organizations in Canada (n= 240) and three organizations in Mexico (n= 428). While self-reports of the employee were used as the primary source of data, the co-workers' perspective was also utilized to complement the research findings. The results of the study generally show support for the hypotheses relating to individual, job, and organizational factors. While RBSE mediated the relationship between job autonomy and innovative organizational constructive deviance in the total sample, the mediation model for destructive deviance was not supported. Similarly, the results suggested that RBSE moderated the relationship between job autonomy and constructive deviance but not destructive deviance in the total sample. While many of the hypothesized relationships were similar across cultures, country-specific differences in Canada and Mexico were also observed.

By identifying the major factors relating to employee deviance, this study attempted to increase our understanding of the determinants of both destructive and constructive deviance. The findings can provide managers with new insights in finding ways to prevent destructive deviant behaviors, such as petty theft, and to enhance constructive deviant behaviors, such as role innovation. Future research directions are also discussed.

## DEDICATION

For my parents.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am grateful to a number of people who have guided and supported me throughout the dissertation process. Most importantly, I would like to thank my dissertation committee: Dr. Muhammed Jamal (Dissertation Supervisor), Dr. Gary Johns, Dr. V.V. Baba, and Dr. Alfred Jaeger. Dr. Jamal has provided me with valuable advice and suggestions during the dissertation. His encouragement and confidence in me is greatly appreciated. Drs. Johns and Baba were also instrumental during my studies. I would like to thank Dr. Johns for always being available and helping me during all the stages of this research. His invaluable feedback has played a central role in the advancement of the dissertation. I also wish to express special thanks to Dr. Baba for his commitment throughout the process. His critical perspective and constructive comments were essential in the conceptual development of this research. I thank Dr. Jaeger for his valuable insights and prompt feedback on earlier versions of the thesis. Thanks are also due to Dr. Terri Lituchy and Dr. Rabi Kanungo for their guidance during the earlier stages of the programme.

I would like to thank Dr. Stéphane Brutus and Dr. Kai Lamertz for their helpful comments in the development of the constructive deviance measure. Thanks are also due to Dr. Kamal Argheyd, the chairperson of the management department, and Ms. Wela Dohmen and Ms. Shirley Masterson for their support. I

wish to thank the Center for Instructional Technology for their help and advice. Special thanks go to Ms. Heather Thomson and Ms. Theresa Wadey for their support.

Moreover, I am grateful to those who helped me during various stages of the research. Thanks to Vanessa Guttman and Jonathan Goodman for their assistance in gaining access to certain pharmaceutical companies. I also wish to thank Luc Bourgie, Arturo Rubalcava, and Carlos Kovalski for their help in translating the materials. Special thanks to my friend, Louise Tourigny, for her help in the translation and construction of the questionnaire. I would also like to thank Miguel and Claudia Carrillo for being such good friends and for making me feel part of the family during my stay in Mexico. I also wish to thank Zied Guedri for his friendship and help in preventing EQS from turning green during the analyses. Thanks to Dr. Jerry Tomberlin, Skander Lazrak, and Maria Kalamas for their help in data analysis.

During the programme, I have been very fortunate to develop friendships with many people - - Helena Addae, Henry Adobor, Mohamed Ayadi, Ali Daneshfar, Maria Kalamas, Kevin Laframboise, Skander Lazrak, Elie Matta, Filotheos Ntalianis, Frank Pons, Usman Raja, Susan Reid, Lefa Teng, and Theodora Welch. I especially wish to thank Helena, Louise, Maria, Suzie, and Theo for making the journey so much more special. I will also miss the stimulating intellectual conversations with Helena and Louise.

Finally, I wish to thank my mother, father, and sister, Ilana. I am especially grateful to my parents for making the completion of my doctoral studies possible. I am infinitely thankful for their moral and material support. My parent's love and encouragement have been instrumental in realizing my academic dream. I would also like to thank my dear friend, Rhonda Berkowitz, who has been like a sister to me during the process. I am grateful for Rhonda's support and encouragement. Special thanks for staying up until wee hours of the night to seal hundreds of questionnaires.

No one can possibly achieve any real and lasting success or get rich in business by being a conformist.

*J. Paul Getty, Founder of Getty Oil*

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# CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION

Workplace deviance is becoming an increasingly important issue for organizations. The prevalence of destructive and harmful behaviors is surprisingly common in the workplace. Approximately 70% of employees have engaged in some form of destructive deviant behavior such as losing their temper at work (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Furthermore, it is estimated that annually more than two million people become victims of work-related crimes (Kondrasuk, Moore, & Wang, 2001).

Destructive deviant behaviors can result in substantial economic and social costs for organizations. According to the National Safe Workplace Institute, dysfunctional workplace behaviors can cost organizations approximately 4.2 billion U.S. dollars in lost productivity and legal expenses. Other costs include tarnished reputations and weakened employee morale (Filipczak, 1993).

To date, employee deviance has generally been conceptualized as destructive. While deviant behavior may be harmful, employee deviance may be functional and constructive as well. Employees who voluntarily violate the organizational norms may be important sources of innovation and entrepreneurship. Employees who engage in nonconforming behaviors, such as champions of innovations or corporate entrepreneurs, can contribute to the innovation process and competitive advantage of organizations (Howell &

Higgins, 1990; Howell, Shea, & Higgins, 1998). Organizations which are unable to tolerate deviation are often unable to adapt, and consequently are more likely to fail (Dehler & Welsh, 1998).

Moreover, with the increased globalization, it is important to examine workplace deviance in different cultures. Specifically, with the creation of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) between Canada, the United States, and Mexico, trade barriers, tariffs, and import and export quotas are in the process of being eliminated. Due to the increased trade opportunities between Canada and Mexico, a greater understanding of the employee workplace deviance in these two countries is needed. The main purpose of this study is therefore to examine the determinants of both destructive and constructive employee deviance. The relationship between individual, job, organizational, and cultural factors and workplace deviance is examined in Canada and Mexico.

Despite the importance of workplace deviance, our understanding of the determinants of employee deviance remains limited. Only a few studies have examined the antecedents of destructive workplace deviant behavior. In addition, the majority of those studies that have examined the determinants of destructive deviant behaviors have focused on a limited scope of behaviors such as theft (Greenberg, 1993), unethical decision-making (Treviño & Youngblood, 1990), and workplace aggression (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Glomb, 1999). With a few exceptions (Hollinger, Slora, & Terris, 1992; Robinson & Bennett, 1997), some attempts have been made to integrate the specific destructive deviant behaviors

into a theoretical framework that examines destructive deviant behavior as a broader phenomenon.

Furthermore, there are even fewer studies that have examined constructive deviant behaviors. The workplace deviance literature has largely viewed deviance as destructive and antisocial. However, this perspective provides an incomplete view of employee deviance. Employee deviance may not always be harmful to the organization. Employees who engage in discrepant behaviors, such as innovative behaviors and whistle-blowing, may contribute to the overall well-being of the organization (Dehler & Welsh, 1998). Since the literature has generally conceptualized workplace deviance as destructive, there is a need to examine the determinants of both destructive and constructive deviant behaviors.

Finally, while several theorists have stressed the role of cultural variables in understanding workplace deviance (e.g., Beugré, 1998; Simpson, Paternoster, & Piquero, 1998), there has been little or no research on the influence of cultural factors on employee deviant behavior. Furthermore, the majority of the research on deviance has been conducted in developed countries, such as the United States and England. Since the deviance literature has not empirically examined the influence of culture, our understanding of the relationship between cultural factors and workplace deviance remains limited. Given that research on workplace deviance has focused on developed countries, little is known on the factors related to workplace deviance in developing countries.

This study attempts to address the weaknesses in the workplace deviance literature. First, this research examines a wider range of destructive deviant workplace behaviors rather than specific destructive deviant behaviors, such as theft or sexual harassment. Focusing on a broader range of destructive deviant behaviors may provide us with a more comprehensive understanding of destructive deviance. Moreover, Robinson and Bennett (1997) argue that examining a wider range of deviant behaviors will increase our ability to predict workplace deviant behavior.

In addition, a conceptualization of deviance as both destructive or dysfunctional, as well as constructive or functional is presented. Unlike the majority of the literature in workplace deviance, this study argues that deviance may play a constructive role in enhancing the organization's well-being. For example, employees who engage in constructive deviant behavior, such as innovative behavior, may increase the organization's competitive advantage. By conceptualizing deviance as constructive and destructive, one is able to gain a more complex and complete understanding of workplace deviance.

Building upon Messner's (1982) cultural theory of deviance and control theories of deviance (Hirschi, 1969) in the sociological literature, the relationship between workplace deviance and individualism/collectivism, a cultural variable, is examined. Sociological control theories of deviance posit that individuals will engage in deviance when their bond to society is weakened or broken (Hirschi, 1969). When a person's attachments to a group are weakened, one becomes less

sensitive to other people's opinions, and consequently will engage in behaviors that deviate from the norm (Durkheim, 1951). Classic sociological theorists, such as Weber and Durkheim, have argued that as a society becomes more industrialized, people's bonds become weakened. Since industrial capitalist societies are based on a culture of competition that stresses personal gain, members of industrial cultures view themselves as autonomous actors whose individual interests are more important than the collective needs of the society (Coleman & Ramos, 1998). Sociologists have posited that this greater sense of individualism can lead to increased deviance (Groves, McCleary, & Newman, 1985).

Messner's (1982) theory of cultural deviance further builds upon the work of Durkheim by stressing the role of culture. Unlike the Durkheimian approach which deemphasizes the role of culture, Messner argues that cultural processes, such as cultural values and norms, mediate the relationship between societal development and deviance. Although Messner places importance on the role of cultural processes, his approach is somewhat limited in that he uses educational level as an indicator of individualist value orientation. While countries high on individualism generally have higher educational levels, it is important to distinguish the cultural dimension of individualism from educational attainment. Despite its limitations, Messner's (1982) theory of cultural deviance provides us with a theoretical framework to understand deviance across cultures.

Jaeger and Kanungo (1990) argue the importance of taking a cultural perspective when examining employee behavior in a managerial context. By using cultural dimensions, such as individualism/collectivism, it is possible to identify how management behaviors differ across developed and developing countries (Jaeger, 1990). A greater understanding of the differences between developed and developing countries can provide us with insights into cultural aspects of appropriate indigenous management.

In an attempt to gain a better understanding of the relationship between cultural factors and deviance, the relationship between individualism/collectivism and employee deviant behavior is examined in Canada and Mexico, developed and developing countries, respectively. Although there are a number of cultural dimensions that have been used to compare countries, research suggests that the individualism/collectivism dimension is a fundamental dimension that differentiates cultures (Earley, 1993; Hofstede, 1980).

A secondary aim is to examine whether role breadth self-efficacy (RBSE) or the extent to which people feel confident in performing broader roles plays an important part in the relationship between job factors and workplace deviance. The construct of role breadth self-efficacy emphasizes the extent to which people are confident in performing broader and more proactive roles (Parker, 1998). In order for employees to perform broader roles, it is important that they feel confident in their abilities.

Similar to the construct of self-efficacy which relates to an individual's judgements of their capability to perform specific tasks (Bandura, 1986), RBSE focuses on people's perceptions that they are able to perform these tasks and not on whether they are allowed to or actually perform the tasks. However, unlike self-efficacy which is a judgement of a particular task capability (Brockner, 1988), RBSE relates to an expanded and proactive performance expectations of organizations.

Since self-efficacy is an important motivational construct, it is argued that RBSE mediates and moderates the relationship between job autonomy and workplace deviance. In line with James and Brett (1984) who state that a particular variable may have both mediator and motivator effects in the same model, prior research has examined both the mediating and moderating role of self-efficacy in the same sample (Jex & Gudanowski, 1992; Speier & Frese, 1997).

Based on the literature, the following research questions are posed: (1) How do individual, job, organizational, and cultural factors influence employee deviance? And, (2) Will RSBE mediate and moderate the relationship job autonomy and workplace deviance? An increased understanding of the major factors related to employee deviance can provide new insights in finding ways to prevent destructive deviant behaviors, such as theft and workplace aggression, and enhance constructive deviant behaviors, such as role innovation.

In sum, despite the increasing importance of workplace deviance, relatively few empirical studies have investigated the determinants of deviant behavior.

Furthermore, the majority of research has conceptualized deviant behavior as destructive acts that threaten the well-being of the organization. While deviant behavior may be harmful, employee deviance can also be an important source of organizational innovation. In this study, the determinants of workplace deviance are examined in Canada and Mexico.

In this chapter, a brief introduction to the topic was presented. In addition, the importance and rationale of the study, as well as the research objectives were discussed. In Chapter Two, an overview of the pertinent literature that guides this study will be presented. Chapter Three provides the theoretical rationale underlying the hypothesized relationships between workplace deviance and the individual, job, organizational, and cultural factors. In Chapter Four, the methodology that was employed in this study will be outlined. The results are presented in Chapter Five. Finally, Chapter Six presents theoretical and practical implications of this study. The limitations of the study and future research direction are also discussed.

# CHAPTER TWO

# LITERATURE REVIEW

Although the sociological, psychological, and management literatures have been interested in deviance, theoretical and empirical developments remain limited. In sociology, theories of deviance and delinquency have largely conceptualized deviance as dysfunctional and have focused on criminal behavior (Robinson & Bennett, 1997). While literatures in psychology and organizational behavior have conceptualized deviance as both destructive and constructive, deviance is largely viewed as destructive acts committed by malcontents.

In this study, employee deviance is defined as behavior that violates organizational norms. Organizational norms in this definition assume a managerial orientation about expectations of employee behaviors and focuses on violations of norms that apply across a broad spectrum of employees, rather than violations of norms around specific duties.

This definition is in line with the psychological definition of deviance that characterizes deviants as not obeying or conforming to social norms (Cohen, 1966) or individuals who are less likely to belong in a social network (Freedman & Doob, 1968). As noted by Bord (1976), by defining deviant behavior as behaviors that violate the norm, deviance can include both positive and negative aspects. While constructive deviance (e.g., innovative behaviors and whistle-blowing) may contribute to the overall well-being of the organization, destructive

deviance (e.g., theft and sabotage) may threaten the well-being of the organization. Given that both forms of deviance encompass behaviors that violate the organizational norms, the two forms of deviance are related to each other. Furthermore, employees who engage in constructive deviance can also engage destructive deviant behaviors because the two forms of deviance do not exclude each other.

Merton's (1957) framework of individuals' responses to societal and organizational goals provides a framework to better understand the relationship between destructive and constructive deviance. Individuals who do not accept the means and/or goals of the organization will deviate from the majority. The responses of innovators and rebels are similar in that both groups do not conform to the norms of the majority (Merton, 1957). Unlike rebels, innovators, however, strongly identify with the organizational goals. While innovators use deviant or unorthodox means to attain the goals, the behavior of the innovator or champion of innovation can be viewed as constructive deviance since the innovation is beneficial for the organization. Below, the constructs of destructive and constructive deviance are discussed. An overview of the literature on RBSE will then be presented.

## Destructive Deviance

The majority of the theoretical development on deviance has focused on destructive deviance. Workplace deviance has generally been used to describe the

following behaviors: antisocial behavior (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), workplace aggression (Baron & Neuman, 1996; O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996), organizational retaliation (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), and employee deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

According to Robinson and Bennett (1995, p. 556), employee deviance is defined as: "... voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both." Similarly, other approaches related to workplace deviance, such as antisocial behavior (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997) and workplace aggression (Baron & Neuman, 1996), refer to behaviors that cause harm to the organization.

Robinson and Bennett (1995) argue that destructive deviance includes minor forms of deviance such as absenteeism, lateness, gossiping, and leaving early, as well as more serious forms such as theft, sabotage, aggression, and verbal abuse. These two forms of behaviors can also be further broken down into two categories: (1) interpersonal deviance, behaviors that are directed toward other individuals; and, (2) organizational deviance, behaviors directed toward the organization (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Robinson and Bennett (1997) proposed a model of workplace deviance. According to their model, certain events, such as financial and social pressures, may provoke an employee to engage in deviant behaviors. In turn, these provocations will create a sense of disparity or outrage or both. Disparity is a cognitive state that occurs when a person realizes that the current condition is

discrepant with the past conditions or expectations. Outrage is an emotional state that is characterized when one experiences feelings of anger, frustration, or anxiety. The model states that these two states motivate an employee to engage in behaviors that are sometimes deviant. Since employees are constrained to engage in deviant behaviors, provocation will not necessarily lead to workplace deviance.

Some studies have examined the relationship between various forms of deviant behavior (e.g. theft, aggression, and sabotage) and emotional and cognitive states. Researchers have found anger to be related to sabotage, interpersonal aggression, and theft (Chen & Spector, 1992; Lewicki, Poland, Minton, & Sheppard, 1997), and organizational frustration to be related to interpersonal aggression, sabotage, and withdrawal (Spector, 1975; Storms & Spector, 1987). Studies have also shown a relationship between job dissatisfaction and theft, sabotage, and drug use (Chen & Spector, 1992; Magione & Quinn, 1974). In addition, perceptions of injustice have been found to be related to different forms of deviant behaviors, such as sabotage (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997; Jermier, 1988), aggressive behavior (Folger & Baron, 1996; Greenberg & Alge, 1998), and speaking untruthfully about the organization (DePaulo & DePaulo, 1989; Grover, 1997). More recently, research has shown that perceptions of injustice are related to workplace destructive deviance (Aquino, Bradfield, & Lewis, 1999). This is in line with Lee and Allen (2002) who found that job cognition, especially pay cognition, is an important predictor of destructive deviance.

Furthermore, research also suggests that employees who lack control over their work environment will engage in increased destructive deviance (Bennett, 1998; Hodson, 1991; Molstad, 1988). When employees lack control over their environment, they have a decreased sense of self-efficacy (Becker, 1977). Ashforth and Mael (1998) argue that employees will engage in workplace deviance when their personal identities are threatened by the organization. Employees who perceive threats to their social identity will resist by engaging in deviant behavior. In an attempt to regain their personal identity, employees will withdraw their effort, pursue alternative tasks and hide from work (Hodson, 1991).

Finally, there has been some research on the relationship between demographic variables and aggression, a form of deviant behavior. The aggression literature suggests that younger individuals are more likely to behave aggressively compared to older individuals (Harris, 1996; Stark & Flitcraft, 1988). Similarly, Sugarman and Hotaling (1989) found that rates of involvement in interpersonal violence were greater for younger people compared to older people.

Research on gender differences and aggression also suggest that men tend to behave more aggressively than women (Baron & Richardson, 1994; Harris, 1996; Latham & Perlow, 1996). Harris (1996) found that male students experienced more aggression than female students. Similarly, Beugré (1998) states that males reported more aggressive behavior in the workplace compared to females.

While the current conceptualizations of deviance increase our understanding of employee behavior, these frameworks remain limited in scope. Since employee deviance can also be constructive, it is important to examine both forms of deviance -- destructive and constructive deviant behaviors.

## Constructive Deviance

Based on the concepts of "creative individualism" (Schein, 1977), "productive nonconformity" (Pepinsky, 1961) and "opinion deviance" (Levine, 1980), Hanke and Saxberg (1985) introduced the concept of constructive deviance. Constructive deviance or the "breakdowns in the organization's control systems where employees use discrepant behaviors to advance organization's interests" can be beneficial to the organization (Dehler & Welsh, 1998, p.263). For example, constructive deviant behaviors may include behaviors that are unauthorized yet facilitate the organizational goals, such as innovative role behaviors, noncompliance with dysfunctional directives, and criticizing incompetent superiors (Ashforth & Mael, 1998). Similarly, employees who engage in discrepant behaviors, such whistle-blowing, may violate the present organizational norms but contribute to the overall well-being of the organization. In this view, whistle-blowers may be seen as reformers, whose change efforts are to benefit the organization (Graham, 1986; Near & Miceli, 1987).

Unlike destructive deviance, constructive deviance has a positive influence on increasing the diversity of group opinion rather than polarizing majority and

minority opinions (Hanke & Saxberg, 1985). Constructive deviants accept the most critical values and goals of the organization but conform selectively to the means to achieve the ends (Hanke & Saxberg, 1985). Dehler and Welsh (1998) argue that selective conformity is central to being a constructive deviant. According to Pepinsky (1961), individuals who do not always conform to the organization's norms are able to use discrepant cognitions or behaviors to the organization's advantage.

Employees who engage in productive or constructive forms of deviant behavior may integrate divergent viewpoints more effectively and provide organizations with the necessary creativity. For example, devil's advocacy, a form of opinion deviance, can play a role in effectively managing conflict. The conflict management literature has recognized that low levels of conflict may be as dysfunctional as high levels of conflict (Brown, 1983).

Similarly, the innovation literature suggests that newcomers, entrepreneurs, and other individuals who do not accept the norms of the majority can also be crucial sources of innovation (Dehler & Welsh, 1998; Kanter, 1988; Weick, 1979). Since innovation is the creation and exploitation of new ideas, the very nature of the innovation runs contrary to the current process that is held by the majority. For example, Dougherty and Heller (1994) found that the activities of product innovations in large and mature firms were even considered "illegitimate" because they violated the prevailing organizational norms.

Employees who display innovative behaviors can be considered constructive deviants because they engage in acts that initiate a process that depart from the organization's established routines or systems (Kanter, 1988). Product champions often encounter sharp resistance. Consequently, they must sometimes engage in unorthodox or deviant ways to break away from the current structure and create a new structure (Maidique, 1980).

The literature also suggests that people who have multiple reference groups and high status will more likely engage in constructive deviant behaviors (Hanke & Saxberg, 1985). Employees who have outside reference groups are more likely to identify a broad range of perspectives and integrate various viewpoints which will facilitate problem solving (Dehler & Welsh, 1998). Similarly, Kanter (1988) suggests that employee membership and interdependency in networks encourage the generation of innovative ideas.

In addition, employees who have high status will more likely obtain support for deviant perspectives (Hanke & Saxberg, 1985). The literature suggests that employees who belong to networks and have the support of their supervisors will develop a greater sense of status and personal power (Crozier, 1964; Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) state that personal power will lead to feelings of competence or confidence in their skills. The literature suggests that employees with greater self-efficacy will more likely persist. Since persistence is important in innovative behavior, it is expected that enhanced self-efficacy will be related to increased constructive deviance. Consequently,

employees with high self-efficacy may be more likely to engage in greater constructive deviance.

The innovation literature also suggests that there may be a relationship between demographic variables and innovative behavior. Unlike the literature on destructive deviant behavior, the role of age and gender has been less examined. A limited number of studies, however, suggest that men are more likely to be opinion leaders who engage in innovative behavior compared to women (Baldridge & Burnham, 1975). Research also suggests that compared to younger managers, older managers will be generally more risk averse, an important characteristic in innovative behavior, (Ettlie, 2000; Vroom & Pahl, 1971).

Given the increasing importance of innovation in today's environment (Kitchell, 1997), productive deviants can contribute to the overall well-being of organizations by developing innovative processes, products, and/or services. Dehler and Welsh (1998) note that organizations have generally not been very successful in developing innovations because of organizational conditions that discourage deviations. Bureaucratic and social strategies are designed to control work processes by increasing desired work behaviors and decreasing the potential for deviance. While tight controls may establish and maintain routines in organizations, the potential for discretionary task performance is lost. When control processes are in place, employees are less likely to define their work roles more broadly or engage in proactive roles beyond the traditional requirements.

The management literature has largely suggested the need for employees to develop broader and more proactive roles (Lawler, 1992; 1994; Parker, Mullarkey, & Jackson, 1994; Parker, Wall, & Jackson, 1997). Employees who embody broader roles feel ownership or responsibility for their job. In addition, they work beyond their immediate tasks and view the importance of acquiring and using an array of skills and knowledge (Parker et al., 1997).

Morrison (1994) argues that employees who possess the same job descriptions can differ in how broadly they define their job or the boundary between in-role and extra-role behavior. Employees who view their roles more narrowly will define most activities as extra-role behaviors. On the other hand, employees who define their roles more broadly will view more activities as in-role, and consequently perceive most behaviors typically seen as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) or behaviors exceeding job requirements, as part of their jobs. Research has shown that employees who broadly define their roles will be more likely to engage in OCB (Morrison, 1994; Taylor & Tepper, 1999).

Given the rapidly changing and competitive business environment, it is essential that employees define their work roles broadly (Buchanan & McCalman, 1989; Dean & Snell, 1991). Employees must be proactive, use initiative, possess interpersonal skills, and carry out activities that are integrative in nature (Albers-Mohrman & Cohen, 1995; Buchanan & McCalman, 1989; Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zemple, 1996; Parker et al., 1994). As stated above, employees who define their roles broadly will engage in behaviors that exceed the job requirements (Morrison,

1994; Taylor & Tepper, 1999). In addition, Kanter (1988) argues that broader jobs may encourage innovative behavior.

Lawler (1994) also stresses that organizations must train and develop their employees to perform in new and complex ways. The importance for employees to display innovative behaviors and acts that exceed job requirements is by no means a novel idea in the organizational sciences. Katz and Kahn (1966, p.337) argued that effective organizations must exhibit dependable role behaviors as well as "innovative and spontaneous behavior: performance beyond the role requirements for accomplishment of organizational functions".

While it is important for employees to define their work roles more broadly so that more innovative and extra-role behaviors will be performed, employees must be willing and able to engage in proactive role behaviors. In order for employees to define their work roles more broadly, employees must possess RBSE or the confidence to perform broader and proactive roles beyond the prescribed technical requirement (Parker, 1998). The construct of RBSE is discussed below.

## Role Breadth Self-Efficacy

Role breadth self-efficacy (RBSE) refers to the extent to which people feel confident that they are able to carry out a broader and more proactive set of work tasks that extend beyond prescribed technical requirements (Parker, 1998). The construct of RBSE is related but distinct from other constructs such as self-efficacy and proactive personality. As stated earlier, RBSE is similar to self-

efficacy. According to Bandura (1986), self-efficacy concerns the individual's judgements of their capability to perform specific tasks. In line with Bandura's (1986) definition of self-efficacy, RBSE focuses on people's perceptions that they are able to perform these tasks rather than how they actually perform the tasks. RBSE is distinct from self-efficacy in that RBSE refers to the degree to which employees feel capable of performing a broad range of proactive, interpersonal, and integrative tasks beyond the prescribed technical requirement (Parker, 1999) rather than a judgement of a particular task capability (Brockner, 1988).

Moreover, RBSE is also different from other constructs such as proactive personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993) and OCB (Organ, 1988). Unlike proactive personality which is a personal disposition that is relatively stable and unaffected by the environment, RBSE is partly shaped by one's personality and is influenced by the context. While RBSE is related to OCB in that both concepts stress the performance of broader roles, RBSE differs from OCB in the following ways. First, RBSE focuses on what people feel rather on what people do (i.e. behaviors). Second, RBSE stresses the proactive role of employees rather than the passive orientation of some aspects of OCB, such as compliance with procedures, and punctuality (George & Brief, 1992).

Although the construct of RBSE has been developed recently, research has shown that work design variables, such as job autonomy, decision-making influence, and job enlargement are related to RBSE (Parker, 1998; 1999). Moreover, Parker's (1998) longitudinal study showed that an increase in job

autonomy, decision-making influence, and quality of communication enhance RBSE.

While Parker and associates (Parker, 1998; Parker 1999; Parker & Sprigg, 1999) have examined the antecedents of RBSE, the relationship between RBSE and behavioral consequences has not been tested (Parker, 1999). Research on self-efficacy, however, has found self-efficacy to be related to increased job performance (Barling & Beattie, 1983; Orpen, 1995) and increased personal initiative, a form of extra-role behavior (Speier & Frese, 1997). Since the literature on self-efficacy has demonstrated that self-efficacy is related to behavior (Gist & Mitchell, 1992), it is possible that RBSE will enhance the performance of constructive behaviors. Employees with greater RBSE will more likely engage in constructive behaviors because they feel capable of performing a wide range of activities.

In addition, it is conceivable that RBSE is related to the performance of destructive behaviors. Although the relationship between RBSE and destructive deviant behavior has not been examined, research on self-efficacy has shown feelings of self-efficacy are related to absence, a form of destructive deviant behavior (Frayne & Latham, 1987; Latham & Frayne, 1989). As noted by Parker (1999), Jex and Bliese (1999) also found that army soldiers with high self-efficacy were less likely to behave negatively compared to those with low self-efficacy. When people perceive threats to their personal identities, they may be more likely to resist by engaging in destructive deviant behavior (Ashforth & Mael, 1998;

Hodson, 1991). In line with the above, it was expected that when employees feel capable of performing a wide range of activities, they would be less likely to engage in destructive behavior.

In sum, this chapter provided an overview of the literature in workplace deviance and RBSE. The constructs of destructive and constructive deviance were discussed in greater detail. In the next chapter, the theoretical framework of the research is presented, and the hypotheses are outlined.

# CHAPTER THREE

# THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE PRESENT RESEARCH

In this study, relationships between workplace deviance and individual, job, organizational, cultural factors are examined. Individual determinants, such as Machiavellianism, ethical orientation, and perceived justice, are expected to relate to deviant behavior. In addition, job and organization factors, such as autonomy, social structural characteristics, and leader supportiveness, are expected to relate to deviance. The relationship between individualism/collectivism and deviant behavior is also examined. Furthermore, a person's RBSE is expected to mediate and moderate the relationship between the job autonomy and deviant behavior. The theoretical models of the determinants of destructive and constructive deviance summarizing the predicted relationships are shown in Figures 1 and 2.

In this chapter, the expected relationship between destructive and constructive deviance is first discussed. The theoretical rationale underlying the hypothesized relationships then follows.

## The Relationship Between Destructive and Constructive Deviance

Based on the literature, it is anticipated that there will be a low to moderate positive relationship between destructive and constructive deviance.
It is expected that the two forms of deviance will be positively related to each other because destructive and constructive deviance both encompasses behaviors

that violate the organizational norms. However, since the two forms of deviance differ, the strength of the relationship between constructive and destructive deviance will be low to moderate. Unlike constructive deviance which comprises discrepant behaviors used to advance the organization's interests, destructive deviance encompasses behaviors that threaten the well-being of the organization.

## The Relationship Between Individual Factors and Deviance

The relationship between deviance and three individual factors: (1) Machiavellianism, a personality variable that is believed to predispose some individuals to engage in deviant behavior; (2) ethical orientation, a person's ethical judgement concerning a particular behavior; and (3) perceived injustice, a person's perceptions of fairness, is examined below.

### Machiavellianism

Based on Machiavelli's works *The Prince* (1513/1952) and *Discourses* (1931/1965), Christie and Geis (1970) developed the construct of Machiavellianism. Machiavellianism describes the disposition to view and treat individuals as objects to be manipulated in order to achieve a desired end. Geis (1978, p. 305) states that according to Machiavelli, a prince should "be prepared to take any action... that might be required to achieve his goals." In an attempt to obtain desired ends, a person with highly Machiavellian tendencies may use manipulative, persuasive, and deceitful behavior (Hunt & Chonko, 1984).

According to Christie and Geis (1970), a person high on Machiavellianism or a "High Mach": (1) views people as objects to be manipulated rather than showing affect and empathy; (2) is prone to using deceit and to engage in behaviors that are morally incorrect; (3) takes an instrumental and rational view of others; and, (4) uses tactics to achieve the ends rather than being inflexible in striving to an idealistic goal.

High Machs should not be viewed as individuals who consistently behave untruthfully or unethically (Gable & Dangello, 1994). Instead, individuals high on Machiavellianism are willing to behave in a less ethical manner in order to accomplish their objectives. Christie and Geis (1970) stressed that whether high Machs are amoral or immoral is not of major concern; instead the central idea is that high Machs possess an utilitarian rather than a moral perspective.

Research suggests that individuals high on Machiavellianism will be more likely to engage in destructive workplace deviance. Studies have shown that high Machs will be more likely to engage in cheating, lying, and manipulation (Cooper & Peterson, 1980; Fletcher, 1990; Flynn, Reichard, & Shane, 1987; Geis & Moon, 1981; Harrell & Hartnagel, 1976). In addition, research suggests that high Machs make less ethical decisions (Hegarty, 1995; Hegarty & Sims, 1978; 1979; Singhapakdi & Vitell, 1990).

Christie and Geis (1970) also found Machiavellianism to be more strongly related to hostility as opposed to personality variables, such as internal locus of control. Research suggests that hostility is related to aggression and workplace

aggression, a form of destructive deviance (Biaggio, Supplee, & Curtis, 1981; Glomb, 1999). Berkowitz (1993) argued that individuals who are "emotional reactive" (e.g. hostile) or easily offended will experience stronger negative reactions, such as anger. Consequently, one may expect individuals who have hostile negative reactions to be more motivated to engage in destructive deviant behavior (Robinson & Bennett, 1997). Based on the above, it is hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis 1: Machiavellianism is positively related to destructive deviance.**

Although Machiavellianism has typically been associated with evil and unethical behavior, a person high on Machiavellianism need not always behave in an untruthful or unethical manner (Gable & Dangello, 1994). Research suggests that Machiavellians may possess a "soft side" in their manipulative interactions with others (Drake, 1995; Leary, Knight, & Barnes, 1986). For example, Drake (1995) found that 56% of high Machs reported that they experience high guilt.

As stated above, a highly Machiavellian person may use manipulative, persuasive, and deceitful behavior to achieve desired ends (Hunt & Chonko, 1984). Bass, Barnett, and Brown (1999) argue that a high Mach's desired ends may be self-interest or the well-being of a community or nation. Similarly, Calhoun (1969) argues that a Machiavellian's desired end can be self-interest or the well-being of an organization. Calhoun (1969, p. 211), for example, describes Machiavellian employees as people who use "aggressive, manipulative,

exploiting, and devious moves in order to achieve personal and organizational objectives."

The innovation literature also describes champions of innovation as individuals who possess Machiavellian qualities. A number of case studies depict champions as aggressive people who use tactics to promote their ideas and acquire resources (Chakrabarti, 1974; Dougherty & Hardy, 1996, Schön, 1963). For example, Dougherty and Hardy (1996) illustrate how an innovator used a number of tactics, such as his staff position, reputation, and acquaintances to generate support for his project. Schön (1963, p. 84) states that a champion, "is capable of using any and every means of informal sales and pressure in order to succeed." In line with the case studies, Howell and Higgins' (1990) empirical study found champions use more influence attempts and utilize a wider range of tactics compared to nonchampions. These results are similar to research in Machiavellianism which suggests that high Machs use more tactics, manipulate others, and are more likely to test the limits and exploit situations in order to acquire more scarce resources (Christie & Geis, 1970; Schultz, 1993). Based on the above, it is hypothesized:

**Hypothesis 2: Machiavellianism is positively related to constructive deviance.**

**Ethical Orientation**

Ethical orientation or judgement is expected to be related to destructive deviant behavior. An individual's ethical judgement is the degree to which a person considers a particular behavior morally acceptable (Glifford & Norris, 1987; Reidenbach & Robin, 1990). Several models of unethical behavior, a form of workplace deviance, have included ethical judgements as a central construct (Dubinsky & Loken, 1989; Hunt & Vitell, 1986; Jones, 1991).

Research suggests that a person's ethical judgements are related to destructive workplace deviance. Studies have found that people were more likely to have intentions to perform a questionable action when they judged the action as acceptable (Bass et al., 1999; Dubinsky & Loken, 1989). While the relationship between ethical judgements and behavioral intentions has been examined, there has been little or no research on the relationship between ethical judgements and behavior. Barnett, Bass, and Barnett (1996) state that it is important to focus on the actual behavior rather than just intentions.

A number of studies have examined the relationship between cognitive moral development (CMD) and behavior. Research has shown that CMD is negatively related to some forms of deviant behavior, such as cheating (Malinowski & Smith, 1985), and positively related to ethical decision-making (Treviño & Youngblood, 1990) and moral behavior (Blasi, 1980). While measures of cognitive development (Kohlberg, 1976; Rest, 1986) have been central in understanding destructive deviant behavior, such as unethical decision-making,

Cohen, Pant, and Sharp (1998) state that a person's moral reasoning only provides us with a limited explanation of ethical decision-making. Cohen, Pant, and Sharp (1996) suggest that measures of ethical judgement should be used to understand behavior. Based on the literature, it is hypothesized that people who view questionable actions as less ethical will less likely engage in destructive deviant behavior. The following hypothesis is presented:

**Hypothesis 3: A high ethical orientation is negatively related to destructive deviance.**

The final individual-level determinant of deviance, justice perceptions, is expected to be related to destructive deviant behavior. According to theories of relative deprivation (Crosby, 1984; Folger, Rosenfeld, & Robinson, 1983), when employees perceive outcomes as unfair, they will feel dissatisfaction. In turn, they will react either by changing their behavior to restore equity or by seeking change in the system. However, if employees feel that they are unable to change the system, they may inflict punishment on the parties who are held most responsible for violating justice (Fisher & Baron, 1982; Greenberg, 1990). In line with the above theories, research has shown that perceptions of injustice which are associated to evaluations of outcome fairness are related to theft and vandalism (Fisher & Baron, 1982; Greenberg, 1990), forms of deviant behaviors.

Organizational justice perceptions can also include judgements about procedures or the way the allocation decisions were made (Lind & Tyler, 1988)

and the quality of interpersonal treatment received from a decision maker during the enactment of organizational procedures (Bies & Moag, 1986; Tyler & Bies, 1990). The literature suggests that employees who are dissatisfied with the fairness of procedures and the manner in which they are treated will more likely engage in deviant behaviors. More recently, Aquino and his colleagues (Aquino, Bradfield & Lewis, 1999) have found that justice perceptions are related to workplace destructive deviance. Based on the above,

**Hypothesis 4: Perceived justice is negatively related to destructive deviance.**

## The Relationship Between Situational Factors and Deviance

Researchers have largely viewed the individual as the primary explanation of deviant behavior. Consequently, personal factors rather than contextual factors have been the primary focus of many studies (Bennett, 1998). In an attempt to increase our understanding of the situational determinants of deviant behavior, this study examines the relationship between employee deviance and job autonomy, social structural characteristics, and leader supportiveness.

### Job Autonomy

Autonomy is the degree to which the job provides the employee with freedom and independence in scheduling activities and deciding on work procedures (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The literature suggests that when

individuals do not have control over their work environment, they will engage in greater destructive deviant behavior (Ashforth, 1997; Bennett, 1998). When employees have jobs with little autonomy and do not participate in decision-making, they lack control over their environment (Bennett, 1998).

Reactance theory posits that when individuals perceive a loss of control, they will react by restoring control and expressing hostility (Brehm, 1966). Bennett (1998) states that a person's motivations to restore control and express hostility, which result from the perceived loss of control, will lead to employee destructive deviance. By engaging in destructive deviant behavior, employees may gain a sense of control.

In line with reactance theory, research has shown that desires for control are related to rule breaking, criticizing, reduced productivity, and aggressive behaviors, all of which are forms of destructive deviant behaviors (Ashforth, 1989). Ethnographic studies have shown that a lack of autonomy is related to withholding effort (Molstad, 1988), increased sabotage, gossiping (Hodson, 1991), and taking undeserved breaks (Morgan, 1975). For example, Molstad (1988) found that in an attempt to gain control over their work and manipulate their situation, employees engaged in control strategies such as, slowing production down, appearing to be busy, and disappearing in the process. Consequently, when employees have jobs which provide them with freedom in scheduling activities and deciding on the work procedures, it is likely that they will engage in less destructive deviant behavior. More recently, Bennett's (1998) empirical study

found that perceived lack of control is positively related to destructive deviance. Based on the above, it follows:

**Hypothesis 5: Job autonomy is negatively related to destructive deviance.**

Moreover, research suggests that RBSE plays an important role in understanding the relationship between autonomy and destructive deviance. Primarily based on the self-efficacy literature, the mediating and moderating effects of RBSE are explored. As stated earlier, James and Brett (1984) state that a particular variable may have both mediator and moderator effects in the same model. First, RBSE is conceptualized as a mediating variable in the relation between job autonomy and deviance. The mediator function of RBSE links job autonomy to deviance. It is hypothesized that job autonomy has a direct effect on RBSE, and RBSE will have a direct effect on deviance. Second, RBSE is conceptualized as a moderator. According to the moderator model, the relation between job autonomy and deviance will be influenced by the level of RBSE. The relationship between job autonomy and deviance will vary based on a person's degree of RBSE. The process underlying these relations will be discussed in the section below.

**Mediating effect of RBSE on Destructive Deviance.** Research has shown that greater job autonomy is related to increased RBSE (Parker; 1998; 1999).

When employees have the autonomy over scheduling and deciding over work procedures, employees will not only have the opportunity to successfully perform broader roles, they will have the confidence to perform broader and proactive roles (Parker, 1998).

De Charms (1983) argues that individuals have a need to control their environment. In the organizational context, personal control over one's job and participation in decision-making is important for employees (Ashforth, 1989; Hespe & Wall, 1976). By having the freedom and responsibility to change the environment, people are able to gain a sense of control and self-efficacy (Becker, 1977; De Charms, 1983). Blauner (1964), for example, argues that when workers gain control over the labor processes, they are able to contribute to the meaning and purpose of work, which can become an important part of their personal identity.

Similarly, Bandura and his associates (Bandura, 1986; Bandura & Wood, 1989) argue that people with more autonomy or more personal control over their environment will have greater self-efficacy. Bandura (1982) suggests that four mechanisms may be responsible for developing self-efficacy: (1) enactive mastery or repeated performance; (2) modeling or observing role models; (3) verbal persuasion or realistic encouragement; and, (4) judgements of physiological states, which is less relevant in the development of RBSE (Parker, 1998). Parker (1998) states that increased job autonomy may be important in the development of RBSE because the participation in decision-making provides the job incumbent with

valuable experiences to master the task. Research has shown that enactive mastery is central in developing self-efficacy (Bandura, Adams, & Beyer, 1977).

This finding is in line with several studies that suggest a relationship between job autonomy and self-efficacy. In Buchanan and McCalman's (1989) case study, employees who participated in autonomous work groups developed a greater sense of self-efficacy. For example, an employee stated, "it (the implementation of autonomous work groups) has given me confidence in my own ability to learn new skills." In addition, Speier and Frese (1997) found that job control and complexity were related to self-efficacy. Empirical research has also shown that people become more proactive when job autonomy is enhanced (Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, & Tag, 1997; Parker et al., 1997).

It is proposed that employees who have more RBSE will, in turn, engage in less destructive deviant behaviors. The literature on self-efficacy suggests that self-efficacy influences a person's choices and emotional reactions (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). According to Bandura (1986), self-efficacy will affect self-regulatory processes which, in turn, influences behavior. More specifically, a number of researchers have stressed the role in self-efficacy in influencing a person's ability and willingness to exercise control, an important factor in self-regulation.

According to Litt (1988), self-efficacy may influence a person's willing to exercise control in a manner that will have a negative effect on behavior. An individual's degree of self-efficacy will determine how he or she will appraise the

situation and how much distress will be elicited (Litt, 1988). People with high self-efficacy will have confidence in their ability to exercise control and should have better behavioral outcomes compared to people with low self-efficacy (Litt, 1988). Consequently, it follows that employees with high self-efficacy will be less likely to engage in destructive deviant behaviors.

Research has also shown that feelings of self-efficacy are related to attendance behavior (Frayne & Latham, 1987; Latham & Frayne, 1989). Compared to those individuals with low self-efficacy for attendance, individuals with high self-efficacy for attendance were less likely to engage in absence, a form of destructive deviant behavior. These findings suggest that employees who have low self-efficacy will engage in destructive deviant behaviors. Although, Bennett (1998) states that self-efficacy plays a central role in a person's motivation to engage in destructive deviance, the relationship has not yet been tested.

In this study, it is proposed that RBSE will mediate the relationship between job autonomy and destructive deviance. It is expected that greater job autonomy will increase RBSE. The enhanced RBSE, in turn, may lead to decreased destructive deviance. Research on self-efficacy has found the mediating effect of self-efficacy on a number of outcomes. For example, Bandura's (1982) findings show that self-efficacy mediates the relationship between individual distress on performance. Jex and Gudanowski (1992) found collective efficacy or the group's ability to perform job-related behaviors mediated the relationship between situational constraints (e.g., job-related constraints) and satisfaction and

turnover intention. Feelings of dissatisfaction have been associated with dysfunctional behavior such as vandalism and theft (Mangione & Quinn, 1974). It follows that dissatisfied employees may be more likely to violate the norms of organization and engage in destructive deviance.

Furthermore, Strumpf, Brief, and Hartman (1987) state that lowered self-efficacy may lead to more emotional-focused coping, which is not as successful as problem-focused coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). One can argue that destructive deviant behavior may be a form of emotional-focused coping. As stated above, Robinson and Bennett (1997) argued that emotional states can motivate a person to engage in destructive deviance. Based on the research above, it is hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis 6: RBSE mediates the relationship between job autonomy and destructive deviance.**

**Moderating effect of RBSE on Destructive Deviance.** The literature also suggests that RBSE moderates the relationship between job autonomy and destructive deviance. Jex and Gudanowski (1992) argue that individuals or groups with low efficacy will perceive organizational stressors (e.g. situational constraints) as more threatening and exhibit more negative reactions compared to those with high efficacy. Jex and Gudanowski's (1992) results show that collective efficacy moderates the relationship between situational constraints, such as job-related factors, and frustration. Although Jex and Gudanowski (1992) did not find

any support for the moderating effect of self-efficacy, Jex and Bliese (1999) showed that people with high self-efficacy react less negatively in terms of psychological and physical strain to long hours and work overload compared to people with low self-efficacy. In addition, people with high self-efficacy responded more positively in terms of job satisfaction to high task significance compared to people with low self-efficacy.

The literature on locus of control also supports the perspective that perceived control, an important factor in self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982), influences the relationship between job factors and destructive deviance. Locus of control, a personality construct, refers to a person's beliefs about the sources of control over his or her actions (Rotter, 1966). People with an external locus of control have low levels of perceived control and believe that outside forces dictate what happens to them. On the other hand, people with an internal locus of control have high levels of perceived control and believe that they are responsible for their behaviors. Since people with an internal locus of control perceive they have control over their environment, they may have greater self-efficacy and consequently may react differently to situational factors compared to people with an external locus of control. Research suggests that locus of control moderates the relationship between organizational frustration (e.g. a job with little job control) and different forms of destructive deviance (Allen & Greenberger, 1980; Brissett & Norwicki, 1973; Storms & Spector, 1987).

In Storms and Spector's (1987) study, people with an external locus of control were more likely to engage in sabotage when they experienced organizational frustration compared to people with an internal locus of control. The findings complement those of Allen and Greenberger (1980) who found low levels of perceived control to be related to vandalism and concluded that people will engage in acts of destruction in an attempt to increase control over their environment.

Based on the arguments presented above, one would expect that people with high RBSE will engage in less destructive deviance when they have low job autonomy compared to people with low self-efficacy. The following hypothesis is presented:

**Hypothesis 7: RBSE moderates the relationship between job autonomy and destructive deviance in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for people with low RBSE than for people with high RBSE.**

In addition, the innovation literature suggests that autonomy may facilitate constructive deviant behavior (Galbraith, 1982; Kanter, 1988). Employees who have a high degree of autonomy are given the opportunity to deviate from the established routines and procedures. Van de Van (1986) states that individuals who use this opportunity to generate new ideas are engaging in idea generation, the commencement of the innovative process.

Kanter (1988) also argues that jobs that provide employees with little freedom discourage innovative behavior. When jobs are bounded by rules, employees are more likely to focus on a limited number of variables that are already known rather than thinking of new factors (Kanter, 1988). Employees who must follow detailed work procedures and activities usually become unaware of changes in the environment and the need for innovation.

This perspective is in line with the information processing perspective which argues cognitive processes can either be highly active conscious processes or more automatic processes that do not require monitoring (Lord & Maher, 1990; Lord & Smith, 1983). While automatic processing is rapid and requires less energy, individuals who engage in automatic processing rarely adapt to the demands of the environment (Humphrey & Ashforth, 1994). Consequently, it is likely that employees who engage in scripted behaviors will engage in less innovative constructive behaviors.

Although the relationship between job autonomy and innovative behavior has not been systematically examined, the literature suggests the importance of job autonomy. For example, Galbraith (1982, p. 23) states, "Idea generators and champions have a great deal of ownership in their ideas. They gain their satisfactions by having 'done it their way.' The intrinsic satisfaction comes from the ownership and autonomy." Similarly, Kanter and her colleagues (Kanter, 1977; Kanter & Stein, 1979) argue that when people feel powerless they become more conservative. Consequently, when employees have jobs that provide them

with freedom in scheduling activities and deciding on the work procedures, it is likely that they will engage in more constructive deviant behavior. It follows:

**Hypothesis 8: Job autonomy is positively related to constructive deviance.**

Research also suggests that RBSE plays a central role in understanding the relationship between job autonomy and constructive deviance. Below, the mediating and moderating effects of RBSE are explored.

**Mediating effect of RBSE on Constructive Deviance.** As stated above, Parker (1998; 1999) found greater job autonomy to be related to increased RBSE (Parker; 1998; 1999). When employees have the autonomy over scheduling and deciding over the work procedures, they will have the confidence to perform broader and proactive roles (Parker, 1998). These findings complement self-efficacy research which suggests that greater job autonomy may influence a person's self-efficacy and proactivity (Buchanan & McCalman, 1989; Speier & Frese, 1997; Frese et al., 1997; Parker et al., 1997).

When people have discretion in carrying out their work and modifying their environment, they gain a sense of self-efficacy (Becker, 1977). According to self-efficacy theory, people with high self-efficacy believe that they are good at a task and will, in turn, put more effort and persist longer than those individuals with low self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Furthermore, a person's

level of self-efficacy may also effect his or her creative use of capabilities (Bandura, 1986; Bandura & Wood, 1989).

In line with self-efficacy theory, the innovation literature describes champions of innovation as persistent and dedicated despite the frequent barriers and possible failures (Frohman, 1978; Schön, 1963). Although the relationship between RBSE and innovative behavior has not been systematically examined, the innovation literature suggests that individuals who have confidence in performing broader and proactive roles will more likely engage in innovative role behavior. In addition, studies on self-efficacy have shown that self-efficacy is positively related to job performance (Barling & Beattie, 1983; Orpen, 1995) and increased personal initiative, a form of extra-role behavior (Speier & Frese, 1997). Moreover, Savard and Rogers (1992) found that individuals with greater self-efficacy persisted longer in influencing others.

As noted above, research on self-efficacy has also examined the mediating effect of self-efficacy on a number of outcomes (Latham, Winters, & Locke, 1994; Speier & Frese, 1997). Speier and Frese (1997) argued that job control and complexity have a direct effect on self-efficacy. Self-efficacy, in turn, has a direct effect on personal initiative. Personal initiative is an active, self-starting and proactive approach to work that is characterized by persistence in the face of barriers (Speier & Frese, 1997). Speier and Frese (1997), however, found self-efficacy to partly mediate the relationship between job control and complexity and

personal initiative. Only some of the total effect of control and complexity on personal initiative was due to self-efficacy.

Based on the literature above, it is expected that RBSE will mediate the relationship between autonomy and constructive deviant behavior. Employees with low job autonomy will have low RBSE. Employees with low levels of RBSE, in turn, will engage in less constructive deviance. The following hypothesis is presented:

**Hypothesis 9: RBSE mediates the relationship between job autonomy and constructive deviance.**

**Moderating effect of RBSE on Constructive Deviance.** The literature on self-efficacy also suggests that RBSE may moderate the relationship between job autonomy and constructive deviance. As stated earlier, self-efficacy theory suggests that individuals with high self-efficacy will persist longer than individuals with low self-efficacy despite the presence of environmental constraints (Bandura, 1982; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Moreover, Speier and Frese (1997) argue that the relationship between work conditions and personal initiative is a function of self-efficacy. Although situational constraints may be present, since individuals with high self-efficacy assume that they will be able to influence the environment, they may show more personal initiative compared to individuals with low self-efficacy. In line with self-efficacy theory, research has shown that self-efficacy moderates the relationship between job control and personal initiative

(Speier & Frese, 1997). Based on the literature above, it is proposed that RBSE moderates the relationship between autonomy and constructive deviance. Hence,

**Hypothesis 10: RBSE moderates the relationship between job autonomy and constructive deviance in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for people with high RBSE than for people with low RBSE.**

**Social Structural Characteristics**

Social structure of the work context, such as sociopolitical support, access to information and resources, may have an influence on destructive deviant behavior. Sociopolitical support is defined as the endorsement, approval, or legitimacy received from various constituencies in organizational networks (Kanter, 1983).

Using Bandura's (1977) social learning theory, O'Leary-Kelly et al. (1996) argue that aggression, which is a destructive form of deviant behavior, is influenced by factors in the work environment. A social learning perspective suggests that people learn to respond in an aggressive manner to certain conditions through direct experience and imitation. According to Bandura (1973), people are most likely to behave aggressively when: (1) they watch others respond aggressively; (2) they receive inducements in the environment that reward aggressive behavior; and, (3) they have experienced aversive treatment, such as indirect conditions that threaten their goals. Specifically, employees who perceive

that that they receive little sociopolitical support, access to information, and resources will view the environment as aversive.

The literature has stressed the importance of social networks in providing employees with the key channels in accomplishing work and increased performance (Brass & Burkhardt, 1993; Ibarra, 1993). Individuals who belong to support networks have increased interdependencies with other members of their work group and thus have a greater sense of personal power (Crozier, 1964). This sense of personal power, in turn, leads to feelings of competence (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). As posited by goal setting theory, individuals with high expectancies in attaining their goals are more likely to achieve their goals compared to individuals with low expectancies (Locke & Latham, 1991). Consequently, it is expected that individuals with less sociopolitical support are faced with greater constraints in attaining their goals, and thus will be more likely to engage in deviant behavior. It follows,

**Hypothesis 11(a): Sociopolitical support is negatively related to destructive deviance.**

In addition, employees who have little access to information and resources will more likely perceive that they have experienced aversive treatment. Peters, O'Connor, and Rudolf (1980) state that situational constraints, such as lack of time, material, and information, are features in the environment that prevent employees from realizing their full performance. Employees who are faced with

constraints become frustrated because despite their motivation and ability to succeed, they are unable to perform well. Robinson and Bennett (1997) theorize that employees who experience a sense of frustration, an emotional state, will motivate an employee to engage in deviant behavior. Research has shown that perceived frustration is positively related to counterproductive behaviors such as aggression, sabotage, and hostility and complaining (Spector, 1975; Storms & Spector, 1987).

**Hypothesis 11(b): Access to information is negatively related to destructive deviance.**

**Hypothesis 11(c): Access to resources is negatively related to destructive deviance.**

The innovation literature has largely stressed the role of social structural characteristics in innovation. The majority of the studies, however, have focused on the organizational level of analysis (e.g., Damanpour, 1991). Although there is an increasing number of studies at the individual level of analysis (e.g. Howell & Higgins, 1990; Iberra, 1993), the influence of the work context on the individual remains largely anecdotal.

Researchers who have examined the relationship between social structural characteristics and the innovation process have stressed the importance of sociopolitical support, access to information and resources. According to network theorists, social ties and social processes, such as communication and cooperation,

play an important role in organizational effectiveness (Davis & Powell, 1992; Granovetter, 1985). It has been posited that networks with frequent interactions are more likely to promote in-depth, two-way communication and facilitate the exchange of detailed information between organizations (Granovetter, 1982). The literature suggests that this frequent interaction and exchange of information will encourage innovation. In a meta-analysis on organizational innovation, Damanpour (1991) found external and internal communication to be positively related to organizational innovation. It was argued that external communication, such as environmental scanning, can facilitate innovative ideas (Jervis, 1975), and internal communication can increase the dispersion of ideas and diversity which will facilitate cross-fertilization of ideas (Aiken & Hage, 1971).

While the majority of research on social networks has focused on the interorganizational levels of analysis, Ibarra (1993) states that influence of networks will likely have similar influence on innovative behavior at the intraorganizational level. Kanter (1988) argues that employees' membership and interdependency in social support networks encourage the generation of innovation ideas. Structural integration across disciplines and functions is important because the innovation process crosses boundaries. Researchers have found that "communication integration" or close connectedness through interpersonal communication in an organization is related to a higher innovation rate (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971; Tushman & Nadler, 1986). In addition, Ibarra (1993) found that a person's involvement in networks was significantly related to

their innovation involvement. Van de Ven (1986) states that when people and units are isolated, innovative idea generation is limited because there is a limited awareness of opportunity and alternate approaches. Consequently, it is expected that:

**Hypothesis 12(a): Sociopolitical support is positively related to constructive deviance.**

Furthermore, it is expected that the availability of information and resources will play an important role in innovative behavior. When people feel confident that they will have access to necessary information and resources, they are able to generate new ideas (Kanter, 1988). Kanter (1988) stresses that employees' innovative behavior is largely dependent on their expectations that the innovation will succeed. According to expectancy theory, people are motivated to perform in activities that will lead to positive consequences and those tasks that they believe can be accomplished (Vroom, 1964). For example, if an employee believes that there are insufficient resources to proceed with the innovative idea and it is likely that he or she will fail, the person will likely not engage in innovative behavior. Although studies have not directly examined the relationship between resource availability and innovative behavior, research has shown that organizations with more slack resources are more innovative (Damanpour, 1991).

**Hypothesis 12(b): Access to information is positively related to constructive deviance.**

**Hypothesis 12(c): Access to resources is positively related to constructive deviance.**

## Leader Supportiveness

Leader supportiveness will influence employee deviant behavior. Leaders who are supportive show interest in their employees' well-being, personal growth, and development. According to one aspect of the leader-member exchange theory, leaders develop different friendship with their followers on a dyadic basis (Graen & Uh-Bien, 1995). Managers will have low quality exchanges (lower-LMX) with some subordinates and high quality exchanges with others (higher-LMX).

Leaders have a central role in influencing their subordinates' behavior. For example, Ashour and Johns (1983) argue that as agents of rewards and punishment, leaders may affect their subordinates' behavior. Research has shown that employees with high LMX relationships with their managers are given greater status, latitude, support, and rewards and enjoy more reciprocal influence, mutual trust, and respect than lower LMX employees (Dansereau et al., 1975; Fairhurst, 1993).

It is expected that employees with higher LMX relationships will engage in less destructive deviance. Strain theory posits that people generally like to obey rules and feel morally obliged to conform to the rules of society (Hirschi, 1969).

However, if a person believes that he or she is unable to attain success by conforming to the rules, he or she will resort to deviant behavior in order to fulfill "legitimate desires" (Hirschi, 1969). Employees who have low quality exchanges with their managers may feel that they are unable to get support and attain rewards in the legitimate manner. Consequently, these employees will be more likely to break the rules and engage in destructive deviant behavior.

**Hypothesis 13: Leader supportiveness is negatively related to destructive deviance.**

Furthermore, it is posited that leader supportiveness is related to constructive deviant behavior. The innovation literature stresses the role of the supervisor as a coach or a mentor (Burgelman, 1984). While champions of innovation do not like to be closely supervised, it is essential for idea generators to receive help, advice, and support from a coach or mentor (Galbraith, 1982). Furthermore, employees with high LMX relationships are given greater status, latitude, reciprocal influence, mutual trust, and respect than lower LMX employees (Dansereau et al., 1975; Fairhurst, 1993). The innovation literature suggests that these factors play an important role in the innovation process. Employees who are given greater status will communicate more frequently and have greater influence on people (Kiesler & Sproull, 1992). Studies of innovation have shown the importance of supporters and friends in high places in successful innovations (Maidique, 1980; Quinn, 1979). Employees who have larger social

networks may be more successful in accumulating resources, which will increase their expectations for innovation. Moreover, employees who are trusted and respected by their supervisors are given greater latitude and flexibility which will facilitate innovative behavior.

**Hypothesis 14: Leader supportiveness is positively related to constructive deviance.**

## The Relationship Between Cultural Factors and Deviance

Finally, this study examines the relationship between cultural factors and deviance. Specifically, the link between individualism/collectivism and deviance is examined. While there are a number of cultural dimensions that may be used to describe cultures (e.g. power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity/femininity), individualism/collectivism was chosen to be used in this study. Research suggests that this dimension is central in differentiating cultures (Earley, 1993; Hofstede, 1980).

### Individualism

Individualism/collectivism is a cultural dimension that describes the worldviews that people use to construct and interpret reality (Wagner, 1999). At one end of the continuum, individualism is the tendency of people to look after themselves (Hofstede, 1980). Individualists prefer social independence, personal autonomy, and individualized pursuits (Triandis, 1995). At the other end,

collectivism is the tendency of people to belong to in-groups or collectives and to look after each other in exchange for loyalty (Hofstede, 1980). Collectivists prefer close interdependence and enduring group memberships and stress the well-being of the collective (Wagner & Moch, 1986). Research has shown that people from countries such as, Canada and the United States, have a more individualist orientation, while people from other countries, such as Mexico and Japan, have a more collectivist orientation (Hofstede, 1980). Although the literature generally supports the assertion that Canadians and Americans have a more individualist orientation compared to their Mexican counterparts, Markus and Kitayama (1991) argue that collectivist or interdependent views of the self are reflected in the values and activities of many subgroups in the United States. For example, religious groups, such as the Quakers, value interdependence and stress collectivist value orientations.

There has been little research on the role of cultural factors in deviant behavior. However, individualism/collectivism is an important cultural variable in understanding deviant behavior in the sociological literature. As discussed above, the sociological control theories of deviance posit that individuals will engage in deviance when their bond to society is weakened or broken (Hirschi, 1969).

Coleman and Ramos (1998) state that members of more industrial or modernized capitalist cultures view themselves as autonomous actors whose self-interests are more important than the collective needs of the society. Consistent with these theoretical assertions, research has found that wealthy countries are

more individualist compared to poorer countries (Hofstede, 1991). Hofstede (1991) found countries such as Canada and the United States scored high on both individualism and GDP, a common measure of economic modernization in the sociological literature (Groves et al., 1985). On the other hand, countries such as Mexico and Colombia scored low on both individualism and GDP (Hofstede, 1991).

Several sociologists have proposed that this greater sense of individualism will lead to increased destructive deviance (Shelley, 1985; Vincentnathan, 1985). Although the relationship between individualism and deviant behavior has not been tested directly at the national level, sociologists have argued that the societal development process leads to increased crime rates (Angell, 1974; Ferdinand, 1967). For example, reports suggest that developing countries have lower crime rates than developed countries (Secrétariat General de L'O.I.P.C., 1996; United Nations, 1981).

While societal development should be distinguished from the cultural orientation of individualism, sociologists have argued that economic prosperity has created a sense of competition and individualism (e.g., Vincentnathan , 1985). In turn, cultural values, such as individualism and competitive achievement, will tend to encourage crime (Simpson et al., 1998). Specifically, Vincentnathan (1985) states that the higher crime rates in the United States compared to India are explained by cultural values, such as individualism/collectivism. In the United States, the ultimate objective is to achieve economic success. The primary goal to

attain economic prosperity has created a sense of competition in the United States (Vincentnathan, 1985).

In India, the importance of non-material religious goals has contributed to group cohesion and contentment despite the limited economic opportunities (Lynch, 1979). Vincentnathan (1985) argues that this contentment is reflected in India's lower property crime rates (e.g., theft and fraud). However, in light of the economic development in India, the crime rates have increased. These findings are common in most countries that have become newly industrialized countries.

Although these findings appear to contradict the concerns of corruption and bribery in developing countries (Economist, 1995a; b), Steidlmeier (1999) argues that foreign cultures often misinterpret bribery and corruption with gift giving due to the unfamiliarity with cultural values. For example, foreigners will have difficulty differentiating between gift giving and corruption in China. The Chinese, on the other hand, will view gift giving as a sign of reciprocity and commitment between two parties due to their more collectivist culture. Since exchanging mutual gifts is a common practice, the Chinese are able to distinguish gifts from corruption (Kolenda, 1990; Steidlmeier, 1999). Specifically, the Chinese will condemn the bribery and corruption among governmental officials (Hao & Johnston, 1995; Kolenda, 1990) because it is viewed as unacceptable behavior.

In general, studies in ethics show that people from more individualist cultures will be more likely to engage in unethical behavior (Hegarty & Sims,

1979; Robertson & Fadil, 1999). In Lu, Rose, and Blodgett's (1999) study, sales agents from the United States, a more individualist culture, viewed ethical behavior more narrowly compared to sales agents from Taiwan, a more collectivist culture. Unlike the Taiwanese who considered a wider number of stakeholders (e.g., the company and peers) when making decisions, the Americans focused on whether customers were fairly treated. Since the direct relationship between culture and ethical behavior was not tested in the study, Lu et al. (1999) suggested that the sense of duty that is commonly felt in the collectivist Taiwanese culture might have discouraged the sales agent to engage in unethical behavior. On the other hand, the narrow perspective of the individualist American culture may have increased unethical behavior among the American agents. Based on the literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

**Hypothesis 15: Individualism is positively related to destructive deviance.**

Moreover, the literature suggests a relationship between individualism and constructive deviance (Hanke & Saxberg, 1985). In more individualist cultures, such as Canada and the United States, individual initiative and personal autonomy is valued. A number of researchers have posited that these characteristics will facilitate constructive deviant behavior, such as innovative behavior (Pepinsky, 1961; Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai, & Lucca, 1988). Pepinsky (1961), for example, found that those people who engaged in constructive deviance were

independent, and persistent in pursuing their own interests. According to Hanke and Saxberg (1985), the potential for deviant behavior and nonconforming behavior may have been a source of innovation in United States, a more individualist culture.

Conversely, in more collectivist cultures, such as Mexico or Japan, group membership and conformity is emphasized. Consequently, sanctions are likely to be imposed in order to discourage deviant behavior in collectivist cultures (Triandis et al., 1988). Since there is a large pressure to conform to group norms in more collectivist cultures, there is less potential for constructive deviant behavior compared to more individualist cultures. Hanke and Saxberg (1985) stress that there are very few employees who engage in constructive deviant behavior in Japan. People who do not conform to the norms are often ostracized by their peers. Moreover, those few employees who do engage in constructive deviant behavior are often excused for their behavior in spite of the success and innovation that will follow. Based on the literature, it is hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis 16: Individualism is positively related to constructive deviance.**

In sum, the theoretical framework of the present research was presented in this chapter. Specifically, the relationship between deviance and individual, job, organizational, cultural factors were hypothesized. In the next chapter, the methodology of the research is discussed.

# CHAPTER FOUR

# METHOD

## Research Context

The organizations that participated in the study were in the pharmaceutical and telecommunications industries, two highly regulated industries that are presently undergoing rapid technological advancements. All participating organizations were multinational companies (MNC) that had subsidiaries both in Canada and Mexico and shared similar human resource policies. In Canada, one pharmaceutical company and one telecommunications company agreed to participate. A second pharmaceutical company was contacted and was asked to participate in the study, however, the organization refused. Both Canadian companies were located in Quebec. In Mexico, two pharmaceutical companies and one telecommunications company agreed to participate. The Mexican companies were either located in central or northern Mexico, in a city located near the United States border.

## Procedures

Data collection occurred during the Fall of 2000. Anonymous questionnaires were the primary method of data collection. All respondents who voluntarily participated in the study were assured confidentiality of their responses. In addition, the respondents were told that the results of the study

would be summarized on a general basis so that individuals would not be identified. The respondents were also asked to give an additional questionnaire and second postage-paid self-addressed envelope to a co-worker so that the data would be sent directly to the researcher. In order match the incumbents' responses with those of the co-workers, an arbitrary number was assigned to both questionnaires. For confidentiality, the researcher processed all the research materials.

The questionnaires were distributed to employees working for the pharmaceutical and telecommunications companies in Canada and Mexico. Since research has shown that these two cultures differ with respect to the individualism/ collectivism cultural dimension (Hofstede, 1980), Canadian and Mexican employees were sampled. Unlike Canada, which is a more individualist culture, Mexico is a more collectivist culture (Hofstede, 1980).

The materials for the Canadian sample were translated from English into French and the materials for the Mexican sample were translated from English into Spanish. Back-translations were conducted in order to increase the equivalence of the materials and to assure that the translated questionnaires matched the original one (Brislin, 1980).

In Canada, individuals who participated in the study were mailed a packet that included a bilingual cover letter asking for their voluntary cooperation in a study investigating workplace behaviors, a questionnaire to be completed, and a postage-paid self-addressed stamped envelope. The English and French

translations of the cover letter and questionnaire are presented in Appendices 1 and 2.

The individuals also received an additional bilingual cover letter, questionnaire and postage-paid self-addressed stamped envelope to be given to a co-worker. Refer to Appendices 3 and 4 for the English and French translations of the co-worker's questionnaire. The individuals who were sent the packets were asked to return their completed questionnaire to the researcher at the university. In addition, they were requested to give the additional questionnaire and second postage-paid self-addressed envelope to a co-worker so that the data would be sent directly to the researcher. The individuals who were sent the packets completed all the measures of the study. The co-workers were asked to rate the frequency of the employees' destructive and constructive behaviors. All individuals who received a packet were sent bilingual reminders two weeks after the initial mailing and were asked to remind their co-workers to complete the questionnaire. Refer to Appendix 5 for the English and French translations of the reminder notice.

While self-report data of the employee was used as the primary source of data, the co-worker's perspective was used to complement the research findings. Self-reports of employee destructive deviance have been successfully used in earlier studies of employee deviance (e.g., Hollinger et al., 1992). Furthermore, Bennett and Robinson (2000) state that people are surprisingly willing to report that they have engaged in destructively deviant, even illegal, behavior. Similarly,

the literature on integrity testing also supports this perspective (Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 1993; Sackett, Burris, & Callahan, 1989).

Altogether, one thousand two hundred and seventy two (1,272) questionnaires were distributed to the Canadian sample. Six hundred and thirty six (636) questionnaires were distributed to the employees. The employees were asked to distribute another six hundred and thirty six (636) questionnaires to their co-workers. Two hundred and forty (240) employees provided usable data, yielding a response rate of 38 percent. One hundred and seventy (170) co-workers provided usable data on destructive and constructive deviance measures, yielding a response rate of 27 percent.

In Mexico, the administration of the questionnaires differed slightly in the various companies because of practical considerations. The Mexican data were collected from three companies, two pharmaceutical and one telecommunications. In the telecommunications company and one of the pharmaceutical companies, the questionnaires were administered to employees in training facilities. While employees from the telecommunications company completed the questionnaires in a training room near the plant floor, employees from one of the pharmaceutical companies completed the questionnaire in the on-site training and development center.

The employees in the telecommunications and pharmaceutical companies were asked to voluntarily participate in the survey and told that the objective of the study was to examine a variety of workplace behaviors. Each employee who

agreed to participate in the study was given two separate questionnaires and one envelope with the Concordia University logo. Seventeen percent (17%) of the employees refused to participate. The employees were asked to complete the first questionnaire and return it directly to the researcher. Refer to Appendix 6 for the Spanish translation of the cover letter and questionnaire. The employees were also requested to give the second questionnaire to one of their co-workers. Refer to Appendix 7 for the Spanish translation of the co-worker's questionnaire. The researcher explained that their co-workers were to place the completed questionnaire in the sealed envelope and return it to the Human Resources Department who would then give it to the researcher. The employees were assured that the Human Resources Department would not view the contents of the questionnaires.

In the other pharmaceutical company, individuals who participated in the study were mailed a packet that included a cover letter asking for their voluntary cooperation in a study investigating workplace behaviors, a questionnaire, and an envelope with the Concordia University logo. The employees were asked to return their completed questionnaire in the enclosed sealed envelope to the Human Resources Department. Employees were sent reminders two weeks after the initial mailing. Refer to Appendix 8 for the Spanish translations of the reminder notice.

Altogether, nine hundred and sixty four (964) questionnaires were distributed to the Mexican sample. Five hundred and eighty two (582) questionnaires were distributed to the employees. The employees were asked to

distribute another 382 questionnaires to their co-workers. Four hundred and twenty eight (428) employees provided usable data on the study variables, yielding a response rate of 74 percent. One hundred and twenty five (125) co-workers provided usable data on destructive and constructive deviance measures, yielding a response rate of 33 percent.

**Sample Characteristics**

The Canadian respondents averaged 36.6 years of age and 7.4 years of organizational tenure. Sixty-six percent (66%) of the sample were men. Fifteen percent (15%) occupied administrative positions; 60 percent were in line positions; 4 percent were in supervisory positions; and 21 percent were in management and executive positions. Twenty-five percent (25%) of the sample completed high school; 33 percent held college degrees; 26 percent held bachelor's degrees; 14 percent held master's degrees; and 2 percent completed a Ph.D. or M.D.

The Mexican respondents averaged 29.8 years of age and 5.0 years of organizational tenure. Fifty-six percent (56%) of the sample were male. Eighteen percent (18%) occupied administrative positions; 52 percent were in line positions; 14 percent were in supervisory positions; 14 percent were in management and executive positions; and two percent labeled their positions as "other". Thirty-five percent (35%) of the sample completed high school; 25 percent held college degrees; 35 percent held bachelor's degrees; 4 percent held master's degrees; and

1 percent completed a Ph.D. or M.D. The Canadian and Mexican samples differed significantly on age ($t$=9.62, $p < .001$), gender ($\chi^2$ (1)= 5.83, $p < .05$), education ($\chi^2$ (4)= 32.45, $p < .001$), and tenure ($t$=4.15, $p < .001$).

## Measures

**Destructive Deviant Behavior.** Bennett and Robinson's (2000) measure of destructive deviant behavior was used. The measure comprises two factors, organizational and interpersonal deviance. Organizational destructive deviance refers to harmful acts that are directed toward the organization and interpersonal destructive deviance refers to harmful acts that are directed toward individuals.

The organizational deviance measure comprises 12 items which are measured on a 7-point scale (1= "never"; 7= "daily"). The items are the following:

(1) "Taken property from work without permission";

(2) "Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working";

(3) "Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses";

(4) "Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace";

(5) "Come in late to work without permission";

(6) "Littered your work environment";

(7) "Neglected to follow your boss's instructions";

(8) "Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked";

(9) "Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person";

(10) "Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job";

(11) "Put little effort into your work";

(12) "Dragged out work in order to get overtime."

The interpersonal deviance measure comprises 7 items which are measured on a 7-point scale (1= "never"; 7= "daily"). The items were the following:

(1) "Made fun of someone at work";

(2) "Said something hurtful to someone at work";

(3) "Made an ethnic, religious or racial remark at work";

(4) "Cursed at someone at work";

(5) "Played a mean prank on someone at work";

(6) "Acted rudely toward someone at work", and,

(7) "Publicly embarrassed someone at work."

The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the organizational destructive deviance measure was .78 for the entire sample (Canadian and Mexican samples combined) and .85 and .70 for the Canadian and Mexican samples, respectively. The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the interpersonal destructive deviance measure was .81 for the entire sample (Canadian and Mexican samples combined) and .82 for both the Canadian and Mexican samples. Tables 1, 2, and 3 report the coefficient alpha reliability estimates of the measures for the entire sample, Canadian, and Mexican samples, respectively.

In addition, the dimensionality of the destructive deviance measure was examined using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). Consistent with Bennett and Robinson (2000), a two-factor structure was supported in both the Canadian and Mexican samples. Tests for the factorial invariance of the measures will later be discussed in greater detail.

**Constructive Deviant Behavior.** A measure of constructive deviance was developed for the purpose of the study. The measure comprises three factors: innovative organizational deviance, challenging organizational deviance, and interpersonal deviance. Innovative organizational deviance refers to beneficial acts of an innovative or creative nature that are directed to the organization. Challenging organizational deviance refers to beneficial acts that outwardly challenge the existing norms or rules that are directed toward the organization. Interpersonal deviance refers to beneficial acts that are directed toward individuals. The development of the measure of constructive deviance was conducted on two separate samples. In the first sample, item analyses and exploratory factor analyses were conducted. In the second sample, confirmatory factor analyses were performed in order to cross-validate the structure. More details about the development and psychometric properties of this measure are reported in Appendix 9.

The innovative organizational deviance measure comprises 5 items which are measured on a 7-point scale (1= "never"; 7= "daily"). The items were the following:

(1) "Developed creative solutions to problems";

(2) "Searched for innovative ways to perform day to day procedures";

(3) "Decided on unconventional ways to achieve work goals";

(4) "Departed from the accepted tradition to solve problems";

(5) "Introduced a change to improve the performance of your work group."

The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the innovative organizational deviance measure was .72 for the entire sample and .73 and .72 for the Canadian and Mexican samples, respectively.

The challenging organizational deviance measure comprises 6 items which are measured on a 7-point scale (1= "never"; 7= "daily"). The items were the following:

(1) "Sought to bend or break the rules in order to perform your job";

(2) "Violated company procedures in order to solve a problem";

(3) "Departed from organizational procedures to solve a customer's problem";

(4) "Bent a rule to satisfy a customer's needs";

(5) "Departed from dysfunctional organizational policies or procedures to solve a problem", and,

(6) "Departed from organizational requirements in order to increase the quality of services or products."

The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the challenging organizational deviance measure was .75 for the entire sample and .85 and .70 for the Canadian and Mexican samples, respectively.

The interpersonal deviance measure comprises 5 items which are measured on a 7-point scale (1= "never"; 7= "daily"). The items were the following:

(1) "Reported a wrong-doing to co-workers to bring about a positive organizational change";

(2) "Did not follow the orders of your supervisor in order to improve work procedures";

(3) "Disagreed with others in your work group in order to improve the current work procedures";

(4) "Disobeyed your supervisor's instructions to perform more efficiently";

(5) "Reported a wrong-doing to another person in your company to bring about a positive organizational change."

The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the interpersonal deviance measure was .66 for the entire sample and .71 and .66 for the Canadian and Mexican samples, respectively.

***Construct Validity.*** The convergent and discriminant validity of constructive deviance was examined using CFA. The constructive and destructive deviance items were factor analyzed together in order to investigate the relationships among the constructive and destructive deviance factors. The five-

factor model consisted of the three factors of constructive and two factors of destructive deviance. Examination of the factor loadings, as well as the results of the Wald and Langrangian Multiplier tests suggested that the model was misspecified. Since the indices indicated that certain items cross-loaded on both the constructive and destructive deviance dimensions, two items of constructive deviance and two items of destructive deviance were deleted to improve the model fit. The fit of the respecified model yielded a $\chi^2$ (340)=1435.99 and the CFI was .80.

The association between constructive deviance and destructive deviance was more rigorously examined by evaluating the discriminant validity of constructive deviance in relation to destructive deviance. Refer to Figure 3. A test of discriminant validity examines whether the correlation between two constructs is significantly different from unity (+1 or –1) (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991). Consequently, the 95 percent confidence intervals for each of the parameter estimates were computed. The intervals were: parameter estimate $\pm$ 1.96 (Standard Error). Standard error and parameter estimates were provided in the EQS output.

Based on Bagozzi et al. (1991), if $\pm$ 1 was not included in the interval then the two factors were distinct. The resulting confidence intervals for the entire sample were [0.191, 0.399] for F2,F1; [0.321, 0.529] for F3, F1; [0.23, 0.398] for F4, F1; [0.117, 0.191] for F5, F1; [0.388, 0.756] for F3,F2; [0.007, 0.273] for F4,F2; [-0.025, 0.085] for F5,F2; [0.176, 0.43] for F4,F3; [-0.055, 0.219] for F5,F3; and [0.18, 0.293] for F5, F4. Since $\pm$ 1 was not included in the interval, the

results for the entire sample suggest that the relationships between the five factors were distinct.

The resulting confidence intervals for the Canadian sample were [0.112, 0.460] for F2,F1; [0.187, 0.513] for F3, F1; [0.192, 0.490] for F4, F1; [0.155, 0.323] for F5, F1; [0.097, 0.610] for F3,F2; [0.103, 0.137] for F4,F2; [-0.069, 0.167] for F5,F2; [0.153, 0.521] for F4,F3; [0.131, 0.363] for F5,F3; and [0.229, 0.503] for F5, F4. Since $\pm$ 1 was not included in the interval, the results for the Canadian sample suggest that the relationships between the five factors were distinct.

The resulting confidence intervals for the Mexican sample were [0.163, 0.399] for F2,F1; [0.311, 0.557] for F3, F1; [0.147, 0.323] for F4, F1; [0.046, 0.104] for F5, F1; [0.481, 0.983] for F3,F2; [-0.042, 0.306] for F4,F2; [-0.036, 0.054] for F5,F2; [0.089, 0.415] for F4,F3; [0.065, 0.171] for F5,F3; and [0.083, 0.189] for F5, F4. Since $\pm$ 1 was not included in the interval, the results for the Mexican sample suggest that the relationships between the five factors were distinct. All in all, the findings for the entire, Canadian and Mexican samples indicate that the deviance factors are discriminable from each other and therefore consist of separate constructs.

The convergent validity was then evaluated. In order to establish convergent validity, the average variance extracted for each factor should account for greater than 0.50 of the total variance (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In the entire sample, the average variance extracted was: 0.43 for the challenging

organizational constructive deviance; 0.50 for innovative organizational constructive deviance; 0.40 for interpersonal constructive deviance; 0.42 for interpersonal destructive deviance; and 0.30 for organizational destructive deviance.

In the Canadian sample, the average variance extracted were: 0.61 for the challenging organizational constructive deviance; 0.50 for innovative organizational constructive deviance; 0.44 for interpersonal constructive deviance; 0.43 for interpersonal destructive deviance; and 0.40 for organizational destructive deviance.

In the Mexican sample, the average variance extracted were: 0.40 for the challenging organizational constructive deviance; 0.43 for innovative organizational constructive deviance; 0.40 for interpersonal constructive deviance; 0.43 for interpersonal destructive deviance; and 0.20 for organizational destructive deviance.

The results suggest convergent validity for some of the deviance factors. Although average variance extracted for some factors accounted less than 0.50 of the total variance, many factors were within the 0.40 range and approaching 0.50. Given both destructive and constructive deviance factors were included in the analysis, it is not surprising that the support for convergent validity was weak for some of the factors. While both destructive and constructive deviance are related to each other, the constructs vary in that the two forms of deviance encompass different types of behaviors.

The sub-scale correlations of constructive and destructive deviance were also examined. As shown in Table 1, both forms of destructive deviance were moderately correlated with each other ($\underline{r} = 0.47$, $\underline{p} < 0.01$). The sub-scale correlations between the forms of constructive deviance were also moderately related to each other. Innovative organizational constructive deviance was positively related to challenging organizational ($\underline{r} = 0.34$, $\underline{p} < 0.01$) and interpersonal ($\underline{r} = 0.33$, $\underline{p} < 0.01$) constructive deviance. Moreover, challenging organizational constructive deviance was highly correlated to interpersonal constructive deviance ($\underline{r} = 0.51$, $\underline{p} < 0.01$). The average sub-scale correlation between the three forms of constructive deviance was 0.39.

While the sub-scale correlations between the forms of constructive deviance were generally more highly related to each other compared to the two forms of destructive deviance, the inter-correlations between the forms of constructive and destructive deviance were higher than expected. The average sub-scale correlation between destructive and constructive deviance was 0.28. Since the sub-scale correlations between the forms of constructive and destructive deviance was greater than expected, these data suggest that there may be some difficulty with the implied two-factor model of constructive and destructive deviance. While the results support the convergent and discriminant validity at the five-factor level, it appears that there are some difficulties in the hierarchical logic of constructive and destructive deviance at the two-factor level. These issues will be further raised in the discussion.

**Role Breadth Self-Efficacy (RBSE).** RBSE was measured by Parker's (1998) scale. Respondents were asked to indicate how confident they felt carrying out various tasks. The measure comprises 10 items which are measured on a 5-point scale (1= "not at all confident") to (5= "very confident"). The items were the following:

(1) "Representing your work area in meetings with senior management";

(2) "Writing a proposal to spend money in your work area";

(3) "Analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution";

(4) "Making suggestions to management about ways to improve the working of your section";

(5) "Helping to set goals & targets in your area";

(6) "Designing new procedures for your work area";

(7) "Contacting people outside the company (e.g. suppliers, customers) to discuss problems";

(8) "Presenting information to a group of colleagues";

(9) "Contributing to discussions about the company's strategy";

(10) "Visiting people from other departments to suggest doing things differently."

The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the RBSE measure was .91 for the entire sample and .90 and .92 for the Canadian and Mexican samples, respectively.

**Machiavellianism.** Machiavellianism was measured by the MACH IV Scale (Christie & Geis, 1970). The measure comprises 20 items which are measured on a 7-point scale that ranges from "1= completely disagree" to "7=completely agree". Higher scores indicated greater levels of Machiavellianism. The items were the following:

(1) "Never tell anyone the real reason you did something unless it is useful to do so";

(2) "The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear";

(3) "One should take action only when sure it is morally right (R)";

(4) "Most people are basically good and kind (R)";

(5) "It is safest to assume that all people have a vicious streak and it will come out when given a chance";

(6) "Honesty is the best policy in all cases (R)";

(7) "There is no excuse for lying to someone else (R)";

(8) "Generally speaking, men (people) won't work hard unless they're forced to do so";

(9) "All in all, it is better to be humble and honest than to be important and dishonest (R)";

(10) "When you ask someone to do something for you, it is best to give the real reasons for wanting it rather than giving reasons which carry more weight (R)";

(11) "Most people who get ahead in the world lead clean, moral lives (R)";

(12) "Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking for trouble";

(13) "The biggest difference between criminals and other people is that the criminals are stupid enough to get caught";

(14) "Most people are brave (R)";

(15) "It is wise to flatter important people,"

(16) "It is possible to be good in all respects (R)";

(17) "Barnum was very wrong he said there's a sucker born every minute (R)";

(18) "It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there";

(19) "People suffering from incurable diseases should have the choice of being put painlessly to death"; and

(20) "Most people forget more easily the death of their father than the loss of their property."

Items followed by the letter (R) indicate reverse statements that were re-coded for the data analysis. The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the Machiavellianism measure was .63 for the entire sample and .68 and .60 for the Canadian and Mexican samples, respectively.

**Ethical Orientation.** The character traits version of the Measure of Ethical Viewpoints (MEV) measure (Brady & Wheeler, 1996) was used to measure ethical orientation. The instrument lists 20 character traits that respondents rate on a seven-point scale (1= "not important to me"; 7= "very important to me") according to their personal judgement. The measure includes the following traits:

Innovative, Principled, Benevolent, Dependable Resourceful, Trustworthy, Effective, Honest, Influential, Dutiful, Independent, Dedicated to cause, Results-oriented, Good-intentioned, Productive, Noted for integrity, Compassionate, Financially secure, Law abiding, and A winner. The items of the measure were averaged to produce a composite scale score. A higher score indicates a greater ethical orientation. The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the ethical orientation measure was .81 for the entire sample and .84 and .81 for the Canadian and Mexican samples, respectively.

**Perceived Justice.** Perceived justice was measured by Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) justice scale. The measure comprises a total of 20 items relating to distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. The statements are measured on a 7-point scale (1= "strongly disagree") to (7= "strongly agree"). The items are the following:

(1) "My work schedule is fair";

(2) "I think that my level of pay is a fair";

(3) "I consider my work load to be quite fair";

(4) "Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair";

(5) "I feel that my job responsibilities are fair";

(6) "Job decisions are made by my manager in an unbiased manner";

(7) "My manager makes sure that all employees concerns are heard before job decisions are made";

(8) "To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information";

(9) "My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when required by employees";

(10) "All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees";

(11) "Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the manager";

(12) "When decisions are made about my job, my manager treats me with kindness and consideration";

(13) "When decisions are made about my job, my manager treats me with respect and dignity";

(14) "When decisions are made about my job, my manager is sensitive to my personal needs";

(15) "When decisions are made about my job, my manager deals with me in a truthful manner";

(16) "When decisions are made about my job, my manager shows concern for my rights as an employee";

(17) "Concerning decisions made about my job, my manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me";

(18) "The manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job";

(19) "When decisions are made about my job, my manager offers explanations that make sense to me"; and,

(20) "My manager explains very clearly any decisions made about my job."

All items of the measure were averaged to produce a composite scale score. A higher score indicates greater perceptions of justice. The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the perceived justice measure was .94 for the entire sample and .94 and .93 for the Canadian and Mexican samples, respectively.

**Job Autonomy.** Job Characteristics Inventory (JCI) was used to measure job autonomy (Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976). Job autonomy comprises 5 items which were measured on a 5-point scale (1= "very little"; 7= "very much"). The items were the following:

(1) "How much are you left on your own to do your own work?";

(2) "To what extent do you receive information from your superior on your job performance?";

(3) "To what extent are you able to do your job independently of others?";

(4) "The freedom to do pretty much what I want on my job.", and,

(5) "The opportunity for independent thought and action."

The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the job autonomy measure was .61 for the entire sample and .61 and .63 for the Canadian and Mexican samples, respectively.

**Social Structural Characteristics.** Spreitzer's (1996) measure of social structural characteristics was used. The measure consists of three factors, which include sociopolitical support, access to information, and access to resources. Sociopolitical support measures the employees' perceptions of the extent of sociopolitical support received from subordinates, peers, work group, and superior. Access to information measures the employees' perception of the extent of access to information. Access to resources measures the employees' perceptions of the extent of access to resources received.

The sociopolitical support measure comprises 4 items which are measured of a 7-point scale (1= "strongly disagree"; 7= "strongly agree"). The items were the following:

(1) "I have the support I need from my subordinates to do my job well";

(2) "I have the support I need from my workgroup or team to do my job well",

(3) "I have the support I need from my peers to do my job well", and,

(4) "I have the support I need from my immediate supervisor to do my job well."

The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the sociopolitical support measure was .77 for the entire sample and .78 and .76 for the Canadian and Mexican samples, respectively.

The access to resources measure consists of 3 items which are measured of a 7-point scale (1= "strongly disagree"; 7= "strongly agree"). The items were the following:

(1) "I can obtain the resources necessary to support new ideas";

(2) "When I need additional resources to do my job, I can usually get them", and,

(3) "I have access to the resources I need to do my job well."

The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the access to resources measure was .78 for the entire sample and for both the Canadian and Mexican samples.

The access to information measure comprises 3 items which are measured on a 7-point scale (1= "strongly disagree"; 7= "strongly agree"). The items were the following:

(1) "I understand the strategies and goals of the organization";

(2) "I understand top management's vision of the organization", and,

(3) "I have access to the strategic information I need to do my job well."

The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the access to information measure was .63 for the entire sample and .67 and .61 for the Canadian and Mexican samples, respectively.

**Leader Supportiveness.** Graen, Novak, and Sommerkamp's (1982) measure was used. The measure comprises 7 items which are measured on a 7-

point scale (1= "strongly disagree"; 7= "strongly agree"). The items were the following:

(1) "I usually know where I stand with my manager";

(2) "My manager has enough confidence in me that he/she would defend and justify my decisions if I was not present to do so";

(3) "My working relationship with my manager is effective";

(4) "My manager understands my problems and needs";

(5) "I can count on my manager to "bail me out", even at his or her own expense, when I really need it";

(6) "My manager recognizes my potential", and,

(7) "Regardless of how much power my manager has built into his position, my manager would be personally inclined to use his/her power to help me solve problems in my work."

The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the leader supportiveness measure was .90 for the entire sample and both the Canadian and Mexican samples.

**Individualism/Collectivism.** Triandis and Gelfand's (1998) measure of individualism (idiocentrism)/collectivism (allocentrism) was used. The measure comprises a total of 16 items relating to vertical and horizontal aspects of individualism and collectivism. Unlike the terms individualism/collectivism which describe a general attribute of a specific culture, idiocentrism/allocentrism refer to

the individual-level attribute of a person's cultural values (Wagner, 1995). At the individual level, people can be described by the terms "idiocentric" and "allocentric" corresponding to individualism and collectivism, respectively. By using idiocentrism and allocentrism, one is able to capture the within-culture variation of personality attributes (Triandis, McCusker, & Hui, 1990).

The individualism (idiocentrism) measure comprises 8 items relating which are measured on a 7-point scale (1= "strongly disagree"; 7= "strongly agree"). The items were the following:

(1) "I'd rather depend on myself than others";

(2) "I rely on myself most of the time: I rarely rely on others";

(3) "I often do 'my own thing";

(4) "My personal identity, independent of others is very important to me";

(5) "It is important that I do my job better than others";

(6) "Winning is everything";

(7) "Competition is the law of nature"; and,

(8) "When another person does better than I do, I get tense and aroused."

The collectivism (allocentrism) measure comprises 8 items which are measured on a 7-point scale (1= "strongly disagree"; 7= "strongly agree"). The items were the following:

(1) "If a coworker gets a prize, I would feel proud";

(2) "The well-being of my coworkers is important to me";

(3) "To me, pleasure is spending time with others";

(4) "I feel good when I cooperate with others";

(5) "Parents and children must stay together as much as possible";

(6) "It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want";

(7) "Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required", and,

(8) "It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by my groups."

The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the individualism (idiocentrism) measure was .65 for the entire sample and .58 and .64 for the Canadian and Mexican samples, respectively. The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the collectivism (allocentrism) measure was .69 for the entire sample and .68 and .70 for the Canadian and Mexican samples, respectively.

The factor structures of the individualism/ collectivism measures were examined using CFA. Consistent with Triandis and Gelfand's (1998), two-factor solutions for both the individualism and collectivism measures were supported in the Canadian and Mexican samples.

**Demographic variables.** The questionnaire also included demographic and work-related information of the respondents, such as age, gender, education, and organizational tenure. Age and tenure were measured as continuous variables.

Gender was denoted using dummy variables with "1" indicating male and "2" indicating female. Employees were also asked the question, "What is the highest level of education you have completed." Education was coded with "1= high school", "2= college", "3=bachelor's", "4=master's", and "5=Ph.D. or M.D."

Age and gender were used as controls in this study because the Canadian and Mexican samples significantly differed on these variables and the correlation matrices revealed that these variables were significantly correlated with destructive and constructive deviance, key variables in the study. Industry was also included as a control variable because the correlation matrices revealed that the industry was significantly correlated with the two forms of deviance. Industry was denoted using dummy variables with "0" indicating telecommunications and "1" indicating pharmaceutical. In the section below, the data screening procedures will be discussed.

**Data Screening Procedures**

Prior to data analysis, the raw data were carefully examined. Following Tabachnick and Fidell's (1989) suggestions, univariate descriptive statistics were examined to see whether all the values were within acceptable ranges and the means and standard deviations were plausible. The data were also assessed for possible outliers, cases with extreme values.

Furthermore, the data were screened for normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. Frequency histograms, an important method to assess

normality, were used (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). Assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity were diagnosed from residual plots, which are used to plot the residuals against the predicted values. Non-normality was found among some variables (e.g., destructive deviance and justice perceptions), and consequently, common transformations of the variables were used. In the Canadian and Mexican samples, logarithmic transformations were used to correct the positive skewness of the destructive deviance variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). Following Fox's (1979) recommendations, the square and cube power transformations were used to correct the negative skewness of the justice perceptions variables in the Canadian and Mexican samples, respectively.

The reliability of the measures was also assessed prior to data analysis (Churchill, 1979). Four items of the Machiavellianism (Machiavellianism items #3, 16, 17, 19) were deleted because these items were negatively correlated with the other items in the scale. Furthermore, two items of the constructive deviance scale (innovative organizational constructive deviance item #4 and interpersonal organizational constructive deviance item #2) and one destructive deviance item (organizational destructive deviance item #12) were eliminated due to low item-total correlations. The analysis suggested that deleting these two items would increase the overall reliability of the scales. Consequently, the changes were made and incorporated in the previous discussion on the reliabilities of the measures.

As shown in Tables 1, 2, and 3, the coefficient alphas of the measures in this study were generally within acceptable ranges. Nevertheless, the reliabilities

of the Machiavellianism and access to information scales were fairly low. Refer to Tables 1, 2 and 3 for the reliability coefficients for the entire sample, as well as the Canadian and Mexican samples. According to Nunnally (1967), reliabilities of .50 to .60 are acceptable for early stages of basic research. The coefficients alpha of the constructive deviance scale for the entire sample, Canadian and Mexican samples ranged from .66 to .75, .71 to .85 and .66 to .72, respectively. Based on Nunnally's (1967) criteria, the reliabilities of the newly developed measure of constructive deviance were good.

Tests for the factorial invariance of the measures were also conducted. These findings will be discussed in greater detail in the section below.

**Factorial Equivalence of the Measures**

The equivalence of the measures across cultures was examined with multi-group CFA using the EQS program (Bentler, 1989). Tests of the factorial equivalence for the measures used in this study were conducted in two stages.

First, in order to make group comparisons, it is necessary to establish baseline models for each group. The postulated factor model structures were tested separately for the Canadian and Mexican samples. Several criteria were used to test the goodness of fit for the two separate samples. As did Byrne and Campbell (1999), these included the $\chi^2$ likelihood ratio statistic, the Satorra-Bentler scaled statistic (S-B $\chi^2$) (Satorra & Bentler, 1988), the comparative fit index (CFI) and the robust comparative fit index (CFI*) (Bentler 1990, 1995). Given the

dependency of the $\chi^2$ statistic on sample size, it is customary to also examine the comparative fit index (CFI). The S-B $\chi^2$ serves as a correction for the $\chi^2$ statistic when distributional assumptions may be violated. The S-B $\chi^2$ has been shown to be the most reliable test statistic for evaluating covariance structure models under various distributions and sample sizes (Hu, Bentler, & Kano, 1992). The CFI ranges in value from 0.00 to 1.00. Gerbing and Anderson (1993) suggest that a good CFI is usually .90 or higher. Calculation of the CFI* is based on the S-B $\chi^2$ values rather than on the uncorrected $\chi^2$ values. Since the S-B $\chi^2$ statistic was calculated in this study, the CFI* was used as the fit index. Similar to the CFI, CFI* index ranges from 0.00 to 1.00.

The CFI* for the Canadian and Mexican samples were generally within acceptable ranges, excluding the Machiavellianism measure. The CFI* for a unidimensional model of Machiavellianism were .53 and .65 for the Canadian and Mexican samples, respectively. Contrary to expectations, the results of the CFA did not support the unidimensionality of the Machiavellianism scale. Although the majority of studies assume Machiavellianism to be a unitary construct, some studies conducted in North America, however, have found a multi-factor solutions (Corzine, 1997). Since the majority of the literature has treated Machiavellianism as a unitary construct, the one-factor solution of Machiavellianism was used in further analyses.

For the Canadian sample, the results of the factor analyses were generally in line with the proposed dimensionality of the measures. The CFI* for a

unidimensional model of job autonomy, leader supportiveness, and RBSE measures were .91, .93, and .93, respectively, indicating a good fit. The CFI* for a two-factor solution of ethical orientation and destructive deviance were .82 and .83, respectively, indicating a marginal fit. The CFI* for the two-factor models of individualism (idiocentrism) and collectivism (allocentrism) were .90 and .91, respectively. In addition, a three-factor solution for constructive deviance, justice perceptions and social structural characteristics were also supported.

For the Mexican sample, the results of the factor analyses were consistent with the expected dimensionality of the measures. The unidimensionality of job autonomy, leader supportiveness, and RBSE measures were supported. The CFI* for the one-factor models of job autonomy, leader supportiveness and RBSE were .96, .97, and .95, respectively, indicating a very good fit. The CFI* for the two-factor solutions of ethical orientation and destructive deviance were .92 and .95, respectively, indicating a good fit. The CFI* for the two-factor models of individualism (idiocentrism) and collectivism (allocentrism) were .90 and .82, respectively. Finally, the CFI* for a three-factor solution for constructive deviance, justice perceptions and social structural characteristics were supported.

Second, based on the baseline model for each culture, a simultaneous analysis of the data was conducted to test the equivalence of the measures across cultures. Byrne (1989) outlines that one must first simultaneously test the invariance between the groups in the number of factors underlying the factor structures. The results generally supported the proposed dimensionality of the

measures. Refer to Model 1 in Table 5 for the simultaneous tests for the invariance of the measurements and structures.

After testing that the number of factors underlying the structures is invariant across cultures, Byrne (1989) states that it is necessary to simultaneously test for invariance in the factor loadings between the Canadian and Mexican samples. A model was estimated in which the factor loadings were constrained to be equal across cultures. All probability values associated with each constraint were examined to determine if any of the tests were statistically significant. Probability values greater than .05 were held, thereby indicating that the hypothesized factor loadings were equal. When the specified equality constraints did not hold (probability value was less than .05), the model was respecified and reestimated with the significant constraints released. As noted by Smith, Hanges and Dickson (2001), relaxing constraints is a function of the sample size dependence of chi-square, and should not be interpreted as evidence of non-equivalent factor loadings. Refer to Model 2 in Table 5 for the respecified simultaneous tests for the invariance of the factor loadings.

To examine whether the invariant pattern of factor loadings is considered tenable, Byrne (1989) outlines that the significance of the $\Delta \chi^2$ between the two models must be examined. The results provided strong support for the invariance in factor loadings between the Canadian and Mexican samples for justice perceptions, job autonomy, leader supportiveness, and collectivism. The fit of the constrained model of justice perceptions yielded a $\chi^2 (352) = 1236.44$ and the CFI

was .88. The difference in chi-square between first and second model was not significant, $\Delta \chi^2 (14) = 15.96$, n.s. The fit of the constrained model for job autonomy yielded a $\chi^2 (14) = 39.75$ and the CFI was .94. The difference in chi-square between first and second model was not significant, $\Delta \chi^2 (4) = 5.95$, n.s. The fit of the constrained model for leader supportiveness yielded a $\chi^2 (34) = 168.54$ and the CFI was .95. The difference in chi-square between first and second model was not significant, $\Delta \chi^2 (6) = 9.69$, n.s. The fit of the constrained model for collectivism yielded a $\chi^2 (20) = 102.80$ and the CFI was .88. The difference in chi-square between first and second model was not significant, $\Delta \chi^2 (4) = 5.05$, n.s. These results suggest that both factor structures and factor loadings for justice perceptions, job autonomy, leader supportiveness, and collectivism were equivalent between the Canadian and Mexican samples.

Overall, the results provided support for the invariance in factor loadings between the Canadian and Mexican samples for ethical orientation, social structural characteristics, RBSE, destructive deviance, and constructive deviance. The fit of the constrained model of ethical orientation, except for factor loadings of items 11, 17, and 18, yielded a $\chi^2 (136) = 487.51$ and the CFI was .81. The difference in chi-square between first and second model was not significant, $\Delta \chi^2 (8) = 13.23$, n.s. The fit of the constrained model of social structural characteristics, except for factor loadings of items 2, 6, and 9, yielded a $\chi^2 (68) = 340.52$ and the CFI was .88. The difference in chi-square between first and second model was not significant, $\Delta \chi^2 (4) = 13.08$, n.s. The fit of the constrained model

of RBSE, except for factor loadings of items 3 and 5 yielded a $\chi^2$ (77) = 320.44 and the CFI was .93. The difference in chi-square between first and second model was not significant, $\Delta \chi^2$ (7) = 7.13, n.s. The fit of the constrained model of destructive deviance, except for factor loadings of organizational destructive deviance items 2, 4, 6, 8, 9, 10 and interpersonal destructive items 5 and 7 yielded a $\chi^2$ (212) = 697.20 and the CFI was .84. The difference in chi-square between first and second model was not significant, $\Delta \chi^2$ (6) = 15.85, n.s. The fit of the constrained model of constructive deviance yielded a $\chi^2$ (111) = 457.89 and the CFI was .86. The difference in chi-square between first and second model was not significant, $\Delta \chi^2$ (9) = 13.35, n.s. These results suggest that both factor structures and the majority of factor loadings for ethical orientation, social structural characteristics, justice perceptions, RBSE, destructive deviance and constructive deviance were equivalent between the Canadian and Mexican samples.

The results did not provide support for the factorial invariance in factor loadings for Machiavellianism and individualism between the Canadian and Mexican samples. The fit of the constrained model of Machiavellianism, except for factor loadings of Items 2 and 20, yielded a $\chi^2$ (221) = 797.53 and the CFI was .57. The difference in chi-square between first and second model was significant, $\Delta \chi^2$ (13) = 39.41, $p < .001$. The fit of the constrained model of individualism yielded a $\chi^2$ (20) = 194.68 and the CFI was .58. The difference in chi-square between first and second model was significant, $\Delta \chi^2$ (4) = 137.61, $p < .001$. These

results suggest that the factor loadings for Machiavellianism and individualism were not equivalent across cultures.

**Analyses**

Hierarchical regressions were used to analyze the data in order to account for the interrelationships among the independent variables. The hypotheses were tested on the entire sample (Canadian and Mexican combined), as well as the Canadian and Mexican sub-samples. In addition, a sub-sample with both the self- and peer-ratings was used to further examine the relationships.

Using hierarchical multiple regressions, the control variables (e.g., country, age, gender, and industry) were first entered. The individual, situational, and cultural level variables were then included simultaneously in separate regressions using the entire sample.

In order to uncover differences in the strength of the relationships between variables across the two countries, sub-group analyses were used. These sub-group analyses were conducted in order to examine whether the model for the entire sample generalized across the different cultural settings. The Chow test (Chow, 1960) was used to test for the statistical significance of the difference in the regression coefficients across the two sub-groups (Maddala, 1977). A number of articles in the management literature have used the Chow test to examine sub-sample differences (see Hambrick & Lei, 1985; Zaheer & Zaheer, 1997).

Furthermore, this analysis was suggested by Dr. J. Tomberlin (personal communication, January, 2002).

The Chow test provides an F-statistic. When conducting the Chow test, one must run separate regressions for the two sub-samples with deviance as the dependent variable. It is also necessary to run regressions for the two sub-samples pooled together.

As noted by Hambrick and Lei (1985), it is important to examine the sum of squares errors for the pooled sample ($SSE_p$) and the extent to which that value differed from the errors obtained from the two sub-sample regressions. The following formula was used to compute the Chow test:

$$F_{k,\, n+m-2k} = \frac{[SSE_p - (SSE_1 - SSE_2)] / k}{(SSE_1 - SSE_2)] / (n + m - 2k)}$$

where,

$SSE_p$ = sum of squared errors for pooled samples,
$SSE_1$ = sum of squared errors for sub-sample 1,
$SSE_2$ = sum of squared errors for sub-sample 2,
n = size of sub-sample 1,
m = size of sub-sample 2, and
k = number of independent variables.

A significant F-value establishes that the overall relationships between the independent and the dependent variables differ across the sub-groups.

In order to further compare the relationships between the specific independent and dependent variables for the Canadian and Mexican sub-samples, the Wald Coefficient test was used. The Wald Coefficient test provides an F-

statistic (Greene, 1990). The F-statistic compares the residual sum of squares computed with and without the imposed coefficient restrictions specified by the null hypothesis. Specifically, the restrictions imposed in the null hypothesis expressed that the estimated coefficients were equal in the Canadian and Mexican samples.

In this chapter, the research context and data collection procedures in Canada and Mexico were outlined. The characteristics of the Canadian and Mexican samples and measures used in the study were discussed. Finally, issues relating to the equivalence of the measures across cultures were examined. In the next chapter, the results of the study are presented.

# CHAPTER FIVE

# RESULTS

## Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Means, standard deviations, coefficient alphas, and Pearson correlations among variables for the entire sample and Canadian and Mexican samples were calculated. The descriptive statistics for the entire sample and Canadian and Mexican samples are shown in Tables 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

As shown in Table 1, both forms of destructive deviance were generally significantly correlated to the individual, situational, and cultural factors in the entire sample. Interpersonal destructive deviance was significantly positively related to Machiavellianism ($r = .22$, $p < .01$) and negatively related to a high ethical orientation ($r = -.11$, $p < .01$), perceived justice ($r = -.12$, $p < .01$), sociopolitical support ($r = -.10$, $p < .05$), access to information ($r = -.10$, $p < .01$), access to resources ($r = -.10$, $p < .01$), leader supportiveness ($r = -.09$, $p < .05$), and collectivism ($r = -.08$, $p < .05$) in the entire sample.

Organizational destructive deviance was significantly positively related to Machiavellianism ($r = .17$, $p < .01$) and negatively related to a high ethical orientation ($r = -.19$, $p < .01$), sociopolitical support ($r = -.12$, $p < .01$), access to information ($r = -.14$, $p < .01$), access to resources ($r = -.08$, $p < .05$), and collectivism ($r = -.20$, $p < .01$) in the entire sample.

Unlike the pattern of correlations for destructive deviance, innovative constructive deviance, one form of constructive deviance, was more significantly related to the individual, situational, and cultural factors. In the entire sample, innovative constructive deviance was significantly negatively related to Machiavellianism ($r$= -.09, $p$ < .05) and positively related to a high ethical orientation ($r$= .18, $p$ < .01), access to information ($r$= .14, $p$ < .01), access to resources ($r$= .08, $p$ < .05), leader supportiveness ($r$= .10, $p$ < .01), and collectivism ($r$= .09 $p$ < .05) in the entire sample. Challenging constructive deviance was positively related to Machiavellianism ($r$= .08, $p$ < .05), individualism ($r$= .08, $p$ < .05) and negatively related to access to information ($r$= -.08, $p$ < .05) but unrelated to the other factors in the entire sample. With exception of perceived justice ($r$= .10, $p$ < .01), interpersonal constructive deviance was unrelated to the individual, situational, and cultural factors in the entire sample.

Moreover, mean differences for deviance between the Canadian and Mexican samples were examined. Refer to Tables 2 and 3. While the Mexican sample engaged in less organizational destructive deviance compared to the Canadian sample (mean=1.50 versus 1.64), the Mexican sample engaged in significantly *more* interpersonal destructive deviance compared to their Canadian counterparts (mean=1.63 versus 1.44). The differences between the Mexican and Canadian sample for organizational ($t$= 2.80, $p$ < .01) and interpersonal ($t$= -3.11, $p$ < .01) destructive deviance were significant.

In addition, the Canadian sample engaged in significantly more innovative organizational constructive deviance compared to the Mexican sample (mean=4.32 versus 3.99). The difference between the Canadian and Mexican samples was significant ($t$= 3.10, $p < .01$). However, no significant differences were found between the Canadian and Mexican samples for challenging organizational ($t$= -.34, n.s.) and interpersonal ($t$= -.37, n.s.) constructive deviance.

**The Overall Relationship Between Destructive and Constructive Deviance**

Based on the literature, it was expected that there would be a low to moderate positive relationship between destructive and constructive deviance. Since destructive and constructive deviance both encompasses behaviors that violate the organizational norms, it was anticipated the two forms of deviance would be positively related to each other. However, it was expected that the strength of the relationship between constructive and destructive deviance would be low to moderate because the two forms of deviance differ. While constructive deviance includes behaviors that are used to advance the organization's interests, destructive deviance encompasses behaviors that threaten the well-being of the organization.

As expected, organizational destructive deviance was moderately and positively related to innovative organizational ($r = 0.11$, $p < 0.01$), challenging organizational ($r = 0.42$, $p < 0.01$) and interpersonal ($r = 0.37$, $p < 0.01$)

constructive deviance in the entire sample. In addition, interpersonal destructive deviance was moderately and positively related to innovative organizational ($r$ = 0.13, $p < 0.01$), challenging organizational ($r = 0.35$, $p < 0.01$) and interpersonal ($r$ = 0.28, $p < 0.01$) constructive deviance in the entire sample.

**Relations of Incumbent and Peers' Ratings of Deviance**

The peer- ratings were also used to complement the findings. A sub-sample of self- and peer- ratings was used to further examine the proposed relationships. This sample comprised matched ratings of an incumbent with his or her co-worker. The descriptive statistics for the sub-sample with both the self- and peer-ratings are shown in Table 4. The regression results are presented in Tables 6 through 41. The findings for the entire sample, Canadian and Mexican sub-samples are first presented, followed by those of the peer-rated sub-sample. Finally, a summary table is presented in order to report the results of the entire sample, the incumbents, and the peers in a single location.

Mean differences between the incumbent and peer ratings for deviance and inter-rater correlations were examined. Refer to Table 4. The mean peer-reports of destructive deviance were higher compared to incumbent- reports of destructive deviance. Although people are surprisingly willing to report that they have engaged in destructively deviant behaviors (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), the mean differences between incumbent and peer- reports may be due to certain biases, such as self-enhancing and social desirability response biases. Since incumbents

may find it more threatening to see themselves as having engaged in destructive deviant behaviors compared to their peers, they may be less likely to report that they have engaged in destructive deviant acts.

Specifically, the mean of peer-reported interpersonal destructive deviance was 1.81 compared to 1.45 for incumbent-reported interpersonal destructive deviance. Similarly, the mean of peer-reported organizational destructive deviance was 1.75 compared to 1.54 for incumbent-reported organizational destructive deviance. Peer-reports of interpersonal ($t$= -4.56, $p < .001$) and organizational ($t$= -3.29, $p < .05$) destructive deviance were significantly higher than incumbent-reports.

With exception of challenging organizational constructive deviance, the mean incumbent-reports of constructive deviance were higher compared to peer-reports of constructive deviance. Specifically, the mean of incumbent-reported innovative organizational constructive deviance was 4.20 compared to 4.05 for peer-reported innovative organizational constructive deviance. Similarly, the mean of incumbent-reported interpersonal constructive deviance was 2.53 compared to 2.45 for peer-reported interpersonal constructive deviance. Unlike the other two forms of constructive deviance, the mean incumbent-reported challenging constructive deviance was lower compared to peer-reported challenging constructive deviance (mean=1.76 versus 1.87). The differences between peer- and incumbent reports for innovative organizational ($t$= 1.43, n.s.), challenging

organizational ($t$= -1.34, n.s.) and interpersonal ($t$= 0.88, n.s.) constructive deviance were not significant.

The inter-rater correlations were also examined. With exception of innovative constructive deviance, the correlations between incumbents and peer ratings were moderately and significantly correlated to each other. The correlational analysis suggested that incumbent-rated interpersonal destructive deviance was positively related to peer-rated interpersonal destructive deviance ($r$= .36, $p$ < .01). Incumbent-rated organizational destructive deviance was positively related to peer-rated organizational destructive deviance ($r$= .33, $p$ < .01).

Also, the inter-rater correlations for constructive deviance were within the same ranges. Incumbent-rated challenging organizational constructive deviance was positively related to peer-rated challenging organizational constructive deviance ($r$= .37, $p$ < .01). Similarly, incumbent-rated interpersonal constructive deviance was positively related to peer-rated interpersonal constructive deviance ($r$= .35, $p$ < .01).

In general, the findings of the multiple regression analyses of the individual and situational factors were similar in the peer-rated sub-sample. Refer to Tables 9 and 10. With respect to the individual factors, Machiavellianism was related to both self- ($\beta$= .18, $p$ < .05) and peer- ($\beta$= .14, $p$ < .05) ratings of interpersonal destructive deviance. A high ethical orientation and perceived justice were unrelated to both self- and peer- reports of destructive deviance. Furthermore, with

exception to the significant relation between Machiavellianism and self-reported innovative constructive deviance ($\beta$= -.12, $p < .05$), Machiavellianism was found to be unrelated to both self- reported and peer-reported constructive deviance.

In the peer-rated sub-sample, the multiple regression analyses of the situational factors in predicting self- and peer- reported deviance were similar. Refer to Tables 31 and 32. With exception to the significant relation between sociopolitical support and self-reported organizational destructive deviance ($\beta$= -.20, $p < .01$), the situational factors were found to be unrelated to both self-reported and peer-reported destructive deviance.

With respect to constructive deviance, leadership supportiveness, access to information and resources were unrelated to both self- and peer-reported constructive deviance. The findings relating to sociopolitical support slightly differed for the self- and peer-reported constructive deviance. Sociopolitical support was significantly related to peer-reported challenging organizational ($\beta$= -.17, $p < .05$) and peer-reported interpersonal ($\beta$= -.16, $p < .05$) constructive deviance but not self-reported challenging and interpersonal constructive deviance. These differences will be addressed in the discussion.

Overall, the findings of the regression analyses of individual factors suggest that self-report destructive deviance measures explained more variance compared to peer-reported measures. After entering the control variables, when the individual factors were entered together, there was a significant amount of

incremental variance in predicting self-reported organizational ($\Delta R^2 = .07$, $p < .001$) and self-reported interpersonal destructive deviance ($\Delta R^2 = .04$, $p < .01$) but not peer-reported destructive deviance. Similarly, there was a significant amount of incremental variance in predicting self- reported innovative organizational constructive deviance ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p < .05$) but not peer-reported innovative organizational constructive deviance.

However, the results slightly differed for the two other factors of constructive deviance. There was a slightly greater amount of incremental variance in predicting peer-reported challenging organizational ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, n.s.) and interpersonal ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p < .10$) constructive deviance compared to self-reported challenging organizational ($\Delta R^2 = .001$, n.s.) and interpersonal ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, n.s.) constructive deviance.

When the situational factors were entered together, there was a significant amount of incremental variance in predicting self-reported organizational destructive deviance ($\Delta R^2 = .06$, $p < .01$) and a marginal amount of incremental variance in predicting self-reported interpersonal destructive deviance ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .10$) but not peer-reported destructive deviance. However, with respect to constructive deviance, peer-reported challenging organizational ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .10$) and interpersonal ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, n.s.) constructive deviance explained slightly a greater amount of incremental variance compared to self-reported challenging organizational ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, n.s.) and interpersonal ($\Delta R^2 = .004$, n.s.) constructive deviance. Overall, the findings suggest that self-reports of deviance explained a

greater amount of incremental variance compared to the peer-reports. A possible explanation may be that incumbents were less willing to openly display their behaviors because they outwardly violated the organizational norms. Consequently, the peers were unable to see the deviant behaviors of the incumbents. Alternatively, the presence of common method variance may explain these findings. Differences between the incumbent and peer ratings for deviance will be further elaborated in the discussion.

**Tests of Hypotheses**

The findings for the entire sample and peer-rated sub-sample are first reported. A discussion on country differences in the individual, situational, and cultural factors then follows. Similar to Christmann (2000), several regression analyses are presented in the same table in order to compare the two forms of deviance-- destructive and constructive deviance. The regressions for destructive deviance are presented in the first two columns followed by the analyses for constructive deviance in the next three columns.

## Testing the Relationship Between the Individual Factors and Deviance

### Hypothesis 1: Machiavellianism is positively related to destructive deviance.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that there is a positive relationship between Machiavellanism and destructive deviance. The results of the multiple regression suggest that after controlling for age, gender, industry, and country, Machiavellianism was positively related to organizational ($\beta = .13$, $p < .01$) and interpersonal ($\beta = .14$, $p < .01$) destructive deviance for the entire sample. Refer to Table 6 for the results of the multiple regression analysis of Machiavellianism in predicting destructive deviance for the entire sample.

To complement the findings, the regression analysis for the peer- rated sub-sample show that Machiavellianism was positively related to self-reported ($\beta = .18$, $p < .05$) and peer-reported ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$) interpersonal destructive deviance. Machiavellianism was positively related to self-reported organizational destructive deviance ($\beta = .21$, $p < .001$) but not peer-reported organizational destructive deviance ($\beta = .09$, n.s.). The regression analysis for the peer-rated sub-sample is shown in Table 9. Based on the results of the entire sample, Hypothesis 1 was supported. However, the results of the peer-rated sub-sample partially supported Hypothesis 1.

**Hypothesis 2: Machiavellianism is positively related to constructive deviance.**

Hypothesis 2 predicted that there is a positive relationship between Machiavellanism and constructive deviance. The multiple regression results suggest that after controlling for age, gender, industry, and country, Machiavellianism was found to be unrelated to innovative organizational, challenging organizational and interpersonal constructive deviance for the entire sample. Table 6 presents the results of the multiple regression analysis of Machiavellianism in predicting constructive deviance for the entire sample.

Regression analyses were conducted for the peer-rated sub-sample. The regression analyses for the peer-rated sub-sample are shown in Table 10. The findings for the peer- rated sub-sample shows that Machiavellianism was negatively related to self-reported ($\beta$= -.12, $p < .05$) but not peer-reported ($\beta$= -.01, n.s.) innovative organizational constructive deviance. Machiavellianism was also found to be marginally negatively related to peer-reported ($\beta$= -.11, $p < .10$) but not self-reported ($\beta$= .01, n.s.) interpersonal constructive deviance. Machiavellianism was also unrelated to both self-reported ($\beta$= .03, n.s.) and peer-reported ($\beta$= .09, n.s.) challenging organizational constructive deviance. Based on the above, the results partially supported Hypothesis 2.

**Hypothesis 3: A high ethical orientation is negatively related to destructive deviance.**

Hypothesis 3 predicted that there is a negative relationship between a high ethical orientation and destructive deviance. As expected, the regression results indicated that after controlling for age, gender, industry, and country, people with a high ethical orientation were less likely to engage in both organizational ($\beta$= -.16, $p < .001$) and interpersonal ($\beta$= -.08, $p < .05$) destructive deviance for the entire sample. Table 6 presents the results of the multiple regression analysis of ethical orientation in predicting destructive deviance for the entire sample.

The regression analysis for the peer-rated sub-sample showed that a high ethical orientation was marginally related to self-reported ($\beta$= -.10, n.s.) organizational destructive deviance and unrelated to peer-reported ($\beta$= .05, n.s.) organizational destructive deviance. Similarly, ethical orientation was unrelated to self-reported interpersonal destructive deviance ($\beta$= -.08, n.s.) and peer-reported interpersonal destructive deviance ($\beta$= .04, n.s.). The regression analyses for the peer-rated sub-sample are shown in Table 9. Based on the results of the entire sample, Hypothesis 3 is supported. The results of the peer-rated sub-sample, however, did not support Hypothesis 3.

**Hypothesis 4: Perceived justice is negatively related to destructive deviance.**

Hypothesis 4 posited that there is a negative relationship between perceived justice and destructive deviance. As predicted, the regression analysis revealed that after controlling for age, gender, industry, and country, justice perceptions were negatively related to organizational ($\beta$= -.08, $p < .05$) and interpersonal ($\beta$= -.09, $p < .05$) destructive deviance for the entire sample. Table 6 presents the results of the multiple regression analysis of perceived justice in predicting destructive deviance for the entire sample.

As shown in Table 9, the results of the multiple regression analysis for the peer-rated sub-sample show that justice perceptions were unrelated to organizational and interpersonal destructive deviance. While the results of the peer-rated sample did not support Hypothesis 4, the findings of the entire sample supported the prediction.

**Country Differences in the Individual Factors of Deviance.** Sub-group analyses were also conducted to examine whether the overall relationship between individual factors and deviance significantly differed across the Canadian and Mexican sub-groups. As shown in Table 7, the results suggest that the relationship between the individual factors and interpersonal destructive deviance did not significantly differ across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Chow test, $F$ =

1.19, n.s.). Similarly, further analyses comparing the coefficients also indicated that Machiavellianism (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.02$, n.s.), ethical orientation (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 2.03$, n.s.), and perceived justice (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 1.60$, n.s.) did not differ across the Canadian and Mexican samples.

However, the overall relationship between the individual factors and organizational destructive deviance significantly differed across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Chow test, $\underline{F} = 5.17$, $\underline{p} < .05$). Further analyses testing whether the coefficients differed across the countries suggested that the relationship between Machiavellianism and organizational destructive deviance varied across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 4.21$, $\underline{p} < .05$). As shown in Table 7, Machiavellianism was positively related to organizational destructive deviance for the Canadian sample ($\beta = .29$, $\underline{p} < .001$) but not for the Mexican sample ($\beta = .02$, n.s). The Canadian and Mexican samples, however, did not differ on the other individual factors-- ethical orientation (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 1.24$, n.s.) and perceived justice (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 1.73$, n.s.).

As shown in Table 8, sub-group analyses were also conducted to examine whether the overall relationship between the individual factors and constructive deviance significantly differed across the sub-groups. The results suggest that the relationship between the individual factors and innovative organizational constructive deviance significantly differed across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Chow test, $\underline{F} = 2.69$, $\underline{p} < .05$). Further analyses testing whether the coefficients differed across the countries suggested that the relationship between

Machiavellianism and innovative organizational constructive deviance varied significantly across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Wald test, $F = 7.18$, $p < .01$). As shown in Table 8, the strength of the Machiavellianism-innovative constructive deviance relationship was slightly greater in the Canadian sample ($\beta = -.07$, n.s.) compared to the Mexican sample ($\beta = -.04$, n.s.).

In addition, the overall relationship between the individual factors and challenging constructive deviance significantly differed across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Chow test, $F = 2.28$, $p < .05$). Further analyses, however, suggested that the relationship between Machiavellianism and challenging organizational constructive deviance did not differ across countries (Wald test, $F = 0.34$, n.s.).

Finally, the results suggest that the overall relationship between the individual factors and interpersonal constructive deviance significantly differed across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Chow test, $F = 2.85$, $p < .05$). Again, further analyses revealed that the relationship between Machiavellianism and interpersonal constructive deviance did not significantly differ across countries (Wald test, $F = 0.66$, n.s.).

## Testing the Relationship Between the Situational Factors and Deviance

### Hypothesis 5: Job autonomy is negatively related to destructive deviance.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that there is a negative relationship between job autonomy and destructive deviance. As shown in Table 13, the results of the multiple regression analysis showed that after controlling for age, gender, industry and country, job autonomy was unrelated to organizational destructive deviance ($\beta$= -.03, n.s.) and marginally related to interpersonal destructive deviance ($\beta$= -.07, $p < .10$) for the entire sample. The results of the multiple regression analysis for the peer-rated sub-sample showed similar results. Refer to Table 16. Job autonomy was unrelated to both self- and peer-rated organizational and interpersonal destructive deviance. Consequently, Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

### Hypothesis 6: RBSE mediates the relationship between job autonomy and destructive deviance.

Hypothesis 6 posited that the relationship between job autonomy and destructive deviance is mediated by RBSE. Contrary to expectations, the results of the regressions did not support the hypothesis that RBSE mediates the relationship between job autonomy and destructive deviance. Since job autonomy was not

significantly related to destructive deviance in Hypothesis 5, the mediation model for destructive deviance, as predicted by Hypothesis 6, was not supported.

**Hypothesis 7: RBSE moderates the relationship between job autonomy and destructive deviance in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for people with low RBSE than for people with high RBSE.**

Hypothesis 7 posited that the relationship between job autonomy and destructive deviance is moderated by RBSE. Hierarchical moderated regressions were used to test the hypothesis. Moderated regressions differ from multiple regressions in that cross-product terms of the independent variables that are thought to interact with each other, are entered in the regression after the main effects of the independent variables are included (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). In order to test a moderating effect, $\underline{R}^2$ without the interaction term is compared to that with the cross-product term. The increment in $\underline{R}^2$ is then tested for statistical significance. The results of the regression analysis testing the job autonomy and RBSE interaction in predicting destructive deviance in the entire sample is presented in Table 21. The regression analysis for the peer-rated sub-sample is presented in Table 24.

As shown in Table 21, the control variables were first entered in Step 1, followed by the independent variables in Step 2. Finally, the interaction terms were entered in Step 3. The results show that RBSE does not moderate the

relationship between job autonomy and destructive deviance in the entire sample. The interaction terms did not explain a significant amount of incremental variances in predicting organizational ($\Delta \underline{R}^2 = .001$, n.s.) and interpersonal ($\Delta \underline{R}^2 = .000$, n.s.) destructive deviance in the entire sample.

The results of the multiple regression analysis for the peer-rated sub-sample show slightly different results. Refer to Table 24. Once the controls were entered, the interaction terms explained a significant amount of incremental variance in predicting peer-reported interpersonal destructive deviance ($\Delta \underline{R}^2 = .01$, $\underline{p} < .05$). Contrary to expectations, the interaction terms did not explain a significant amount of incremental variance in predicting peer-reported organizational destructive deviance and self-reported organizational and interpersonal destructive deviance.

The pattern of the interaction was explored by assigning persons who scored below the 25$^{th}$ percentile and above the 75$^{th}$ percentile on the RBSE measure into low and high RBSE groups, respectively. Destructive deviance was then regressed on job autonomy for each group. Figure 4 illustrates how the relationship between job autonomy and destructive deviance varied as a function of RBSE in this study. Figure 4 reveals that employees with low RBSE and *high* job autonomy engaged in more interpersonal destructive deviance compared to employees with high RBSE and high job autonomy. Furthermore, employees with low RBSE and low job autonomy engaged in *less* interpersonal destructive deviance compared to employees with high RBSE and low job autonomy.

Although these finding are contrary to expectations, they are nevertheless not surprising.

Based on the above, the results fail to support Hypothesis 7, which stated that, the relationship between job autonomy and destructive deviance will be stronger for people with low RBSE rather than high RBSE.

**Hypothesis 8: Job autonomy is positively related to constructive deviance.**

Hypothesis 8 predicted that there is a positive relationship between job autonomy and constructive deviance. The regression results confirmed that, with age, gender, industry, and country controlled for, job autonomy was related to innovative organizational constructive deviance ($\beta = .21$, $p < .001$) and marginally related to interpersonal constructive deviance ($\beta = .07$, $p < .10$) but not challenging organizational constructive deviance ($\beta = .03$, n.s.) in the entire sample. Refer to Table 13 for the results of the multiple regression analysis of job autonomy in predicting constructive deviance for the entire sample.

As shown in Table 17, the results of the multiple regression analysis for the peer-rated sub-sample showed that job autonomy was related to self-ratings ($\beta = .18$, $p < .01$) and marginally related to peer-ratings ($\beta = .11$, $p < .10$) ratings of innovative organizational constructive deviance. In addition, job autonomy was

related to peer-ratings ($\beta$= .12, $p < .05$) but not self-ratings ($\beta$= -.03, n.s.) of challenging organizational deviance. Contrary to expectations, job autonomy was unrelated to both self-ratings ($\beta$= .03, n.s.) and peer-ratings ($\beta$= .06, n.s.) of interpersonal constructive deviance. Based on the findings above, Hypothesis 8 is only partially supported.

**Hypothesis 9: RBSE mediates the relationship between job autonomy and constructive deviance.**

Hypothesis 9 posited that the relationship between job autonomy and constructive deviance is mediated by RBSE. Since job autonomy was found to be significantly related to constructive deviance, a series of regression models was used to assess the mediating role of RBSE. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), certain conditions must hold in order to establish mediation. First, the independent variable must affect the mediator. Second, the independent variable must be shown to affect the dependent variable. Third, the mediator must affect the dependent variable. To establish mediation, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be significantly less in the third step when the mediator is entered in the regression compared to the second step when the independent variable is entered alone. According to Baron and Kenny (1986) the strongest demonstration of mediation or "perfect mediation" holds if the independent variable has no effect when the mediator is controlled.

The results of the mediation analysis show that RBSE mediates the relationship between job autonomy and innovative constructive deviance. Table 13 presents the results of the regression analyses testing the RBSE mediation in predicting constructive deviance in the entire sample. First, since job autonomy was significantly related to RBSE in the entire sample ($\beta = .29$, $p < .001$), the first criterion was satisfied. Refer to Table 20 for the results of the multiple regression analysis of job autonomy in predicting RBSE. Second, job autonomy was found to be significantly related to innovative organizational deviance for the entire sample ($\beta = .21$, $p < .001$) in Hypothesis 8, therefore satisfying the second condition of mediation. Table 13 shows the results of the multiple regression analysis of job autonomy in predicting constructive deviance for the entire sample. In addition, the results show that RBSE was significantly related to innovative organizational constructive deviance ($\beta = .42$, $p < .001$). The regression analysis also demonstrated that job autonomy had less of an effect on the innovative organizational constructive deviance after controlling for RBSE. As shown in Table 13, after controlling for age, gender, industry, and country in Step 1, job autonomy was significantly related to innovative organizational constructive deviance ($\beta = .21$, $p < .001$) in Step 2. However, after controlling for RBSE, the relationship between job autonomy and innovative organizational constructive deviance was less significant ($\beta = .08$, $p < .05$). While this is a very weak mediating effect, the results demonstrated that the job autonomy-innovative

organizational constructive deviance relationship was "partially mediated" by RBSE, according to Baron and Kenny (1986).

The results of the multiple regression analysis for the self- and peer-ratings sub-sample also showed that the relationship between job autonomy and innovative organizational constructive deviance was mediated by RBSE. Refer to Table 17. First, since job autonomy was significantly related to RBSE in the peer-rated sub-sample ($\beta = .22$, $p < .001$), the first criteria were satisfied. See Table 20 for the results of the multiple regression analysis of job autonomy in predicting RBSE. Second, job autonomy was found to be significantly related to self-rated innovative organizational deviance ($\beta = .18$, $p < .01$) in Hypothesis 8, therefore satisfying the second condition of mediation. Table 17 shows the results of the multiple regression analysis of job autonomy in predicting constructive deviance for the peer- rated sub-sample. In addition, the results show that RBSE was significantly related to self-rated innovative organizational constructive deviance ($\beta = .31$, $p < .001$).

The regression analysis also demonstrated that job autonomy had less of an effect on self- rated innovative organizational constructive deviance after controlling for RBSE. As shown in Table 17, after controlling for age, gender, and industry and country, job autonomy was significantly related to self-rated innovative organizational constructive deviance ($\beta = .18$, $p < .01$) in Step 2. However, after controlling for RBSE, the relationship between job autonomy and

self-rated innovative organizational constructive deviance was less significant ($\beta$= .12, $p < .05$). These results demonstrate that the job autonomy-innovative organizational constructive deviance relationship was "partially mediated" by RBSE. Based on the findings above, Hypothesis 9 was only partially supported.

**Hypothesis 10: RBSE moderates the relationship between job autonomy and constructive deviance in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for people with high RBSE than for people with low RBSE.**

Hypothesis 10 predicted that the relationship between job autonomy and constructive deviance was moderated by RBSE. The results of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis testing the job autonomy and RBSE interaction in predicting constructive deviance in the entire sample is presented in Table 21. The regression analysis for the peer-rated sub-sample is presented in Table 25.

The results showed that RBSE moderates the relationship between job autonomy and interpersonal constructive deviance in the entire sample. Refer to Table 21. The interaction terms explained a significant amount of incremental variances in predicting interpersonal constructive deviance ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p < .05$) but not innovative ($\Delta R^2 = .002$, n.s.) and challenging ($\Delta R^2 = .001$, n.s.) organizational constructive deviance in the entire sample.

As shown in Table 25, the results of the multiple regression analysis for the peer- rated sub-sample show similar results. The results indicated that once the controls were entered, the interaction terms explained a significant amount of incremental variances in predicting peer-reported interpersonal constructive deviance ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $p < .05$) and a marginal amount of incremental variance in predicting self-reported interpersonal constructive deviance ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p < .10$). Contrary to expectations, the interaction terms did not explain a significant amount of incremental variance in predicting self-reported and peer- reported innovative and challenging organizational constructive deviance.

The directions of the interactions were further explored in Figures 5 and 6. Overall, the figures illustrate that employees with high RBSE and low job autonomy engaged in more interpersonal constructive deviance compared to employees with low RBSE and job autonomy. As shown in Figures 5 and 6, contrary to expectations, employees with high RBSE and job autonomy engaged in *less* interpersonal constructive deviance compared to employees with low RBSE and high job autonomy. Taken together, the findings above partially supported Hypothesis 10, which stated that the relationship between job autonomy and constructive deviance will be stronger for people with high RBSE rather than low RBSE.

**Hypothesis 11(a): Sociopolitical support is negatively related to destructive deviance.**

Hypothesis 11(a) predicted that there is a negative relationship between sociopolitical support and destructive deviance. After entering the control variables, the findings of the multiple regressions suggest that people who receive more sociopolitical support are less likely to engage in organizational ($\beta$= -.16, $p$ < .01) but not interpersonal ($\beta$= -.07, n.s.) destructive deviance for the entire sample. Table 28 presents the results of the regression analysis of sociopolitical support in predicting destructive deviance for the entire sample.

As shown in Table 31, the results of the multiple regression analysis for the peer- rated sub-sample showed that sociopolitical support was negatively related to self-ratings of organizational ($\beta$= -.20, $p$ < .01) and marginally related to self-ratings of interpersonal ($\beta$= -.14, $p$ < .10) destructive deviance but not peer- ratings of destructive deviance. Based on the results, Hypothesis 11(a) is partially supported.

**Hypothesis 11(b): Access to information is negatively related to destructive deviance.**

Hypothesis 11(b) predicted that there is a negative relationship between access to information and destructive deviance. After entering the control variables, the findings for the multiple regressions suggest that access to information was significantly negatively related to organizational ($\beta$= -.11, $p$ < .05) and marginally related to interpersonal ($\beta$= -.08, $p$ < .10) destructive deviance for the entire sample. Table 28 presents the results of the regression analysis of access to information in predicting destructive deviance for the entire sample.

As shown in Table 31, the results of the multiple regression analysis for the peer- rated sub-sample show that access to information was unrelated to self- ($\beta$= -.11, n.s.) and peer- ($\beta$= .04, n.s.) ratings of organizational destructive deviance. Access to information was also unrelated to self- ($\beta$= -.03, n.s.) and peer- ($\beta$= .01, n.s.) ratings of interpersonal destructive deviance. Based on the findings of the entire sample, Hypothesis 11(b) was partially supported. The results of the peer- rated sub-sample, however, did not support the hypothesis.

**Hypothesis 11(c): Access to resources is negatively related to destructive deviance.**

Hypothesis 11(c) predicted that there is a negative relationship between access to resources and destructive deviance. The multiple regressions results suggested that after entering the control variables, access to resources was unrelated to organizational ($\beta$= .01, n.s.) and interpersonal ($\beta$= -.02, n.s.) destructive deviance for the entire sample. Table 28 presents the results of the regression analysis of sociopolitical support in predicting destructive deviance for the entire sample.

As shown in Table 31, the results of the multiple regression analysis for the peer- rated sub-sample show that access to resources was unrelated to self- and peer- ratings of destructive deviance. Based on the findings above, Hypothesis 11(c) was not supported.

**Hypothesis 12(a): Sociopolitical support is positively related to constructive deviance.**

Hypothesis 12(a) predicted that there is a positive relationship between sociopolitical support and constructive deviance. Contrary to expectations, after controlling for age, gender, industry, and country, the regression analysis revealed that sociopolitical support was unrelated to constructive deviance in the entire

sample. Table 28 presents the results of the regression analysis of sociopolitical support in predicting constructive deviance for the entire sample.

As shown in Table 32, the results of the multiple regression analysis for the peer-rated sub-sample show that sociopolitical support was related to peer-ratings of interpersonal constructive deviance ($\beta$= -.16, $p < .05$) and peer-rating of challenging organizational constructive deviance ($\beta$= -.17, $p < .05$). Sociopolitical support was unrelated to peer-ratings of innovative organizational constructive deviance and self-ratings of constructive deviance. Based on the findings of the entire sample, Hypothesis 12(a) is not supported. The results of the peer- rated sub-sample, however, partially support the hypothesis.

**Hypothesis 12(b): Access to information is positively related to constructive deviance.**

Hypothesis 12(b) predicted that there is a positive relationship between access to information and constructive deviance. The regression results showed that after controlling for age, gender, and industry, access to information was positively related to innovative organizational constructive deviance ($\beta$= .17, $p <$ .001) in the entire sample. Contrary to expectations, access to information was unrelated to challenging ($\beta$= -.04, n.s.) and interpersonal ($\beta$= -.04, n.s.) constructive deviance in the entire sample. Refer to Table 28 for the results of the

regression analysis of access to information in predicting constructive deviance for the entire sample.

As shown in Table 32, the results of the multiple regression analysis for the peer-rated sub-sample show that access to information was unrelated to self-and peer-ratings of constructive deviance. Based on the findings of the entire sample, Hypothesis 12(b) was partially supported. The results of the peer-rated sub-sample, however, did not support the hypothesis.

**Hypothesis 12(c): Access to resources is positively related to constructive deviance.**

Hypothesis 12(c) predicted that there is a positive relationship between access to resources and constructive deviance. Contrary to expectations, the regression analysis results suggested that, with age, gender, industry, and country controlled for, access to resources was unrelated to constructive deviance in the entire sample. Refer to Table 28 for the results of the multiple regression analysis of the situational factors for the entire sample. Similarly, as shown in Table 32, the results of the multiple regression analysis for the self- and peer- ratings sub-sample show that access to resources was unrelated to self-and peer- ratings of constructive deviance. Based on the findings above, Hypothesis 12(c) was not supported.

**Hypothesis 13: Leader supportiveness is negatively related to destructive deviance.**

Hypothesis 13 predicted that there is a negative relationship between leader supportiveness and destructive deviance. Contrary to expectations, the regression results showed that after controlling for age, gender, industry, and country, leader supportiveness was unrelated to organizational ($\beta$= .02, n.s.) and interpersonal ($\beta$= .02, n.s.) destructive deviance in the entire sample. Refer to Table 28 for the results of the multiple regression analysis of the situational factors for the entire sample. As shown in Table 31, the results of the multiple regression analysis for the peer-rated sub-sample showed that leader supportiveness was marginally related to self-ratings of interpersonal ($\beta$= -.15, $p < .10$) but not self-ratings of organizational ($\beta$= .07, n.s.) destructive deviance. Leader supportiveness was also unrelated to peer-ratings of destructive deviance. Based on the findings above, Hypothesis 13 was not supported.

**Hypothesis 14: Leader supportiveness is positively related to constructive deviance.**

Hypothesis 14 predicted that there is a positive relationship between leader supportiveness and constructive deviance. Contrary to expectations, the regression

analysis results showed that, after controlling for age, gender, industry, and country, leader supportiveness was marginally related to innovative ($\beta$= .09, $p$ < .10) and unrelated to challenging organizational ($\beta$= .01, n.s.) and interpersonal constructive deviance ($\beta$= -.02, n.s.) in the entire sample. Refer to Table 28 for the results of the multiple regression analysis of the situational factors for the entire sample. Similarly, as shown in Table 32, the results of the multiple regression analysis for the peer-rated sub-sample suggest that leader supportiveness was unrelated to self- and peer-ratings of constructive deviance. Based on the findings above, Hypothesis 14 was not supported.

**Country Differences in the Situational Factors of Deviance.** Sub-group analyses were conducted to examine whether there were country differences relating to the situational factors of deviance. As shown in Table 14, the results suggested that the overall RBSE mediation effect significantly differed across the Canadian and Mexican samples in predicting organizational destructive (Chow test, $F$ = 3.14, $p$ < .05) but not interpersonal destructive (Chow test, $F$ = 1.82, n.s.) deviance. To further examine the differences, analyses revealed that the relationship between job autonomy and organizational destructive deviance significantly differed across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Wald test, $F$ = 3.92, $p$ < .05). The direction of the job autonomy - organizational destructive

deviance relationship slightly differed in the Canadian sample ($\beta$= .04, n.s.) and the Mexican sample ($\beta$= -.06, n.s.).

Furthermore, the analyses testing the RBSE mediation for constructive deviance revealed that there were no significant differences across the two samples in predicting innovative organizational (Chow test, $\underline{F}$ = 1.26, n.s.), challenging organizational (Chow test, $\underline{F}$ = 1.13, n.s.), and interpersonal (Chow test, $\underline{F}$ = 1.46, n.s.) constructive deviance.

Sub-group analyses were also conducted to examine whether the overall job autonomy and RBSE interaction significantly differed across the sub-groups. Refer to Tables 22 and 23. The results suggested that after controlling for age, gender, and industry, the job autonomy and RBSE interaction in predicting organizational destructive deviance significantly differed across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Chow test, $\underline{F}$ = 2.56, $\underline{p} < .05$). Further analyses examining the specific interaction term, however, revealed that the interaction terms did not differ across countries (Wald test, $\underline{F}$ = 0.76, n.s.). Similarly, the job autonomy and RBSE interaction in predicting interpersonal destructive deviance did not differ significantly across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Chow test, $\underline{F}$ = 1.61, n.s.). The sub-group analyses testing the job autonomy and RBSE moderation for constructive deviance also revealed that there were no significant differences across the two samples in predicting innovative organizational (Chow test, $\underline{F}$ = 1.19, n.s.), challenging organizational (Chow test, $\underline{F}$ = 1.11, n.s.), and interpersonal (Chow test, $\underline{F}$ = 1.27, n.s.) constructive deviance.

Analyses were also conducted to examine whether the overall relationship between the situational factors and destructive deviance significantly differed across the sub-groups. As shown in Table 29, the overall relationship between the situational factors and organizational destructive deviance significantly differed across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Chow test, $\underline{F} = 2.51$, $\underline{p} < .05$). However, further analyses testing whether the coefficients differed across the countries indicated that sociopolitical support (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.37$, n.s.), access to information (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.08$, n.s.), access to resources (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.48$, n.s.), and leader supportiveness (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 2.97$, n.s.) did not vary significantly across the Canadian and Mexican samples.

While the overall relationship between the situational factors and interpersonal destructive deviance did not significantly differ across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Chow test, $\underline{F} = 1.80$, n.s.), further analyses testing the relationship between the specific independent variables and interpersonal destructive deviance indicated that the coefficients for access to information (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 5.49$, $\underline{p} < .05$) differed across the countries. The relationship between access to information and interpersonal destructive deviance relationship was significant in the Canadian sample ($\beta = -.21$, $\underline{p} < .01$) but not the Mexican sample ($\beta = -.02$, n.s.).

Sub-group analyses were also conducted to examine whether the overall relationship between the situational factors and constructive deviance significantly differed across the sub-groups. As shown in Table 30, the overall relationship

between the situational factors and innovative constructive deviance significantly differed across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Chow test, $\underline{F} = 2.55$, $\underline{p} < .05$). However, further analyses testing the relationship between the specific independent variables and innovative organizational constructive deviance indicated that the coefficients for sociopolitical support (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.001$, n.s.), access to information (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.09$, n.s.), access to resources (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.58$, n.s.), and leader supportiveness (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.81$, n.s.) did not significantly differ across the Canadian and Mexican samples.

Similarly, the overall relationship between the situational factors and interpersonal constructive deviance significantly differed across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Chow test, $\underline{F} = 2.15$, $\underline{p} < .05$). However, when the relationship between the specific independent variables and interpersonal constructive deviance was examined, sociopolitical support (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 1.12$, n.s.), access to information (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 1.17$, n.s.), access to resources (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.17$, n.s.), and leader supportiveness (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.51$, n.s.) did not significantly differ across the Canadian and Mexican samples.

Finally, the sub-group analyses found that the overall relationship between the situational factors and challenging organizational constructive deviance did not significantly differ across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Chow test, $\underline{F} = 1.35$, n.s.). Further analyses testing the relationship between the specific independent variables and challenging organizational constructive deviance also indicated that the coefficients for sociopolitical support (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.13$, n.s.),

access to information (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.15$, n.s.), access to resources (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.53$, n.s.), and leader supportiveness (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.14$, n.s.) did not significantly differ across the Canadian and Mexican samples.

All in all, the findings of the regression analyses suggest that the individual factors explained slightly more variance in destructive deviance compared to the situational variables. After entering the control variables, when the individual factors were entered together, there was a significant amount of incremental variance in predicting organizational ($\Delta \underline{R}^2 = .06$, $\underline{p} < .001$) and interpersonal destructive deviance ($\Delta \underline{R}^2 = .04$, $\underline{p} < .001$). On the other hand, the situational factors explained a slightly less amount of incremental variance in organizational ($\Delta \underline{R}^2 = .04$, $\underline{p} < .001$) and interpersonal destructive deviance ($\Delta \underline{R}^2 = .02$, $\underline{p} < .05$) after the controls were entered.

However, with respect to constructive deviance, the situational factors explained a greater amount of variance compared to the individual factors. After the control variables, there was a significant amount of incremental variance in predicting innovative organizational ($\Delta \underline{R}^2 = .03$, $\underline{p} < .001$) but not challenging organizational ($\Delta \underline{R}^2 = .01$, n.s.) and interpersonal ($\Delta \underline{R}^2 = .01$, n.s.) constructive deviance when the situational factors were entered together. Conversely, when the individual factors were entered together, there was not a significant amount of variance explained in innovative organizational ($\Delta \underline{R}^2 = .003$, n.s.), challenging organizational ($\Delta \underline{R}^2 = .003$, n.s.) and interpersonal ($\Delta \underline{R}^2 = .001$, n.s.) constructive deviance. These findings will be further explored in the discussion.

## Testing the Relationship Between the Cultural Factors and Deviance

### Hypothesis 15: Individualism is positively related to destructive deviance.

Hypothesis 15 predicted that at the cultural level, there is a positive relationship between individualism and destructive deviance. The hypothesis posited that people from more individualist cultures, such as Canada, will be more likely to engage in destructive deviance compared to people from more collectivist cultures, such as Mexico. Contrary to expectations, the Canadian sample had a *lower* individualist orientation (mean individualism score = 4.45) compared to the Mexican sample (mean individualism score = 5.32).

Despite this unexpected finding, the relationship between individualism and destructive deviance was further examined. The regression analysis results showed that, after controlling for age, gender, industry, and country, individualism was positively related to organizational ($\beta = .10$, $p < .05$) and interpersonal ($\beta = .09$, $p < .05$) destructive deviance in the entire sample. Collectivism was significantly negatively related to organizational ($\beta = -.20$, $p < .001$) and interpersonal ($\beta = -.11$, $p < .01$) destructive deviance in the entire sample. Refer to Table 35 for the results of the multiple regression analysis of the cultural factors for the entire sample.

In the peer-rated sub-sample, individualism was positively related to self-reported interpersonal ($\beta = .16$, $p < .01$) and self-reported organizational ($\beta = .18$, $p < .01$) destructive deviance but only marginally related to peer-reported interpersonal ($\beta = .11$, $p < .10$) and peer-reported organizational ($\beta = .12$, $p < .10$) destructive deviance. Collectivism was significantly negatively related to self-reported interpersonal ($\beta = -.17$, $p < .01$) and organizational ($\beta = -.18$, $p < .01$) destructive deviance. Moreover, collectivism was related to peer-reported ($\beta = -.15$, $p < .05$) interpersonal but not peer-reported ($\beta = -.01$, n.s.) organizational destructive deviance. Refer to Table 38 for the results of the multiple regression analysis of the cultural factors for the peer-rated sub-sample. Based on the findings above, no support was found for Hypothesis 15 at the cultural level.

**Hypothesis 16: Individualism is positively related to constructive deviance.**

Hypothesis 16 predicted that there is a positive relationship between individualism and constructive deviance at the cultural level. The hypothesis suggested that people from more individualist cultures, such as Canada, would be more likely to engage in constructive deviance compared to people from more collectivist cultures, such as Mexico.

Despite the unexpected finding that the Canadian sample had a *lower* individualist orientation, the relationship between individualism and constructive deviance was further examined. The regression analysis results showed that, after controlling for age, gender, industry, and country, individualism was positively related to interpersonal constructive deviance ($\beta = .09$, $p < .05$), marginally related to challenging organizational ($\beta = .07$, $p < .10$), and unrelated to innovative organizational ($\beta = -01$ n.s.) constructive deviance in the entire sample. Collectivism was significantly positively related to innovative organizational ($\beta = .11$, $p < .01$) and unrelated to challenging organizational ($\beta = -.03$, n.s.) and interpersonal ($\beta = .01$ n.s.) constructive deviance in the entire sample. Refer to Table 35 for the results of the multiple regression analysis of the cultural factors for the entire sample.

Furthermore, in the peer-rated sub-sample, individualism was positively related to self- reported ($\beta = .15$, $p < .05$) and peer-reported ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$) interpersonal constructive deviance. Individualism was related to peer-reported challenging organizational ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$) but not self-reported challenging organizational deviance, nor self- and peer-reported innovative organizational constructive deviance. Collectivism was marginally related to self-reported challenging organizational constructive deviance ($\beta = -10$ $p < .10$) but not peer-rated challenging organizational constructive deviance or self- and peer- reported innovative organizational and interpersonal constructive deviance. Refer to Table

39 for the results of the multiple regression analysis of the cultural factors for the peer- rated sub-sample. Based on the findings above, no support was found for Hypothesis 16 at the cultural level.

**Country Differences in the Cultural Factors of Deviance.** Sub-group analyses were also conducted to examine whether the overall relationship between the cultural factors and destructive deviance significantly differed across the sub-groups. As shown in Table 36, the results suggest that the relationship between the cultural factors and interpersonal destructive deviance did not significantly differ across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Chow test, $\underline{F} = 1.04$, n.s.). Further analyses testing the relationship between the specific independent variables and interpersonal destructive deviance also indicated that the coefficients for individualism (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.02$, n.s.) and collectivism (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.74$, n.s.) did not significantly differ across the Canadian and Mexican samples.

The sub-group analyses, however, revealed that the overall relationship between the cultural factors and organizational destructive deviance significantly differed across the Canadian and Mexican samples (Chow test, $\underline{F} = 3.28$, $\underline{p} < .05$). Nevertheless, further analyses revealed that the coefficients for individualism (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 1.67$, n.s.) and collectivism (Wald test, $\underline{F} = 0.00$, n.s.) did not significantly differ across the Canadian and Mexican samples.

As shown in Table 37, sub-group analyses were also conducted to examine whether the overall relationship between the cultural factors and constructive

deviance significantly differed across the sub-groups. The results suggest that the relationship between the cultural factors and innovative organizational (Chow test, $F = 2.71$, $p < .05$), challenging organizational (Chow test, $F = 2.44$, $p < .05$), and interpersonal (Chow test, $F = 2.55$, $p < .05$) constructive deviance significantly differed across the Canadian and Mexican samples.

Further analyses were conducted to examine whether the relationship between the specific independent variables and constructive deviance differed across countries. The coefficients for challenging organizational constructive deviance and individualism (Wald test, $F = 8.61$, $p < .01$) and collectivism (Wald test, $F = 7.89$, $p < .01$) significantly differed across the Canadian and Mexican samples. As shown in Table 37, individualism was positively related to challenging organizational constructive deviance for the Canadian sample ($\beta = .18$, $p < .01$) but not for the Mexican sample ($\beta = -.01$, n.s). Collectivism was marginally negatively related to challenging organizational constructive deviance for Canadian sample ($\beta = -.12$, $p < .10$) but not for the Mexican sample ($\beta = .02$, n.s).

However, the relationship between innovative organizational constructive deviance and individualism (Wald test, $F = 1.87$, n.s.) and collectivism (Wald test, $F = 0.02$, n.s.) did not significantly differ across the Canadian and Mexican samples. Similarly, the relationship between interpersonal constructive deviance

and individualism (Wald test, $\underline{F}$ = 0.24, n.s.) and collectivism (Wald test, $\underline{F}$ = 0.00, n.s.) did not significantly differ across the Canadian and Mexican samples.

In sum, regression analyses were conducted to test the relationships between deviance and the individual, situational, and cultural factors. A revised model illustrating the support for the hypothesized relationships for the entire sample is shown in Figures 7, 8, and 9. In addition, a summary table outlining the support for the hypotheses can be found in Table 42.

**Additional Analyses**

Additional tests were conducted to examine the relationship between deviance and certain demographics, such as age and gender. Since the regression analyses suggested that age and gender were important variables in workplace deviance, additional tests were conducted to examine whether there were significant differences between males and females in terms of their deviance in the entire sample. Based on the literature, it was expected that males would engage in more deviance compared to women. Similarly, analyses were conducted to examine whether younger people exhibited more deviance compared to older people.

The One-way ANOVAs showed that men engaged in significantly more interpersonal destructive deviance compared to women ($\underline{F}$ = 5.92, $\underline{df}$ = 1, 661, $\underline{p}$ < .05). There were no significant differences between men and women in terms of their organizational destructive deviance ($\underline{F}$ = 2.27, $\underline{df}$ = 1,661, n.s.). Similarly,

men and women did not significantly differ in terms of innovative organizational ($F$ = 3.31, $df$ = 1,661, $p < .10$), challenging organizational ($F$ = 2.60, $df$ = 1,661, n.s.) and interpersonal ($F$ = .76, $df$ = 1,661, n.s.) constructive deviance.

One-way ANOVAs were also conducted to examine whether younger respondents engaged in more deviance compared to older respondents. Two separate categories were created based on whether the respondents were 30 years of age and under (the median age), or over 30 years of age. The incumbent's age was denoted using dummy variables with "1" indicating 30 years of age and under and "2" indicating over 30 years of age. The results showed that younger incumbents engaged in significantly more interpersonal destructive deviance compared to older incumbents ($F$ = 17.18, $df$ = 1, 666, $p < .001$). There were no significant differences between age groups in terms of their organizational destructive deviance ($F$ = 3.42, $df$ = 1,666, $p < .10$). Similarly, there were no significant differences for the age groups in terms of innovative organizational ($F$ = .69, $df$ =1,666, n.s.), challenging organizational ($F$ = 2.84, $df$ = 1,666, $p < .10$) and interpersonal ($F$ = .39, $df$ = 1,666, n.s.) constructive deviance.

In this chapter, means, standard deviations, coefficient alphas, and Pearson correlations among variables for the entire sample, the Canadian and Mexican samples, and the peer-rated sub- sample were calculated. Moreover, the hypotheses were tested using Pearson correlations and hierarchical regressions. Sub-group analyses were performed in order to examine whether the model for the entire sample generalized across the two countries. In the next chapter, the key

findings of the study will be discussed. Implications for research and practice as well as the limitations of the study will be highlighted.

# CHAPTER SIX

# DISCUSSION

In the last decade, workplace deviance has become an important issue for organizations. When employees break the rules of the organization, it can threaten the well-being of the organization, its members or both. While deviant behaviors may have harmful effects on the organization, employee deviance can also be constructive and functional. Employees who voluntarily violate the organizational norms may be important sources of innovation and entrepreneurship. Those employees who engage in productive or creative forms of deviant behavior may integrate different point of views more effectively and build more adaptive structures or processes (Dehler & Welsh, 1998).

Despite the importance of workplace deviance, our understanding of the determinants of employee deviance remains limited. Only a small number of studies has examined the antecedents of destructive deviant behaviors. Furthermore, there are even fewer studies that have examined constructive deviant behaviors. The workplace deviance literature has largely conceptualized deviance as antisocial behavior. Since constructive forms of deviant behavior may contribute to the overall well-being of the organization, the literature provides a limited perspective of deviance in the workplace.

The present research advances our understanding of workplace deviance by expanding the conceptualization of deviance to include both the destructive and

constructive aspects of deviant behaviors. There are a number of key observations that emerge from the study. An overview of the general results will be first presented, followed by a discussion on the specific findings.

In general, this study suggests that individual factors play an important role in explaining destructive deviance. Although Robinson and Greenberg (1998) state that individual factors (e.g., personality variables) explain relatively little variance, the results show that a slightly greater amount of variance was explained by individual factors compared to organizational factors. Individual factors, such as Machiavellianism, ethical orientation, and justice perceptions, were related to both organizational and interpersonal destructive deviance in the entire sample.

On the other hand, the situational factors, including organizational sociopolitical support and access to information, were related to organizational destructive deviance but not interpersonal destructive deviance. It appears that employees who possess certain individual factors are more likely to engage in organizational and interpersonal destructive deviance. However, employees who perceive certain situational factors to be present are more likely to engage in organizational destructive deviance alone.

These findings suggest that individual and situational factors are differentially related to the distinct categories of destructive deviance. Similarly, Aquino el al. (1999) found support for differential effects of negative affectivity and justice constructs on the two forms of destructive deviance. Aquino et al.'s (1999) results suggested that those employees high in negative affectivity, a

personality variable, were more likely to respond to negative emotional states by exhibiting interpersonal deviance rather than organizational destructive deviance.

Conversely, with respect to constructive deviance, the situational factors explained a greater amount of variance compared to the individual factors. Specifically, the results of the entire sample suggest that employees are more likely to engage in innovative constructive deviance when they have access to information. Contrary to expectations, Machiavellianism, an individual factor, was unrelated to constructive deviance. These findings, however, are in line with innovation research which stresses the importance of organizational factors as opposed to individual factors (Baldridge & Burnham, 1975; Hage & Aiken, 1970). Baldridge and Burnham (1975) found that individual factors, such as age and personal attitudes, were less important determinants of innovative behavior compared to structural characteristics in the environment, such as size and complexity of the organization.

More specifically, a number of interesting findings emerge from the study. First, employees higher in Machiavellianism were more likely to engage in both interpersonal and organizational destructive deviance in the entire sample. These results suggest that Machiavellianism is an important determinant of destructive deviance. Since high Machs are less concerned in using deceit and engaging in behaviors that are morally incorrect (Christie & Geis, 1970), they will be more likely to engage in destructive behaviors toward the organization, such as taking property from work without permission or dragging out work in order to get

overtime. Moreover, given that people high on Machiavellianism view people as objects to be manipulated rather than showing affect and empathy (Christie & Geis, 1970), they will more likely engage in destructive behaviors toward other individuals such as, making fun of someone at work and publicly embarrassing someone at work.

Machiavellianism was more strongly related to interpersonal destructive deviance as opposed to organizational destructive deviance. These findings are in line with the literature which stresses the interpersonal deceptive nature of Machiavellianism. Research has shown that Machiavellianism is positively related to narcissism, a construct associated with extreme self-focus and the willingness to exploit others (Gurtman, 1991, 1992; McHoskey, 1995). Furthermore, Wiggins' (1979) also found that Machiavellianism and narcissism share similar interpersonal features such as the propensity for interpersonal manipulation, a lack of interpersonal warmth, and arrogance. It seems reasonable to conjecture that high Machs will more likely engage in interpersonal destructive deviance because of the lack of empathy and interpersonal warmth, important qualities associated with Machiavellianism.

As expected, perceived justice was found to be negatively related to organizational and interpersonal destructive deviance in the entire sample. This suggests that justice perceptions are important predictors of destructive deviance. Recent studies conducted in the United States (e.g. Aquino et al., 1999) have also shown that justice perceptions are related to destructive deviant behaviors. When

employees perceive that they have been unjustly treated, they will more likely violate the organizational norms and engage in deviant acts toward the organization and other individuals.

Another interesting finding of the study was that the social structural characteristics of the work context, such as sociopolitical support and access to information, were more strongly related to organizational destructive deviance as opposed to interpersonal destructive deviance in the entire sample. When employees perceive that they have little support from various constituencies in the organization and little access to information, they will more likely respond by engaging in destructive deviant behaviors toward the organization. This implies that employees are more likely to blame the organization or the larger system rather than individuals when they lack social structural characteristics in their work environment. In line with the cognitive approach to workplace behaviors (Weick, 1979), this finding supports Kelley's (1967) perspective that individuals will make attributions in order to understand and gain control of their world. These attributions or cognitive schemas will then result in behavior (Downy & Brief, 1986). In this study, employees may be attributing blame to the organization for the lack of support and information and then retaliate by engaging in destructive deviant acts toward the organization rather than individuals.

The relationships between social structural characteristics and constructive deviance were less straightforward. Consistent with the innovation literature, the regression analysis of the entire sample suggested that access to information was

positively related to innovative constructive deviance. Employees who had more access to information were more likely to engage in constructive deviance of an innovative nature. According to Kanter (1988), people who have more access to information are more likely to generate new ideas and engage in innovative behavior because they feel confident that they will succeed.

While the regression analysis on the entire sample did not support the relationship between access to information and other two forms of constructive deviance, the correlational analysis suggested that access to information was significantly related to challenging organizational constructive deviance. However, contrary to expectations, access to information was found to be *negatively* related to challenging organizational constructive deviance. A possible explanation for this finding is that employees who had more access to information were less likely to outwardly challenge the system because they were able to accomplish their objectives and goals without using unconventional means or violating the organizational norms.

A number of authors (e.g., Iberra, 1993; Kanter, 1983) have argued that support networks, access to information and resources are important sources of power. Kanter (1983) states that information, resources and support are three power tools or important sources of power that must be acquired in the organizational context. It follows that individuals with greater sociopolitical support, access to resources and information possess more power. Consequently, they can use their power to bring about a positive change by persuading others and

influencing others rather than openly challenging the status quo. Given the political perspective in the innovation literature, the inconsistent finding regarding the relationship between the access to information and constructive deviant behavior is less surprising.

Perhaps more interesting is the finding that role breadth self-efficacy mediated the relationship between job autonomy and innovative constructive deviance. Employees with greater job autonomy had more confidence in performing broader and proactive roles. In turn, employees with greater role breadth self-efficacy more likely engaged in more innovative constructive deviance. This finding is consistent with the literature on self-efficacy and innovation. Studies have found job autonomy to be related to increased role breadth self-efficacy. Research has also shown that self-efficacy partly mediated the relationship between job control and personal initiative (Speier & Frese, 1997).

The results of this study suggest that role breadth self-efficacy is an important cognitive mechanism in increasing innovative behavior. While the literature has emphasized the importance of self-efficacy in self-regulation (Gist & Mitchell, 1992), research has largely focused on traditional work-related performance variables such as managerial performance (Wood, Bandura & Bailey, 1990) and sales performance (Barling & Beattie, 1983). Apart from Speier and Frese's study on personal initiative and anecdotal evidence suggesting a relationship between self-efficacy and innovative behavior, this study extends the current research by examining an outcome variable that goes beyond the

traditional role requirements. Unlike the majority of research, this study focuses on innovative constructive deviance, an outcome variable that threatens the status quo to bring about a positive change.

The results also show that RBSE moderates the relationship between job autonomy and self- and peer-rated interpersonal constructive deviance. However, the nature of the relationship was different from what was expected. It was hypothesized that the job autonomy-constructive deviance link would be stronger for people with high RBSE compared to people with low RBSE. The results, however, demonstrate that people with high RBSE and *low* job autonomy will engage in more interpersonal constructive deviance compared to employees with low RBSE.

One explanation for this finding is that people with high RBSE are more likely to challenge the status quo when they are in a situation with little control over their work procedures compared to those people with low RBSE. Since people with high RBSE have more confidence in performing a broad range of activities (Parker, 1998), they will feel capable of taking initiative to actively change their current job situation compared to people with low RBSE. In situations with little job autonomy, employees with high RBSE will take responsibility and vent their creative energies by outwardly challenging their supervisors and peers.

The literature on political dissention suggests that under certain conditions, some individuals will engage in dissent in order to increase their control (Parker,

1993). Specifically, people are likely to dissent if they believe their action will be successful. Since dissenters are relatively confident and capable individuals (Madsen, 1987), they will generally act because they feel that the environment does not provide them with control over important decisions. In line with the above, employees with high RBSE and little job autonomy will likely dissent by engaging in interpersonal constructive deviance in order to provide themselves with opportunities to increase their control over their environment.

The findings also suggest that there is a downside to RBSE. The results demonstrated significant interactive effects between RBSE and job autonomy in predicting peer-rated interpersonal destructive deviance. It was hypothesized that the relationship between low job autonomy and destructive deviance would be greater for employees with low RBSE rather than employees with high RBSE. Based on the literature, it was expected that employees with low RBSE will react more negatively because they will perceive situational constraints, such as low job autonomy, as more threatening compared to employees with high RBSE.

Contrary to expectations, the results demonstrated that the relationship between low autonomy and destructive deviance was *stronger* for people with high RBSE compared to people with low RBSE. One possible explanation is that employees with high RBSE are more confident in carrying out broader roles and more motivated to engage in a range of activities that are more proactive, interpersonal, and integrative in nature (Parker, 1999). However, despite their confidence in performing proactive roles, employee with high RBSE and low job

autonomy are unable to perform these wide varieties of tasks because their jobs do not permit them to do so. Since employees with high RBSE may experience more frustration in jobs with low autonomy, they may be more likely to engage in destructive deviant acts compared to those people with low RBSE.

According to the work frustration-aggression model (Chen & Spector, 1992), people will emotionally react to frustrated events by engaging in behavioral reactions, such as absenteeism, organizational and interpersonal aggression, forms of destructive deviance. Peters et al. (1980) state that frustrated events may be understood as situational constraints in the immediate work situation that block individuals from achieving valued work goals or attaining performance. Given that employees with high RBSE will feel that their work goals are blocked by a job with low autonomy, they will feel more frustrated. Consequently, they may be more likely to engage in greater destructive deviance compared to employees with low RBSE.

Furthermore, the results of the interaction suggest that the relationship between high autonomy and destructive deviance was *stronger* for people with low RBSE compared to people with high RBSE. One possible explanation is that employees with low RBSE do not have the confidence in performing a wide array of tasks, consequently, they prefer having jobs with low autonomy. Since employees with low RBSE may feel that they have been forced or constrained to assume more freedom and independence than desired, they might retaliate by engaging in destructive deviant acts.

In line with the above findings, the self-efficacy literature suggests that judgements of self-efficacy may have a negative effect on behavioral outcomes. Litt (1988, p. 254) argues that people with low self-efficacy "may experience enhanced distress, possibly anxiety, if forced to assume control that they feel unprepared to use." On the other hand, people with high self-efficacy will have better behavioral outcomes because they have greater confidence in their ability to exercise control compared to people with low self-efficacy. In support of self-efficacy theory, the results demonstrate that people with greater confidence in jobs with high autonomy will exhibit better behavioral outcome (e.g., less destructive deviance) compared to people with less confidence.

Moreover, another interesting finding is that the positive relationship between job autonomy and innovative constructive deviance was supported in entire sample, as well as both the Canadian and Mexican samples. In line with the universal approach, which states that the study of social phenomena is generalizable across cultures or relatively culture-free (Bhagat & McQuaid, 1982), the results suggest that employees who have a greater job autonomy will be more likely to engage in innovative constructive deviance across cultures. Extensive research on job design (e.g. Fried & Ferris, 1987) has supported the relationship between job characteristics and work performance. Furthermore, the innovation literature has stressed the importance of job autonomy in facilitating innovative behavior, an increasingly important work behavior (Kanter, 1988). This study

further demonstrates that job autonomy, a job characteristic, can play a central role in increasing innovative behavior in different cultures.

While majority of the findings generalized across the two countries, some culture-specific results were found. Analyses revealed that the relationship between Machiavellianism and organizational destructive deviance differed across cultures. Unlike the Canadian sample, Machiavellianism was not significantly related to organizational destructive deviance in the Mexican sample after controlling for age, gender, and industry.

It is possible that the variation in cultural orientations among the Canadian and Mexican samples may explain this finding. For example, cultures differ on whether they view basic human nature as being evil, good, or a combination of good and evil (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961). In cultures that view human nature as largely evil, there is a greater lack of trust compared to cultures that view human nature as good. Since the Mexican culture may view human nature as more evil compared to the Canadian culture (Dr. A. Jaeger, personal communication, December 11, 2001), there will be a greater climate of control in Mexican organizations compared to Canadian organizations. Consequently, it is possible that the greater controls in the Mexican organizations may have inhibited high Machs to engage in destructive deviant acts toward the organization.

Participant observation data, gathered during several site visits in Canada and Mexico, also corroborated the findings in the literature suggesting that organizations in Mexico have more controls regulating employee behavior

compared to organizations in Canada. During the site visits, it was observed that the organizations in Mexico required their employees to pass through a metal detector and open their bags as part of standard procedure. On the other hand, the organizations in Canada did not have metal detectors nor was it standard procedure to search their employees' bags. The security officers conducted searches only when an employee was seen with a large bag.

By having strict controls in place, there was less of an opportunity for deviance to occur. This may explain why organizational destructive deviance was significantly lower in Mexico compared to Canada. According to Greenberg's (1997) social influence model of employee theft, ambiguous situations may prime an employee to engage in theft, a form of organizational destructive deviance. Since organizations in Mexico have more controls to reduce ambiguous situations (Acedevo, 2000), Mexican employees high in Machiavellianism may have had less of an opportunity to engage in organizational destructive deviance compared to their Canadian counterparts.

These finding suggest that both cultural and organizational factors in Mexico, which discourage deviant behavior, may have constrained the effect of Machiavellianism on organizational destructive deviant behavior. These findings are in line with Johns (1991) who argues that a set of phenomena may constrain or restrict employee work behavior. In this study, a combination of cultural and organizational constraints may have attenuated the influence of Machiavellianism on organizational destructive deviance in Mexico.

These results provide support for the perspective that Western management theories may be limited in providing us with an understanding of management activities across cultures. A number of researchers (e.g., Jaeger, 1990; Jaeger & Kanungo, 1990) have questioned the applicability of Western management theories and practices in developing cultures. Jaeger and Kanungo (1990) argue that Western models are inadequate in the context of developing countries because of cultural differences. When Western management practices are examined in developing cultures, it is important to examine how culture impacts the interaction of individuals. Jaeger (1990) states that culture may facilitate certain behaviors as well as inhibit other behaviors that run counter to the values or practices of the culture. In line with Jaeger (1990), the findings of this study suggest that Mexico's human nature value orientation may have inhibited the effect of Machiavellianism on deviant behavior.

Contrary to expectations, the Canadian sample had less of an individualist orientation compared to the Mexican sample. One possible explanation is that the Canadian data used in this study came from employees working in organizations in Quebec. Unlike the other Canadian provinces, the majority of Quebec's population is French Canadians (Laroche, Kim, Hui & Joy, 1996). A number of studies have shown that French Canadians tend to have more of a collectivist orientation compared to English Canadians (Lortie-Lussier & Fellers, 1991; Major, McCarrey, Mercier, & Gasse, 1994). In the present sample, 83% were French Canadians, 16% were English Canadians, and the remaining 1% did not

respond to the question. The large proportion of French Canadians respondents may explain the high collectivist scores in the Canadian sample. Interestingly, 3% of the total English Canadian respondents further identified themselves as either "Canadian (Italian)" or "Canadian (Greek)". Research has shown that Italian Canadians and Greek Canadians strongly believe in home and family, characteristics shared by collectivists (Chimbos, 1986; Jansen, 1988). The Canadian respondents in this study may have strongly identified with their respective cultural groups and their Italian and Greek ethnic origin. Consequently, it is possible that the maintenance of their ethnic values further may explain the high collectivist orientation in the Canadian sample.

It should also be noted that Mexican data used in this study were collected from northern Mexico, which is close in proximity to the Texas border. Researchers in the area of intercultural communication have shown that the acculturation or the extent to which a person learns some of the key characteristics of a different culture occurs through communication and contact with the other culture (Kim, 1985). As people interact with another culture, they learn and acquire acculturative capabilities in their cognitive, affective and behavior processes (Tzu, 1984). Kim, Laroche and Joy (1990) further argue that a two-way acculturation process may occur in parts of the United States, such as Texas and California. Since a proportion of the Mexican sample lived in near the Texan border, it is possible that these respondents may have adapted to the highly

individualist culture of their American neighbors through frequent communication.

Another explanation is that random self-selection may explain the high individualism scores in the Canadian sample. Since lower levels of individualism are associated with greater company involvement and attachment (Hofstede, 1980), employees who held less individualist values may have been more likely to return the questionnaires compared to those employees who had more individualist orientations. Consequently, it is possible that the lower response rate in the Canadian sample compared to the Mexican sample may indicate a bias in the individualism scores of the Canadian sample.

Moreover, a possible explanation for the high individualism scores in the Mexican sample is that the organizations that participated in this study were MNCs. It is possible that these MNCs focus their recruitment and selection efforts in hiring people with more individualist values. To further reinforce this orientation, these organizations also concentrate on socializing their employees to hold more individualist values that are more congruent with their headquarters.

All in all, this study suggests a much simpler model of destructive and constructive deviance. Based on the entire sample, individual and situational factors were important determinants of destructive deviance. All the hypothesized individual factors were found to predict destructive deviance. Specifically, the findings show that employees who were high in Machiavellianism, had low ethical orientations, and perceptions of injustice were more likely to engage in destructive

deviance. Situational factors also provoked employees to engage in destructive deviance. Employees who had little sociopolitical support and access to information were more likely to engage in destructive deviant acts toward the organization.

On the other hand, the results of the entire sample suggest that situational factors alone were important predictors of constructive deviance. In particular, employees with access to information were more likely to engage in innovative constructive deviance. While the hypotheses relating to the cultural factors were not supported because the Canadian sample had a lower individualist orientation compared to the Mexican sample, the results of the entire sample nevertheless demonstrated that people who had a greater individualist orientation were more likely to engage in destructive deviance. Moreover, employees who had a greater collectivist orientation were more likely to engage in innovative constructive deviance.

**The Role of Incumbent and Peers' Ratings of Deviance**

The mean peer-reports of destructive deviance were higher compared to incumbent-reports of destructive deviance. With exception of challenging organizational constructive deviance, the mean incumbent-reports of constructive deviance were higher compared to peer-reports of constructive deviance. As suggested earlier, the mean differences between incumbent and peer- reports may be due to the self-enhancing bias. Incumbents find it more threatening to see

themselves as having engaged in destructive deviant behaviors compared to their peers, consequently they may be less likely to report that they have engaged in destructive deviant acts. Similarly, incumbents find it less threatening to see themselves as having engaged in certain forms of constructive deviance, therefore they are less likely to underreport their behavior.

These findings are in line with the absenteeism literature. For example, Johns (1994a) found that employees underreported their own absence compared to their work group norms of absence and occupational norms. These results show that employees' estimates of their levels of absenteeism were self-serving. Employees make self-serving attributions concerning their performance as a means to protect their ego so that they can accept credit for success and avoid responsibility for failure (Fiske & Taylor, 1984). Based on a deviance model of absence (Johns, 1987), Johns (1994a) argues that employees must engage in ego defensive tactics because the deviance model of absence views absenteeism as problematic because it can be expensive and disruptive. According to Tetlock (1985), people use ego defensive strategies to disassociate themselves from negative outcomes and associate themselves with positive outcomes.

This study shows that incumbents underreported their own destructive deviant behaviors in order to maintain their positive self-concept. Also, incumbents may have underreported their own challenging organizational constructive deviance behaviors and overreported their own innovative organizational and interpersonal constructive deviance. These results suggest that

there may be more negative connotations associated with challenging organizational constructive deviance as opposed to the other forms of constructive deviance.

While the incumbent and peer ratings were moderately and significantly correlated to each other, the results suggest that employees and their peers held somewhat differentiated views from the incumbents themselves regarding the exhibition of deviant behaviors. Generally, significant relationships were found between the variables of interest and peer-ratings of interpersonal deviance but not organizational deviance. For example, the findings show that sociopolitical support was significantly related to peer-ratings of interpersonal constructive deviance but not to self-ratings. Furthermore, while Machiavellianism was related to both self- and peer-ratings of interpersonal destructive deviance, there was a significant relationship between Machiavellianism and self-ratings for organizational destructive deviance but not peer-ratings.

These results are consistent with role theorists (Katz & Kahn, 1966) who argue that people in alternative roles view identical behaviors differently because of diverse expectations or selective perception (Lawler, 1967). These findings suggest that peers may view deviant behaviors from a unique perspective which can be an important source of information. Alternatively, peers may be more likely to "see" interpersonal deviance as opposed to organizational forms of deviance.

Differences between the incumbent and peer reports may be due to memory effects. In a review article of the use of self-reported absence data, Johns (1994b)

argues that self-report absence data is influenced by memory effects. Similarly, it has been argued that peer-reported data also makes demands on the peer's memory. Feldman and Lynch (1988) stated that certain materials might be remembered as vivid and salient. One may argue that peers were more likely to report interpersonal forms of deviance because these behaviors were more salient to them in the organizational setting.

**Contributions**

The study makes several contributions to the deviance literature. First, this research broadens the concept of deviance to include both destructive and constructive aspects. Since the literature has largely conceptualized deviance as destructive acts that violate the organizational norms, this study provides a new perspective in understanding deviance in organizations. The current research supports the perspective that employee deviance can be destructive as well as constructive. The findings suggest that employees who engage in harmful deviant acts toward the organization also engage in deviant acts that may benefit the organization. Destructive and constructive deviance were moderately correlated with each other. Future research should further examine the common and distinct determinants of both forms of deviance.

The study also suggests that the determinants are differentially related to the different dimensions of both destructive and constructive deviance. For example, the results suggest that social structural characteristics were more

strongly related to organizational destructive deviance compared to interpersonal destructive deviance. Similarly, job autonomy was related to innovative organizational constructive deviance but not related to the other dimensions of constructive deviance. Future research should further examine the differential relationships between the antecedents and the various dimensions of destructive and constructive deviance.

Furthermore, there was an attempt to obtain a greater understanding of the relationship between deviance and individual, job, organizational, and cultural factors. Since the current research on deviance has been fragmented, Robinson and Bennett (1997, p. 24) state that, "We are in dire need of a systematic, broad, and theoretically driven research agenda focused on workplace deviance." This study advances the area of deviance by providing theorists and researchers with a broader view of the determinants of deviance. Unlike the majority of the studies that have focused on individual factors as the primary explanation of deviant behavior (Bennett, 1998), this study examines the relationship between deviance and individual, as well as situational and cultural factors.

Despite the researcher's endeavor to develop a theoretically driven model of deviance, some hypotheses were not supported. Future research should focus on refining the model by excluding less important determinants and identifying other determinants, which may play a more important role in explaining deviance. For example, researchers may want to examine the relationship between proactive personality and deviant behavior. People with proactive personalities are relatively

unconstrained by situational factors and strive to influence environmental change. Proactive individuals scan for opportunities and persevere to bring about a positive change (Bateman & Crant, 1993). One could expect that employees with proactive personalities would more likely engage in constructive deviant behaviors. While this study suggests that individual factors, such as personality variables, are less important in predicting constructive deviance, future research should examine the relative importance that individual and situational variables play in predicting deviance.

Furthermore, based on the results, there is reason to believe that demographic factors such as age and gender are important variables in workplace deviant behavior, especially as far as destructive deviance is concerned. While the aggression literature has documented that men and younger individuals are more likely to behave aggressively compared to women and older adults (Geen, 1995; Harris, 1996; Monahan, 1981), there is a limited amount of research in the area of workplace destructive deviance that explores the role of demographic variables in destructive deviant behavior.

Specifically, this study contributes to the literature on gender differences in aggression as much of the research in this area has been conducted in experimental settings. In Bettencourt and Miller's (1996) meta-analysis on experimental studies on gender differences in aggression, the authors stated that one of the issues regarding the generalizability of their results was that the studies have examined gender differences in aggression under relatively neutral conditions. In natural

settings, there are a variety of circumstances, such as status differences, social and material consequences that may influence the display of aggressive behaviors. This field study on workplace deviance suggests that males engage in more interpersonal destructive deviance compared to women.

This finding is consistent with Lightdale and Prentice (1994) who reported that males were more aggressive than females in individuated but not in deindividuated conditions. Furthermore, the literature suggests that men use more direct forms of aggression compared to women who tend to use indirect forms (Bjorkqvist, 1994; Hines & Fry, 1994). Similarly, the results of this study suggest that men also use more direct forms of destructive deviance compared to women. The findings show that men were more likely to engage in destructive deviant acts *directly* toward other members of the organizations. Due to the overrepresentation of men in high status positions (Ely, 1995; Ragins & Sundstron, 1989), men may feel comfortable to inflict harm directly upon other individuals rather than projecting their discontent toward the organization or system because they are less fearful that they will be punished. Aquino, Galperin, and Bennett's (2001) findings also suggest that white employees, typically people who belong to the dominant or high status group (Davidson & Friedman, 1998), are more comfortable engaging in interpersonal deviant behavior compared to African Americans. Future studies should consider the role of demographic factors in workplace destructive deviance and further explore these tentative findings.

Moreover, this study also sheds some light on understanding workplace deviance in developing countries. Due to the predominance of North American theories and practices in the field of management (e.g., Hofstede, 1993; Jaeger, 1990), this research examined workplace deviance in both developed and developing countries. By attempting to examine how culture impacts deviant behavior of employees in organizations, it provides researchers with some direction in discovering both the universal principles and processes (etics) and cross-cultural variability that are distinct to specific groups (emics) with respect to workplace deviance. Berry and his colleagues (Berry, Poortinga, Segall, & Dasen, 1992) stress the need to find a balance between universal and culture-specific approaches. While these psychologists recognize that current theoretical concepts are culturally bound, they maintain that one of the goals of cross-cultural psychology is to develop a universal psychology that includes all indigenous and Western psychologies.

Similarities between the Canadian and Mexican samples were discovered. For example, job autonomy was positively related to innovative organizational constructive deviance but not related to challenging organizational and interpersonal constructive deviance in both the Canadian and Mexican samples. Canadian and Mexican employees who had more job autonomy were more likely to engage in innovative behaviors. This finding suggests that job autonomy is an important factor in increasing innovative behavior across cultures. Further

research is needed to examine whether this relationship would hold in other developed and developing countries.

Furthermore, differences were also found between the Canadian and Mexican samples. The relationship between Machiavellianism and organizational destructive deviance differed across countries. It is possible that the human nature cultural orientation in Mexico may have inhibited high Machs to engage in destructive deviant acts toward the organization. While the literature suggests that individualism/collectivism is an important dimension that discriminates between cultures, future research should investigate the relationship between workplace deviance and other cultural orientations such as whether the culture views basic human nature as good, evil, or a combination of good and evil.

**Methodological Issues**

Finally, there are a number of methodological issues that deserve comment. A substantial contribution of this study is that a measure of constructive deviance was developed and preliminarily validated. Given that there does not exist a reliable and valid measure of constructive deviance in the literature, it was necessary to develop and validate a measure of constructive deviance for the purpose of this study.

Although there was some overlap between the innovative and challenging organizational constructive deviance items, the findings suggest that there are differences in the nature of the three factors -- interpersonal, innovative and

challenging organizational constructive deviance. Based on the results, interpersonal and challenging organizational deviance consist of behaviors that are more challenging in nature compared to innovative organizational deviance. Employees who engage in interpersonal and challenging organizational deviance are willing to engage in dissent and voice their opinions in order to improve the current system. Unlike the other two factors, innovative organizational constructive deviance refers to beneficial acts of an innovative or creative nature. Since innovation is widely viewed as desirable in the organizational context, employees who engage in innovative organizational deviance will less likely be viewed as threatening or unconventional compared to the other two forms of constructive deviance.

While the internal consistency reliabilities of the dimensions of constructive deviance were good, further studies are needed to further validate and refine the instrument. Most importantly, researchers should address issues relating to the construct validity of the measure. Although the current data show support for the convergent and discriminant validity of constructive and destructive deviance at the five-factor level, the hierarchical logic of destructive and constructive deviance at the two-factor level is ambiguous. Specifically, the inter-correlations between the forms of constructive and destructive deviance suggest that certain dimensions of constructive deviance, such as challenging organizational, are highly correlated to the destructive deviance dimensions.

These findings call into question the fundamental nature of the deviance construct and how its dimensions relate to each other. Some theorists (e.g., Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998) have argued that the focus of organizational deviance is narrow because it addresses only a couple of deviant behaviors in isolation, such as theft and sabotage. Based on the results of this study, it is further argued that researchers should take even a broader approach to understand workplace deviance by considering both the destructive and constructive nature of deviant behaviors.

The current approach to deviance assumes that deviant acts either cause harm or has the capacity to cause harm (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). Puffer (1987), for example, describes non-compliant behavior as having negative implications for organizations. Similarly, Robinson and Bennett (1995) make further distinctions with respect to the severity of those harmful consequences.

Only a handful of theorists (e.g., Tripp & Bies, 1997; Vardi & Weiner, 1996) have argued that deviant acts can have positive consequences. Since the majority of the research has examined the predictors of deviant behaviors, little is known on the nature of the consequences. Given the paucity of studies that have addressed the consequences of workplace deviance, the distinction between "destructive" and "constructive" deviance may be premature and perhaps the term "deviance" should be used to label a domain of behaviors that violates the normative expectations of a social context (Kaplan, 1975). Future research should further investigate the relationship between destructive and constructive deviance.

Furthermore, due to the sensitive nature of the topic, researchers have opted to examine employees' intentions to engage in negative behaviors rather than behaviors itself. Unlike much of the research on dysfunctional behaviors, this study measured behavior itself rather than behavioral intentions. By examining the behavior of employees, researchers are able to obtain a greater understanding of dysfunctional behaviors in organizations. Since respondents are surprisingly willing to report their behaviors (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), researchers should continue to use behavioral measures.

Moreover, the limited number of studies in workplace deviance has typically relied on self-reports of deviant behaviors. Unlike the majority of the studies, both self- and peer-ratings of deviant behavior were employed in this study. By using multiple sources of data, one is able to detect the effects of common method variance. Common method variance refers to biases in relationships that are due to the variables being measured with the same method (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Spector (1987) states that relationship between self-report variables often lead to spuriously high relationships between variables. Consequently, the observed relationships may be a result of measurement rather than the hypothesized relationships between the constructs of interest (George & Bettenhausen, 1990).

Furthermore, one is able to get a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon by assessing the ratings from multiple sources of data. Finally, the inclusion of various sources of data provides an indication whether there is some

degree of correspondence between the different perspectives. Although employees are surprisingly willing to report whether they have engaged in deviant and illegal behaviors (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), future research should explore deviant behaviors from multiple perspective -- the incumbent, peer, and supervisor.

When conducting research in different countries, there are certain methodological issues that must be addressed. First, the researcher should take into account the measurement equivalence of the instrument (Sekaran, 1983). It is important to diagnose translation equivalence (Mullen, 1995). Specifically, one must examine vocabulary equivalence or a translation that is equivalent to the original language in which the instrument was developed. Moreover, idiomatic equivalence can become a difficulty when some idioms are unique to one language and cannot be properly translated in other languages. In order to achieve vocabulary equivalence, the Spanish and French questionnaires were back-translated into their original languages. Furthermore, since the researcher had a working knowledge of Spanish and French, additional efforts were made to ensure that vocabulary equivalence was achieved. In an attempt to ensure that the idioms were properly translated into French and Spanish, two Mexicans and two French-Canadians translators verified the questionnaires. Since these individuals were fluently bilingual and were familiar with the local idioms, it is likely that idiomatic equivalence was attained.

Moreover, multi-group CFA were conducted to test whether the factor structures and factor loadings were invariant across cultures. In general, support

was found for the proposed dimensionality of the measures and the invariance of the factor loadings. The results, however, did not indicate that the factor loadings for Machiavellianism and individualism were invariant across countries.

These findings suggest that the respondents from Canada and Mexico interpreted the Machiavelllianism and individualism items differently, and that these two constructs have different meanings across cultures. Mullen (1995) states that tests of the invariance of factor loadings provide an indication of translation equivalence. While the researcher made all the possible efforts to establish translation equivalence, it is possible that measurement equivalence was not demonstrated because the responses of respondents may have been influenced by cultural characteristics, such as evasiveness and humility (Vijier & Poortinga, 1982).

Finally, a number of authors have argued that research in organizational behavior has largely ignored the possible influence of the external environment (Cappelli & Sherer, 1991; De Cieri & Dowling, 1995). Cappelli and Sherer (1991) argue that studies in organizational behavior which fail to include the role of the context leads to inadequate explanations of individual attitudes and behavior. Moreover, the failure to examine the context prevents the field to develop a common paradigm for micro and macro organizational research because individual explanations for individual behavior in micro research are not related to environmental explanations of organizational characteristics in macro research (Cappelli & Sherer, 1991).

Unlike much of the research in organizational behavior, this study attempts to integrate the role of the context to better understand employee workplace deviance by including situational factors. In an effort to include both micro and macro factors, this study was conducted in Canada and Mexico. While the hypotheses regarding the cultural dimensions of individual/collectivism were not supported, the researcher postulated alternative sociocultural explanations that may explain the discrepant findings.

Furthermore, this study attempted to address any extraneous factors in the environment that may confound the hypothesized relationships. A number of authors have stressed the importance of controlling for the effects of contextual factors when conducting research in various cultures (Ricks, Toyne, & Martinez, 1990). Since it is preferable to use procedural controls rather than statistical controls, an effort was made to procedurally control for organizational culture by using two subsidiaries of a multinational corporation. Unfortunately, the Canadian subsidiary of one of the pharmaceutical companies did not agree to participate in the study. As a result, this organization was unable to be matched with a Canadian counterpart.

**Implications for Practice**

This study also has a number of practical implications for organizations. The current research project examined the major factors that are associated with deviance. By identifying the key personal characteristics, job and organizational

factors that are related to employee destructive deviance, organizations will be more likely to prevent the occurrence and costs that are associated with destructive behaviors in the workplace.

First, the findings suggest that a couple of individual differences variables were related to destructive deviance. Machiavellianism was found to be positively related to interpersonal and organizational destructive deviance in the entire sample. In addition, the results show that a high ethical orientation was negatively related to organizational and interpersonal deviance in the entire sample.

These findings can help organizations identify individuals who are more likely to engage in destructive deviance. The results suggest that companies should include Machiavellianism and ethical orientation as criteria in their selection procedures. By identifying individuals who are high Machs and have a low ethical orientation, organizations may be able to reduce the destructive deviance behaviors in organizations.

Although there are some legal and ethical issues involved in basing managerial decisions on individual differences data such as criminal records and personality testing, management should try to know their employees' histories and traits (Martinko & Zellars, 1998). For example, integrity tests have been useful in predicting counterproductive behavior (Sackett, Burris & Callahan, 1989). Similar to integrity testing, organizations should be cautioned that there might be false positives regarding employee testing of other individual differences.

Currently, organizations have focused their efforts on selecting and recruiting the potentially aggressive or dishonest employee (Collins & Schmidt, 1993). Bennett (1998) argues that organizations should focus on organizational factors rather than focusing on employees themselves as the primary cause of destructive behaviors. In line with Bennett (1998), the current findings suggest that organizations can prevent destructive deviant behaviors by providing their employees with sociopolitical support and access to information. By providing managers with the necessary support and information, organizations can reduce the significant financial and social costs of destructive deviance.

Second, the results suggest that justice perceptions are important in managing organizational destructive deviance. Organizations can make active efforts in preventing the occurrence of destructive behaviors by enhancing employee perceptions of justice. By creating a fair working environment, top management may reduce destructive behaviors. For example, when there are fair procedures, equitable outcome distributions, and employees are treated with respect, they will have increased perceptions of justice (Beugré, 1998). While management cannot totally eliminate misbehavior by following these steps, they may considerably reduce the prevalence of destructive deviance.

Third, this study provides organizations with an indication of the major factors associated with behaviors that contribute to the overall flexibility and effectiveness of the firm. Since innovation has become one of the central concerns of companies, the findings can help organizations become more competitive by

increasing employee innovative behavior. Specifically, the findings suggest that when employees have access to information, they will more likely engage in innovative constructive deviance. By providing employees with information regarding the organizational strategies and goals, employees will have a greater understanding of their environment, and consequently be in a better position to engage in innovative behaviors that will benefit the organization.

Fourth, the results show that Canadian and Mexican employees with greater job autonomy are more likely to engage in innovative behaviors. These findings suggest that task redesign intervention may play an important role in fostering job autonomy across cultures. Organizations should implement job redesign interventions designed to increase autonomy.

Managers, however, should be cautioned that employee role breath self-efficacy plays a central role in facilitating innovative constructive deviance. This study suggests that RBSE mediates the relationship between job autonomy and innovative behaviors. Low RBSE people with high job autonomy may not always engage in greater innovative behaviors. Based on the findings above, organizations should provide role breadth self-efficacy training to their employees. While the construct of RBSE is fairly new, research on self-efficacy can provide organizations with a number of guidelines of how to increase employee role breadth self-efficacy (cf. Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Given that research has shown that behavior modeling is more effective at raising self-efficacy compared to traditional training approaches such as lectures (Gist, 1989; Gist, Schwoerer &

Rosen, 1989), it is recommended that organizations use behavioral modeling techniques to increase employee RBSE. Alternatively, organizations may focus their selection efforts on identifying employees with high RBSE.

Finally, due to the increased globalization, it is also important for organizations to understand employee innovative and destructive deviant behavior in other countries. Senior managers must know how to manage employee destructive and constructive deviant behavior in different countries around the world. By understanding the role of employees' cultural values in the occurrence of workplace deviance, senior managers will be able to develop country-specific policies and procedures to enhance innovative and deter dysfunctional behaviors in different cultures.

**Limitations**

This study has several limitations that deserve comment. First, the data collected were cross-sectional in nature; consequently one is unable to establish causation. While it is expected that the relationships are in the expected directions, the proposed relations may operate in the reverse directions. For example, innovative constructive deviant behaviors may influence access to information. While there is stronger theoretical rationale for the reverse, it is still necessary to be cautious when making causal inferences.

Second, despite the researcher's attempts to reduce common method variance by including peer-reported data, these data are not immune from the

possibility of common method variance as self-report measures were used. As stated earlier, the findings suggest that self-reports of deviance explained a greater amount of incremental variance compared to the peer-reports.

In addition, Spector (1987) states that social desirability, the tendency for a respondent to choose a socially desirable response, is another factor that one must consider in self-reports. Social desirability may be an issue because employees may not have wanted to report their deviant behaviors in order to present themselves favorably. In line with Bennett and Robinson (2000), these data suggest that people are willing to report their deviant behaviors. While the scale means of the self-report measures of deviant behavior were generally lower compared to the peer- ratings, there were no large differences between the means of the two data sources.

Third, contrary to expectations, the Canadian sample had a lower individualist orientation compared to the Mexican sample. Due to the unrepresentative nature of the Canadian and Mexican cultures used in this sample, researchers should further explore these relationships by collecting data from organizations located in English Canada or Central Mexico. These samples may provide a more representative sample of the Canadian and Mexican cultures.

Fourth, the data collection methods in Canada and Mexico slightly differed. Whereas all Canadian respondents were mailed a questionnaire and were asked to return the completed questionnaire in the self-addressed stamped envelope to the researcher, the majority of the Mexican respondents completed the questionnaires

in the on-site training facilities in the presence of the researcher. Unlike the "faceless" request to complete the questionnaires in the Canadian sample, the Mexican respondents were able to see and have direct contact with researcher. As a result, these differing data collection methods may explain the larger response rate in the Mexican sample compared to the Canadian sample. Future researchers should try to maintain similar data collection methods across cultures.

Fifth, this study advances our understanding of workplace deviance by extending the current domain to include the functional aspects of deviance. Despite the researcher's efforts to gain some insight into this multi-faceted phenomenon, the theoretical perspectives in the area were limited. Consequently, it was necessary to build much of the conceptual arguments on the innovation literature. While the literature in innovation provided a more comprehensive area of knowledge, the innovation literature itself is described as having little common theoretical underpinnings and inconsistent research findings (Damanpour, 2002). The weak theoretical and empirical developments in the innovation literature, as well as the over-reliance of the innovation construct may have limited our understanding of workplace deviance.

Another contribution of this study is that a measure of constructive deviance was developed and preliminarily validated because there had not been a reliable and valid measure of constructive deviance in the literature. While the newly developed measure has acceptable psychometric properties in both Canada and Mexico, further refinement of the measure may be needed.

In addition, the psychometric properties of other measures used in this study can be further improved. For example, the reliabilities of the Machiavellianism and access to information measures were fairly low. Despite the researchers' efforts to achieve vocabulary equivalence, it is possible that the native French-speaking Canadians and Spanish-speaking Mexicans did not fully comprehend the meaning of the items.

Finally, the correlations among the variables in this study were not strong. Organizational researchers have been interested in developing theories that explain as much of the variance as possible by using indicators like correlation coefficients or other effect size estimators (Fichman, 1999). A common assumption in the field of organizational research is that the amount of variance explained is an indication of the quality or explanatory power of the theory. Fichman (1999) argues that this focus can be disadvantageous to theory development.

Researchers have demonstrated that small amounts of explained variance can have large practical differences (Rosenthal, 1990). While a correlation coefficient may be low, the final interpretation may have a large "practical validity" (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). In this study, leader supportiveness was negatively correlated with interpersonal destructive deviance ($r = -.09$, $p < .05$) in the entire sample. While the correlation coefficient is fairly low, this finding can have a large practical validity for organizations. This finding suggests that the supportiveness of a supervisor can play a role in reducing petty theft, worker slowdown and the consumption of illegal drugs or alcohol on the job.

## Conclusion

Employees' adherence to corporate norms, policies, and procedures is essential for an organization's survival. Employees' who fail to follow the accepted rules of behavior may jeopardize the organization's overall effectiveness. For example, employee misconduct, such as neglecting to follow one's boss's instructions, intentional worker slowdown, lateness, petty theft, and acting rudely toward fellow coworkers, can be very detrimental to the organizational well-being. However, the strict adherence to corporate norms, policies, and procedures may in some cases be undesirable for organizations. When employees strictly follow organizational procedures, innovative and new approaches to problem solving may be limited. Employees, who display innovative behaviors or initiate changes in task objective and processes, can provide organizations with the necessary innovations and creativity.

When employees display wisdom and imagination, they are able to achieve breakthroughs that can be very profitable for the business (Mariotti, 1999). For example, Motorola invented and dominated the car radio, walkie-talkie, and cell phone markets. However, Motorola lost their competitive position to Nokia and Ericsson because of the institutionalization of bureaucratic procedures, which failed to sustain wisdom and imagination. Organizations which are unable to tolerate deviation are often unable to adapt and consequently more likely to fail (Dehler & Welsh, 1998).

Despite the high costs associated with employee misbehavior and the importance of innovative behavior in organizations worldwide, little is known about the factors that lead to workplace deviance in the global context. The primary objective of this study was to examine the factors that influence workplace deviance. The study identified the key personal characteristics, job and organizational factors that are related to employee destructive and constructive deviance in Canada and Mexico. By having a greater understanding of the factors that lead to deviance in different cultures, managers will be able to foster the innovative behaviors that contribute to the organizational effectiveness, as well as reduce the direct and indirect costs associated with employee misconduct.

## LIST OF TABLES

### Table 1
### Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations
### (Entire Sample, N=668)

| Variable | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Age | 32.24 | 9.27 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Gender | 1.40 | .49 | -.02 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Industry | .48 | .50 | .30** | .01 | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Machiavellianism | 3.43 | .69 | -.16** | -.06 | -.19** | **.63** | | | | | | | |
| 5. Ethical Orientation | 6.27 | .60 | .10* | .10* | .17** | -.20** | **.81** | | | | | | |
| 6. Justice Perceptions | 5.17 | 1.10 | .04 | -.03 | -.10** | -.11** | .13** | **.94** | | | | | |
| 7. Job Autonomy | 3.82 | .77 | .21** | -.06 | -.11** | -.16** | .28** | .41** | **.61** | | | | |
| 8. Sociopolitical Support | 5.46 | 1.16 | .03 | -.07 | -.10* | -.08* | .09* | .68** | .30** | **.77** | | | |
| 9. Access to Information | 5.59 | 1.12 | .02 | -.01 | .07 | -.17** | .27** | .45** | .24** | .40** | **.63** | | |
| 10. Access to Resources | 5.30 | 1.27 | .01 | -.01 | -.05 | -.16** | .16** | .66** | .35** | .58** | .52** | **.78** | |
| 11. Leader Supportiveness | 5.18 | 1.30 | .08* | .00 | -.02 | -.11** | .14** | .87** | .42** | .63** | .36** | .61** | **.90** |
| 12. Individualism (Idiocentrism) | 5.00 | 1.07 | -.18** | -.01 | -.02 | .39** | .09* | -.01 | -.03 | .00 | .04 | -.02 | -.02 |
| 13. Collectivism (Allocentrism) | 5.84 | .80 | .04 | .01 | .06 | -.17** | .29** | .19** | .13** | .23** | .24** | .14** | .16** |
| 14. RBSE | 3.78 | .82 | .11** | -.14** | .19** | -.26** | .36** | .18** | .34** | .12** | .30** | .23** | .19** |
| 15. Interpersonal DD | 1.56 | .81 | -.18** | -.10** | -.08* | .22** | -.11** | -.12** | -.13** | -.10* | -.10** | -.10** | -.09* |
| 16. Organizational DD | 1.55 | .58 | -.08* | -.06 | .14** | .17** | -.19** | -.06 | -.03 | -.12** | -.14** | -.08* | -.08 |
| 17. Innovative Organizational CD | 4.11 | 1.33 | .07 | -.07 | .06 | -.09* | .18** | .06 | .21** | .04 | .14** | .08* | .10** |
| 18. Challenging Organizational CD | 1.79 | .98 | -.05 | -.07 | -.01 | .08* | -.01 | -.07 | .02 | -.03 | -.08* | -.06 | -.04 |
| 19. Interpersonal CD | 2.53 | 1.13 | .01 | -.03 | .11** | .01 | -.05 | .10** | .06 | -.07 | -.06 | -.05 | -.06 |

Note: *p<.05 and **p<.01.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.
Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.

**Table 1 (continued)**
**Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations**
**(Entire Sample, N=668)**

| Variable | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 12. Individualism (Idiocentrism) | **.65** | | | | | | | |
| 13. Collectivism (Allocentrism) | .17** | **.69** | | | | | | |
| 14. RBSE | -.06 | .15** | **.91** | | | | | |
| 15. Interpersonal DD | .13** | -.08* | -.06 | **.81** | | | | |
| 16. Organizational DD | .04 | -.20** | -.04 | .47** | **.78** | | | |
| 17. Innovative Organizational CD | -.05 | .09* | .43** | .13** | .11** | **.72** | | |
| 18. Challenging Organizational CD | .08* | -.02 | .16** | .35** | .42** | .34** | **.75** | |
| 19. Interpersonal CD | .07 | .02 | .21** | .28** | .37** | .33** | .51** | **.66** |

Note: *p<.05 and **p<.01.

## Table 2
## Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations
## (Canadian Sample, n=240)

| Variable | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Age | 36.56 | 9.22 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Gender | 1.34 | .48 | .10 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Industry | .32 | .47 | .35** | -.15* | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Machiavellianism | 3.27 | .67 | -.13* | -.12 | -.13* | **.68** | | | | | | | |
| 5. Ethical Orientation | 6.24 | .58 | .10 | .12 | .04 | -.19** | **.84** | | | | | | |
| 6. Justice Perceptions | 5.46 | .94 | -.11 | -.03 | -.22** | -.09 | .23** | **.94** | | | | | |
| 7. Job Autonomy | 3.96 | .65 | .00 | -.16* | -.15* | .03 | .16* | .43** | **.61** | | | | |
| 8. Sociopolitical Support | 5.67 | 1.00 | -.06 | -.08 | -.09 | -.19** | .23** | .67** | .30** | **.78** | | | |
| 9. Access to Information | 5.48 | 1.07 | .06 | .06 | -.02 | -.23** | .37** | .49** | .20** | .43** | **.67** | | |
| 10. Access to Resources | 5.51 | 1.11 | -.04 | .01 | -.11 | -.15* | .18** | .62** | .30** | .55** | .55** | **.78** | |
| 11. Leader Supportiveness | 5.42 | 1.12 | -.01 | -.01 | -.12 | -.09 | .16* | .88** | .42** | .66** | .35** | .56** | **.90** |
| 12. Individualism (Idiocentrism) | 4.45 | .97 | -.08 | -.11 | -.14* | .38** | .11 | .11 | .15* | .03 | -.03 | .01 | .08 |
| 13. Collectivism (Allocentrism) | 5.71 | .78 | .18** | -.05 | -.04 | -.35** | .41** | .27** | .20** | .30** | .34** | .27** | .28** |
| 14. RBSE | 3.86 | .71 | .00 | -.14* | -.04 | -.20** | .33** | .13* | .15* | .13* | .29** | .15* | .13* |
| 15. Interpersonal DD | 1.44 | .74 | -.16* | -.09 | -.04 | .30** | -.14* | .02 | .07 | -.05 | -.17** | -.05 | .05 |
| 16. Organizational DD | 1.64 | .67 | -.14* | -.02 | .00 | .30** | -.16* | .03 | .05 | -.13* | -.15* | -.09 | .00 |
| 17. Innovative Organizational CD | 4.32 | 1.22 | .00 | -.15* | -.03 | -.05 | .17** | .13* | .19** | .06 | .15* | .11 | .12 |
| 18. Challenging Organizational CD | 1.77 | 1.07 | -.09 | -.17** | -.07 | .20** | -.06 | -.04 | -.03 | -.05 | -.14* | -.14* | -.03 |
| 19. Interpersonal CD | 2.51 | 1.06 | -.15* | -.07 | -.08 | .04 | -.06 | .03 | .02 | .02 | -.06 | -.03 | .03 |

Note: *p<.05 and **p<.01.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.
Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.

**Table 2 (continued)**
**Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations**
**(Canadian Sample, n=240)**

| Variable | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 12. Individualism (Idiocentrism) | **.58** | | | | | | | |
| 13. Collectivism (Allocentrism) | .05 | **.68** | | | | | | |
| 14. RBSE | -.01 | .21** | **.90** | | | | | |
| 15. Interpersonal DD | .19** | -.10 | .01 | **.82** | | | | |
| 16. Organizational DD | .20** | -.09 | -.04 | .64** | **.85** | | | |
| 17. Innovative Organizational CD | .06 | .13 | .44** | .19** | .13* | **.73** | | |
| 18. Challenging Organizational CD | .20** | -.07 | .20** | .45** | .51** | .35** | **.85** | |
| 19. Interpersonal CD | .07 | -.01 | .18** | .36** | .42** | .34** | .47** | **.71** |

Note: *$p<.05$ and **$p<.01$.

## Table 3
## Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations
## (Mexican Sample, n=428)

| Variable | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Age | 29.82 | 9.22 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Gender | 1.44 | .48 | -.03 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Industry | .57 | .50 | .48** | -.10* | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Machiavellianism | 3.52 | .69 | -.10* | -.05 | -.30** | **.60** | | | | | | | |
| 5. Ethical Orientation | 6.29 | .61 | .13** | .09 | .23** | -.21** | **.81** | | | | | | |
| 6. Justice Perceptions | 5.00 | 1.15 | -.01 | .00 | .02 | -.07 | .10* | **.93** | | | | | |
| 7. Job Autonomy | 3.74 | .82 | .26** | .00 | .27** | -.22** | .34** | .38** | **.63** | | | | |
| 8. Sociopolitical Support | 5.35 | 1.22 | .01 | -.05 | -.06 | .00 | .04 | .68** | .29** | **.76** | | | |
| 9. Access to Information | 5.66 | 1.15 | .04 | -.06 | .09 | -.16** | .22** | .48** | .28** | .42** | **.61** | | |
| 10. Access to Resources | 5.17 | 1.34 | -.04 | .00 | .03 | -.13** | .15** | .67** | .36** | .58** | .53** | **.78** | |
| 11. Leader Supportiveness | 5.05 | 1.38 | .06 | .02 | -.08 | -.08 | .15** | .86** | .40** | .61** | .39** | .61** | **.90** |
| 12. Individualism (Idiocentrism) | 5.32 | .99 | -.03 | -.01 | -.12* | .35** | .08 | .05 | -.02 | .07 | .03 | .05 | .01 |
| 13. Collectivism (Allocentrism) | 5.91 | .81 | .04 | .02 | .07 | -.11* | .23** | .20** | .13** | .23** | .17** | .12* | .14** |
| 14. RBSE | 3.74 | .88 | .14** | -.13* | .32** | -.28** | .39** | .19** | .39** | .10* | .32** | .24** | .20** |
| 15. Interpersonal DD | 1.63 | .84 | -.14** | -.13** | -.15** | .15** | -.11* | -.15** | -.19** | -.10* | -.09 | -.10* | -.12* |
| 16. Organizational DD | 1.50 | .51 | -.13** | -.08 | .19** | .13** | -.21** | -.15** | -.10* | -.14** | -.13** | -.11* | -.15** |
| 17. Innovative Organizational CD | 3.99 | 1.37 | .06 | -.02 | .15** | -.08 | .19** | -.01 | .19** | .01 | .15** | .05 | .07 |
| 18. Challenging Organizational CD | 1.80 | 0.93 | -.02 | -.01 | .03 | .01 | .01 | -.09 | .05 | -.02 | -.05 | -.02 | -.05 |
| 19. Interpersonal CD | 2.54 | 1.17 | -.10* | -.02 | .20** | -.01 | .10* | -.15** | .08 | -.10* | -.06 | -.06 | -.09 |

Note: *p<.05 and **p<.01.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.
Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.

**Table 3 (continued)**
**Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations**
**(Mexican Sample, n=428)**

| Variable | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 12. Individualism (Idiocentrism) | **.64** | | | | | | | |
| 13. Collectivism (Allocentrism) | .17** | **.70** | | | | | | |
| 14. RBSE | -.04 | .14** | **.92** | | | | | |
| 15. Interpersonal DD | .04 | -.09 | -.07 | **.82** | | | | |
| 16. Organizational DD | .01 | -.25** | -.05 | .41** | **.70** | | | |
| 17. Innovative Organizational CD | -.04 | .10* | .41** | .13** | .08 | **.72** | | |
| 18. Challenging Organizational CD | .00 | .01 | .15** | .29** | .35** | .34** | **.70** | |
| 19. Interpersonal CD | .07 | .03 | .23** | .25** | .36** | .34** | .53** | **.66** |

Note: *p<.05 and **p<.01.

## Table 4
## Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations
## (Peer-Rated Sub-Sample, n=295)

| Variable | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Age (Self) | 34.94 | 9.35 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Age (Peer) | 34.84 | 9.63 | .60** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Gender (Self) | 1.40 | .49 | .01 | .11 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Gender (Peer) | 1.47 | .50 | .10 | .15* | .55** | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Industry | .49 | .50 | .26** | .24** | .15** | .24** | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Machiavellianism | 3.32 | .69 | -.10 | -.10 | -.16** | -.05 | -.19** | **.67** | | | | | | |
| 7. Ethical Orientation | 6.29 | .58 | .17** | .12* | .11 | .02 | -.19** | -.23** | **.83** | | | | | |
| 8. Justice Perceptions | 5.40 | .97 | .00 | .04 | -.03 | -.09 | -.12* | -.09 | .15* | **.93** | | | | |
| 9. Job Autonomy | 4.00 | .69 | .10 | .08 | -.06 | -.07 | .09 | -.02 | .21** | .38** | **.61** | | | |
| 10. Sociopolitical Support | 5.63 | 1.03 | .01 | .00 | -.13* | -.13* | -.05 | -.12* | .17** | .66** | .27** | **.77** | | |
| 11. Access to Information | 5.65 | 1.06 | .01 | .05 | .03 | -.01 | .15** | -.16** | .30** | .50** | .18** | .43** | **.69** | |
| 12. Access to Resources | 5.38 | 1.21 | -.06 | .01 | -.01 | -.06 | -.07 | -.13* | .12* | .66** | .19** | .55** | .55** | **.82** |
| 13. Leader Supportiveness | 5.42 | 1.14 | .06 | .09 | .01 | .02 | -.03 | -.09 | .11 | .87** | .40** | .61** | .40** | .58** |
| 14. Individualism (Idiocentrism) | 4.78 | 1.02 | -.07 | -.06 | -.05 | .05 | .13* | .36** | .13* | .02 | .11 | -.01 | .10 | -.03 |
| 15. Collectivism (Allocentrism) | 5.82 | .74 | .04 | .07 | -.04 | -.06 | .04 | -.23** | .41** | .25** | .17** | .24** | .28** | .18** |
| 16. RBSE | 3.88 | .71 | .03 | .01 | -.09 | -.11 | .24** | -.28** | .38** | .12* | .24** | .14* | .24** | .12* |
| 17. Interpersonal DD (Self) | 1.45 | .68 | -.16** | -.10 | -.12* | -.13* | -.06 | .23** | -.12* | -.03 | -.01 | -.06 | -.07 | -.10 |
| 18. Interpersonal DD (Peer) | 1.81 | 1.17 | -.09 | -.14* | -.10 | -.16** | -.33** | .17** | -.06 | .02 | -.03 | .03 | -.07 | .02 |
| 19. Organizational DD (Self) | 1.54 | .55 | -.12* | -.04 | -.13* | -.09 | -.14* | .25** | -.17** | .01 | .00 | -.12* | -.18** | -.10 |
| 20. Organizational DD (Peer) | 1.75 | .92 | -.10 | -.10 | -.09 | -.14* | -.31** | .12* | -.05 | .03 | .02 | -.01 | -.05 | .03 |
| 21. Innovative Org. CD (Self) | 4.20 | 1.25 | .10 | -.01 | -.13* | -.18** | .06 | -.12* | .13* | .06 | .20** | .09 | .10 | .04 |
| 22. Innovative Org. CD (Peer) | 4.05 | 1.37 | -.05 | -.09 | -.07 | -.07 | -.02 | -.01 | .02 | .02 | .10 | .01 | .01 | .04 |
| 23. Challenging Org. CD (Self) | 1.76 | .95 | -.07 | -.08 | -.13* | -.10 | .04 | .06 | -.03 | -.02 | -.02 | -.02 | -.11 | -.09 |
| 24. Challenging Org. CD (Peer) | 1.87 | 1.03 | -.05 | -.13* | -.10 | -.15* | -.05 | .11 | .00 | -.06 | .10 | -.10 | -.04 | -.04 |
| 25. Interpersonal CD (Self) | 2.53 | 1.07 | -.02 | -.01 | -.05 | -.17** | .07 | -.01 | .05 | .02 | .04 | .04 | .03 | -.03 |
| 26. Interpersonal CD (Peer) | 2.45 | 1.08 | -.08 | -.08 | -.03 | -.07 | .01 | -.12* | .00 | -.09 | .07 | -.11 | .03 | -.10 |

Note: *p<.05 and **p<.01.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.
Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.

**Table 4 (continued)**
**Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations**
**(Peer-Rated Sub-Sample, n=295)**

| Variable | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13. Leader Supportiveness | **.90** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 14. Individualism (Idiocentrism) | .02 | **.61** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 15. Collectivism (Allocentrism) | .20** | .16** | **.63** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16. RBSE | .15* | .03 | .24** | **.89** | | | | | | | | | | |
| 17. Interpersonal DD (Self) | .01 | .17** | -.13* | -.04 | **.79** | | | | | | | | | |
| 18. Interpersonal DD (Peer) | -.01 | .02 | -.11 | -.15* | .36** | **.91** | | | | | | | | |
| 19. Organizational DD (Self) | -.03 | .09 | -.15* | -.08 | .49** | .24** | **.80** | | | | | | | |
| 20. Organizational DD (Peer) | -.01 | .03 | -.01 | -.05 | .26** | .64** | .33** | **.89** | | | | | | |
| 21. Innovative Org. CD (Self) | .06 | -.01 | .06 | .34** | .11* | .01 | .11 | .08 | **.73** | | | | | |
| 22. Innovative Org. CD (Peer) | .06 | .01 | .01 | .11 | .15** | .05 | .11 | -.09 | .11 | **.76** | | | | |
| 23. Challenging Org. CD (Self) | .02 | .11 | -.08 | .16** | .38** | .15* | .38** | .09 | .32** | .14* | **.82** | | | |
| 24. Challenging Org. CD (Peer) | -.02 | .15** | .01 | .05 | .16** | .26** | .23** | .33** | .19** | .27** | .37** | **.83** | | |
| 25. Interpersonal CD (Self) | .03 | .13* | .04 | .21** | .26** | .08 | .31** | .07 | .35** | .13* | .47** | .20** | **.69** | |
| 26. Interpersonal CD (Peer) | -.05 | .17** | -.05 | .03 | .18** | .25** | .23** | .24** | .10 | .32** | .27** | .59** | .35** | **.70** |

Note: *p<.05 and **p<.01.

**Table 5**
**Simultaneous Tests for the Invariance of Measurements and Structures**
**(Entire Sample, N=668)**

| | MODEL 1 # of factors invariant | | MODEL 2 # of factors & pattern of loadings invariant | | Difference in: | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| VARIABLE | $\chi^2$ | df | $\chi^2$ | df | $\Delta\chi^2$ | df |
| Machiavellianism | 758.13 | 208 | 797.53[a] | 221[a] | 39.41 | 13 |
| Ethical Orientation | 474.28 | 128 | 487.51[b] | 136[b] | 13.23 | 8 |
| Justice Perceptions | 1220.48 | 338 | 1236.44 | 352 | 15.96 | 14 |
| Job Autonomy | 33.80 | 10 | 39.75 | 14 | 5.95 | 4 |
| Social Structural Characteristics | 327.44 | 64 | 340.52[c] | 68[c] | 13.08 | 4 |
| Leader Supportiveness | 158.85 | 28 | 168.54 | 34 | 9.69 | 6 |
| Individualism | 57.07 | 16 | 194.68 | 20 | 137.61 | 4 |
| Collectivism | 97.75 | 16 | 102.80 | 20 | 5.05 | 4 |
| RBSE | 313.31 | 70 | 320.44[d] | 77[d] | 7.13 | 7 |
| Destructive Deviance | 681.35 | 206 | 697.20[e] | 212[e] | 15.85 | 6 |
| Constructive Deviance | 444.14 | 102 | 457.49 | 111 | 13.35 | 9 |

[a] All constraints except items 2 and 20.
[b] All constraints except items 11,17 and 18.
[c] All constraints except items 2,6 and 9.
[d] All constraints except items 3 and 5.
[e] All constraints except organizational destructive deviance items 2,4,6,8,9,10 and interpersonal destructive deviance items 5 and 7.

## Table 6
## Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Individual Factors in Predicting Deviance (Entire Sample)

| | (ENTIRE SAMPLE, N=668) Dependent Variables | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | | |
| | Organizational Destructive Deviance | | Interpersonal Destructive Deviance | | Innovative Organizational Constructive Deviance | | Challenging Organizational Constructive Deviance | | Interpersonal Constructive Deviance | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.12 | -2.64** | -.13 | -2.80** | -.01 | -.11 | -.07 | -1.54 | -.05 | -1.04 |
| Gender | -.05 | -1.22 | -.11 | -2.78** | -.06 | -1.52 | -.07 | -1.68† | -.03 | -.85 |
| Industry | -.07 | -1.53 | -.06 | -1.31 | .09 | 2.00* | .04 | .92 | .13 | 2.82** |
| Country | -.14 | -3.11** | .11 | 2.52* | -.14 | -3.06** | .01 | .31 | -.03 | -.65 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .05*** | | .03** | | .01 | | .01† | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Machiavellianism | .13 | 3.24** | .14 | 3.44** | -.06 | -1.48 | .06 | 1.42 | . 03 | .69 |
| Ethical Orientation | -.16 | -4.13*** | -.08 | -2.12* | | | | | | |
| Justice Perceptions | -.08 | -2.04* | -.09 | -2.42* | | | | | | |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .06*** | | .04*** | | .003 | | .003 | | .001 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .09 | | .08 | | .02 | | .01 | | .01 | |
| F | 10.31*** | | 9.59*** | | 3.78** | | 1.74 | | 1.89† | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001. Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2. Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical. Country was dummy-coded with 1=Canada and 2=Mexico.

## Table 7
## Results of Chow Test of Individual Factors in Predicting Destructive Deviance (Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)

| | Dependent Variable: Organizational Destructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Destructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.06 | -1.35 | -.19 | -2.83** | -.05 | -.88 | -.18 | -4.43*** | -.18 | -2.60* | -.08 | -1.52 |
| Gender | -.06 | -1.51 | .02 | .33 | -.10 | -1.96† | -.10 | -2.54* | -.06 | -.97 | -.13 | -2.78** |
| Industry | -.12 | -3.00* | .02 | .27 | -.14 | -.2.52* | -.01 | -.33 | .01 | .08 | -.10 | -1.77† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03** | | .04* | | .03** | | .04*** | | .04* | | .04** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Machiavellianism | .10 | 2.46* | .29 | 4.52*** | .02 | .43 | .15 | 3.80*** | .23 | 3.64*** | .09 | 1.71† |
| Ethical Orientation | -.17 | -4.41*** | -.13 | -2.02* | -.19 | -3.81 | -.08 | -2.01* | -.11 | -1.71† | -.08 | -1.51 |
| Justice Perceptions | -.06 | -1.48 | .03 | .41 | -.14 | -2.91** | -.10 | -2.64** | -.002 | -.03 | -.13 | -2.77** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .05*** | | .11*** | | .06*** | | .05*** | | .08*** | | .04** | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .07 | | .12 | | .08 | | .08 | | .09 | | .06 | |
| F | 9.14*** | | 6.33*** | | 7.28*** | | 10.82*** | | 4.87*** | | 5.60*** | |
| Chow Test | $F_{7,649} = 5.17$, $p<.05$ | | | | | | $F_{7,649} = 1.19$, n.s. | | | | | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2. Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.

**Table 8**
**Results of Chow Test of Individual Factors in Predicting Constructive Deviance**
**(Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Innovative Constructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Challenging Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.06 | -1.45 | .02 | .24 | -.02 | -.38 | -.08 | -1.90† | -.08 | -1.20 | -.06 | -1.04 |
| Gender | -.07 | -1.81† | -.15 | -2.25* | -.004 | -.08 | -.06 | -1.66† | -.15 | -2.23* | -.01 | -.13 |
| Industry | .03 | .85 | -.01 | -.20 | .15 | 2.71** | .05 | 1.15 | -.04 | -.50 | .10 | 1.71† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01† | | .02 | | .02* | | .01† | | .04* | | .01 | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Machiavellianism | -.08 | -2.07* | -.07 | -1.05 | -.04 | -.86 | .06 | 1.46 | .16 | 2.53* | -.001 | -.03 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01* | | .01 | | .002 | | .003 | | .03* | | .00 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .01 | | .01 | | .01 | | .01 | | .04 | | .001 | |
| F | 2.89* | | 1.60 | | 2.33† | | 2.18† | | 3.77** | | .76 | |
| Chow Test | $F_{5,653} = 2.69$, $p<.05$ | | | | | | $F_{5,653} = 2.28$, $p<.05$ | | | | | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.
Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.

**Table 8 (continued)**
**Results of Chow Test of Individual Factors in Predicting Constructive Deviance**
**(Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | |
| Age | -.03 | -.84 | -.13 | -1.93† | .003 | .06 |
| Gender | -.04 | -.92 | -.05 | -.78 | -.001 | -.03 |
| Industry | .11 | 2.79** | -.02 | -.35 | .19 | 3.44** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01* | | .03 | | .04** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | |
| Machiavellianism | .02 | .54 | .01 | .14 | .05 | .99 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .00 | | .00 | | .002 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .01 | | .01 | | .03 | |
| F | 2.21† | | 1.50 | | 4.18** | |
| Chow Test | $F_{5,653} = 2.85$, $p<.05$ | | | | | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.
Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.

**Table 9**
**Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Individual Factors in Predicting Destructive Deviance (Peer-Rated Sub-Sample)**

| | (PEER- RATED SUB-SAMPLE, n=295) Dependent Variables | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ORGANIZATIONAL DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | INTERPERSONAL DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | |
| | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.16 | -2.52* | -.06 | -.94 | -.16 | -2.47* | -.08 | -1.24 |
| Gender | -.09 | -1.55 | -.06 | -1.03 | -.12 | -2.07* | -.08 | -1.37 |
| Industry | -.01 | -.10 | -.25 | -3.52*** | -.04 | -.50 | -.24 | -3.48** |
| Country | -.18 | -2.49* | -.12 | -1.72† | .09 | 1.18 | -.12 | -1.70† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .06** | | .13*** | | .05** | | .13*** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Machiavellianism | .21 | 3.57*** | .09 | 1.49 | .18 | 2.93* | .14 | 2.35* |
| Ethical Orientation | -.10 | -1.74† | .05 | .81 | -.08 | -1.38 | .04 | .67 |
| Justice Perceptions | -.06 | -.99 | -.07 | -1.29 | -.02 | -.34 | -.04 | -.69 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .07*** | | .01 | | .04** | | .02† | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .11 | | .12 | | .07 | | .13 | |
| F | 6.13*** | | 6.66*** | | 4.25*** | | 7.33*** | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.
Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.
Country was dummy-coded with 1=Canada and 2=Mexico.

## Table 10
## Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Individual Factors in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Peer-Rated Sub-Sample)

| | (PEER-RATED SUB-SAMPLE, n=295) Dependent Variables | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | INNOVATIVE ORGANIZATIONAL CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | CHALLENGING ORGANIZATIONAL CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | INTERPERSONAL CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | |
| | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | .05 | .82 | -.10 | -1.54 | -.10 | -1.50 | -.06 | -.92 | -.07 | -1.02 | -.03 | -.39 |
| Gender | -.13 | -2.21* | -.06 | -.90 | -.15 | -2.51* | -.16 | -2.79** | -.06 | -1.06 | -.08 | -1.38 |
| Industry | .11 | 1.44 | .05 | .61 | .11 | 1.41 | -.08 | -1.05 | .14 | 1.81† | -.07 | -.91 |
| Country | -.08 | -1.13 | -.06 | -.84 | .06 | .79 | .23 | 3.23** | -.07 | -.99 | .19 | 2.62** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03* | | .01 | | .04* | | .07** | | .01 | | .04* | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Machiavellianism | -.12 | -2.02* | -.01 | -.08 | .03 | .41 | .09 | 1.56 | .01 | .09 | .11 | 1.92† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01* | | .00 | | .001 | | .01 | | .00 | | .01† | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .03 | | .00 | | .03 | | .07 | | .001 | | .03 | |
| F | 2.80* | | .77 | | 2.53* | | 5.03*** | | .85 | | 2.84* | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.
Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.
Country was dummy-coded with 1=Canada and 2=Mexico.

**Table 11**
**Summary Results of the Individual Factors in Predicting Destructive Deviance**
**(Entire and Peer-Rated Sub-Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Organizational Destructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Destructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | |
| | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.12 | -2.64** | -.16 | -2.52* | -.06 | -.94 | -.13 | -2.80** | -.16 | -2.47* | -.08 | -1.24 |
| Gender | -.05 | -1.22 | -.09 | -1.55 | -.06 | -1.03 | -.11 | -2.78** | -.12 | -2.07* | -.08 | -1.37 |
| Industry | -.07 | -1.53 | -.01 | -.10 | -.25 | -3.52*** | -.06 | -1.31 | -.04 | -.50 | -.24 | -3.48** |
| Country | -.14 | -3.11** | -.18 | -2.49* | -.12 | -1.72† | .11 | 2.52* | .09 | 1.18 | -.12 | -1.70† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .06** | | .13*** | | .05*** | | .05** | | .13*** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Machiavellianism | .13 | 3.24** | .21 | 3.57*** | .09 | 1.49 | .14 | 3.44** | .18 | 2.93* | .14 | 2.35* |
| Ethical Orientation | -.16 | -4.13*** | -.10 | -1.74† | .05 | .81 | -.08 | -2.12* | -.08 | -1.38 | .04 | .67 |
| Justice Perceptions | -.08 | -2.04* | -.06 | -.99 | -.07 | -1.29 | -.09 | -2.42* | -.02 | -.34 | -.04 | -.69 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .06*** | | .07*** | | .01 | | .04*** | | .04** | | .02† | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .09 | | .11 | | .12 | | .08 | | .07 | | .13 | |
| F | 10.31*** | | 6.13*** | | 6.66*** | | 9.59*** | | 4.25*** | | 7.33*** | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2. Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.

## Table 12
## Summary Results of the Individual Factors in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Entire and Peer-Rated Sub-Samples)

| | Dependent Variable: Innovative Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Challenging Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | |
| | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.01 | -.11 | .05 | .82 | -.10 | -1.54 | -.07 | -1.54 | -.10 | -1.50 | -.06 | -.92 |
| Gender | -.06 | -1.52 | -.13 | -2.21* | -.06 | -.90 | -.07 | -1.68† | -.15 | -2.51* | -.16 | -2.79** |
| Industry | .09 | 2.00* | .11 | 1.44 | .05 | .61 | .04 | .92 | .11 | 1.41 | -.08 | -1.05 |
| Country | -.14 | -3.06** | -.08 | -1.13 | -.06 | -.84 | .01 | .31 | .06 | .79 | .23 | 3.23** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03** | | .03* | | .01 | | .01 | | .04* | | .07** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Machiavellianism | -.06 | -1.48 | -.12 | -2.02* | -.01 | -.08 | .06 | 1.42 | .03 | .41 | .09 | 1.56 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .003 | | .01* | | .00 | | .003 | | .001 | | .01 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .02 | | .03 | | .00 | | .01 | | .03 | | .07 | |
| F | 3.78** | | 2.80* | | .77 | | 1.74 | | 2.53* | | 5.03*** | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.
Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.

**Table 12 (continued)**
**Summary Results of the Individual Factors in Predicting Constructive Deviance**
**(Entire and Peer-Rated Sub-Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | |
| | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | |
| Age | -.05 | -1.04 | -.07 | -1.02 | -.03 | -.39 |
| Gender | -.03 | -.85 | -.06 | -1.06 | -.08 | -1.38 |
| Industry | .13 | 2.82** | .14 | 1.81† | -.07 | -.91 |
| Country | -.03 | -.65 | -.07 | -.99 | .19 | 2.62** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01† | | .01 | | .04* | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | |
| Machiavellianism | . 03 | .69 | .01 | .09 | .11 | 1.92† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .001 | | .00 | | .01† | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .01 | | .001 | | .03 | |
| F | 1.89† | | .85 | | 2.84* | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.
Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.

**Table 13**
**Results of Multiple Regression Analysis Testing the RBSE Mediation in Predicting Deviance (Entire Sample)**

| | (ENTIRE SAMPLE, N=668) Dependent Variables | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | | |
| | Organizational Destructive Deviance | | Interpersonal Destructive Deviance | | Innovative Organizational Constructive Deviance | | Challenging Organizational Constructive Deviance | | Interpersonal Constructive Deviance | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.12 | -2.64** | -.13 | -2.80** | -.01 | -.11 | -.07 | -1.54 | -.05 | -1.04 |
| Gender | -.05 | -1.22 | -.11 | -2.78** | -.06 | -1.52 | -.07 | -1.68† | -.03 | -.85 |
| Industry | -.07 | -1.53 | -.06 | -1.31 | .09 | 2.00* | .04 | .92 | .13 | 2.82** |
| Country | -.14 | -3.11** | .11 | 2.52* | -.14 | -3.06** | .01 | .31 | -.03 | -.65 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .05*** | | .03** | | .01 | | .01† | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | -.03 | -.77 | -.07 | -1.85† | .21 | 5.27*** | .03 | .69 | .07 | 1.68† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .001 | | .01† | | .04*** | | .001 | | .004† | |
| Step 3 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | -.02 | -.50 | -.07 | -1.81† | .08 | 2.25* | -.03 | -.80 | .01 | .16 |
| RBSE | -.03 | -.80 | .01 | .14 | .42 | 11.08*** | .21 | 5.06*** | .21 | 5.05*** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .001 | | .00 | | .15*** | | .04*** | | .04*** | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .03 | | .05 | | .21 | | .04 | | .05 | |
| F | 4.68*** | | 6.49*** | | 29.37*** | | 5.50*** | | 6.30*** | |

## Table 14
## Results of Chow Test of RBSE Mediation in Predicting Destructive Deviance (Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)

| | Dependent Variable: Organizational Destructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Destructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.06 | -1.35 | -.19 | -2.83** | -.05 | -.88 | -.18 | -4.43*** | -.18 | -2.60* | -.08 | -1.52 |
| Gender | -.06 | -1.51 | .02 | .33 | -.10 | -1.96† | -.10 | -2.54* | -.06 | -.97 | -.13 | -2.78** |
| Industry | -.12 | -3.00** | .02 | .27 | -.14 | -2.52* | -.01 | -.33 | .01 | .08 | -.10 | -1.77† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03** | | .04* | | .03** | | .04*** | | .04* | | .04** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | -.02 | -.49 | .04 | .67 | -.06 | -1.14 | -.08 | -2.06* | .04 | .68 | -.11 | -2.26* |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .000 | | .002 | | .003 | | .01* | | .002 | | .01* | |
| Step 3 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | -.01 | -.30 | .06 | .83 | -.06 | -1.17 | -.08 | -1.96† | .05 | .69 | -.12 | -2.32* |
| RBSE | -.02 | -.56 | -.08 | -1.24 | .02 | .29 | -.001 | -.04 | -.01 | -.16 | .03 | .57 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .000 | | .01 | | .000 | | .000 | | .000 | | .001 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .02 | | .02 | | .03 | | .04 | | .02 | | .04 | |
| F | 3.49** | | 2.11† | | 3.22** | | 6.63*** | | 1.89† | | 4.49** | |
| Chow Test | | | $F_{6,651} = 3.14$, $p<.05$ | | | | | | $F_{6,651} = 1.82$, n.s. | | | |

## Table 15
## Results of Chow Test of RBSE Mediation in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)

| | Dependent Variable: Innovative Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Challenging Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | .06 | 1.45 | .02 | .24 | -.02 | -.38 | -.07 | -1.90$^{\dagger}$ | -.08 | -1.20 | -.06 | -1.04 |
| Gender | -.07 | -1.81$^{\dagger}$ | -.15 | -2.25* | -.004 | -.08 | -.06 | -1.66$^{\dagger}$ | -.15 | -2.23* | -.01 | -.13 |
| Industry | .03 | .85 | -.01 | -.20 | .15 | -2.71** | .05 | 1.15 | -.04 | -.50 | .10 | 1.71$^{\dagger}$ |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01 | | .02 | | .02* | | .01$^{\dagger}$ | | .04* | | .01 | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | .21 | 5.50*** | .18 | 2.73** | .20 | 4.04*** | .03 | .66 | -.07 | -1.05 | .05 | .94 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .03** | | .04*** | | .001 | | .01 | | .002 | |
| Step 3 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | .09 | 2.38* | .12 | 2.06* | .07 | 1.34 | -.04 | -.85 | -.10 | -1.46 | -.02 | -.32 |
| RBSE | .42*** | 11.23*** | .41 | 7.03*** | .42 | 8.59*** | .21 | 5.02*** | .19 | 3.02** | .20 | 3.77*** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .15*** | | .17*** | | .14*** | | .04*** | | .04** | | .03*** | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .20 | | .20 | | .19 | | .04 | | .06 | | .03 | |
| F | 34.24*** | | 13.00*** | | 20.69*** | | 6.49*** | | 3.81** | | 3.65** | |
| Chow Test | | | $F_{6,651} = 1.26$, n.s. | | | | | | $F_{6,651} = 1.13$, n.s. | | | |

**Table 15 (continued)**
**Results of Chow Test of RBSE Mediation in Predicting Constructive Deviance**
**(Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | |
| Age | -.03 | -.84 | -.13 | -1.93† | .003 | .06 |
| Gender | -.04 | -.92 | -.05 | -.78 | -.001 | -.03 |
| Industry | .11 | 2.79** | -.02 | -.35 | .19 | 3.44** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01† | | .03 | | .04** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | .07 | 1.73† | .01 | .17 | .05 | .97 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .004† | | .000 | | .002 | |
| Step 3 | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | .01 | .17 | -.01 | -.18 | -.02 | -.35 |
| RBSE | .21 | 5.08*** | .18 | 2.72** | .21 | 3.93*** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .03** | | .03*** | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .05 | | .03 | | .06 | |
| F | 7.57*** | | 2.71* | | 6.53*** | |
| Chow Test | $F_{6,651} = 1.46$, n.s. | | | | | |

## Table 16
## Results of Multiple Regression Analysis Testing the RBSE Mediation in Predicting Destructive Deviance (Peer-Rated Sub-Sample)

| | (PEER-RATED SUB-SAMPLE, n=295) Dependent Variables | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ORGANIZATIONAL DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | INTERPERSONAL DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | |
| | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.16 | -2.52* | -.06 | -.94 | -.16 | -2.47* | -.08 | -1.24 |
| Gender | -.09 | -1.55 | -.06 | -1.03 | -.12 | -2.07* | -.08 | -1.37 |
| Industry | -.01 | -.10 | -.25 | -3.52*** | -.04 | -.50 | -.24 | -3.48** |
| Country | -.18 | -2.49* | -.12 | -1.72† | .09 | 1.18 | -.12 | -1.70† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .06** | | .13*** | | .05** | | .13*** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | .02 | .38 | .04 | .76 | -.01 | -.24 | .01 | .25 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .00 | | .002 | | .00 | | .00 | |
| Step 3 | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | .04 | .66 | .04 | .73 | -.01 | -.13 | .03 | .59 |
| RBSE | -.08 | -1.28 | .002 | .04 | -.03 | -.43 | -.09 | -1.56 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .005 | | .00 | | .001 | | .01 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .05 | | .11 | | .03 | | .12 | |
| F | 3.58** | | 7.07*** | | 2.67* | | 7.83*** | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.

**Table 17**
**Results of Multiple Regression Analysis Testing the RBSE Mediation in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Peer-Rated Sub-Sample)**

| | (PEER-RATED SUB-SAMPLE, n=295) Dependent Variables | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | INNOVATIVE ORGANIZATIONAL CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | CHALLENGING ORGANIZATIONAL CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | INTERPERSONAL CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | |
| | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | .05 | .82 | -.10 | -1.54 | -.10 | -1.50 | -.06 | -.92 | -.07 | -1.02 | -.03 | -.39 |
| Gender | -.13 | -2.21* | -.06 | -.90 | -.15 | -2.51* | -.16 | -2.79** | -.06 | -1.06 | -.08 | -1.38 |
| Industry | .11 | 1.44 | .05 | .61 | .11 | 1.41 | -.08 | -1.05 | .14 | -1.81† | -.07 | -.91 |
| Country | -.08 | -1.13 | -.06 | -.84 | .06 | .79 | .23 | 3.23** | -.07 | -.99 | .19 | 2.62** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03* | | .01 | | .04* | | .07*** | | .01 | | .04* | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | .18 | 3.19** | .11 | 1.80† | -.03 | -.53 | .12 | 2.07* | .03 | .54 | .06 | .98 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03** | | .01† | | .001 | | .01* | | .001 | | .003 | |
| Step 3 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | .12 | 2.05* | .09 | 1.44 | -.07 | -1.11 | .12 | 1.97† | -.01 | -.17 | .06 | .94 |
| RBSE | .31 | 5.42*** | .09 | 1.47 | .16 | 2.62** | .01 | .22 | . 19 | 3.17** | .01 | .08 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .09*** | | .01 | | .02** | | .00 | | .03** | | .00 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .13 | | .01 | | .05 | | .07 | | .03 | | .02 | |
| F | 8.61*** | | 1.55 | | 3.32** | | 4.52*** | | 2.45* | | 1.89† | |

**Table 18**
**Summary Results of the RBSE Mediation in Predicting Destructive Deviance**
**(Entire and Peer-Rated Sub-Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Organizational Destructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Destructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | |
| | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.12 | -2.64** | -.16 | -2.52* | -.06 | -.94 | -.13 | -2.80** | -.16 | -2.47* | -.08 | -1.24 |
| Gender | -.05 | -1.22 | -.09 | -1.55 | -.06 | -1.03 | -.11 | -2.78** | -.12 | -2.07* | -.08 | -1.37 |
| Industry | -.07 | -1.53 | -.01 | -.10 | -.25 | -3.52*** | -.06 | -1.31 | -.04 | -.50 | -.24 | -3.48** |
| Country | -.14 | -3.11** | -.18 | -2.49* | -.12 | -1.72† | .11 | 2.52* | .09 | 1.18 | -.12 | -1.70† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .06** | | .13*** | | .05*** | | .05** | | .13*** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | -.03 | -.77 | .02 | .38 | .04 | .76 | -.07 | -1.85† | -.01 | -.24 | .01 | .25 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .001 | | .00 | | .002 | | .01† | | .00 | | .00 | |
| Step 3 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | -.02 | -.50 | .04 | .66 | .04 | .73 | -.07 | -1.81† | -.01 | -.13 | .03 | .59 |
| RBSE | -.03 | -.80 | -.08 | -1.28 | .002 | .04 | .01 | .14 | -.03 | -.43 | -.09 | -1.56 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .001 | | .005 | | .00 | | .00 | | .001 | | .01 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .03 | | .05 | | .11 | | .05 | | .03 | | .12 | |
| F | 4.68*** | | 3.58** | | 7.07*** | | 6.49*** | | 2.67* | | 7.83*** | |

**Table 19**
**Summary Results of the RBSE Mediation in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Entire and Peer-Rated Sub-Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Innovative Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Challenging Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | |
| | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.01 | -.11 | .05 | .82 | -.10 | -1.54 | -.07 | -1.54 | -.10 | -1.50 | -.06 | -.92 |
| Gender | -.06 | -1.52 | -.13 | -2.21* | -.06 | -.90 | -.07 | -1.68† | -.15 | -2.51* | -.16 | -2.79** |
| Industry | .09 | 2.00* | .11 | 1.44 | .05 | .61 | .04 | .92 | .11 | 1.41 | -.08 | -1.05 |
| Country | -.14 | -3.06** | -.08 | -1.13 | -.06 | -.84 | .01 | .31 | .06 | .79 | .23 | 3.23** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03** | | .03* | | .01 | | .01 | | .04* | | .07*** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | .21 | 5.27*** | .18 | 3.19** | .11 | 1.80† | .03 | .69 | -.03 | -.53 | .12 | 2.07* |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .03** | | .01† | | .001 | | .001 | | .01* | |
| Step 3 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | .08 | 2.25* | .12 | 2.05* | .09 | 1.44 | -.03 | -.80 | -.07 | -1.11 | .12 | 1.97† |
| RBSE | .42 | 11.08*** | .31 | 5.42*** | .09 | 1.47 | .21 | 5.06*** | .16 | 2.62** | .01 | .22 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .15*** | | .09*** | | .01 | | .04*** | | .02** | | .00 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .21 | | .13 | | .01 | | .04 | | .05 | | .07 | |
| F | 29.37*** | | 8.61*** | | 1.55 | | 5.50*** | | 3.32** | | 4.52*** | |

**Table 19 (continued)**
**Summary Results of the RBSE Mediation in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Entire and Peer-Rated Sub-Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | |
| | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | |
| Age | -.05 | -1.04 | -.07 | -1.02 | -.03 | -.39 |
| Gender | -.03 | -.85 | -.06 | -1.06 | -.08 | -1.38 |
| Industry | .13 | 2.82** | .14 | -1.81† | -.07 | -.91 |
| Country | -.03 | -.65 | -.07 | -.99 | .19 | 2.62** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01† | | .01 | | .04* | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | .07 | 1.68† | .03 | .54 | .06 | .98 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .004† | | .001 | | .003 | |
| Step 3 | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | .01 | .16 | -.01 | -.17 | .06 | .94 |
| RBSE | .21 | 5.05*** | .19 | 3.17** | .01 | .08 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .03** | | .00 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .05 | | .03 | | .02 | |
| F | 6.30*** | | 2.45* | | 1.89† | |

**Table 20**
**Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Job Autonomy in Predicting RBSE (Entire, Canadian, Mexican, and Peer-Rated Sample)**

| | Dependent Variable RBSE | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE (N=668) | | CANADIAN SAMPLE (n=240) | | MEXICAN SAMPLE (n=428) | | PEER- RATED SUB-SAMPLE (Self) (n=295) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.002 | -.04 | .02 | .28 | -.03 | -.48 | -.05 | -.81 |
| Gender | -.13 | -3.35** | -.14 | -2.11* | -.09 | -2.02* | -.13 | -2.29* |
| Industry | .22 | 5.11*** | -.03 | -.40 | .33 | 6.30*** | .29 | 3.94*** |
| Country | -.11 | -2.48* | | | | | -.02 | -.34 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .07*** | | .02 | | .12*** | | .08*** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy | .29 | 7.82*** | .13 | 2.02* | .32 | 7.04*** | .22 | 3.89*** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .08*** | | .02* | | .09*** | | .05*** | |
| Adjusted $R^2$ | .14 | | .02 | | .20 | | .11 | |
| F | 22.39*** | | 2.27† | | 27.84*** | | 8.17*** | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.
Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical. Country was dummy-coded with 1=Canada and 2=Mexico.

**Table 21**
**Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Job Autonomy and RBSE Interaction in Predicting Deviance**
**(Entire Sample)**

| | (ENTIRE SAMPLE, N=668) Dependent Variables | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | | |
| | Organizational Destructive Deviance | | Interpersonal Destructive Deviance | | Innovative Organizational Constructive Deviance | | Challenging Organizational Constructive Deviance | | Interpersonal Constructive Deviance | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.12 | -2.64** | -.13 | -2.80** | -.01 | -.11 | -.07 | -1.54 | -.05 | -1.04 |
| Gender | -.05 | -1.22 | -.11 | -2.78** | -.06 | -1.52 | -.07 | -1.68† | -.03 | -.85 |
| Industry | -.07 | -1.53 | -.06 | -1.31 | .09 | 2.00* | .04 | .92 | .13 | 2.82** |
| Country | -.14 | -3.11** | .11 | 2.52* | -.14 | -3.06** | .01 | .31 | -.03 | -.65 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .05*** | | .03** | | .01 | | .01† | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy (JAUTO) | -.02 | -.50 | -.07 | -1.81† | .08 | 2.25* | -.03 | -.80 | .01 | .16 |
| RBSE | -.03 | -.80 | .01 | .14 | .42 | 11.08*** | .21 | 5.06*** | .21 | 5.05*** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .002 | | .01 | | .19*** | | .04*** | | .04*** | |
| Step 3 | | | | | | | | | | |
| JAUTO x RBSE | -.22 | -.87 | -.01 | -.04 | -.27 | -1.15 | -.23 | -.91 | -.57 | -2.26* |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .001 | | .000 | | .002 | | .001 | | .01* | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .03 | | .05 | | .21 | | .04 | | .05 | |
| F | 4.12*** | | 5.55*** | | 25.38*** | | 4.83*** | | 6.17*** | |

**Table 22**
**Results of Chow Test of Job Autonomy and RBSE Interaction in Predicting Destructive Deviance (Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Organizational Destructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Destructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.06 | -1.35 | -.19 | -2.83** | -.05 | -.88 | -.18 | -4.43*** | -.18 | -2.60* | -.08 | -1.52 |
| Gender | -.06 | -1.51 | .02 | .33 | -.10 | -1.96† | -.10 | -2.54* | -.06 | -.97 | -.13 | -2.78** |
| Industry | -.12 | -3.00** | .02 | .27 | -.14 | -2.52* | -.01 | -.33 | .01 | .08 | -.10 | -1.77† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03** | | .04* | | .03** | | .04*** | | .04* | | .04** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy (JAUTO) | -.01 | -.30 | .06 | .83 | -.06 | -1.17 | -.08 | -1.96† | .05 | .69 | -.12 | -2.32* |
| RBSE | -.02 | -.56 | -.08 | 1.25 | .02 | .29 | -.001 | -.04 | -.01 | -.16 | .03 | .57 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .001 | | .01 | | .003 | | .01 | | .002 | | .01† | |
| Step 3 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| JAUTO x RBSE | -.28 | -1.09 | -.001 | .002 | -.24 | -.71 | .03 | .13 | -.27 | -.61 | .11 | -.32 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .002 | | .000 | | .001 | | .000 | | .002 | | .000 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .02 | | .02 | | .02 | | .04 | | .02 | | .04 | |
| F | 3.11** | | 1.75 | | 2.76* | | 5.52*** | | 1.63 | | 3.75** | |
| Chow Test | $F_{7,649} = 2.56$, $p<.05$ | | | | | | $F_{7,649} = 1.61$, n.s. | | | | | |

## Table 23
## Results of Chow Test of Job Autonomy and RBSE Interaction in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)

| | Dependent Variable: Innovative Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Challenging Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | .06 | 1.45 | .02 | .24 | -.02 | -.38 | -.08 | -1.90$^{\dagger}$ | -.08 | -1.20 | -.06 | -1.04 |
| Gender | -.07 | -1.81$^{\dagger}$ | -.15 | -2.25* | -.004 | -.08 | -.06 | -1.66$^{\dagger}$ | -.15 | -2.23* | -.01 | -.13 |
| Industry | .03 | .85 | -.01 | -.20 | .15 | 2.71** | .05 | 1.15 | -.04 | -.50 | .10 | 1.71$^{\dagger}$ |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01 | | .02 | | .02* | | .01$^{\dagger}$ | | .04* | | .01 | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy (JAUTO) | .09 | 2.38* | .12 | 2.06* | .07 | 1.34 | -.04 | -.85 | -.10 | -1.46 | -.02 | -.32 |
| RBSE | .42 | 11.23*** | .42 | 7.03*** | .42 | 8.59*** | .21 | 5.02*** | .19 | 3.02** | .20 | 3.77*** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .20*** | | .20*** | | .18*** | | .04*** | | .04** | | .04** | |
| Step 3 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| JAUTO x RBSE | -.30 | -1.29 | -.04 | -.10 | -.45 | -1.50 | -.22 | -.85 | .07 | .17 | -.47 | -1.35 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .002 | | .00 | | .004 | | .001 | | .00 | | .004 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .20 | | .20 | | .19 | | .04 | | .05 | | .03 | |
| F | 28.84*** | | 10.79*** | | 17.66*** | | 5.53*** | | 3.16** | | 3.35** | |
| Chow Test | $F_{7,649} = 1.19$, n.s. | | | | | | $F_{7,649} = 1.11$, n.s. | | | | | |

**Table 23 (continued)**
**Results of Chow Test of Job Autonomy and RBSE Interaction in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | |
| Age | -.04 | -.84 | -.13 | -1.93† | .003 | .06 |
| Gender | -.04 | -.92 | -.05 | -.78 | -.001 | -.03 |
| Industry | .11 | 2.79** | -.02 | -.35 | .19 | 3.44** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01 | | .03 | | .04** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy (JAUTO) | .01 | .17 | -.01 | -.18 | -.02 | -.35 |
| RBSE | .21 | 5.08*** | .18 | 2.72** | .21 | 3.93*** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .03* | | .04*** | |
| Step 3 | | | | | | |
| JAUTO x RBSE | -.57 | -2.27* | -.54 | -1.22 | -.63 | -1.93† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01* | | .01 | | .01† | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .05 | | .04 | | .07 | |
| F | 7.21*** | | 2.51* | | 6.09*** | |
| Chow Test | $F_{7,649} = 1.27$, n.s. | | | | | |

**Table 24**
**Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Job Autonomy and RBSE Interaction in Predicting Destructive Deviance (Peer-Rated Sub-Sample)**

| | (PEER- RATED SUB- SAMPLE, n=295) Dependent Variables | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ORGANIZATIONAL DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | INTERPERSONAL DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | |
| | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.16 | -2.52* | -.06 | -.94 | -.16 | -2.47* | -.08 | -1.24 |
| Gender | -.09 | -1.55 | -.06 | -1.03 | -.12 | -2.07* | -.08 | -1.37 |
| Industry | -.01 | -.10 | -.25 | -3.52*** | -.04 | -.50 | -.24 | -3.48** |
| Country | -.18 | -2.49* | -.12 | -1.72† | .09 | 1.18 | -.12 | -1.70† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .06** | | .13*** | | .05** | | .13*** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy (JAUTO) | .04 | .66 | .04 | .73 | -.01 | -.13 | .03 | .59 |
| RBSE | -.08 | -1.28 | .002 | .04 | -.03 | -.43 | -.09 | -1.56 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01 | | .002 | | .001 | | .01 | |
| Step 3 | | | | | | | | |
| JAUTO x RBSE | -.01 | -.04 | -.60 | -1.59 | -.32 | -.83 | -.80 | -2.16* |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .00 | | .01 | | .002 | | .01* | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .05 | | .12 | | .03 | | .13 | |
| F | 3.06** | | 6.45*** | | 2.38* | | 7.46*** | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001

**Table 25**
**Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Testing the Job Autonomy and RBSE Interaction in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Peer-Rated Sub-Sample)**

| | (PEER- RATED SUB-SAMPLE, n=295) Dependent Variables | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | INNOVATIVE ORGANIZATIONAL CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | CHALLENGING ORGANIZATIONAL CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | INTERPERSONAL CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | |
| | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | .05 | .82 | -.10 | -1.54 | -.10 | -1.50 | -.06 | -.92 | -.07 | -1.02 | -.03 | -.39 |
| Gender | -.13 | -2.21* | -.06 | -.90 | -.15 | -2.51* | -.16 | -2.79** | -.06 | -1.06 | -.08 | -1.38 |
| Industry | .11 | -1.44 | .05 | .61 | .11 | 1.41 | -.08 | -1.05 | .14 | 1.81† | -.07 | -.91 |
| Country | -.08 | -1.13 | -.06 | -.84 | .06 | .79 | .23 | 3.23** | -.07 | -.99 | .19 | 2.62** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03* | | .01 | | .04* | | .07*** | | .01 | | .04* | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy (JAUTO) | .12 | 2.05* | .09 | 1.44 | -.07 | -1.11 | .12 | 1.97† | -.01 | -.17 | .06 | .94 |
| RBSE | .31 | 5.42*** | .09 | 1.46 | .16 | 2.62** | .01 | .22 | .19 | 3.17** | .01 | .08 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .12*** | | .02† | | .02* | | .01 | | .03** | | .003 | |
| STEP 3 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| JAUTO x RBSE | -.25 | -.66 | -.33 | -.82 | -.19 | -.49 | -.51 | -1.34 | -.75 | -1.91† | -.93 | -2.39* |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .001 | | .002 | | .001 | | .01 | | .01† | | .02* | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .13 | | .01 | | .04 | | .07 | | .04 | | .03 | |
| F | 7.43*** | | 1.42 | | 2.87** | | 4.14*** | | 2.64* | | 2.46* | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.

**Table 26**
**Summary Results of the Job Autonomy and RBSE Interaction in Predicting Destructive Deviance (Entire and Peer-Rated Sub- Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Organizational Destructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Destructive Deviance | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | | ENTIRE SAMPLE | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | |
| | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β t | β | t | β t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.12 | -2.64** | -.16 | -2.52* | -.06 | -.94 | -.13 -2.80** | -.16 | -2.47* | -.08 -1.24 |
| Gender | -.05 | -1.22 | -.09 | -1.55 | -.06 | -1.03 | -.11 -2.78** | -.12 | -2.07* | -.08 -1.37 |
| Industry | -.07 | -1.53 | -.01 | -.10 | -.25 | -3.52*** | -.06 -1.31 | -.04 | -.50 | -.24 -3.48** |
| Country | -.14 | -3.11** | -.18 | -2.49* | -.12 | -1.72† | .11 2.52* | .09 | 1.18 | -.12 -1.70† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .06** | | .13*** | | .05*** | .05** | | .13*** |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy (JAUTO) | -.02 | -.50 | .04 | .66 | .04 | .73 | -.07 -1.81† | -.01 | -.13 | .03 .59 |
| RBSE | -.03 | -.80 | -.08 | -1.28 | .002 | .04 | .01 .14 | -.03 | -.43 | -.09 -1.56 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .002 | | .01 | | .002 | | .01 | .001 | | .01 |
| Step 3 | | | | | | | | | | |
| JAUTO x RBSE | -.22 | -.87 | -.01 | -.04 | -.60 | -1.59 | -.01 -.04 | -.32 | -.83 | -.80 -2.16* |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .001 | | .00 | | .01 | | .000 | .002 | | .01* |
| Adj $R^2$ | .03 | | .05 | | .12 | | .05 | .03 | | .13 |
| F | 4.12*** | | 3.06** | | 6.45*** | | 5.55*** | 2.38* | | 7.46*** |

**Table 27**
**Summary Results of the Job Autonomy and RBSE Interaction in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Entire and Peer-Rated Sub-Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Innovative Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Challenging Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | |
| | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.01 | -.11 | .05 | .82 | -.10 | -1.54 | -.07 | -1.54 | -.10 | -1.50 | -.06 | -.92 |
| Gender | -.06 | -1.52 | -.13 | -2.21* | -.06 | -.90 | -.07 | -1.68† | -.15 | -2.51* | -.16 | -2.79** |
| Industry | .09 | 2.00* | .11 | -1.44 | .05 | .61 | .04 | .92 | .11 | 1.41 | -.08 | -1.05 |
| Country | -.14 | -3.06** | -.08 | -1.13 | -.06 | -.84 | .01 | .31 | .06 | .79 | .23 | 3.23** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03** | | .03* | | .01 | | .01 | | .04* | | .07*** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job Autonomy (JAUTO) | .08 | 2.25* | .12 | 2.05* | .09 | 1.44 | -.03 | -.80 | -.07 | -1.11 | .12 | 1.97† |
| RBSE | .42 | 11.08*** | .31 | 5.42*** | .09 | 1.46 | .21 | 5.06*** | .16 | 2.62** | .01 | .22 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .19*** | | .12*** | | .02† | | .04*** | | .02* | | .01 | |
| Step 3 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| JAUTO x RBSE | -.27 | -1.15 | -.25 | -.66 | -.33 | -.82 | -.23 | -.91 | -.19 | -.49 | -.51 | -1.34 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .002 | | .001 | | .002 | | .001 | | .001 | | .01 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .21 | | .13 | | .01 | | .04 | | .04 | | .07 | |
| F | 25.38*** | | 7.43*** | | 1.42 | | 4.83*** | | 2.87** | | 4.14*** | |

**Table 27 (continued)**
**Summary Results of the Job Autonomy and RBSE Interaction in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Entire and Peer-Rated Sub-Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | |
| | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | |
| Age | -.05 | -1.04 | -.07 | -1.02 | -.03 | -.39 |
| Gender | -.03 | -.85 | -.06 | -1.06 | -.08 | -1.38 |
| Industry | .13 | 2.82** | .14 | 1.81† | -.07 | -.91 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | -.03 | -.65 | -.07 | -.99 | .19 | 2.62** |
| Step 2 | .01† | | .01 | | .04* | |
| Job Autonomy (JAUTO) | | | | | | |
| RBSE | .01 | .16 | -.01 | -.17 | .06 | .94 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .21 | 5.05*** | .19 | 3.17** | .01 | .08 |
| Step 3 | .04*** | | .03** | | .003 | |
| JATO x RBSE | | | | | | |
| $\Delta R^2$ | -.57 | -2.26* | -.75 | -1.91† | -.93 | -2.39* |
| Adj $R^2$ | .01* | | .01† | | .02* | |
| F | .05 | | .04 | | .03 | |

## Table 28
## Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Situational Factors in Predicting Deviance (Entire Sample)

| | (ENTIRE SAMPLE, N=668) Dependent Variables | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | | |
| | Organizational Destructive Deviance | | Interpersonal Destructive Deviance | | Innovative Organizational Constructive Deviance | | Challenging Organizational Constructive Deviance | | Interpersonal Constructive Deviance | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.12 | -2.64** | -.13 | -2.80** | -.01 | -.11 | -.07 | -1.54 | -.05 | -1.04 |
| Gender | -.05 | -1.22 | -.11 | -2.78** | -.06 | -1.52 | -.07 | -1.68† | -.03 | -.85 |
| Industry | -.07 | -1.53 | -.06 | -1.31 | .09 | 2.00* | .04 | .92 | .13 | 2.82** |
| Country | -.14 | -3.11** | .11 | 2.52* | -.14 | -3.06** | .01 | .31 | -.03 | -.65 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .05*** | | .03** | | .01 | | .01† | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sociopolitical Support | -.16 | -3.07** | -.07 | -1.43 | -.09 | -1.64 | .00 | -.01 | -.08 | -1.51 |
| Access to Information | -.11 | -2.31* | -.08 | -1.72† | .17 | 3.74*** | -.04 | -.87 | -.04 | -.90 |
| Access to Resources | .01 | .18 | -.02 | -.27 | -.02 | -.36 | -.04 | -.77 | .05 | .95 |
| Leader Supportiveness | .02 | .39 | .02 | .39 | .09 | 1.67† | .01 | .16 | -.02 | -.32 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .02* | | .03*** | | .01 | | .01 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .07 | | .06 | | .04 | | .003 | | .01 | |
| F | 7.23*** | | 5.88*** | | 4.84*** | | 1.22 | | 1.80† | |

**Table 29**
**Results of Chow Test of Situational Factors in Predicting Destructive Deviance**
**(Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Organizational Destructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Destructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.06 | -1.35 | -.19 | -2.83** | -.05 | -.88 | -.18 | -4.43*** | -.18 | -2.60* | -.08 | -1.53 |
| Gender | -.06 | -1.51 | .02 | .33 | -.10 | -1.96† | -.10 | -2.54* | -.06 | -.97 | -.13 | -2.78** |
| Industry | -.12 | -3.00** | .02 | .27 | -.14 | -2.52* | -.01 | -.33 | .01 | .08 | -.10 | -1.77† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03** | | .04* | | .03*** | | .04*** | | .04* | | .04** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sociopolitical Support | -.15 | -2.98** | -.19 | -2.09* | -.17 | -2.64** | -.08 | -1.49 | -.13 | -1.43 | -.07 | -1.02 |
| Access to Information | -.13 | -2.88** | -.10 | -1.97* | -.08 | -1.32 | -.06 | -1.27 | -.21 | -2.79** | -.02 | -.29 |
| Access to Resources | .03 | .51 | -.03 | -.36 | .05 | .73 | -.03 | -.55 | .08 | .92 | -.05 | -.71 |
| Leader Supportiveness | .03 | .51 | .13 | 1.49 | -.03 | -.51 | .02 | .29 | .10 | 1.17 | -.01 | -.10 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | .39 | .06** | | .04** | | .02* | | .05* | | .02 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .06 | | .07 | | .06 | | .05 | | .06 | | .04 | |
| F | 6.86*** | | 3.52** | | 4.81*** | | 5.73*** | | 3.07** | | 3.26** | |
| Chow Test | $F_{8,647} = 2.51$, $p<.05$ | | | | | | $F_{8,647} = 1.80$, n.s. | | | | | |

## Table 30
## Results of Chow Test of Situational Factors in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)

| | Dependent Variable: Innovative Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Challenging Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | .06 | 1.45 | .02 | 24 | -.02 | -.38 | -.08 | -1.90$^{\dagger}$ | -.08 | -1.20 | -.06 | -1.04 |
| Gender | -.07 | -1.81$^{\dagger}$ | -.15 | -2.25* | -.004 | -.08 | -.06 | -1.66$^{\dagger}$ | -.15 | -2.23* | -.01 | -.13 |
| Industry | .03 | .85 | -.01 | -.20 | .15 | 2.71** | .05 | 1.15 | -.04 | -.50 | .10 | 1.71$^{\dagger}$ |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01$^{\dagger}$ | | .02 | | .02* | | .01$^{\dagger}$ | | .04* | | .01 | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sociopolitical Support | -.08 | -1.54 | -.14 | -1.45 | -.06 | -.97 | -.001 | -.02 | -.01 | -.10 | .02 | .23 |
| Access to Information | .14 | 3.14** | .12 | 1.56 | .20 | 3.52*** | -.04 | -.83 | -.09 | -1.19 | -.002 | -.03 |
| Access to Resources | .00 | .01 | .04 | .39 | -.04 | -.63 | -.05 | -.82 | -.10 | -1.15 | -.01 | -.16 |
| Leader Supportiveness | .10 | 1.80$^{\dagger}$ | .16 | 1.75$^{\dagger}$ | .05 | .67 | .01 | .15 | .03 | .31 | -.03 | -.38 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03* | | .04$^{\dagger}$ | | .03** | | .01 | | .03 | | .001 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .03 | | .03 | | .04 | | .004 | | .03 | | .00 | |
| F | 3.76** | | 2.02$^{\dagger}$ | | 3.34** | | 1.39 | | 2.15* | | .48 | |
| Chow Test | $F_{8,647} = 2.55$, $p<.05$ | | | | | | $F_{8,647} = 1.35$, n. | | | | | |

**Table 30 (continued)**
**Results of Chow of Situational Factors in Predicting Constructive Deviance**
**(Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | |
| Age | -.03 | -.84 | -.13 | -1.93† | .003 | .06 |
| Gender | -.04 | -.92 | -.05 | -.78 | -.001 | -.03 |
| Industry | .11 | 2.79** | -.02 | -.35 | .19 | 3.44** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01* | | .03 | | .04** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | |
| Sociopolitical Support | -.08 | -1.51 | -.01 | -.09 | -.11 | -1.67† |
| Access to Information | -.05 | -1.03 | -.06 | -.71 | -.03 | -.53 |
| Access to Resources | .06 | 1.02 | -.10 | -.10 | .09 | 1.25 |
| Leader Supportiveness | -.02 | -.29 | .04 | .46 | -.08 | -1.16 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01 | | .003 | | .02† | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .01 | | .001 | | .04 | |
| F | 2.01† | | .96 | | 3.42** | |
| Chow Test | | | $F_{8,647} = 2.15, p<.05$ | | | |

## Table 31
## Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Situational Factors in Predicting Destructive Deviance (Peer-Rated Sub-Sample)

| | (PEER-RATED SUB-SAMPLE, n=295) Dependent Variables | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ORGANIZATIONAL DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | INTERPERSONAL DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | |
| | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.16 | -2.52* | -.06 | -.94 | -.16 | -2.47* | -.08 | -1.24 |
| Gender | -.09 | -1.55 | -.06 | -1.03 | -.12 | -2.07* | -.08 | -1.37 |
| Industry | -.01 | -.10 | -.25 | -3.52*** | -.04 | -.50 | -.24 | -3.48** |
| Country | -.18 | -2.49* | -.12 | -1.72† | .09 | 1.18 | -.12 | -1.70† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .06** | | .13*** | | .05** | | .13*** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Sociopolitical Support | -.20 | -2.64** | -.07 | -.91 | -.14 | -1.79† | -.04 | -.52 |
| Access to Information | -.11 | -1.54 | .04 | .49 | -.03 | -.38 | .01 | .09 |
| Access to Resources | -.03 | -.41 | .03 | .32 | -.10 | -1.23 | -.02 | -.29 |
| Leader Supportiveness | .07 | .98 | -.07 | -.87 | .15 | 1.97† | .02 | .26 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .06** | | .01 | | .03† | | .002 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .10 | | .11 | | .05 | | .11 | |
| F | 4.97*** | | 5.59*** | | 3.09** | | 5.55*** | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.
Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.
Country was dummy-coded with 1=Canada and 2=Mexico.

## Table 32
## Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Situational Factors in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Peer-Rated Sub-Sample)

| | (PEER-RATED SUB-SAMPLE, n=295) Dependent Variables | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | INNOVATIVE ORGANIZATIONAL CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | CHALLENGING ORGANIZATIONAL CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | INTERPERSONAL CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | |
| | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | .05 | .82 | -.10 | -1.54 | -.10 | -1.50 | -.06 | -.92 | -.07 | -1.02 | -.03 | -.39 |
| Gender | -.13 | -2.21* | -.06 | -.90 | -.15 | -2.51* | -.16 | -2.79** | -.06 | -1.06 | -.08 | -1.38 |
| Industry | .11 | 1.44 | .05 | .61 | -.11 | 1.41 | -.08 | -1.05 | .14 | 1.81† | -.07 | -.91 |
| Country | -.08 | -1.13 | -.06 | -.84 | -.06 | .79 | .23 | 3.23** | -.07 | -.99 | .19 | 2.62** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03* | | .01 | | .04* | | .07*** | | .01 | | .04* | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sociopolitical Support | .02 | .19 | -.11 | -1.41 | -.04 | -.52 | -.17 | -2.19* | -.03 | -.39 | -.16 | -2.06* |
| Access to Information | .10 | 1.31 | .00 | -.004 | -.12 | -1.61 | -.08 | -1.09 | .08 | .99 | .09 | 1.21 |
| Access to Resources | -.05 | -.62 | .07 | .86 | -.07 | -.83 | .01 | .10 | -.06 | -.72 | -.07 | -.85 |
| Leader Supportiveness | .06 | .72 | .09 | 1.10 | .11 | 1.43 | .12 | 1.60 | .01 | .10 | .03 | .39 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01 | | .01 | | .02 | | .03† | | .004 | | .03 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .02 | | .00 | | .04 | | .04 | | .00 | | .03 | |
| F | 1.67 | | .92 | | 2.46* | | 3.89*** | | .69 | | 2.24* | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2. Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.
Country was dummy-coded with 1=Canada and 2=Mexico.

**Table 33**
**Summary Results of the Situational Factors in Predicting Destructive Deviance (Entire and Peer-Rated Sub- Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Organizational Destructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Destructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | |
| | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.12 | -2.64** | -.16 | -2.52* | -.06 | -.94 | -.13 | -2.80** | -.16 | -2.47* | -.08 | -1.24 |
| Gender | -.05 | -1.22 | -.09 | -1.55 | -.06 | -1.03 | -.11 | -2.78** | -.12 | -2.07* | -.08 | -1.37 |
| Industry | -.07 | -1.53 | -.01 | -.10 | -.25 | -3.52*** | -.06 | -1.31 | -.04 | -.50 | -.24 | -3.48** |
| Country | -.14 | -3.11** | -.18 | -2.49* | -.12 | -1.72† | .11 | 2.52* | .09 | 1.18 | -.12 | -1.70† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .06** | | .13*** | | .05*** | | .05** | | .13*** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sociopolitical Support | -.16 | -3.07** | -.20 | -2.64** | -.07 | -.91 | -.07 | -1.43 | -.14 | -1.79† | -.04 | -.52 |
| Access to Information | -.11 | -2.31* | -.11 | -1.54 | .04 | .49 | -.08 | -1.72† | -.03 | -.38 | .01 | .09 |
| Access to Resources | .01 | .18 | -.03 | -.41 | .03 | .32 | -.02 | -.27 | -.10 | -1.23 | -.02 | -.29 |
| Leader Supportiveness | .02 | .39 | .07 | .98 | -.07 | -.87 | .02 | .39 | .15 | 1.97† | .02 | .26 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .06** | | .01 | | .02* | | .03† | | .002 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .07 | | .10 | | .11 | | .06 | | .05 | | .11 | |
| F | 7.23*** | | 4.97*** | | 5.59*** | | 5.88*** | | 3.09** | | 5.55*** | |

**Table 34**
**Summary Results of the Situational Factors in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Entire and Peer-Rated Sub-Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Innovative Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Challenging Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER-RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER-RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | |
| | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.01 | -.11 | .05 | .82 | -.10 | -1.54 | -.07 | -1.54 | -.10 | -1.50 | -.06 | -.92 |
| Gender | -.06 | -1.52 | -.13 | -2.21* | -.06 | -.90 | -.07 | -1.68† | -.15 | -2.51* | -.16 | -2.79** |
| Industry | .09 | 2.00* | .11 | 1.44 | .05 | .61 | .04 | .92 | -.11 | 1.41 | -.08 | -1.05 |
| Country | -.14 | -3.06** | -.08 | -1.13 | -.06 | -.84 | .01 | .31 | -.06 | .79 | .23 | 3.23** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03** | | .03* | | .01 | | .01 | | .04* | | .07*** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sociopolitical Support | -.09 | -1.64 | .02 | .19 | -.11 | -1.41 | .00 | -.01 | -.04 | -.52 | -.17 | -2.19* |
| Access to Information | .17 | 3.74*** | .10 | 1.31 | .00 | -.004 | -.04 | -.87 | -.12 | -1.61 | -.08 | -1.09 |
| Access to Resources | -.02 | -.36 | -.05 | -.62 | .07 | .86 | -.04 | -.77 | -.07 | -.83 | .01 | .10 |
| Leader Supportiveness | .09 | 1.67† | .06 | .72 | .09 | 1.10 | .01 | .16 | .11 | 1.43 | .12 | 1.60 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03*** | | .01 | | .01 | | .01 | | .02 | | .03† | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .04 | | .02 | | .00 | | .003 | | .04 | | .04 | |
| F | 4.84*** | | 1.67 | | .92 | | 1.22 | | 2.46* | | 3.89*** | |

**Table 34 (continued)**
**Summary Results of the Situational Factors in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | |
| | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | |
| Age | -.05 | -1.04 | -.07 | -1.02 | -.03 | -.39 |
| Gender | -.03 | -.85 | -.06 | -1.06 | -.08 | -1.38 |
| Industry | .13 | 2.82** | .14 | 1.81† | -.07 | -.91 |
| Country | -.03 | -.65 | -.07 | -.99 | .19 | 2.62** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01† | | .01 | | .04* | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | |
| Sociopolitical Support | -.08 | -1.51 | -.03 | -.39 | -.16 | -2.06* |
| Access to Information | -.04 | -.90 | .08 | .99 | .09 | 1.21 |
| Access to Resources | .05 | .95 | -.06 | -.72 | -.07 | -.85 |
| Leader Supportiveness | -.02 | -.32 | .01 | .10 | .03 | .39 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01 | | .004 | | .03 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .01 | | .00 | | .03 | |
| F | 1.80† | | .69 | | 2.24* | |

## Table 35
## Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Cultural Factors in Predicting Deviance (Entire Sample)

| | (ENTIRE SAMPLE, N=668) Dependent Variables | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | | |
| | Organizational Destructive Deviance | | Interpersonal Destructive Deviance | | Innovative Organizational Constructive Deviance | | Challenging Organizational Constructive Deviance | | Interpersonal Constructive Deviance | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.12 | -2.64** | -.13 | -2.80** | -.01 | -.11 | -.07 | -1.54 | -.05 | -1.04 |
| Gender | -.05 | -1.22 | -.11 | -2.78** | -.06 | -1.52 | -.07 | -1.68† | -.03 | -.85 |
| Industry | -.07 | -1.53 | -.06 | -1.31 | .09 | 2.00* | .04 | .92 | .13 | 2.82** |
| Country | -.14 | -3.11** | .11 | 2.52* | -.14 | -3.06** | .01 | .31 | -.03 | -.65 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .05*** | | .03** | | .01 | | .01† | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Individualism | .10 | 2.31* | .09 | 2.12* | -.01 | -.18 | .07 | 1.74† | .09 | 2.20* |
| Collectivism | -.20 | -5.29*** | -.11 | -2.91** | .11 | 2.72** | -.03 | -.73 | .01 | .22 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .02** | | .01* | | .01 | | .01† | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .07 | | .06 | | .03 | | .01 | | .01 | |
| F | 9.76*** | | 7.91*** | | 4.04** | | 1.66 | | 2.36* | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.
Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.
Country was dummy-coded with 1=Canada and 2=Mexico.

## Table 36
## Results of Chow Test of Cultural Factors in Predicting Destructive Deviance (Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)

| | Dependent Variable: Organizational Destructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Destructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.06 | -1.35 | -.19 | -2.83** | -.05 | -.88 | -.18 | -4.43*** | -.18 | -2.60* | -.08 | -1.52 |
| Gender | -.06 | -1.51 | .02 | .33 | -.10 | -1.96† | -.10 | -2.54** | -.06 | -.97 | -.13 | -2.78** |
| Industry | -.12 | -3.00** | .02 | .27 | -.14 | -2.52* | -.01 | -.33 | .01 | .08 | -.10 | -1.77† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03** | | .04* | | .03** | | .04*** | | .04* | | .04** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Individualism | .05 | 1.29* | .19 | 2.97** | .03 | .64 | .12 | 3.00** | .13 | 1.99* | .06 | 1.22 |
| Collectivism | -.21 | -5.53*** | -.13 | -1.97† | -.23 | -4.73*** | -.11 | -2.75** | -.13 | -2.07* | -.09 | -1.92† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .05** | | .05*** | | .02** | | .03* | | .01 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .06 | | .06 | | .07 | | .06 | | .05 | | .04 | |
| F | 9.67*** | | 4.21** | | 7.57*** | | 8.69*** | | 3.42** | | 4.28** | |
| Chow Test | $F_{6,651} = 3.28$, $p<.05$ | | | | | | $F_{6,651} = 1.04$, n.s. | | | | | |

**Table 37**
**Results of Chow Test of Cultural Factors in Predicting Constructive Deviance**
**(Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Innovative Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Challenging Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | .06 | 1.45 | .02 | .24 | -.02 | -.38 | -.08 | -1.90† | -.08 | -1.20 | -.06 | -1.04 |
| Gender | -.07 | -1.81† | -.15 | -2.25* | -.004 | -.08 | -.06 | -1.66† | -.15 | -2.23* | -.01 | -.13 |
| Industry | .03 | .85* | -.01 | -.20 | .15 | 2.71** | .05 | 1.15 | -.04 | .50 | .10 | 1.71† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01† | | .02 | | .02 | | .01† | | .04* | | .01 | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Individualism | -.05 | -1.36 | .04 | .55 | -.03 | -.62 | .07 | 1.76† | .18 | 2.74** | -.01 | -.13 |
| Collectivism | .10 | 2.45* | .11 | 1.67† | .10 | 2.02* | -.03 | -.75 | -.12 | -1.82† | .02 | .49 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01* | | .01 | | .01 | | .01 | | .04** | | .001 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .01 | | .01 | | .02 | | .01 | | .06 | | .00 | |
| F | 2.84* | | 1.70 | | 2.55* | | 1.98† | | 3.83** | | .66 | |
| Chow Test | $F_{6,651} = 2.71, p<.05$ | | | | | | $F_{6,651} = 2.44, p<.05$ | | | | | |

**Table 37 (continued)**
**Results of Chow Test of Cultural Factors in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Entire, Canadian, Mexican Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE (Pooled Sample) | | CANADIAN (Sub-sample A) | | MEXICAN (Sub-sample B) | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | |
| Age | -.03 | -.84 | -.13 | -1.93† | .003 | .06 |
| Gender | -.04 | -.92 | -.05 | .78 | -.001 | -.03 |
| Industry | .11 | 2.79** | -.02 | -.35 | .19 | 3.44** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01* | | .03 | | .04** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | |
| Individualism | .07 | 1.81† | .05 | .76 | .10 | 2.04* |
| Collectivism | .004 | .10 | -.004 | -.06 | .01 | .21 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01 | | .002 | | .01 | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .01 | | .01 | | .04 | |
| F | 2.40* | | 1.31 | | 4.06** | |
| Chow Test | $F_{6,651} = 2.55, p<.05$ | | | | | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2. Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.

## Table 38
## Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Cultural Factors in Predicting Destructive Deviance (Peer-Rated Sub-Sample)

(SELF- AND PEER- RATING SAMPLE, n=295)
Dependent Variables

| | ORGANIZATIONAL DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | INTERPERSONAL DESTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.16 | -2.52* | -.06 | -.94 | -.16 | -2.47* | -.08 | -1.24 |
| Gender | -.09 | -1.55 | -.06 | -1.03 | -.12 | -2.07* | -.08 | -1.37 |
| Industry | -.01 | -.10 | -.25 | -3.52*** | -.04 | -.50 | -.24 | -3.48** |
| Country | -.18 | -2.49* | -.12 | -1.72† | .09 | 1.18 | -.12 | -1.70† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .06** | | .13*** | | .05** | | .13*** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Individualism | .18 | 2.96** | .12 | 1.93† | .16 | 2.68** | .11 | 1.88† |
| Collectivism | -.18 | -3.10** | -.01 | -.24 | -.17 | -2.93** | -.15 | -2.61* |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .05*** | | .01 | | .04** | | .03* | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .10 | | .12 | | .08 | | .14 | |
| F | 6.19*** | | 7.67*** | | 5.11*** | | 9.15*** | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.
Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.
Country was dummy-coded with 1=Canada and 2=Mexico.

## Table 39
## Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Cultural Factors in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Peer-Rated Sub-Sample)

| | (SELF- AND PEER- SAMPLE, n=295) Dependent Variables | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | INNOVATIVE ORGANIZATIONAL CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | CHALLENGING ORGANIZATIONAL CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | | INTERPERSONAL CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE | | | |
| | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | .05 | .82 | -.10 | -1.54 | -.10 | -1.50 | -.06 | -.92 | -.07 | -1.02 | -.03 | -.39 |
| Gender | -.13 | -2.21* | -.06 | -.90 | -.15 | -2.51* | -.16 | -2.79** | -.06 | -1.06 | -.08 | -1.38 |
| Industry | .11 | 1.44 | .05 | .61 | .11 | 1.41 | -.08 | -1.05 | .14 | 1.81† | -.07 | -.91 |
| Country | -.08 | -1.13 | -.06 | -.84 | .06 | .79 | .23 | 3.23** | -.07 | -.99 | .19 | 2.62** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03* | | .01 | | .04* | | .07*** | | .01 | | .04* | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Individualism | -.01 | -.11 | .03 | .39 | .10 | 1.60 | .14 | 2.34* | .15 | 2.41* | .14 | 2.22* |
| Collectivism | .06 | 1.08 | .02 | .33 | -.10 | -1.69† | -.05 | -.79 | .02 | .29 | -.10 | -1.64 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .004 | | .001 | | .02† | | .02† | | .02* | | .03* | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .02 | | .00 | | .04 | | .07 | | .02 | | .04 | |
| F | 1.83† | | .69 | | 2.91** | | 4.78*** | | 1.74 | | 2.91** | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.
Industry was dummy-coded with 0=Telecommunications and 1=Pharmaceutical.
Country was dummy-coded with 1=Canada and 2=Mexico.

**Table 40**
**Summary Results of the Cultural Factors in Predicting Destructive Deviance (Entire and Peer-Rated Sub-Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Organizational Destructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Destructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | |
| | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.12 | -2.64** | -.16 | -2.52* | -.06 | -.94 | -.13 | -2.80** | -.16 | -2.47* | -.08 | -1.24 |
| Gender | -.05 | -1.22 | -.09 | -1.55 | -.06 | -1.03 | -.11 | -2.78** | -.12 | -2.07* | -.08 | -1.37 |
| Industry | -.07 | -1.53 | -.01 | -.10 | -.25 | -3.52*** | -.06 | -1.31 | -.04 | -.50 | -.24 | -3.48** |
| Country | -.14 | -3.11** | -.18 | -2.49* | -.12 | -1.72† | .11 | 2.52* | .09 | 1.18 | -.12 | -1.70† |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .06** | | .13*** | | .05*** | | .05** | | .13*** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Individualism | .10 | 2.31* | .18 | 2.96** | .12 | 1.93† | .09 | 2.12* | .16 | 2.68** | .11 | 1.88† |
| Collectivism | -.20 | -5.29*** | -.18 | -3.10** | -.01 | -.24 | -.11 | -2.91** | -.17 | -2.93** | -.15 | -2.61* |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .04*** | | .05*** | | .01 | | .02** | | .04** | | .03* | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .07 | | .10 | | .12 | | .06 | | .08 | | .14 | |
| F | 9.76*** | | 6.19*** | | 7.67*** | | 7.91*** | | 5.11*** | | 9.15*** | |

**Table 41**
**Summary Results of the Cultural Factors in Predicting Constructive Deviance (Entire and Peer-Rated Sub-Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Innovative Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | | Dependent Variable: Challenging Organizational Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | |
| | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.01 | -.11 | .05 | .82 | -.10 | -1.54 | -.07 | -1.54 | -.10 | -1.50 | -.06 | -.92 |
| Gender | -.06 | -1.52 | -.13 | -2.21* | -.06 | -.90 | -.07 | -1.68† | -.15 | -2.51* | -.16 | -2.79** |
| Industry | .09 | 2.00* | .11 | 1.44 | .05 | .61 | .04 | .92 | .11 | 1.41 | -.08 | -1.05 |
| Country | -.14 | -3.06** | -.08 | -1.13 | -.06 | -.84 | .01 | .31 | .06 | .79 | .23 | 3.23** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .03** | | .03* | | .01 | | .01 | | .04* | | .07*** | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Individualism | -.01 | -.18 | -.01 | -.11 | .03 | .39 | .07 | 1.74† | .10 | 1.60 | .14 | 2.34* |
| Collectivism | .11 | 2.72** | .06 | 1.08 | .02 | .33 | -.03 | -.73 | -.10 | -1.69† | -.05 | -.79 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01* | | .004 | | .001 | | .01 | | .02† | | .02† | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .03 | | .02 | | .00 | | .01 | | .04 | | .07 | |
| F | 4.04** | | 1.83† | | .69 | | 1.66 | | 2.91** | | 4.78*** | |

**Table 41 (continued)**
**Summary Results of the Cultural Factors in Predicting Constructive Deviance**
**(Entire and Peer-Rated Sub-Samples)**

| | Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Constructive Deviance | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ENTIRE SAMPLE | | PEER RATED SUB-SAMPLE | | | |
| | | | Self-Rating | | Peer-Rating | |
| | β | t | β | t | β | t |
| Step 1 | | | | | | |
| Age | -.05 | -1.04 | -.07 | -1.02 | -.03 | -.39 |
| Gender | -.03 | -.85 | -.06 | -1.06 | -.08 | -1.38 |
| Industry | .13 | 2.82** | .14 | 1.81† | -.07 | -.91 |
| Country | -.03 | -.65 | -.07 | -.99 | .19 | 2.62** |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01† | | .01 | | .04* | |
| Step 2 | | | | | | |
| Individualism | .09 | 2.20* | .15 | 2.41* | .14 | 2.22* |
| Collectivism | .01 | .22 | .02 | .29 | -.10 | -1.64 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .01† | | .02* | | .03* | |
| Adj $R^2$ | .01 | | .02 | | .04 | |
| F | 2.36* | | 1.74 | | 2.91** | |

Note: †p<.10; *p<.05, **p<.01; ***p<.001.
Gender was dummy-coded with male=1 and female=2.

**Table 42**
**Summary Table Outlining the Support for the Hypotheses (Entire and Peer-Rated Sub-Samples)**

| | List of Hypotheses | Entire Sample | Peer-Rated Sample |
|---|---|---|---|
| H1 | Mach→ DD | Supported | Partially Supported |
| H2 | Mach → CD | Not Supported | Partially Supported |
| H3 | Ethical Orientation → DD | Supported | Not Supported |
| H4 | Justice Perceptions → DD | Supported | Not Supported |
| H5 | Job Autonomy → DD | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| H6 | Mediation Effect of RBSE on DD | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| H7 | Moderation Effect of RBSE on DD | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| H8 | Job Autonomy → CD | Partially Supported | Partially Supported |
| H9 | Mediation Effect of RBSE on CD | Partially Supported | Partially Supported |
| H10 | Moderation Effect of RBSE on CD | Partially Supported | Partially Supported |
| H11(a) | Sociopolitical Support → DD | Partially Supported | Partially Supported |
| H11(b) | Access to Information → DD | Partially Supported | Not Supported |
| H11(c) | Access to Resource → DD | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| H12(a) | Sociopolitical Support → CD | Not Supported | Partially Supported |
| H12(b) | Access to Information → CD | Partially Supported | Not Supported |
| H12(c) | Access to Resource → CD | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| H13 | Leadership Support → DD | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| H14 | Leadership Support → CD | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| H15 | Individualism → DD | Not Supported | Not Supported |
| H16 | Individualism → CD | Not Supported | Not Supported |

**Figure 1**
**Theoretical Model of the Determinants of Destructive Deviance**

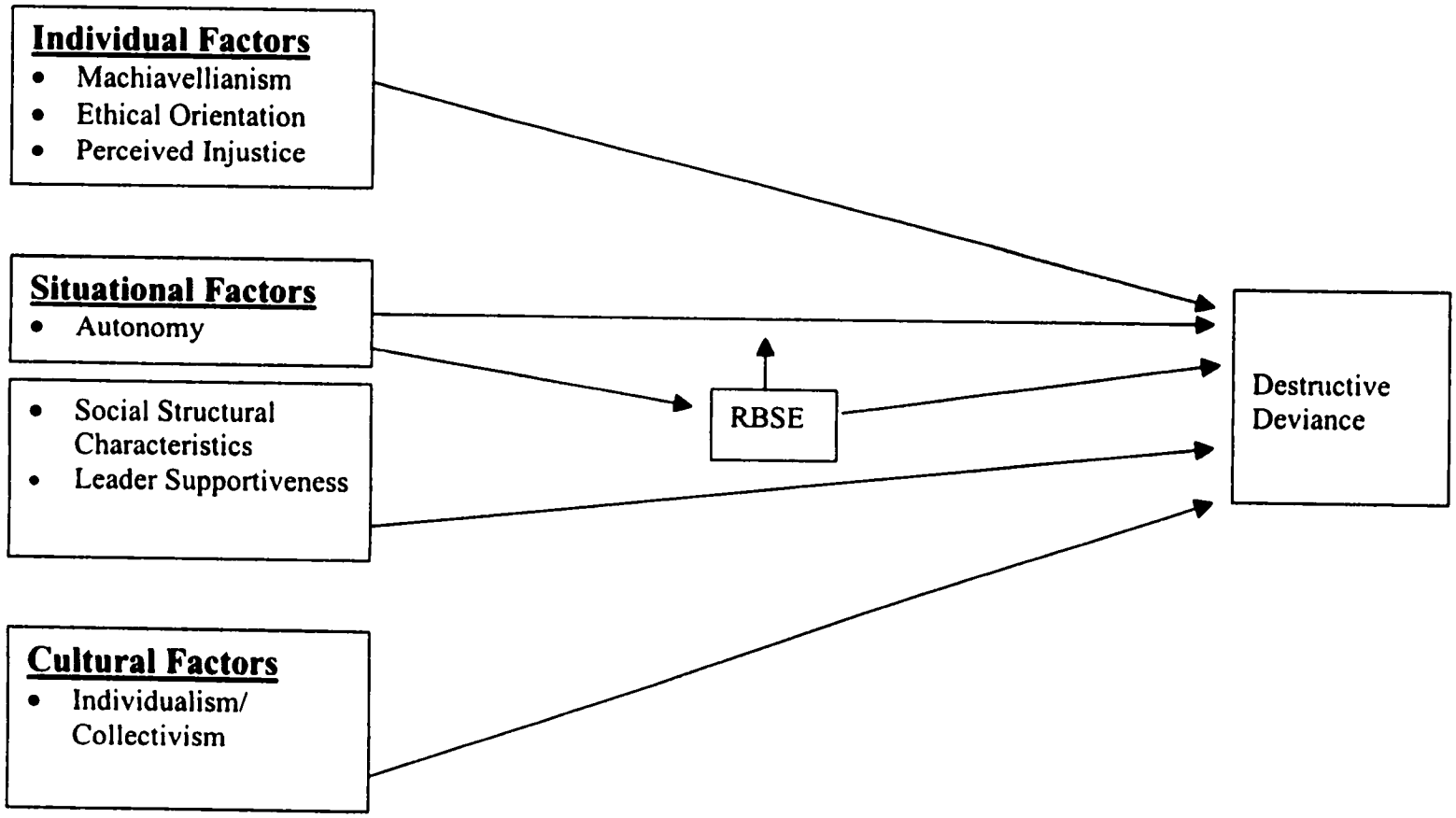


**Figure 2**
**Theoretical Model of the Determinants of Constructive Deviance**

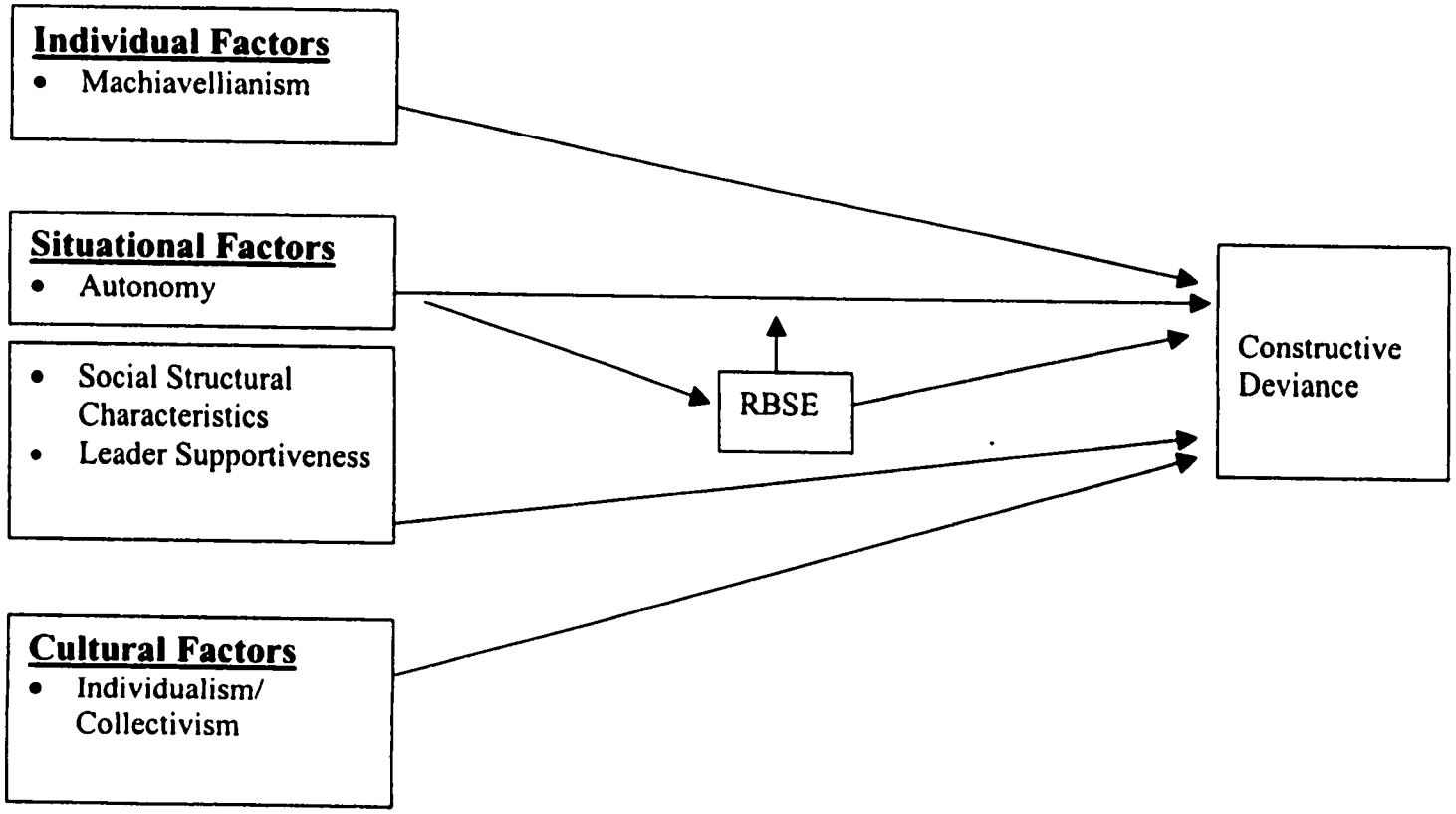


**Figure 3**
**Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Constructive and Destructive Deviance**

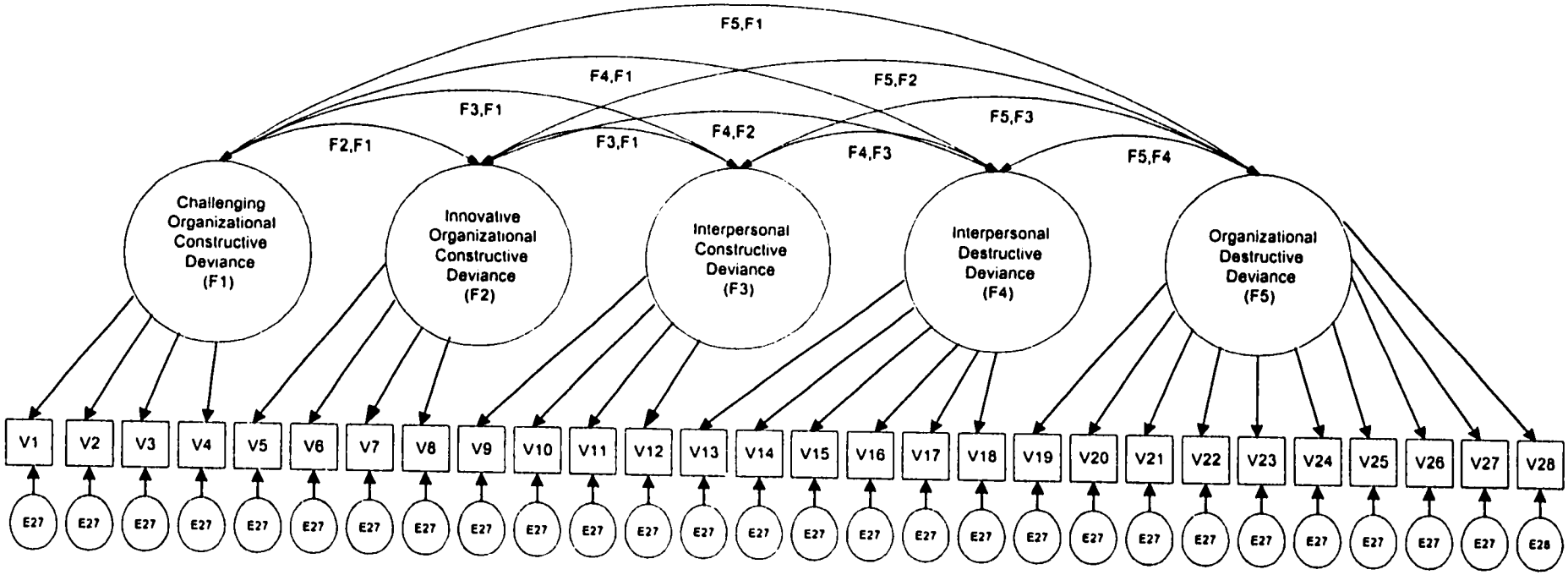


**Figure 4**
**Relation Between Job Autonomy and Peer-Rated Interpersonal Destructive Deviance for High- and Low-RBSE Employees**
**(Peer-Rated Sub-Sample, n=295)**

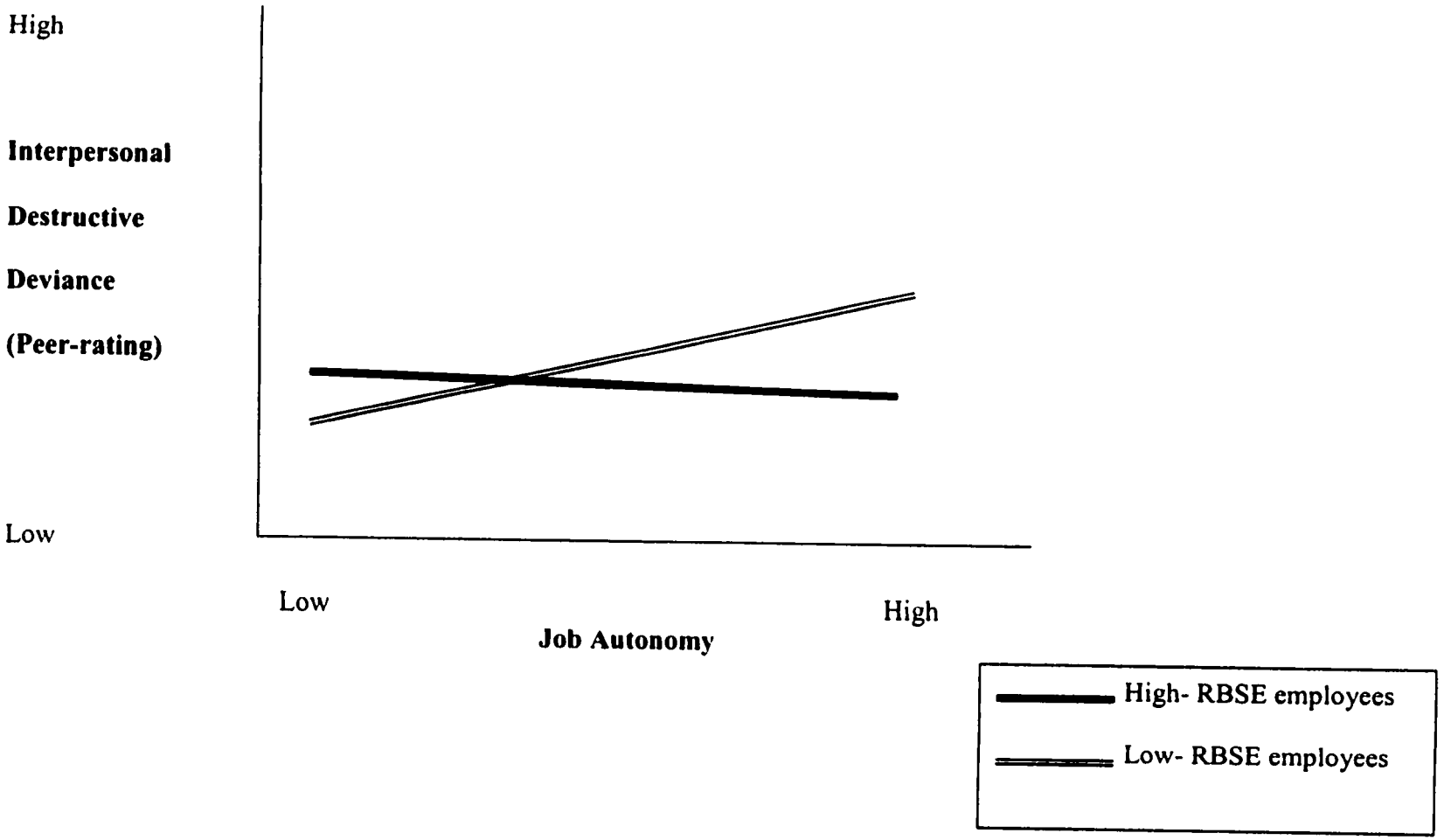


**Figure 5**
**Relation Between Job Autonomy and Interpersonal Constructive Deviance for High- and Low- RBSE Employees**
**(Entire Sample, N=668)**

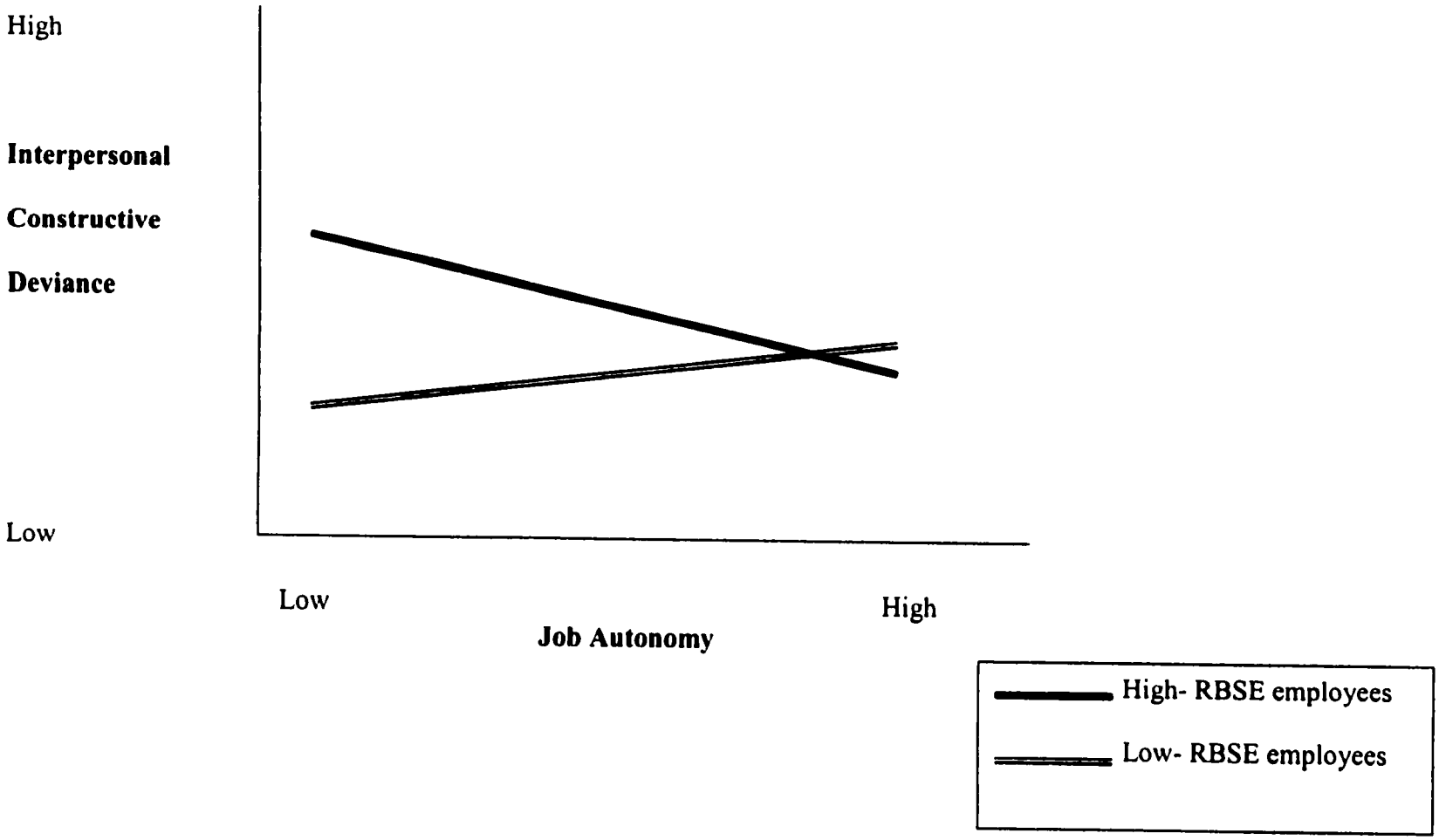


**Figure 6**
**Relation Between Job Autonomy and Peer-Rated Interpersonal Constructive Deviance for High- and Low- RBSE Employees**
**(Peer- Rated Sub-Sample, n=295)**

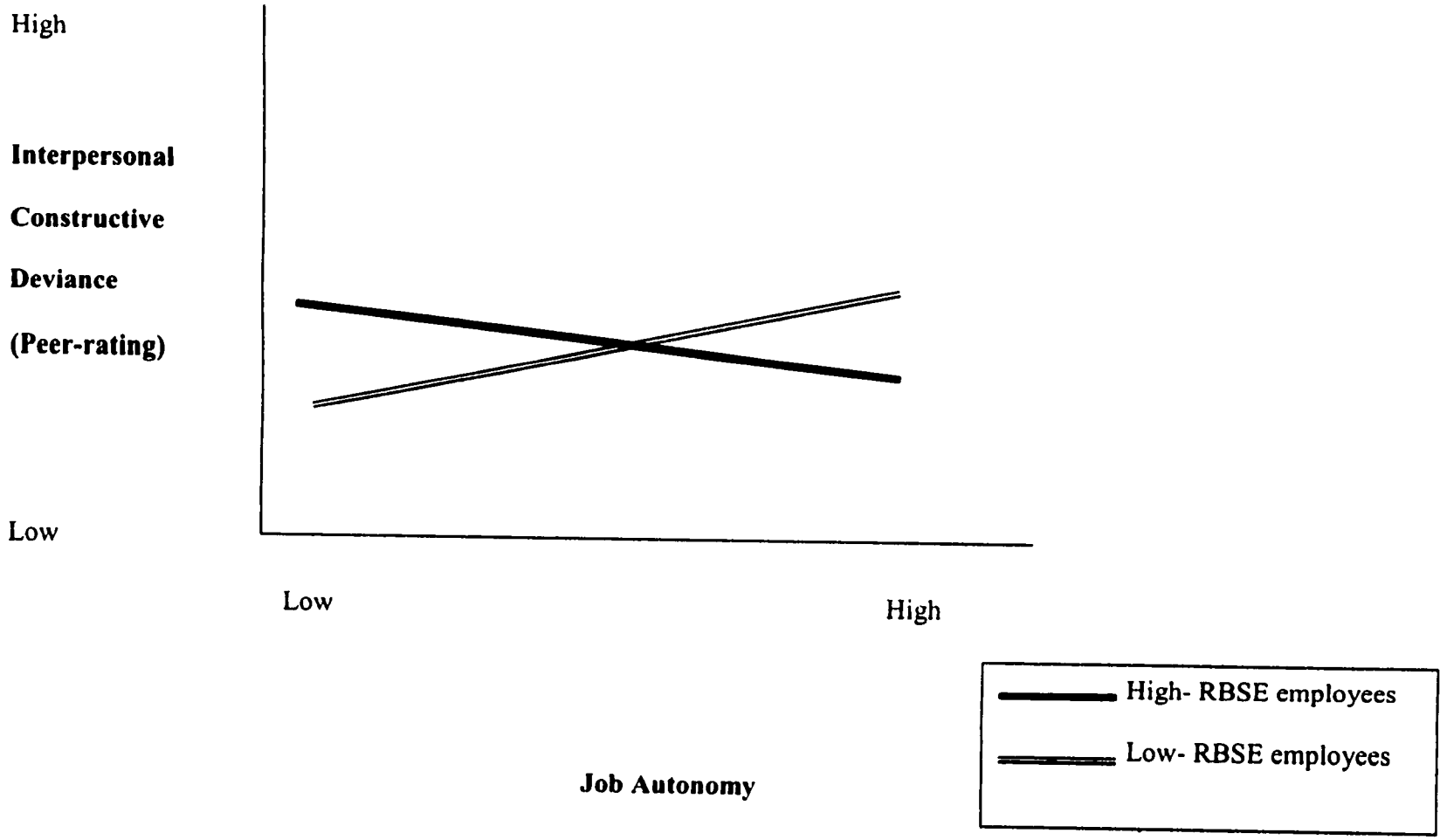


**Figure 7**
**Revised Model of the Individual Factors in Predicting Deviance**
**(Entire Sample, N=668)**

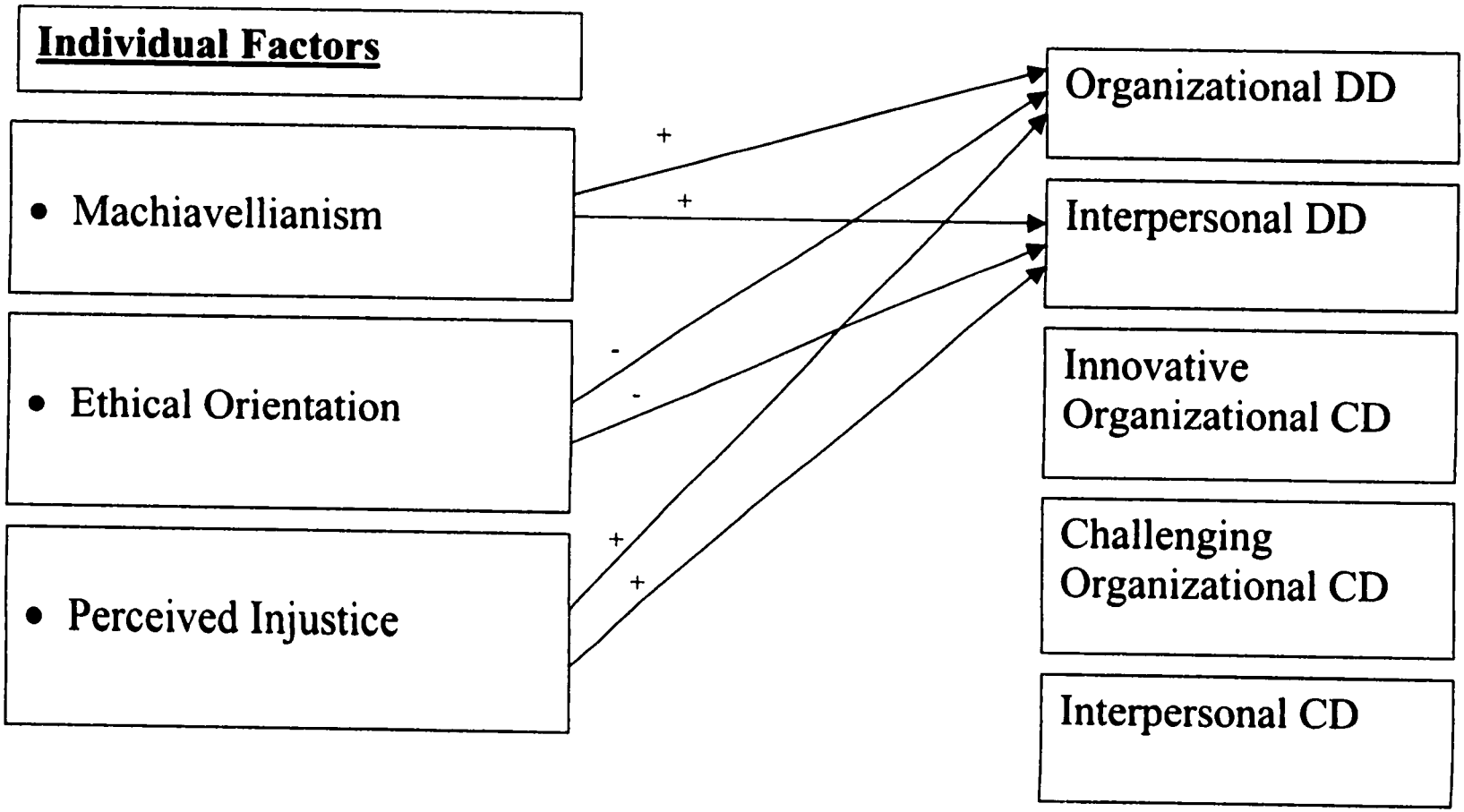


**Figure 8**
**Revised Model of the Situational Factors in Predicting Deviance**
**(Entire Sample, N=668)**

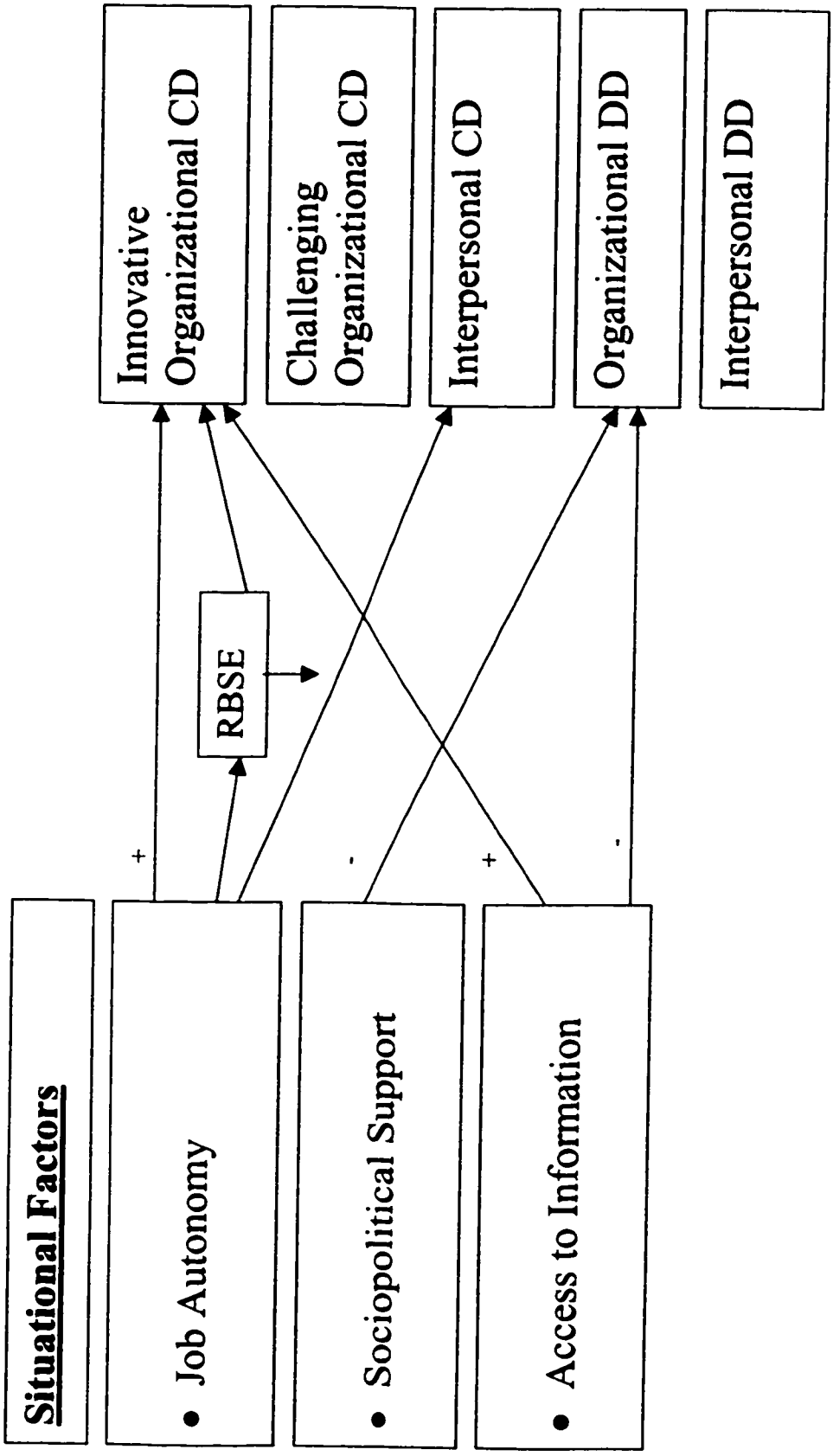
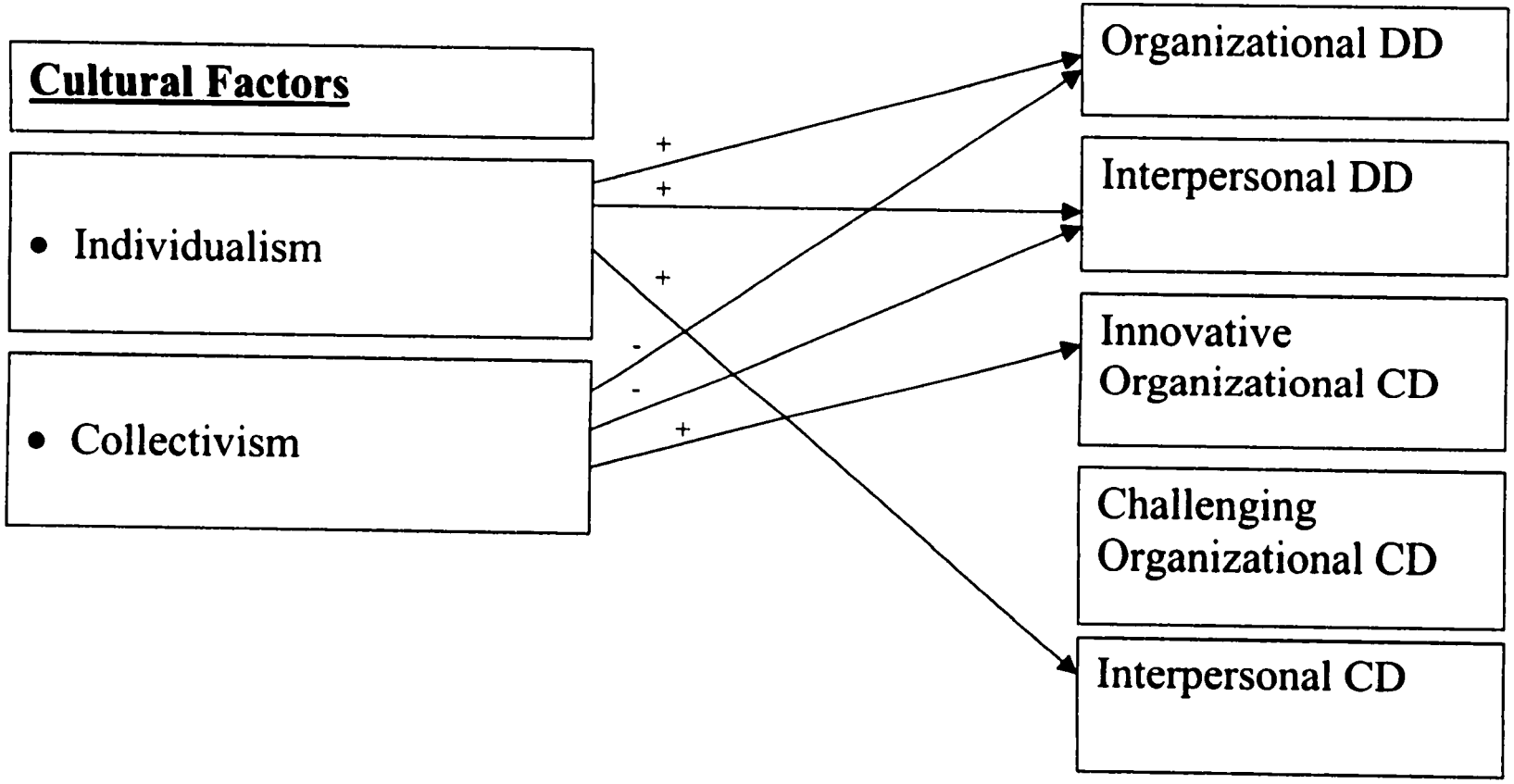


**Figure 9**
**Revised Model of the Cultural Factors in Predicting Deviance**
**(Entire Sample, N=668)**



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# Appendix 1


Si vous désirez la version française du questionnaire, veuillez nous contacter et nous vous la ferons parvenir rapidement.

**Faculty of Commerce and Administration**

**WORKPLACE BEHAVIORS SURVEY**

Dear Sir or Madam:

Due to globalization and changes in the workplace, your work environment is becoming more complex and challenging. Consequently, scientific studies are needed to analyze the factors that influence your quality of working life. I am a Ph.D. Candidate in the Faculty of Commerce and Administration at Concordia University in Montreal, Canada and my main research objective is to examine a variety of workplace behaviors in different countries. In this study, I hope to learn more about the work behaviors, opinions and attitudes of employees in Canada, U.S. and Mexico in order to improve the quality of your working life.

To obtain this information, I need **your** help in completing the attached questionnaire. It will take only 15-20 minutes of your time. Most questions require only a simple check mark. This is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer each question honestly and independently. If this study is to be useful, it is important that you answer **all** the questions.

Your response will remain **STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL**. No one in your organization will see your responses. Do **NOT** write your name. You will not be identified on the basis of your answers. Results of the study will be summarized on a general basis so that individuals will not be identified. The success of this research is highly dependent on **your** completion of the attached questionnaire. Please return your completed questionnaire in the enclosed postage-paid self-addressed envelope.

Enclosed you will also find an additional three (3) page questionnaire and envelope for your co-worker to complete. Please give this survey to a co-worker and ask him/her to enclose the completed questionnaire in the second self-addressed envelope. It is essential that you give this questionnaire to your co-worker so that we can get an additional perspective on workplace behaviors in your organization.

I appreciate your voluntary participation in this international study. Your cooperation is most valuable and I thank you for helping. If you would like a summary of the results of this study, please write to me or e-mail me at: bella@mercato.concordia.ca.

Sincerely,

Bella L. Galperin
Ph.D. Candidate
Tel #: (514) 848-2738
Fax #: (514) 848-4593

Mailing Address: Management Department, 1455 de Maisonneuve Blvd. W.
GM 503-37, Montreal, Quebec, Canada H3G 1M

Using the scale below, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by circling the appropriate number.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Moderately disagree | Mildly Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Mildly agree | Moderately agree | Strongly agree |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1. | My work schedule is fair. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2. | I usually know where I stand with my manager. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3. | I have the support I need from my subordinates to do my job well. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4. | Job decisions are made by my manager in an unbiased manner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5. | My manager has enough confidence in me that he/she would defend and justify my decisions if I was not present to do so. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6. | I think that my level of pay is fair. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7. | Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by my manager. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8. | When decisions are made about my job, my manager shows concern for my rights as an employee. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9. | I consider my work load to be quite fair. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10. | I have the support I need from my workgroup or team to do my job well. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 11. | My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 12. | My working relationship with my manager is effective. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 13. | Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 14. | I have the support I need from my peers to do my job well. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 15. | To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 16. | I feel that my job responsibilities are fair. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 17. | My manager understands my problems and needs. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 18. | I have the support I need from my immediate supervisor to do my job well. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 19. | My manager recognizes my potential. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 20. | I can count on my manager to "bail me out", even at his or her own expense, when I really need it. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 21. | I can obtain the resources necessary to support new ideas. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 22. | My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 23. | When I need additional resources to do my job, I can usually get them. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 24. | When decisions are made about my job, my manager treats me with kindness and consideration. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 25. | Regardless of how much power my manager has, he/she would be personally inclined to use his/her power to help me solve problems in my work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 26. | Concerning decisions made about my job, my manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 27. | Very few stressful things happen to me at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 28. | When decisions are made about my job, my manager treats me with respect and dignity. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 29. | I understand the strategies and goals of the organization. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 30. | When I talk about this organization, I usually say "we" rather than "they". |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 31. | I am very interested in what others think about my organization. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 32. | When decisions are made about my job, my manager is sensitive to my personal needs. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 33. | My manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 34. | I understand top management's vision of the organization. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 35. | When someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 36. | This organization's successes are my successes. |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Moderately disagree | Mildly Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Mildly agree | Moderately agree | Strongly agree |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 37. | When decisions are made about my job, my manager deals with me in a truthful manner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 38. | All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 39. | I have access to the strategic information I need to do my job well. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 40. | My job is extremely stressful. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 41. | When making decisions about my job, my manager offers explanations that make sense to me. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 42. | If a story in the media criticized my organization, I would feel embarrassed. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 43. | My manager explains very clearly any decision made about my job. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 44. | I have access to the resources I need to do my job well. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 45. | I almost never feel stressed at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 46 | When someone praises this organization, it feels like a personal compliment. |

**Using the scale below, please indicate how confident or capable you would feel carrying out various tasks.**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Not at all confident | A little confident | Moderately confident | Quite Confident | Very confident |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1. | Representing your work area in meetings with senior management. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 2. | Writing a proposal to spend money in your work area. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 3. | Analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 4. | Making suggestions to management about ways to improve the working of your section. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 5. | Helping to set goals and targets in your area. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6. | Designing new procedures for your work area. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 7. | Contacting people outside the company (e.g. suppliers, customers) to discuss |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 8. | problems. Presenting information to a group of colleagues. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9. | Contributing to discussions about the company's strategy. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 10. | Visiting people in other departments to suggest doing things differently. |

**Listed below are a number of items which could be used to describe your job. Please circle the number that best describes your job.**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Very little | | A moderate amount | | Very much |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1. | How much are you left on your own to do your own work? |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 2. | To what extent do you receive information from your superior on your job performance? |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 3. | To what extent are you able to do your job independently of others? |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 4. | The freedom to do pretty much what I want on my job. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 5. | The opportunity for independent thought and action. |

**Using the scale below, please rate each character trait according to its importance to <u>you</u> by circling the appropriate number.**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Not important to me | | | Moderately important to me | | | Very important to me |

To be:

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1. | Innovative |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2. | Principled |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3. | Benevolent |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4. | Dependable |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5. | Resourceful |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6. | Trustworthy |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7. | Effective |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8. | Honest |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9. | Influential |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10. | Dutiful |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 11. | Independent |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 12. | Dedicated to cause |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 13. | Results-oriented |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 14. | Good-intentioned |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 15. | Productive |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 16. | Noted for integrity |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 17. | Compassionate |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 18. | Financially secure |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 19. | Law abiding |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 20. | A winner |

**Below is a list of ways you may have behaved. Please indicate the extent to which you have engaged in each of the behaviors in the <u>last year</u>.**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Never | Once a year | Twice a year | Several times a year | Monthly | Weekly | Daily |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1. | Developed creative solutions to problems. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2. | Searched for innovative ways to perform day to day procedures. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3. | Made fun of someone at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4. | Decided on unconventional ways to achieve work goals. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5. | Said something hurtful to someone at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6. | Departed from the accepted tradition to solve problems. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7. | Introduced a change to improve the performance of your work group. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8. | Made an ethnic, religious or racial remark at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9. | Cursed at someone at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10. | Sought to bend or break the rules in order to perform your job. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 11. | Played a mean prank (joke) on someone at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 12. | Violated company procedures in order to solve a problem. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 13. | Acted rudely toward someone at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 14. | Departed from organizational procedures to solve a customer's problem. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 15. | Publicly embarrassed someone at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 16. | Bent a rule to satisfy a customer's needs. |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Never | Once a year | Twice a year | Several times a year | Monthly | Weekly | Daily |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 17. | Disobeyed your supervisor's instructions to perform more efficiently. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 18. | Taken property from work without permission. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 19. | Did not follow the orders of your supervisor in order to improve work procedures. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 20. | Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 21. | Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 22 | Reported a wrong-doing to co-workers to bring about a positive organizational change. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 23. | Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 24. | Departed from organizational requirements in order to increase the quality of services or products. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 25. | Come in late to work without permission. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 26. | Disagreed with others in your work group in order to improve the current work procedures. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 27. | Littered (messed up) your work environment. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 28. | Departed from dysfunctional organizational policies or procedures to solve a problem. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 29. | Neglected to follow your boss' instructions. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 30. | Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 31. | Reported a wrong-doing to another person in your company to bring about a positive organizational change. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 32. | Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 33. | Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 34. | Put little effort into your work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 35. | Dragged out work in order to get overtime. |

**In this section, we are interested in how you view the world. This will help us understand your views of work. Using the scale below, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by circling the appropriate number.**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Moderately disagree | Mildly disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Mildly agree | Moderately agree | Strongly agree |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1. | I'd rather depend on myself than others. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2. | It is possible to be good in all respects. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3. | Never tell anyone the real reason you did something unless it is useful to do so. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4. | I rely on myself most of the time: I rarely rely on others. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5. | There is no excuse for lying to someone else. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6. | I often do "my own thing". |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7. | There needs to be a hierarchy of authority in our society. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8. | The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9. | My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10. | Most people are basically good and kind. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 11. | It is important that I do my job better than others. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 12. | One should take action only when sure it is morally right. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 13. | Generally speaking, people won't work hard unless they're forced to do so. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 14. | Winning is everything. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 15. | It is safest to assume that all people have a vicious streak and it will come out when they are given a chance. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 16. | Inequality of status among individuals is not acceptable in our society. |

[3] Bella L. Galperin, 2000

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Moderately disagree | Mildly disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Mildly agree | Moderately agree | Strongly agree |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 17. | Competition is the law of nature. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 18. | Honesty is the best policy in all cases. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 19. | One should always obey the person in authority. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 20. | All in all, it is better to be humble and honest than to be important and dishonest. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 21. | When another person does better than I do, I get tense and aroused. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 22. | People having authority should be respected because of their position. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 23. | When you ask someone to do something for you, it is best to give the real reasons for wanting it rather than giving reasons which carry more weight. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 24. | If a co-worker gets a prize, I would feel proud. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 25. | Most people who get ahead in the world lead clean, moral lives. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 26. | The well-being of my co-workers is important to me. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 27. | Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking for trouble. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 28. | To me, pleasure is spending time with others. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 29. | The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that criminals are stupid enough to get caught. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 30. | I feel good when I cooperate with others. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 31. | Most people are brave. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 32. | Parents and children must stay together as much as possible. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 33. | It is wise to flatter important people. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 34. | It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 35. | It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 36. | People suffering from incurable diseases should have the choice of being put painlessly to death. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 37. | Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 38. | Most people forget more easily the death of their father than the loss of their property. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 39. | Barnum was very wrong he said there's a sucker born every minute. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 40. | It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by my groups. |

**People are often bullied at work. Bullying at work is a situation when you have little difficulty defending yourself from persistent negative actions (e.g. shouting, criticism, sarcasm) from one or several people at work. Below, we are interested in having a better understanding of bullying behavior at work.**

Using the above definition, please state how often you have been bullied at work over the last year?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Never | Once a year | Twice a year | Several times per year | Monthly | Weekly | Daily |

This is the final part of the questionnaire. The following questions ask some background information to help us categorize and better interpret the results of the questionnaire. Please answer each question by placing a checkmark beside the appropriate answer. Remember your responses will be kept **STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL.**

1. Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

2. Marital Status: Single ☐ Married or living with someone ☐ Divorced or separated ☐

3. How many children do you have? _____

4. Age: ____ Years

5. Nationality: _____

6. What is the highest level of formal education you have completed?
   High School ☐ College ☐ Bachelor's ☐ Master's ☐ Ph.D. or M.D. ☐

7. Employment status: Full-time ☐ Part-time ☐ Flex-time ☐

8. On what basis are you employed? Permanent ☐ Temporary ☐

9. What is your job title? _____

10. Which category best describes your job level? Clerical Staff ☐ Line Staff ☐
    Supervisor ☐
    Manager ☐ Executive ☐
    Other:_____

11. How many years have you worked in your company? _____ Years

12. Does your job involve working on the weekends (Saturday/Sunday)? Yes ☐ No ☐
    If yes: how many hours do you work on weekends? _____ Hours

13. In comparison with other people in your work group, how do you rate your amount of absence from work?
    More ☐ The same ☐ Less ☐

14. Not counting vacations or holidays, how many full/half day(s) have you been absent during the past year?
    ____ Day(s)

15. Have you been actively looking for a job, but unable to find one? Yes ☐ No ☐
    If no: Do you plan to look for a job in the next 6 months? Yes ☐ No ☐

16. Are you actively looking for another job at present? Yes ☐ No ☐

**Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.** ☺

____ This number is arbitrary. It is used match your responses with those of your co-worker.

# Appendix 2


If you would like the English version of the questionnaire, please contact us and we will send it to you as soon as possible.

Faculté de commerce et d'administration

ENQUÊTE SUR LES COMPORTEMENTS AU TRAVAIL

Madame,
Monsieur,

En raison de la globalisation et des changements au travail, votre environnement devient plus complexe. Pour cette raison, des études scientifiques sont en cours pour analyser les facteurs qui affectent votre qualité de vie au travail.

Je suis candidate au doctorat à la Faculté de commerce et d'administration de l'Université Concordia, à Montréal. Mon objectif principal de recherche est d'examiner une variété de comportements au travail dans différents pays. Dans cette étude, j'espère en apprendre plus au sujet des comportements, des avis et des attitudes vis-à-vis le travail que présentent des employés au Canada, aux États-Unis et au Mexique. Le but de cette recherche est de contribuer à améliorer la qualité de votre vie professionnelle.

J'ai besoin de **votre** coopération pour obtenir des renseignements sur votre milieu de travail. Je vous prierais de bien vouloir compléter le questionnaire ci-joint. Cela prendra seulement 15 à 20 minutes de votre temps. Pour répondre aux questions, vous n'avez qu'à encercler. Ceci n'est pas un examen. Il n'y a aucune bonne ou mauvaise réponse. Veuillez répondre à chaque question honnêtement et indépendamment. Pour que cette étude puisse être utile, il est important que vous répondiez à **toutes** les questions.

Vos réponses demeureront **STRICTEMENT CONFIDENTIELLES**. Personne de votre organisation ne verra vos réponses. N'écrivez **pas** votre nom. Votre identité ne pourra pas être connue à partir de vos réponses. Les résultats de l'étude seront regroupés de sorte que les participants ne puissent pas être identifiés. Le succès de cette recherche dépend fortement de **votre** coopération. Veuillez compléter et retourner votre questionnaire dans l'enveloppe pré-affranchie et pré-adressée ci-jointe.

Vous trouverez également ci-joint un questionnaire de trois (3) pages et une enveloppe supplémentaire destinés à un collègue de votre choix. Veuillez les lui remettre et lui demander de retourner le questionnaire complété au moyen de l'enveloppe pré-adressée. Il est essentiel que vous donniez ce questionnaire à votre collègue pour que cette étude puisse dégager une perspective supplémentaire sur les comportements au travail au sein de votre

organisation.
J'apprécie votre participation volontaire à cette étude internationale et vous remercie sincèrement de votre aide. Si vous désirez obtenir un sommaire des résultats de cette étude, vous pouvez m'écrire à mon adresse de courrier électronique : bella@mercato.concordia.ca ou à l'adresse postale ci-dessous.

Veuillez agréer, Monsieur, Madame, l'expression de mes sentiments distingués.

Bella L. Galperin
Candidate au doctorat
Téléphone : (514) 848-2738
Télécopieur : (514) 848-4593

Adresse postale: Département de Management, 1455, boul. de Maisonneuve O.
GM 503-37, Montréal, (Québec), Canada H3G 1M8

**Au moyen de l'échelle ci-dessous, veuillez indiquer jusqu'à quel point vous êtes en accord ou en désaccord avec les énoncés suivants (encerclez le chiffre approprié).**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Désaccord complet | Désaccord modéré | Désaccord léger | Ni accord, ni désaccord | Accord Léger | Accord modéré | Accord complet |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1. | Mon horaire de travail est juste. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2. | Je sais habituellement à quoi m'en tenir avec mon (ma) gestionnaire. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3. | Mes subordonnés me donnent le soutien dont j'ai besoin pour bien faire mon travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4. | Mon (ma) gestionnaire prend des décisions professionnelles impartiales. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5. | Parce qu'il (elle) me fait suffisamment confiance, mon (ma) gestionnaire accepterait de défendre et de justifier mes décisions en mon absence, le cas échéant. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6. | Je crois que mon salaire est juste. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7. | Les employés ont la possibilité de contester les décisions prises par mon (ma) gestionnaire ou de les porter en appel. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8. | Lors de la prise de décisions touchant mon travail, mon (ma) gestionnaire se soucie du respect de mes droits professionnels. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9. | Je crois que ma charge de travail est assez juste. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10. | Mon groupe de travail ou mon équipe me donne le soutien dont j'ai besoin pour bien faire mon travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 11. | Mon (ma) gestionnaire s'assure d'écouter les réserves de tous les employés avant de prendre des décisions professionnelles. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 12. | Mes rapports de travail avec mon (ma) gestionnaire sont efficaces. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 13. | Dans l'ensemble, les récompenses que j'obtiens ici sont assez justes. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 14. | Mes collègues me donnent le soutien dont j'ai besoin pour bien faire mon travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 15. | Dans le but prendre des décisions professionnelles, mon (ma) gestionnaire recueille des renseignements précis et complets. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 16. | Je crois que les responsabilités inhérentes à mon poste sont justes. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 17. | Mon (ma) gestionnaire comprend mes besoins et les problèmes que je vis. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 18. | Mon supérieur immédiat me donne le soutien dont j'ai besoin pour bien faire mon travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 19. | Mon (ma) gestionnaire reconnaît mon potentiel. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 20. | Je peux compter sur mon (ma) gestionnaire pour me sortir du pétrin si nécessaire, même si cela doit se faire à ses dépens. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 21. | Je peux obtenir les ressources dont j'ai besoin pour soutenir de nouvelles idées. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 22. | Lorsque les employés le demandent, mon (ma) gestionnaire clarifie ses décisions et donne des renseignements additionnels. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 23. | D'habitude, je peux obtenir des ressources additionnelles si j'en ai besoin pour exécuter mes tâches. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 24. | Lors de la prise de décisions touchant mon travail, mon (ma) gestionnaire me traite avec gentillesse et considération. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 25. | Peu importe le pouvoir dont il (elle) dispose, mon (ma) gestionnaire serait porté (portée) à l'utiliser pour m'aider à régler des problèmes au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 26. | Mon (ma) gestionnaire discute avec moi des conséquences des décisions qui sont prises au sujet de mon travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 27. | Très peu d'événements stressants m'affectent au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 28. | Lors de la prise de décisions touchant mon travail, mon (ma) gestionnaire me traite avec respect et dignité. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 29. | Je comprends les stratégies et les buts de l'organisation. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 30. | D'habitude, lorsque je parle de cette organisation, j'utilise le pronom « nous » plutôt qu'une formule impersonnelle. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 31. | Je m'intéresse beaucoup à l'opinion que les autres ont de mon organisation. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 32. | Lors de la prise de décisions touchant mon travail, mon (ma) gestionnaire se montre sensible à mes besoins personnels. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 33. | Mon (ma) gestionnaire justifie adéquatement les décisions prises au sujet de mon travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 34. | Je comprends la vision de l'organisation qu'a la haute direction. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 35. | Je réagis personnellement à toute insulte que quelqu'un lance au sujet de mon organisation. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 36. | Les succès de cette organisation sont aussi les miens. |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Désaccord complet | Désaccord modéré | Désaccord léger | Ni accord, ni désaccord | Accord léger | Accord modéré | Accord complet |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 37. | Lors de la prise de décisions touchant mon travail, mon (ma) gestionnaire m'aborde avec franchise. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 38. | Toute décision professionnelle s'applique uniformément à tous les employés visés. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 39. | J'ai accès aux renseignements stratégiques dont j'ai besoin pour bien faire mon travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 40. | Mon travail est trop stressant. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 41. | Lors de la prise de décisions touchant mon travail, mon (ma) gestionnaire donne des explications qui me semblent sensées. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 42. | Je serais gêné (gênée) si les médias publiaient des propos critiques au sujet de mon organisation. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 43. | Mon (ma) gestionnaire explique très clairement les décisions prises au sujet de mon travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 44. | J'ai accès aux ressources dont j'ai besoin pour bien faire mon travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 45. | Je me sens très peu souvent stressé(e) au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 46. | Lorsque d'autres personnes ont de bonnes paroles au sujet de cette organisation, j'y vois un compliment personnel. |

**Au moyen de l'échelle ci-dessous, veuillez indiquer dans quelle mesure vous vous sentiriez capable d'effectuer les tâches énumérées (encerclez le chiffre approprié).**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tout à fait incapable | À peine capable | Modérément capable | Très capable | Parfaitement capable |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1. | Représenter votre unité de travail lors de réunions avec la haute direction. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 2. | Rédiger une proposition prévoyant l'allocation de budgets à votre unité de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 3. | Analyser un problème chronique afin de trouver une solution. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 4. | Formuler à la direction des suggestions quant à la manière d'améliorer le fonctionnement de votre division. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 5. | Contribuer à la définition de buts et de cibles à atteindre par votre unité. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6. | Concevoir de nouvelles procédures à l'intention de votre unité de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 7. | Communiquer avec des intervenants externes (p. ex., clients, fournisseurs) afin d'échanger sur des problèmes. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 8. | Faire un exposé devant un groupe de collègues. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9. | Contribuer au débat portant sur la stratégie de l'organisation. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 10. | Visiter les membres d'autres départements pour leur suggérer de nouvelles méthodes. |

**Au moyen de l'échelle ci-dessous, veuillez indiquer dans quelle mesure les éléments suivants s'appliquent à votre travail (encerclez le chiffre approprié).**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Très peu | | Passablement | | Beaucoup |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1. | Autonomie dans l'exercice de vos tâches. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 2. | Feed-back de votre superviseur au sujet de votre rendement professionnel. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 3. | Capacité d'effectuer vos tâches indépendamment de vos collègues. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 4. | Liberté de faire à peu près n'importe quoi au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 5. | Possibilité de réfléchir et d'agir en toute indépendance. |

**Au moyen de l'échelle ci-dessous, veuillez indiquer jusqu'à quel point les traits de caractère suivants vous semblent importants (encerclez le chiffre approprié).**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sans importance | | | Modérément important | | | Extrêmement important |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1. | Talent innovateur |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2. | Souci de respecter ses principes |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3. | Bienveillance |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4. | Fiabilité |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5. | Ingéniosité |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6. | Capacité d'inspirer confiance |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7. | Efficacité |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8. | Honnêteté |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9. | Capacité d'influencer les autres |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10. | Souci de respecter ses obligations |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 11. | Indépendance |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 12. | Capacité d'engagement envers une cause |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 13. | Souci d'obtenir des résultats |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 14. | Bonne volonté |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 15. | Productivité |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 16. | Intégrité reconnue |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 17. | Compassion |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 18. | Sécurité financière |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 19. | Respect de la loi |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 20. | Esprit gagnant |

**Vous trouverez ci-dessous une liste de comportements. Au moyen de l'échelle suivante, veuillez indiquer la fréquence à laquelle vous avez adopté ces comportements au cours de la dernière année :**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Jamais | Une fois par année | Deux fois par année | Plusieurs fois par année | Une fois par mois | De façon hebdomadaire | De façon quotidienne |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1. | Développer des solutions créatrices face aux problèmes. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2. | Chercher des voies innovatrices pour exécuter des procédures quotidiennes. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3. | Se moquer de quelqu'un au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4. | Décider d'emprunter des voies peu usuelles pour réaliser des objectifs de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5. | Dire quelque chose de blessant à quelqu'un au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6. | Déroger aux méthodes généralement reconnues pour résoudre des problèmes. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7. | Proposer un changement pour améliorer le rendement de son groupe de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8. | Faire une remarque à caractère ethnique, religieux ou racial au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9. | Jurer contre quelqu'un au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10. | Chercher à contourner ou enfreindre les règlements pour exécuter son travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 11. | Faire une plaisanterie déplacée à quelqu'un au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 12. | Violer les procédures de l'organisation pour résoudre un problème. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 13. | Être grossier envers quelqu'un au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 14. | Déroger aux procédures de l'organisation pour résoudre le problème d'un client. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 15. | Publiquement mettre quelqu'un dans l'embarras au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 16. | Contourner un règlement pour satisfaire les besoins d'un client. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 17. | Désobéir aux instructions de son superviseur afin d'améliorer l'efficacité du rendement. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 18. | Prendre sans permission des biens appartenant à l'organisation. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 19. | Ne pas suivre les directives de son supérieur immédiat dans le but d'améliorer les procédures de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 20. | Perdre son temps à fabuler ou à rêvasser au lieu de travailler. |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Jamais | Une fois par année | Deux fois par année | Plusieurs fois par année | Une fois par mois | De façon hebdomadaire | De façon quotidienne |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 21. | Falsifier un reçu pour obtenir un remboursement plus élevé que le montant réel des frais d'affaires. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 22. | Rapporter un méfait à ses collègues afin de provoquer un changement positif au sein de l'organisation. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 23. | Prendre une pause supplémentaire ou une pause exagérément longue par rapport à ce qui est généralement permis dans son milieu de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 24. | Déroger aux exigences de l'organisation afin d'augmenter la qualité des services ou des produits. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 25. | Arriver au travail en retard, sans permission. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 26. | Exprimer son désaccord par rapport à d'autres membres de son groupe de travail dans le but d'améliorer les méthodes actuelles de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 27. | Souiller son environnement de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 28. | Déroger à des politiques ou procédures dysfonctionnelles de l'organisation pour résoudre un problème. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 29. | Omettre de suivre les directives de son patron. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 30. | Volontairement ralentir sa cadence de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 31. | Rapporter un méfait à d'autres membres de l'organisation afin de provoquer un changement positif au sein de l'organisation. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 32. | Divulguer des renseignements confidentiels sur l'organisation à une personne non autorisée. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 33. | Consommer des drogues illicites ou de l'alcool au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 34. | Mettre peu de cœur dans son travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 35. | Faire traîner du travail pour pouvoir réclamer des heures supplémentaires. |

**Cette section se concentre sur votre vision du monde. Nous cherchons ici à comprendre comment vous envisagez le travail. Au moyen de l'échelle ci-dessous, veuillez indiquer jusqu'à quel point vous êtes en accord ou en désaccord avec les énoncés suivants (encerclez le chiffre approprié).**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Désaccord complet | Désaccord modéré | Désaccord léger | Ni accord, ni désaccord | Accord léger | Accord modéré | Accord complet |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1. | Je préfère compter sur mes propres moyens plutôt que sur les autres. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2. | Il est possible d'exceller en tout. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3. | On ne doit jamais révéler ses véritables motifs aux autres à moins que cela s'avère utile. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4. | La plupart du temps, je me débrouille seul ; je compte rarement sur l'aide d'autrui. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5. | Rien ne justifie que l'on mente à quelqu'un. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6. | Je suis souvent le maître de mon destin. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7. | Notre société a besoin de posséder une hiérarchie de l'autorité. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8. | La meilleure façon de traiter avec les gens consiste à dire ce qu'ils veulent bien entendre. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9. | Sans égard aux autres, mon identité personnelle compte beaucoup pour moi. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10. | La plupart des gens sont fondamentalement gentils et bons. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 11. | Il est important que mon rendement professionnel dépasse celui des autres. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 12. | On ne devrait agir que si l'on est convaincu de la rectitude morale de nos gestes. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 13. | En général, les gens ne vont travailler fort que s'ils y sont contraints. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 14. | Gagner est la chose la plus importante qui soit. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 15. | Il est prudent de supposer que les gens ont un côté méchant qui n'attend que l'occasion de s'exprimer. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 16. | Les inégalités de statut sont inacceptables dans notre société. |

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| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Désaccord complet | Désaccord modéré | Désaccord léger | Ni accord, ni désaccord | Accord léger | Accord modéré | Accord complet |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 17. | La concurrence est une loi de la nature. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 18. | L'honnêteté est toujours la meilleure pratique. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 19. | Il faut toujours obéir aux personnes exerçant l'autorité. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 20. | Somme toute, il vaut mieux être une personne humble et honnête qu'importante et malhonnête. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 21. | Le fait que quelqu'un fasse mieux que moi m'énerve et me pique au vif. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 22. | Les personnes exerçant l'autorité méritent respect en raison de leurs fonctions. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 23. | Lorsqu'on demande l'aide de quelqu'un, il vaut mieux dévoiler nos véritables intentions plutôt qu'appuyer la demande sur des motifs convaincants. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 24. | Je serais fier qu'un collègue de travail touche une récompense quelconque. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 25. | Dans notre monde, la plupart des gens qui réussissent mènent une vie droite et intègre. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 26. | Le bien-être de mes collègues de travail m'importe. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 27. | Il est risqué de faire entièrement confiance aux autres. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 28. | Pour moi, le plaisir passe par la compagnie d'autrui. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 29. | Ce qui distingue la plupart des criminels du reste des gens, c'est qu'ils ne sont pas assez malins pour éviter de se faire pincer. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 30. | Le fait de coopérer avec les autres me procure un sentiment de satisfaction. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 31. | La plupart des gens sont braves. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 32. | Parents et enfants devraient rester unis le plus longtemps possible. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 33. | Il est sage de flatter les gens qui ont de l'importance. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 34. | J'ai le devoir de veiller sur ma famille, même si cela doit se faire au détriment de mes désirs. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 35. | Il est difficile de réussir dans la vie sans parfois aller au plus vite. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 36. | Les personnes souffrant d'une maladie incurable devraient avoir le choix d'être euthanasiées sans douleur. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 37. | Les familles devraient rester unies, peu importe les sacrifices que cela suppose. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 38. | La plupart des gens se remettraient plus facilement du décès de leur père que de la perte d'une propriété. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 39. | Barnum avait bien tort de dire qu'on peut toujours trouver une poire à berner. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 40. | Il est important pour moi de respecter les décisions rendues par les groupes auxquels j'appartiens. |

**Les travailleurs sont souvent intimidés ou malmenés. Cette question réfère aux situations où vous avez eu des difficultés à vous défendre contre des comportements négatifs et persistants (crier, critiquer, raillerie) venant d'une ou plusieurs personnes au travail.**

En vous référant à la description présentée ci-dessus, veuillez indiquer combien de fois vous avez été victime de tels comportements au cours de la dernière année.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Jamais | Une fois par année | Deux fois par année | Plusieurs fois par année | Une fois par mois | De façon hebdomadaire | De façon quotidienne |

Cette partie du questionnaire renferme des questions générales qui nous aideront à catégoriser et interpréter les résultats du questionnaire. Veuillez répondre à chaque question en cochant la case appropriée. N'oubliez pas que vos réponses resteront **STRICTEMENT CONFIDENTIELLES**.

1. Sexe : Homme ☐ Femme ☐

2. État civil : Célibataire ☐ Marié(e) ou en union de fait ☐ Divorcé(e) ou séparé(e) ☐

3 Combien d'enfants avez-vous ? _____

4. Âge : ____ ans

5. Nationalité : _____

6. Quel est le niveau de scolarité le plus élevé que vous ayez atteint (c.-à-d. études terminées) ?
   École secondaire ☐ Collège ☐ Baccalauréat ☐ Maîtrise ☐ Doctorat ou M.D. ☐

7. Type d'emploi : À plein temps ☐ À temps partiel ☐ Emploi à horaire variable ☐

8. Nature du poste : Permanent ☐ Temporaire ☐

9. Quel est le titre de votre poste ? _____

10. À quel niveau se situe votre poste ? Personnel de bureau ☐ Personnel d'exécution ☐ Superviseur ☐
    Gestionnaire ☐ Cadre supérieur ☐
    Autre :_____

11. Depuis combien de temps travaillez-vous dans cette organisation ? _____ ans

12. En vertu de votre poste, devez-vous travailler le week-end (samedi ou dimanche) ? Oui ☐ Non ☐

    Si oui, combien d'heures travaillez-vous le week-end ? _____ heures

13. Comment vous comparez-vous aux autres membres de votre groupe de travail en termes d'absentéisme ?
    Plus souvent absent(e) ☐ Aucune différence ☐ Moins souvent absent(e) ☐

14. Sans égard aux vacances ou aux congés, combien de jours (ou demi-journées) de travail avez-vous manqués au cours de la dernière année ? ____ jour(s)

15. Cherchez-vous activement, mais sans succès, à trouver un emploi ? Oui ☐ Non ☐
    Si non, prévoyez-vous chercher un emploi au cours des prochains six mois ? Oui ☐ Non ☐

16. À l'heure actuelle, êtes-vous activement à la recherche d'un nouvel emploi ? Oui ☐ Non ☐

**Merci beaucoup d'avoir pris le temps de remplir ce questionnaire.** ☺

____ Ce numéro est arbitraire. Il est employé pour relier vos réponses avec celles de votre collègue.

# Appendix 3


Si vous désirez la version française du questionnaire, veuillez nous contacter et nous vous la ferons parvenir rapidement.

**Faculty of Commerce and Administration**

**WORKPLACE BEHAVIORS SURVEY: CO-WORKER PERSPECTIVE**

Dear Sir or Madam:

Due to globalization and changes in the workplace, your work environment is becoming more complex and challenging. Consequently, scientific studies are needed to analyze the factors that influence your quality of working life. I am a Ph.D. Candidate in the Faculty of Commerce and Administration at Concordia University in Montreal, Canada and my main research objective is to examine a variety of workplace behaviors in different countries. In this study, I hope to learn more about the work behaviors, opinions and attitudes of employees in Canada, U.S. and Mexico in order to improve the quality of your working life.

To obtain this information, I need **your** help in completing the attached questionnaire. It will take only a couple of minutes of your time. The questions ask you to describe the behaviors of your co-worker. Most questions require only a simple check mark. This is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer each question honestly and independently. If this study is to be useful, it is important that you answer **all** the questions.

Your response will remain **STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL**. No one in your organization will see your responses. Do **NOT** write your name. You will not be identified on the basis of your answers. Results of the study will be summarized on a general basis so that individuals will not be identified. The success of this research is highly dependent on **your** completion of the attached questionnaire.

Please return your completed questionnaire in the enclosed postage-paid self-addressed envelope. It is essential that you return this questionnaire directly to me so that we can get both your perspective and that of your co-worker's on workplace behaviors in your organization.

I appreciate your voluntary participation in this international study. Your cooperation is most valuable and I thank you for helping. If you would like a summary of the results of this study, please write to me or e-mail me at: bella@mercato.concordia.ca.

Sincerely,

Bella L. Galperin
Ph.D. Candidate
Tel #: (514) 848-2738
Fax #: (514) 848-4593

Mailing Address: Management Department, 1455 de Maisonneuve Blvd. W.
GM 503-37, Montreal, Quebec, Canada H3G 1M8

**Below is a list of ways your co-worker may have behaved. Please indicate the extent to which you have seen your co-worker engage in each of the behaviors in the last year by circling the appropriate number.**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Never | Once a year | Twice a year | Several times a year | Monthly | Weekly | Daily |

My co-worker:

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1. | Developed creative solutions to problems. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2. | Searched for innovative ways to perform day to day procedures. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3. | Made fun of someone at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4. | Decided on unconventional ways to achieve work goals. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5. | Said something hurtful to someone at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6. | Departed from the accepted tradition to solve problems. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7. | Introduced a change to improve the performance of his/her work group. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8. | Made an ethnic, religious or racial remark at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9. | Cursed at someone at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10. | Sought to bend or break the rules in order to perform his/her job. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 11. | Played a mean prank (joke) on someone at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 12. | Violated company procedures in order to solve a problem. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 13. | Acted rudely toward someone at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 14. | Departed from organizational procedures to solve a customer's problem. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 15. | Publicly embarrassed someone at work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 16. | Bent a rule to satisfy a customer's needs. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 17. | Disobeyed his/her supervisor's instructions to perform more efficiently. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 18. | Taken property from work without permission. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 19. | Did not follow the orders of his/her supervisor in order to improve work procedures. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 20. | Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 21. | Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than he/she spent on business expenses. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 22. | Reported a wrong-doing to co-workers to bring about a positive organizational change. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 23. | Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 24. | Departed from organizational requirements in order to increase the quality of services or products. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 25. | Came in late to work without permission. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 26. | Disagreed with others in his/her work group in order to improve the current work procedure. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 27. | Littered (messed up) his/her work environment. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 28. | Departed from dysfunctional organizational policies or procedures to solve a problem. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 29. | Neglected to follow his/her boss' instructions. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 30. | Intentionally worked slower than he/she could have worked. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 31. | Reported a wrong-doing to another person in your company to bring about a positive organizational change. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 32. | Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 33. | Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 34. | Put little effort into his/her work. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 35. | Dragged out work in order to get overtime. |

The following questions ask some information on **YOUR** background to help us categorize and better interpret the results of the questionnaire. Please answer each question by placing a checkmark beside the appropriate answer. Remember your responses will be kept **STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL**.

1. Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

2. Marital Status: Single ☐ Married or living with someone ☐ Divorced or separated ☐

3. Age: ____ Years

4. Nationality: _____

5. What is the highest level of formal education you have completed?
   High School ☐ College ☐ Bachelor's ☐ Master's ☐ Ph.D. or M.D. ☐

6. What is your job title? _____

7. Which category best describes your job level? Clerical Staff ☐ Line Staff ☐
   Supervisor ☐
   Manager ☐ Executive ☐
   Other:_____

**Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.** ☺

Number: ____ This number is arbitrary. It is used to match your responses with those of your co-worker.

# Appendix 4


If you would like the English version of the questionnaire, please contact us and we will send it to you as soon as possible.

**Faculté de commerce et d'administration**

**ENQUÊTE SUR LES COMPORTEMENTS AU TRAVAIL:**
**PERSPECTIVE D'UN COLLÈGUE**

Madame,
Monsieur,

En raison de la globalisation et des changements au travail, votre environnement devient plus complexe. Pour cette raison, des études scientifiques sont en cours pour analyser les facteurs qui affectent votre qualité de vie au travail.

Je suis candidate au doctorat à la Faculté de commerce et d'administration de l'Université Concordia à Montréal. Mon objectif principal de recherche est d'examiner une variété de comportements au travail dans différents pays. Dans cette étude, j'espère en apprendre plus au sujet des comportements, des avis et des attitudes vis-à-vis le travail que présentent des employés au Canada, aux États-Unis et au Mexique. Le but de cette recherche est de contribuer à améliorer la qualité de votre vie professionnelle.

J'ai besoin de **votre** coopération pour obtenir des renseignements sur votre milieu de travail. Je vous prierais de bien vouloir compléter le questionnaire ci-joint. Cela prendra seulement quelques minutes de votre temps. Pour répondre aux questions vous n'avez qu'à encercler. Ceci n'est pas un examen. Il n'y a aucune bonne ou fausse réponse. Veuillez répondre à chaque question honnêtement et indépendamment. Pour que cette étude puisse être utile, il est important que vous répondiez à **toutes** les questions.

Vos réponses demeureront **STRICTEMENT CONFIDENTIELLES**. Personne de votre organisation ne verra vos réponses. N'écrivez **pas** votre nom. Votre identité ne pourra pas être connue à partir de vos réponses. Les résultats de l'étude seront regroupés de sorte que les participants ne puissent pas être identifiés. Le succès de cette recherche dépend fortement de **votre** coopération.

Veuillez compléter et retourner le questionnaire dans l'enveloppe pré-affranchie et pré-adressée ci-jointe. Il est essentiel que vous me retourniez ce questionnaire directement de sorte que nous puissions obtenir votre perspective du travail et celle de votre collègue.

J'apprécie votre participation volontaire à cette étude internationale et vous remercie sincèrement de votre aide. Si vous désirez obtenir un sommaire des résultats de cette étude, vous pouvez m'écrire à mon adresse de courrier électronique : bella@mercato.concordia.ca ou à l'adresse postale ci-dessous.

Veuillez agréer, Monsieur, Madame, l'expression de mes sentiments distingués.

Bella L. Galperin
Ph.D. Candidate
Tel #: (514) 848-2738
Fax #: (514) 848-4593
Adresse postale: Département de Management, 1455 boul. de Maisonneuve O.
GM 503-37, Montréal, (Québec), Canada H3G 1M8

**Vous trouverez ci-dessous une liste de comportements. Au moyen de l'échelle suivante, veuillez indiquer la fréquence à laquelle vous avez vu votre collègue adopter ces comportements au cours de la dernière année (encerclez le chiffre approprié):**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Jamais | Une fois par année | Deux fois par année | Plusieurs fois par année | Une fois par mois | De façon hebdomadaire | De façon quotidienne |

Mon collègue :

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1. | a développé des solutions créatrices face aux problèmes. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2. | a cherché des voies innovatrices pour exécuter des procédures quotidiennes. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3. | s'est moqué de quelqu'un au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4. | a décidé d'emprunter des voies peu usuelles pour réaliser des objectifs de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5. | a dit quelque chose de blessant à quelqu'un au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6. | a dérogé aux méthodes généralement reconnues pour résoudre des problèmes. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7. | a proposé un changement pour améliorer le rendement de son groupe de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8. | a fait une remarque à caractère ethnique, religieux ou racial au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9. | a juré contre quelqu'un au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10. | a cherché à contourner ou enfreindre les règlements pour exécuter son travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 11. | a fait une plaisanterie déplacée à quelqu'un au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 12. | a violé les procédures de l'organisation pour résoudre un problème. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 13. | a été grossier envers quelqu'un au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 14. | a dérogé aux procédures de l'organisation pour résoudre le problème d'un client. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 15. | a publiquement mis quelqu'un dans l'embarras au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 16. | a contourné un règlement pour satisfaire les besoins d'un client. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 17. | a désobéi aux instructions de son superviseur afin d'améliorer l'efficacité de son rendement. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 18. | a pris sans permission des biens appartenant à l'organisation. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 19. | n'a pas suivi les directives de son supérieur immédiat dans le but d'améliorer les procédures de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 20. | a perdu son temps à fabuler ou à rêvasser au lieu de travailler. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 21. | a falsifié un reçu pour obtenir un remboursement plus élevé que le montant réel des frais d'affaires. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 22. | a rapporté un méfait à ses collègues afin de provoquer un changement positif au sein de l'organisation. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 23. | a pris une pause supplémentaire ou une pause exagérément longue par rapport à ce qui est généralement permis dans son milieu de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 24. | a dérogé aux exigences de l'organisation afin d'augmenter la qualité des services ou des produits. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 25. | est arrivé au travail en retard, sans permission. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 26. | a exprimé son désaccord par rapport à d'autres membres de son groupe de travail dans le but d'améliorer les méthodes actuelles de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 27. | a souillé son environnement de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 28. | a dérogé à des politiques ou procédures dysfonctionnelles de l'organisation pour résoudre un problème. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 29. | a omis de suivre les directives de son patron. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 30. | a volontairement ralenti sa cadence de travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 31. | a rapporté un méfait à d'autres membres de l'organisation afin de provoquer un changement positif au sein de l'organisation. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 32. | a divulgué des renseignements confidentiels sur l'organisation à une personne non autorisée. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 33. | a consommé des drogues illicites ou de l'alcool au travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 34. | a mis peu de cœur dans son travail. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 35. | a fait traîner du travail pour pouvoir réclamer des heures supplémentaires. |

Les questions suivantes portent sur **VOUS**. Elles visent à nous aider à catégoriser et interpréter les résultats du questionnaire. Veuillez répondre à chaque question en cochant la case appropriée. N'oubliez pas que vos réponses resteront **STRICTEMENT CONFIDENTIELLES**.

1. Sexe :Homme ☐ Femme ☐

2. État Civil : Célibataire ☐ Marié(e) ou en union de fait ☐ Divorcé(e) ou séparé(e) ☐

3. Âge : ____ ans

4. Nationalité _____

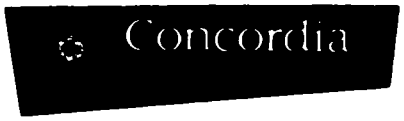
5. Quel est le niveau de scolarité le plus élevé que vous ayez atteint (c.-à-d. études terminées) ?
École secondaire ☐ Collège ☐ Baccalauréat ☐ Maîtrise ☐ Doctorat ou M.D. ☐

6 Quel est le titre de votre poste ? _____

7 À quel niveau se situe votre poste ? Personnel de bureau ☐ Personnel d'exécution ☐ Superviseur ☐
Gestionnaire ☐ Cadre supérieur ☐
Autre :_____

**Merci infiniment d'avoir pris le temps de compléter ce questionnaire.** ☺

____ Ce numéro est arbitraire. Il est employé pour relier vos réponses avec celles de votre collègue.




# Rappel

Cher Monsieur ou Madame:

La semaine dernière, nous vous avons envoyé deux questionnaires portant sur les **COMPORTEMENTS DE LIEU DE TRAVAIL** pour vous et votre collègue. Si les deux questionnaires ont déjà été retournés, nous vous en remercions et nous vous prions de bien vouloir oublier ce rappel. Sinon, nous vous invitons à nouveau, vous et votre collègue à les compléter dès aujourd'hui, si possible.

Votre coopération dans cette étude internationale nous est très précieuse puisqu'elle nous aidera à comprendre les comportements, les avis et les attitudes au travail que présentent des employés au Canada, aux États-Unis et au Mexique. Cette étude a pour but d'améliorer la qualité de votre vie professionelle. Dans la mesure où vous n'avez pas encore reçu ces questionnaires ou vous désirez de nouvelles copies, veuillez nous contacter par courrier électronique, telephone ou fax pour que nous puissions vous les faire parvenir rapidement.

Souvenez-vous que vos réponses demeureront **strictement confidentielles**. Personne de votre organisation ne verra vos réponses. Vous ne serez pas identifié sur la base de vos réponses. Les résultats de l'étude seront récapitulés sur une base générale de sorte que les individus ne soient pas identifiés. Le succès de cette recherche dépend fortement de **votre** participation. Nous vous saurions gré de votre coopération. Veuillez compléter et retourner le questionnaire dans l'enveloppe pré-affranchie et pré-adressée ci-jointe. Prière de contacter votre collègue afin de lui demander de completer le questionnaire.

Veuillez agréer, madame, monsieur, l'expression de nos sentiments distingués.

Bella L. Galperin, étudiante au doctorat
bella@mercato.concordia.ca
Tel #: (514) 848-2738
Fax #: (514) 848-4593

# Reminder

Dear Mr./Ms.,

Last week, we mailed you two surveys on **WORKPLACE BEHAVIORS** for both you and a co-worker to complete. If the surveys have already been returned, please accept our sincere thanks and do not mind this follow-up. If not, we invite you and your co-worker to complete these questionnaires as soon as possible.

Your collaboration in this international study will help us learn more about the work behaviors, opinions and attitudes of employees in Canada, U.S. and Mexico in order to improve the quality of your working life. If you did not receive the questionnaires, or would like new copies, you may contact us by email, telephone or fax and we will send you another package.

Remember, your response will remain **strictly confidential**. No one in your organization will see your responses. You will not be identified on the basis of your answers. Results of the study will be summarized on a general basis so that individuals will not be identified. The success of this research is highly dependent on **your** completion of the questionnaire. We would greatly appreciate if you return the questionnaire in the postage paid self-addressed envelope and remind your co-worker to do so as well.

Thanking you in advance,

Bella L. Galperin, Ph.D. Candidate
bella@mercato.concordia.ca
Tel #: (514) 848-2738
Fax #: (514) 848-4593
Mailing Address: Management Department, 1455 de Maisonneuve Blvd. W.
GM 503-37, Montreal, Quebec, Canada H3G 1M8

# Appendix 6


**Facultad de Comercio y de Administración**

**ENCUESTA SOBRE LOS COMPORTAMIENTOS EN EL LUGAR DE TRABAJO**

Estimado señor o señora:

Debido a la globalización y a los cambios en el lugar de trabajo, su ambiente del trabajo está llegando a ser más complejo y desafiante. Por esta razón, los estudios científicos son necesarios para analizar los factores que influencian su calidad de la vida laboral. Estoy por obtener un Doctorado en la facultad de comercio y de administración en la Universidad de Concordia en Montreal, Canadá y el objetivo principal de mi investigación es examinar una variedad de comportamientos en el trabajo en diferentes países. En este estudio, espero aprender más sobre los comportamientos, opiniones y actitudes de trabajo de empleados en Canadá, los E.E.U.U. y México para mejorar la calidad de su vida laboral.

Para obtener esta información, necesito **su** ayuda para completar el cuestionario incluido. Tomará solamente 15-20 minutos de su tiempo. La mayoría de las preguntas son de selección múltiple. Esto no es una prueba ó examen. No hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas. Conteste por favor cada pregunta honestamente e individualmente. Para que este estudio sea útil, es importante que usted conteste **todas** las preguntas.

Su respuestas serán **ESTRICTAMENTE CONFIDENCIALES**. Nadie en su trabajo verá sus respuestas. **NO** escriba su nombre. No se le identificará en base a sus respuestas. Los resultados del estudio serán resumidos sobre una base general, sin identificación de los individuos. El éxito de esta investigación depende en gran medida de **sus** respuestas. Devuelva por favor su cuestionario completo en el sobre incluido.

Adjunto también encontrará un cuestionario de tres (3) páginas y un sobre adicional para que su compañero de trabajo lo complete. Por favor entregue un cuestionario a un compañero de trabajo y pidale que lo complete y lo inserte en el segundo sobre. Es importante que entregue este cuestionario a su compañero de trabajo para que

nosotros tengamos una perspectiva más amplia sobre los comportamientos en su organización.
Aprecio su participación voluntaria en este estido internacional. Su cooperación es muy valiosa y le agradezco su ayuda. Si usted desea un resumen de los resultados de este estudio, por favor escríbame o envíeme un e-mail a bella@mercato.concordia.ca.

Sinceramente,

Bella L. Galperin
Candidato a Doctorado
Tel #: (514) 848-2738
Fax #: (514) 848-4593

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GM 503-37, Montreal, Quebec, Canada H3G 1M8

**Con la escala de abajo, por favor indique si está de acuerdo con las siguientes declaraciones, encerrando en un círculo el número apropiado.**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Muy en desacuerdo | Desacuerdo moderado | Desacuerdo leve | Ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo | De acuerdo leve | De acuerdo moderado | Muy de acuerdo |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1. | Mi horario de trabajo es justo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2. | Sé generalmente en que situacion estoy con mi jefe. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3. | Tengo la ayuda que necesito de mis subordinados para hacer mi trabajo bien. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4. | Las decisiones de trabajo son tomadas por mi jefe de una manera imparcial. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5. | Mi jefe tiene bastante confianza en mí para defenderme y alinearse con mis decisiones incluso sin que yo estuviese presente. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6. | Pienso que mi nivel de pago es justo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7. | Se permite a los empleados desafiar o refutar las decisiones de trabajo tomadas por mi jefe. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8. | Cuando se toman decisiones sobre mi trabajo, mi jefe muestra interés sobre mis derechos como empleado. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9. | Considero que mi cantidad de trabajo es absolutamente justa. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10. | Tengo la ayuda que necesito de mi equipo de trabajo para hacer bien mi trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 11. | Mi jefe se cerciora de que todas las preocupaciones de los empleados sean escuchadas antes de que se tomen las decisiones de trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 12. | Mi relacion de trabajo con mi jefe es efectiva. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 13. | En general, las recompensas que recibo aquí son adecuadas. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 14. | Tengo la ayuda que necesito de mis compañeros de trabajo para hacer bien mi trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 15. | Para tomar decisiones de trabajo, mi jefe recoge la información exacta y completa. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 16. | Siento que mis responsabilidades de trabajo son justas. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 17. | Mi jefe entiende mis problemas y necesidades. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 18. | Tengo la ayuda que necesito de mi supervisor inmediato para hacer bien mi trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 19. | Mi jefe reconoce mi potencial. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 20. | Puedo contar con que mi jefe me sacará de problemas incluso a su propia costa, cuando realmente lo necesito. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 21. | Puedo obtener los recursos necesarios para desarrolar nuevas ideas. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 22. | Mi jefe clarifica decisiones y proporciona la información adicional cuando es requerido por los empleados. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 23. | Cuando necesito recursos adicionales para hacer mi trabajo, generalmente puedo conseguirlos. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 24. | Cuando las decisiones se toman sobre mi trabajo, mi jefe me trata con amabilidad y la consideración. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 25. | Sin importar cuánto poder tenga mi jefe, el/ella estaría personalmente dispuesto a utilizarlo para ayudarme a solucionar problemas en mi trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 26. | Referente a las decisiones tomadas sobre mi trabajo, mi jefe discute las implicaciones de las decisiones conmigo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 27. | Muy pocas cosas estresantes me suceden en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 28. | Cuando las decisiones se toman sobre mi trabajo, mi jefe me trata con respecto y dignidad. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 29. | Entiendo las estrategias y las metas de la compañía. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 30. | Cuando hablo de esta compañía, digo generalmente "nosotros" en vez de "ellos". |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 31. | Estoy muy interesado en lo que piensan los otros sobre la compañía. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 32. | Cuando se toman decisiones sobre mi trabajo, mi jefe es sensible a mis necesidades personales. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 33. | Mi jefe ofrece la justificación adecuada para las decisiones tomadas sobre mi trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 34. | Entiendo la visión de la alta gerencia de la compañía. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 35. | Cuando alguien critica a la empresa, se siente como un insulto personal. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 36. | Los éxitos de esta compañía son mis éxitos. |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Muy en desacuerdo | Desacuerdo moderado | Desacuerdo leve | Ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo | De acuerdo leve | De acuerdo moderado | Muy de acuerdo |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 37. | Cuando se toman decisiones sobre mi trabajo, mi jefe es honesto conmigo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 38. | Todas las decisiones de trabajo se aplican equitativamente a todos los empleados afectados. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 39. | Tengo acceso a la información estratégica que necesito para hacer bien mi trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 40. | Mi trabajo es extremadamente estresante. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 41. | Al tomar decisiones sobre mi trabajo, mi jefe ofrece explicaciones que para mi tienen sentido. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 42. | Si un comentario en los medios de comunicación criticara a la empresa, me sentiría avergonzado. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 43. | Mi jefe explica muy claramente cualquier decisión tomada sobre mi trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 44. | Tengo acceso a los recursos que necesito para bien hacer mi trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 45. | Casi nunca me siento estresado en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 46. | Cuando alguien elogia a la compañía, se siente como un elogio personal. |

**Con la escala de abajo, por favor indique que tan seguro se siente al realizar estas tareas.**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Muy poco seguro | Un poco seguro | Moderadamente seguro | Bastante seguro | Muy seguro |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1. | Representando a su área de trabajo en reuniones con la alta gerencia. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 2. | Escribiendo un presupuesto de gastos en su área de trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 3. | Analizando un problema a largo plazo para encontrar una solución. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 4. | Fabricando sugerencias a la gerencia sobre maneras de mejorar el funcionamiento de su departamento o área de trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 5. | Ayudando a fijar metas y objetivos en su área de trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6. | Diseñando nuevos procedimientos para su área de trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 7. | Entrando en contacto con gente fuera de la compañía (e.g. proveedores, clientes) para discutir problemas. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 8. | Presentando información a un grupo de colegas. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 9. | Contribuyendo a las discusiones sobre la estrategia de la compañía. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 10. | Visitando empleados de otros departamentos para sugerir que se hagan las cosas diferentemente. |

**Se enumeran abajo un número de preguntas ó aseveraciones que se podrían utilizar para describir su trabajo. Encierra en un círculo por favor el número que describa lo mejor posible su trabajo.**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Muy Poco | | Moderadamente | | Significativamente |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1. | Qué tanto es usted dejado solo para hacer su propio trabajo? |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 2. | En qué medida recibe información de su superior sobre funcionamiento de su trabajo? |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 3. | En qué medida puede usted hacer su trabajo independientemente de otros? |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 4. | Tengo libertad para hacer casi todo lo que deseo en mi trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 5. | Tengo la oportunidad de pensamiento y acción independientes. |

**Con la escala abajo, clasifique por favor cada rasgo del carácter según la importancia de acuerdo a <u>usted</u> encerrando en un círculo el número apropiado.**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| <u>No</u> es nada importante para mí | | | Moderadamente importante para mí | | | Es muy importante para mí |

Para ser:

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1. | Innovador |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2. | De Principios |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3. | Benévolo |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4. | Confiable |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5. | Ingenioso |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6. | Digno de confianza |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7. | Efectivo |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8. | Honesto |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9. | Influyente |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10. | Eficaz |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 11. | Independiente |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 12. | Dedicado a la causa |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 13. | Enfocado en resultados |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 14. | Con buenas intenciones |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 15. | Productivo |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 16. | Destacado por su integridad |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 17. | Compasivo |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 18. | Financieramente seguro |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 19. | Obediente frente a la iey |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 20. | Un triunfador |

**Debajo hay una lista de maneras en que usted pudo haberse comportado. Indique por favor hasta que punto usted ha incurrido en estos comportamientos durante el <u>año pasado</u>.**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nunca | Una vez al año | Dos veces un año | Varias veces al año | Mensualmente | Semanalmente | Diariamente |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1. | Desarrollé soluciones creativas a los problemas. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2. | Busqué maneras innovadoras de realizar procedimientos cotidianos. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3. | Me burlé de alguien en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4. | Decidí entre formas no convencionales para lograr metas de trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5. | Dije algo hiriente a alguien en su trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6. | Me salí de lo convencional para resolver problemas. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7. | Introduje un cambio para mejorar el funcionamiento de su grupo de trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8. | Hice una observación étnica, religiosa o racial en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9. | Insulté a alguien en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10. | Busqué doblar o romper las reglas para realizar bien mi trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 11. | Jugué una broma de mal gusto a alguien en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 12. | Violé los procedimientos de la compañía para resolvar un problema. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 13. | Fuí grosero con alguien en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 14. | Me salí de los procedimientos organizacionales para resolvar un problema de algún cliente. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 15. | Avergoncé a alguien en público en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 16. | Fuí flexible con alguna regla para satisfacer a algún cliente. |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nunca | Una vez al año | Dos veces un año | Varias veces al año | Mensualmente | Semanalmente | Diariamente |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 17. | Desobedecí las instrucciones del supervisor para hacer mejor mi trabajo más eficientemente. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 18. | Tomé cosas propiedad de la oficina sin permiso. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 19. | No seguí las órdenes del supervisor para mejorar procedimientos de trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 20. | Gasté demasiado tiempo fantaseando o soñando despierto en vez de trabajar. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 21. | Falsifiqué un recibo para conseguir reembolsos de dinero mayores por gastos. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 22. | Reporté una anomalía en el trabajo a los compañeros para traer un cambio positivo en la organización. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 23. | Tomé tiempo adicional o un descanso prolongado mayor al aceptable en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 24. | Me salí de los requerimientos de la organización para mejorar la calidad de los servicios o de los productos. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 25. | Llegé al trabajo tarde sin permiso. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 26. | Estuve en desacuerdo con otros en el grupo de trabajo para mejorar procedimientos en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 27. | Ensucié el ambiente de trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 28. | No seguí las politicas ó procedimientos que no funcionan en la compañía para solucionar un problema. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 29. | Me negé a seguir instrucciones del jefe. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 30. | Trabajé mas lentamente a propósito. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 31. | Reporté una anomalía en la compañía a otra persona de la compañía para traer un cambio positivo en la organización. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 32. | Comenté información confidencial de la compañía con una persona no autorizada. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 33. | Utilicé una droga ilegal o consumí alcohol en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 34. | No hice gran esfuerzo en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 35. | Extendí las labores para recibir pago por horas extras. |

**En esta sección, estamos interesados ver cómo vé usted el mundo. Esto nos ayudará a entender sus opiniones del trabajo. Con la escala de abajo, indique por favor hasta que punto está de acuerdo con las declaraciones siguientes encerrando en un circulo el número apropiado.**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Muy en desacuerdo | Desacuerdo moderado | Desacuerdo leve | Ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo | De acuerdo leve | De acuerdo moderado | Muy de acuerdo |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1. | Prefiero depender de mí mismo que de los demás. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2. | Es posible ser bueno en todo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3. | Nunca digo a nadie la razón verdadera por la que hice algo a menos que sea de utilidad hacerlo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4. | Confío en mí mismo la mayoría del tiempo: Confío raramente en otros. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5. | No hay excusa para mentir a los otros. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6. | A menudo soy individualista. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7. | Hacen falta las jerarquía de la autoridad en nuestra sociedad. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8. | La mejor manera de manejar a la gente es deciéndoles lo que ellos desean oír. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9. | Mi identidad personal, independiente de otras, es muy importante para mí. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10. | La mayoría de la gente es básicamente buena y noble. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 11. | Es importante para mí hacer mi trabajo mejor que los otros. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 12. | Uno solo debe actuar cuando está seguro que es moralmente correcto. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 13. | Por lo general, la gente no trabaja duro a menos que se vea forzada a hacerlo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 14. | Triunfar es todo ó lo más importante. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 15. | Es más seguro asumir que toda la gente tiene un lado vicioso y saldrá a la luz cuando le den la ocasión. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 16. | La desigualdad del estatus entre individuos no es aceptable en nuestra sociedad. |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Desacuerdo fuertemente | Desacuerdo moderadamente | Desacuerdo levemente | Ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo | De acuerdo levemente | De acuerdo moderadamente | De acuerdo fuertemente |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 17. | La competencia es la ley de la naturaleza. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 18. | La honradez es la mejor política en todos los casos. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 19. | Uno debe obedecer siempre a la persona que tienen autoridad. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 20. | En todo caso es mejor ser humilde y honesto que ser importante y deshonesto. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 21. | Cuando a otra persona le va mejor que a mí, me siento tenso y ansioso. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 22. | La gente que tiene autoridad debe ser respetada debido a su posición. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 23. | Cuando usted pide que alguien haga algo para usted, es mejor decir las verdaderas razones antes que las razones que usted considera convenientes. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 24. | Si un compañero de trabajo consigue un premio, me siento orgulloso. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 25. | La mayoría de la gente exitosa, es honesta y moralmente correcta. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 26. | El bienestar de mis compañeros de trabajo es importante para mí. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 27. | Cualquier persona que confía totalmente en otra persona se puede meter en problemas. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 28. | Para mí, placer es pasar tiempo con otras personas. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 29. | La diferencia más grande entre la mayoría de los criminales y la gente es que los criminales son suficientemente estúpidos como para dejarse capturar. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 30. | Me siento bien cuando coopero con otros. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 31. | La mayoría de la gente es valiente. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 32. | Los padres y los niños deben permanecer todo el tiempo posible. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 33. | Es sabio adular a gente importante. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 34. | Es mi deber cuidar de mi familia, incluso cuando tengo que sacrificar lo que me gusta. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 35. | Es duro escalar sin buscar atajos. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 36. | La gente que sufre de enfermedades incurables debe tener la opción de morir sin dolor. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 37. | Los miembros de la familia deben mantenerse juntos, no importa qué sacrificios se requieran. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 38. | La mayoría de la gente se olvida más fácilmente de la muerte de su padre que la pérdida de sus propiedades. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 39. | Barnum no estaba en lo cierto cuando dijo que a cada minuto nace un inepto. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 40. | Es importante para mí respetar las decisiones tomadas por mis grupos. |

**La gente es a menudo acosada o molestada en el trabajo. Es decir, esta situacion se da cuando usted tiene algo de dificultad en defenderse de las acciones negativas persistentes (e.g. grito, crítica, sarcasmo) por parte de una o varias personas en el trabajo.**

Con base en lo anterior, indique por favor hasta que punto usted ha sido acostada (objeto de burla, sarcasmo, gritos etc.) en el trabajo durante el año pasado?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nunca | Una vez al año | Dos veces un año | Varias veces al año | Mensualmente | Semanalmente | Diariamente |

Ésta es la parte final del cuestionario. Las preguntas siguientes piden información adicional para ayudarnos a categorizar e interpretar mejor los resultados del cuestionario. Conteste por favor a cada pregunta colocando una cruz al lado de la respuesta apropiada. Recuerde que sus respuestas son **ESTRICTAMENTE CONFIDENCIALES**.

1. Sexo: Masculino ☐ Femenino ☐

2. Estado Civil: Soltero ☐ Casado o viviendo con alguien ☐ Divorciado o separado ☐

3. Cuántos hijos tiene usted? _____

4. Edad: ____ años

5. Nacionalidad: _____

6. Cuál es el nivel más alto de educación que usted ha terminado?
   Secundaria ☐ Técnico ☐ Universitario ☐ Maestría ☐ Doctorado o medico ☐

7. Estatus de empleo: Tiempo completo ☐ Tiempo parcial ☐ Horario flexible ☐

8. Qué tipo de empleado es? Permanente ☐ Temporal ☐

9. Cuál es su título en el trabajo? _____

10. Qué categoría describe lo mejor posible su nivel de trabajo?
    Personal Administrativo ☐ Personal De la Línea ☐ Supervisor ☐
    Gerente ☐ Ejecutivo ☐ Otros:_____

11. Cuántos años ha usted trabajado en su compañía? _____ años

12. Su trabajo requiere venir los fines de semana (Sabado/Domingo)? Sí ☐ No ☐

    Si la respuesta es afirmativa: cuántas horas por semana usted trabaja durante el fin de semana? ____horas

13. En comparación con la gente en su grupo de trabajo, cómo usted clasifica su cantidad de ausencia del trabajo?
    Muchas ☐ Igual ☐ Poca ☐

14. No contando vacaciones o los días de fiesta, cuántos días ó partes del día estuvo ausente durante el último año?
    ___ Día(s)

15. Ha estado usted buscando otro trabajo, pero no ha podido encontrar uno? Sí ☐ No ☐
    Si usted contestó No, planea buscar un trabajo en los 6 próximos meses? Sí ☐ No ☐

16. Actualmente está usted buscando activamente otro trabajo? Sí ☐ No ☐

**Muchas gracias por completar este cuestionario.** ☺

Número: ____ Este número es arbitrario. Se utiliza para juntar sus respuestas con los de su compañero de trabajo.

# Appendix 7


**Facultad de Comercio y de Administración**

**ENCUESTA SOBRE LOS COMPORTAMIENTOS EN EL LUGAR DE TRABAJO: PERSPECTIVA DEL COMPAÑERO DE TRABAJO**

Estimado señor o señora:

Debido a la globalización y a los cambios en el lugar de trabajo, su ambiente del trabajo está llegando a ser más complejo y desafiante. Por esta razón, los estudios científicos son necesarios para analizar los factores que influencian su calidad de la vida laboral. Estoy por obtener un Doctorado en la facultad de comercio y de administración en la Universidad de Concordia en Montreal, Canadá y el objetivo principal de mi investigación es examinar una variedad de comportamientos en el trabajo en diferentes países. En este estudio, espero aprender más sobre los comportamientos, opiniones y actitudes de trabajo de empleados en Canadá, los E.E.U.U. y México para mejorar la calidad de su vida laboral.

Para obtener esta información, necesito **su** ayuda para completar el cuestionario incluido. Tomará solamente un par de minutos de su tiempo. Las preguntas piden que usted describa los comportamientos de su compañero de trabajo. La mayoría de las preguntas son de selección múltiple. Esto no es una prueba ó examen. No hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas. Conteste por favor cada pregunta honestamente e individualmente. Para que este estudio sea útil, es importante que usted conteste **todas** las preguntas.

Su respuestas serán **ESTRICTAMENTE CONFIDENCIALES**. Nadie en su trabajo verá sus respuestas. **NO** escriba su nombre. No se le identificará en base a sus respuestas. Los resultados del estudio serán resumidos sobre una base general, sin identificación de los individuos. El éxito de esta investigación depende en gran medida de **sus** respuestas.

Devuelva por favor su cuestionario completo en el sobre incluido. Es esencial que me devuelva este cuestionario directamente a mí y así poder obtener su punto de vista y la de su compañero de trabajo en relación a los

comportamientos de trabajo en su compañía.
Aprecio su participación voluntaria en este estudio internacional. Su cooperación es muy valiosa y le agradezco su ayuda. Si usted desea un resumen de los resultados de este estudio, por favor escríbame o envieme un e-mail a bella@mercato.concordia.ca.

Sinceramente,

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Candidato a Doctorado
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GM 503-37, Montreal, Quebec, Canada H3G 1M8

**Abajo encontrará una lista de formas de comportamientos. Indique hasta que punto ha visto usted a su compañero de trabajo comportarse así en el ultimo año encerrando en un círculo el número apropiado.**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nunca | Una vez al año | Dos veces un año | Varias veces al año | Mensualmente | Semanalmente | Diariamente |

Mi compañero de trabajo:

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1. | Desarrolló soluciones creativas a los problemas. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 2. | Buscó maneras innovadoras de realizar procedimientos cotidianos. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3. | Se burló de alguien en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 4. | Decidió entre formas no convencionales para lograr metas de trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5. | Dijo algo hiriente a alguien en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 6. | Se salió de lo convencional para resolver problemas. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7. | Introdujo un cambio para mejorar el funcionamiento de el grupo de trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8. | Hizo una observación étnica, religiosa o racial en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 9. | Insultó a alguien en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10. | Buscó doblar o romper las reglas para realizar bien el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 11. | Jugó una broma de mal gusto a alguien en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 12. | Violó los procedimientos de la compañía para resolvar un problema. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 13. | Fué grosero con alguien en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 14. | Se salió de los procedimientos organizacionales para resolvar un problema de algún cliente. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 15. | Avergonzó a alguien en público en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 16. | Fué flexible con alguna regla para satisfacer a algún cliente. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 17. | Desobedeció las instrucciones del supervisor para hacer mejor el trabajo más eficientemente. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 18. | Tomó cosas propiedad de la oficina sin permiso. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 19. | No siguió las órdenes del supervisor para mejorar procedimientos de trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 20. | Gastó demasiado tiempo fantaseando o soñando despierto en vez de trabajar. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 21. | Falsificó un recibo para conseguir reembolsos de dinero mayores por gastos. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 22. | Reportó una anomalía en el trabajo a los compañeros para traer un cambio positivo en la organización. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 23. | Tomó tiempo adicional o un descanso prolongado mayor al aceptable en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 24. | Se salió de los requerimientos de la organización para mejorar la calidad de los servicios o de los productos. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 25. | Llegó al trabajo tarde sin permiso. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 26. | Estuvo en desacuerdo con otros en el grupo de trabajo para mejorar procedimientos en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 27. | Ensució el ambiente de trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 28. | No siguió las politicas o procedimientos que no funcionan en la compañía para solucionar un problema. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 29. | Se negó a seguir instrucciones del jefe. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 30. | Trabajó más lentamente a propósito. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 31. | Reportó una anomalía en la compañía a otra persona de la compañía para traer un cambio positivo en la organización. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 32. | Comentó información confidencial de la compañía con una persona no autorizada. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 33. | Utilizó una droga ilegal o consumió alcohol en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 34. | No hizo gran esfuerzo en el trabajo. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 35. | Extendió las labores para recibir pago por horas extras. |

Las preguntas siguientes piden información adicional de **USTED** para ayudarnos a categorizar e interpretar mejor los resultados del cuestionario. Conteste por favor a cada pregunta colocando una cruz al lado de la respuesta apropiada. Recuerde que sus respuestas son **ESTRICTAMENTE CONFIDENCIALES**.

1. Sexo: Masculino ☐ Femenino ☐

2. Estado Civil: Soltero ☐ Casado o viviendo con alguien ☐ Divorciado o separado ☐

3. Edad: ____ años

4. Nacionalidad: _____

5. Cuál es el nivel más alto de educación que usted ha terminado?

   Secundaria ☐ Técnico ☐ Universitario ☐ Maestría ☐ Doctorado o medico ☐

6. Cuál es su título en el trabajo? _____

7. Qué categoría describe lo mejor posible su nivel de trabajo?

   Personal Administrativo ☐ Personal De la Línea ☐ Supervisor ☐

   Gerente ☐ Ejecutivo ☐ Otros:_____

**Muchas gracias por completar este cuestionario.** ☺

Número: _____ Este número es arbitrario. Se utiliza para juntar sus respuestas con los de su compañero de trabajo.

**Appendix 8**


# RECORDATORIO

Estimado Señor o Señora:

La semana pasada, le enviamos dos encuestas relacionadas con los **COMPORTAMIENTOS EN EL LUGAR DE TRABAJO** para que los completara usted y un compañero de trabajo. Si las encuestas ya se devolvieron le doy mis más sinceras gracias. Si no los han devuelto mucho le agradeceré si por favor se toman la molestia de que los completen lo más posible.

Su colaboración en este estudio internacional nos ayudará a entender más sobre los comportamientos, opiniones y actitudes de trabajo de los empleados en Canadá, los E.E.U.U. y México para mejorar la calidad de su vida laboral. Si usted no recibió los cuestionarios, y quisiera nuevas copias, puede contactarnos a través de email, teléfono o fax y nosotros le enviaremos otro paquete.

Recuerde que su respuestas serán **estrictamente confidenciales**. Nadie en su trabajo verá sus respuestas. No se le identificará en base a sus respuestas. Los resultados del estudio serán resumidos sobre una base general, sin identificación de las personas. El éxito de esta investigación depende en gran medida de la sinceridad de **sus** respuestas. Apreciaríamos grandemente si usted devuelve el cuestionario en el sobre incluido y le recuerde a su compañero de trabajo que lo haga también.

Le agradezco de antemano la atención a la presente.

Atentamente,

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## Appendix 9

## The Development of a Measure of Workplace Constructive Deviance

There has been little empirical research on employee constructive deviance. One reason for the lack of empirical research in this area may be that a reliable and valid measure of constructive deviance does not exist. Consequently, an attempt was made to develop a measure of workplace constructive deviance.

Based on the literature, available measures of innovative behavior/ creative contribution (Edwards, 1989; Kirton, 1976; Quinn, 1988; West, 1987) and whistleblowing (Miceli & Near, 1984), as well as semi-structured interviews with eight employees from various industries (e.g., pharmaceutical, telecommunications, and health care), a total of 35 items was generated. An effort was made to use simple words and to avoid slang and colloquialisms in order to reduce the likelihood that the respondents would not understand the meaning of the words (Sudman & Bradburn, 1982).

Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they had engaged in each of the behaviors in the last year using a 7-point Likert scale ("1=never", "2=once a year", "3=twice a year", "4=several times a year", "5=monthly", "6=weekly", "7=daily"). Similar to Bennett and Robinson's (2000) measure of destructive deviance, a frequency measure of constructive deviance was used in order to ensure the two measures of destructive and constructive deviance were parallel in construction.

The items in the scale were then refined using the feedback of eight experts. The experts were professors in organizational behavior and human resource management and practitioners who had significant amount of work experience. The experts were asked to: (1) Rate the relevance of each item with respect to the construct as it was defined. Items

were rated on a three-point scale ("1=low relevance", "2=moderate relevance", and "3=high relevance"); (2) Evaluate the items' clarity and conciseness. Specifically, the experts were asked to identify awkward or confusing items and suggest alternative wordings if necessary; and, (3) Identify other approaches that capture the phenomenon of constructive deviance that were not included in the proposed measure.

Based on the experts' feedback, several changes were made to the item pool. First, items that were rated as having low relevance were deleted. Second, some items were reworded in order to improve their clarity. In addition, three items were added to the scale in order to include an aspect of constructive deviance that was previously excluded. These questions inquired about people who work on "pet projects" or "personal projects" during regular company hours in order to develop or improve the products/services of the organization. The revised list consisted of 41 items.

The psychometric properties of the scale were examined in two stages. In the first stage, item analyses were conducted and the underlying factor structure was examined in a sample of students (N=131) using an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). In the second stage, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed on a second sample (N=124) in order to cross-validate the EFA solution. In addition, the convergent and discriminant validity of the measure were assessed.

## Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

The first sample consisted of 131 students enrolled in the bachelor in administration (B.Com.) program (n=10) and master of business administration (M.B.A.) program (n=121) at two large universities in Montreal, Canada. Both the undergraduate

students and M.B.A. students had worked either full-time or part-time a couple of months prior to participating in the study. The questionnaires were distributed in classes and the respondents were assured that the responses would remain confidential. Once the questionnaires were completed, the respondents returned the anonymous questionnaires to the researcher. Usable data were received from 122 (93%) of the respondents.

Fifty-seven percent (57%) of the respondents were male. The average respondent was 28.05 (SD = 3.94) years old, had worked as a manager, and had 5.30 (SD = 3.30) years experiences. Eighty-nine (89%) completed a bachelor's degree, 8% completed a college degree, 3% had completed a master's, Ph.D. or M.D.

Item-total correlations, item means and variances were examined in the first sample to evaluate the performance of the individual items. By examining the item-total correlation, highly inter-correlated items can be identified. Since it is advisable to have a scale with highly correlated items (DeVellis, 1991), seven constructive deviance items with low item-total correlations were eliminated.

In addition, item variances were examined. Since it is better to have scale items with relatively high variances in order to discriminate between people who score low or high on the construct of interest (DeVellis, 1991), eight items with low item variances were deleted. Based on the item analyses, 21 items were deleted.

As a result, 20 items of the measure remained. An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) with oblique rotation was performed on these remaining items to assess the underlying structure of the measure. Based on the theoretical framework, two forms of constructive deviance were expected to emerge -- organizational and interpersonal constructive deviance. The interpretation of the scree plot and the factor analysis,

however, suggested a three-factor solution. The results of the EFA are presented in Table 1 below.

**Table 1: Exploratory Factor Analysis for 20-Item Scale (Sample 1, N=122)**

| | Factor Loadings | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Item | **Innovative Organizational Deviance** | **Challenging Organizational Deviance** | **Interpersonal Deviance** |
| 1. Developed creative solutions to problems. | **0.58** | 0.06 | 0.05 |
| 2. Searched for innovative ways to perform day to day procedures. | **0.77** | 0.11 | -0.12 |
| 3. Experimented with new procedures. | **0.81** | -0.01 | -0.09 |
| 4. Decided on unconventional ways to achieve work goals. | **0.68** | 0.10 | 0.09 |
| 5. Departed from the accepted tradition to solve problems. | **0.74** | 0.04 | 0.01 |
| 6. Introduced a change to improve the performance of your work group. | **0.61** | -0.01 | 0.17 |
| 7. Obtained information from people outside your company to solve problems. | **0.38** | -0.12 | 0.20 |
| 8. Sought to bend or break the rules in order to perform your job. | -0.00 | **0.72** | -0.05 |
| 9. Took risks to do things differently. | 0.35 | **0.55** | -0.07 |
| 10. Had fresh perspectives on old problems. | **0.58** | 0.14 | -0.09 |
| 11. Violated company procedures in order to solve a problem. | -0.05 | **0.65** | 0.13 |
| 12. Departed from organizational procedures to solve a customer's problem. | 0.20 | **0.48** | 0.12 |
| 13. Bent a rule to satisfy a customer's needs. | 0.06 | **0.63** | 0.04 |
| 14. Departed from dysfunctional organizational policies or procedures to solve a problem. | 0.06 | **0.64** | 0.05 |
| 15. Reported a wrong-doing to co-workers to bring about a positive organizational change. | 0.22 | 0.01 | **0.49** |
| 16. Departed from organizational requirements in order to increase the quality of services or products. | 0.14 | **0.35** | 0.31 |
| 17. Did not follow the orders of your supervisor in order to improve work procedures. | -0.04 | 0.28 | **0.45** |
| 18. Disagreed with others in your work group in order to improve the current work procedures. | 0.18 | -0.13 | **0.59** |
| 19. Disobeyed your supervisor's instructions to perform more efficiently. | -0.04 | 0.23 | **0.50** |
| 20. Reported a wrong-doing to another person in your company to bring about a positive organizational change. | -0.11 | 0.11 | **0.62** |

The first two factors represent acts of constructive deviance that are directed toward the organization. While factors 1 and 2 both reflect behaviors of organizational constructive deviance, the two factors represent different forms of organizational constructive deviance. The first factor consists of eight items that represent innovative behaviors and unconventional ways to help the organization. Examples include searching for innovative ways to perform day to day procedures and developing creative solutions to problems. Therefore, factor 1 was labeled "innovative organizational deviance".

The second factor contains seven items that describe behaviors that outwardly challenge the existing norms of the organization and break the rules in order to help the organization. Examples include breaking and bending the rules to perform your job and violating company procedures to solve a customer's problem. Consequently, factor 2 was labeled "challenging organizational deviance".

The third factor contains five items that describe acts of constructive deviance that are directed toward individuals rather than the organization. The items describe people who do not follow the orders of their supervisor or disobey their supervisor's instructions to perform more efficiently. Therefore, the factor 3 was labeled, "interpersonal deviance".

In sum, the exploratory factor analytic results from study 1 suggest a three-factor solution of the constructive deviance measure. In order to cross-validate the three-factor solution obtained in the EFA, a CFA was performed using a second sample.

**Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)**

The second sample consisted of 124 employees enrolled in evening classes in the final year of the B.Com. program and the M.B.A. program at two large universities in Montreal, Canada. Respondents were asked to complete and return the anonymous questionnaires to the researcher. The employees were assured of confidentiality and informed that the responses will be used for research purposes only. Usable data were received from 115 (93%) of the respondents.

Sixty percent (60%) of the respondents were male. The average respondent was 27.81 (SD = 5.63) years old, had 6.24 (SD = 3.82) years experience, and had worked at the company for 3.92 (SD = 3.19) years. Sixty-eight (68%) of the respondents completed a bachelor's degree and 32% completed a college degree. The respondents worked in the following industries: telecommunications and high tech (18.3%), manufacturing (6.1%); pharmaceutical (3.5%); education (6.1%); government and non-profit (3.5%); retail (3.5%); banking/financial services (17.4%); professional services (7%); other service industries (23.3%); and 11.3% did not state in which industry they were employed. The occupational titles of the respondents were as follows: managers (30.4%); clerical staff (16.5%); technical support staff (14%); supervisors (10.4%); line staff (10.4%); executives (5.3%); teachers/educators (5.2%); professionals and consultants (4.3%); and 3.5% did not report their title.

Using the EQS program (Bentler, 1989), a CFA was performed in order to examine the three-factor structure of the 20-item measure that was obtained in the EFA. As stated above, the three-factor model consists of interpersonal deviance and the two separate forms of organizational deviance, innovative and challenging organizational

deviance. The fit of the measurement model was evaluated using the covariance matrix for sample 2. The model goodness of fit was assessed using three indices: the model chi-square, non-normed fit index (NNFI), and comparative fit index (CFI). The CFI was used to evaluate the model since it is resistant to errors associated with sample sizes smaller than 250 (Hu & Bentler, 1995). The CFI value of 0.90 or greater is considered to be a good fit (Bollen, 1989).

The fit indices showed a moderate fit for the three-factor model ($\chi^2$= 409.02, df = 167, p < .00, NNFI = 0.80, CFI = 0.82). The three-factor model was compared to a single-factor and two-factor model to examine whether these alternative models provided a better fit. The single-factor model suggests that a general factor underlies the constructive deviance measure. The two-factor model consists of interpersonal deviance and combines innovative and challenging organizational deviance, the two forms of organizational deviance into one factor. The fit indices showed a poor fit for the one-factor ($\chi^2$= 571.94, df = 170, p < .00, NNFI = 0.67, CFI = 0.70) and two-factor model ($\chi^2$= 540.30, df = 169, p < .00, NNFI = 0.70, CFI = 0.73). The results suggest that the fit of the two-factor model is only slightly better than a one-factor model.

Since the three-factor model provided the best fit, the three-factor model was modified to improve the fit. The examination of the factor loadings, as well as the results of the Wald and Lagrangian Multiplier tests suggested that deleting four items would improve the fit. After deleting three items from the innovative organizational (item #3, 7, 10) and one item from the challenging organizational (item # 9) deviance scale, the fit of the model improved and most of the indices were within acceptable ranges ($\chi^2$= 200.82, df = 101, p < .00, NNFI = 0.88, CFI = 0.90).

The innovative organizational deviance factor (5 items) and challenging organizational deviance factor (6 items) and the interpersonal deviance factor (5 items) were combined to produce three sub-scales. The items for the final 16-item scale are presented in Table 2 below.

**Table 2: Items for Final Constructive Deviance Scale**

Innovative Organizational Deviance

1. Developed creative solutions to problems.
2. Searched for innovative ways to perform day to day procedures.
3. Decided on unconventional ways to achieve work goals.
4. Departed from the accepted tradition to solve problems.
5. Introduced a change to improve the performance of your work group.

Challenging Organizational Deviance

1. Sought to bend or break the rules in order to perform your job.
2. Violated company procedures in order to solve a problem.
3. Departed from organizational procedures to solve a customer's problem.
4. Bent a rule to satisfy a customer's needs.
5. Departed from dysfunctional organizational policies or procedures to solve a problem.
6. Departed from organizational requirements in order to increase the quality of services or products.

Interpersonal Deviance

1. Reported a wrong-doing to co-workers to bring about a positive organizational change.
2. Did not follow the orders of your supervisor in order to improve work procedures.
3. Disagreed with others in your work group in order to improve the current work procedures.
4. Disobeyed your supervisor's instructions to perform more efficiently.
5. Reported a wrong-doing to another person in your company to bring about a positive organizational change.

The internal consistency reliabilities of the dimensions of constructive workplace deviance were good. The Cronbach's alpha reliabilities were .90, .86, .80 for the innovative organizational deviance, challenging organizational deviance and

interpersonal deviance sub-scales, respectively. In addition, the sub-scales were significantly correlated with each other. Refer to Table 3 for sub-scale correlations.

**Table 3: Sub-Scale Correlations for Final Constructive Deviance Scale**

| Variable | Innovative Organizational CD | Challenging Organizational CD | Interpersonal CD |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Innovative Organizational CD | **.90**[a] | | |
| 2. Challenging Organizational CD | .52** | **.86** | |
| 3. Interpersonal CD | .55** | .73** | **.80** |

[a] Cronbach alpha are shown on the diagonal.

[b] $p < 0.01$

## Construct Validity Analysis

When developing a new measure, it is also important to establish construct validity. Niehoff and Moorman (1993) state that it is essential to examine the "nomological network validity" of new measures. A measure has convergent validity when it covaries with other measures purported to measure the same or similar constructs (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). A measure has discriminant validity when it has lower or no correlations with constructs that are expected to be distinct and unrelated to each other. Initial evidence for convergent and discriminant validity were found (Galperin, 2001).

In an attempt to assess the convergent validity of the constructive deviance measure, correlations between the constructive deviance and measures conceptually similar to constructive deviance were examined. Convergent validity is demonstrated when high correlations exist between the constructive deviance measure and the related

measures. The relationships between constructive deviance and role innovation, proactive personality, work locus of control and certain forms of organizational citizenship were examined to demonstrate convergent validity using sample 2. More details about the construct validity can be found in Galperin (2001).

***Role Innovation***. Role innovation is the introduction of new behaviors into a role (West, 1987). The innovation literature suggests that newcomers, entrepreneurs, and other individuals who do not accept the norms of the majority can be important sources of innovation. Consequently, it is expected that the constructive deviance measure will correlate positively with role innovation. As expected, role innovation is positively related to the three forms of constructive deviance. As one might expect, role innovation is more strongly related to innovative organizational deviance ($r = 0.44$, $p < 0.01$) compared to challenging organizational ($r = 0.31$, $p < 0.01$) and the interpersonal deviance ($r = 0.28$, $p < 0.01$).

***Proactive Personality***. Proactive personality is the relative stable tendency to effect environmental change (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Proactive people look for opportunities, demonstrate initiative and persevere until they bring about a change (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Consequently, people who have proactive personalities may be more likely to engage in constructive deviance. It is expected that constructive deviance will correlate positively with proactive personality. As expected, proactive personality is positively related to innovative organizational deviance ($r = 0.44$, $p < 0.01$), challenging organizational deviance ($r = 0.21$, $p < 0.05$) and the interpersonal deviance ($r = 0.25$, $p < 0.01$).

***Work Locus of Control.*** Work locus of control is the generalized expectancy that rewards or reinforcements in organizational settings are controlled by one's own actions (internal work locus of control) or outsides forces (external work locus of control) (Spector, 1988). Research suggests that individuals with an internal locus of control are highly creative (Woodman & Schoenfeldt, 1989). Similarly, the entrepreneurship studies indicate that entrepreneurs have an internal locus of control (Jacobowitz & Vidler, 1982). People who have an internal work locus of control may be more likely to engage in constructive deviance. Since low scores represent an internal locus of control, it is expected that constructive deviance will correlate negatively with work locus of control. As expected, work locus of control is negatively related to innovative organizational deviance ($\underline{r} = -0.22$, $\underline{p} < 0.05$). Although the relationships are in the expected directions, work locus of control is not significantly related to challenging organizational deviance ($\underline{r} = -0.14$, n. s.) and the interpersonal deviance ($\underline{r} = -0.15$, n. s.).

***Destructive Deviance.*** Destructive deviance is defined as voluntary behavior that violates the significant norms of the organization and threatens the well-being of the organization and/or its members (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). A low to moderate positive relationship between destructive and constructive deviance is expected. Since destructive and constructive deviance both encompasses behaviors that violate the norms of the organization, a positive relationship between the two is expected. While both destructive and constructive deviance are forms of deviant behavior, it is expected that the two will only be moderately related because contrary to constructive deviance, destructive deviance encompasses behaviors that threaten the well-being of the organization.

As expected, organizational destructive deviance is moderately and positively related to challenging organizational constructive deviance ($r = 0.35$, $p < 0.01$) and interpersonal constructive deviance ($r = 0.35$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, interpersonal destructive deviance is moderately and positively related to challenging organizational constructive deviance ($r = 0.37$, $p < 0.01$) and interpersonal constructive deviance ($r = 0.44$, $p < 0.01$). Contrary to expectation, innovative organizational constructive deviance is not significantly related to organizational destructive deviance ($r = 0.10$, n. s.) and interpersonal destructive deviance ($r = 0.13$, n. s.). Nevertheless, the relationships were in the expected directions.

***Organizational Citizenship Behavior***. According to Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch (1994), organizational citizenship behavior encompasses all positive behaviors that are related to the organization which are performed by individuals. It is expected that advocacy participation and obedience, two forms of citizenship behavior, are related to constructive deviance. Advocacy participation describes behaviors that are targeted at other members of the organization and may show a willingness to be controversial. Since these behaviors are similar to constructive deviance in that they describe innovative behaviors and challenging behaviors, it is expected that the constructive deviance measure will correlate positively with advocacy participation. As expected, advocacy participation is positively related to innovative organizational deviance ($r = 0.53$, $p < 0.01$), challenging organizational deviance ($r = 0.26$, $p < 0.01$) and the interpersonal deviance ($r = 0.32$, $p < 0.01$). The correlations suggest that while constructive deviance is conceptually similar to advocacy participation, they are conceptually different as well.

Obedience, another form of organizational citizenship, encompasses behaviors that represent the respect for organizational rules and policies. Since obedience describes behaviors that follow or obey the rules of the organization rather than the willingness to break the rules for the benefit of the organization, it is expected that constructive deviance will be negatively related to obedience. As expected, obedience is negatively related to challenging organizational deviance ($\underline{r} = -0.23$, $\underline{p} < 0.05$) and the interpersonal deviance ($\underline{r} = -0.22$, $\underline{p} < 0.05$). Although the relationship was in the expected direction, constructive deviance was not significantly related to innovative organizational deviance ($\underline{r} = -0.04$, n. s.).

In addition, it is expected that certain forms of organizational citizenship will not be related to constructive deviance compared to other dimensions of citizenship behavior. Altruism, a form of organizational citizenship behavior, encompasses behaviors that help fellow employees. Civic virtue, another form of citizenship behavior, encompasses behaviors that relate to participation in the political life, such as "speaking up". Since civic virtue is a behavior that relates to the participation in organizational conditions, it is expected that civic virtue will more likely be related to constructive deviance compared to altruism. The measure of constructive deviance will show no correlation with altruism compared to civic virtue. As expected, altruism is not significantly related to innovative organizational deviance ($\underline{r} = 0.06$, n. s.), challenging organizational deviance ($\underline{r} = -0.02$, n.s.), and interpersonal deviance ($\underline{r} = 0.01$, n.s.). On the other hand, civic virtue is more strongly related to innovative organizational deviance ($\underline{r} = 0.21$, $\underline{p} < 0.05$) but not challenging organizational deviance ($\underline{r} = -0.05$, n.s.), and interpersonal deviance ($\underline{r} = 0.17$, n.s.).

By demonstrating no relationships between constructs, one is able to demonstrate discriminant validity. Using the EVLN or **E**xit/**V**oice/**L**oyalty/**N**eglect conceptual framework (Hirschman, 1970) of different responses to dissatisfaction, it is expected that constructive deviance will be unrelated to certain responses of dissatisfaction compared to others.

The EVLN framework proposes that an employee may respond to dissatisfaction in four ways: exit, voice, loyalty, or neglect. In other words, an employee can decide to: (1) exit or withdraw from the organization; (2) voice or appeal to the management to improve the situation; (3) remain loyalty and confident that the situation will improve; or (4) show neglect and display disregardful behavior to other employee (Farrell, 1983).

Exit is defined as the voluntary separation or turnover from the job (Farrell, 1983). Voice is conceptualized as non-required behavior that constructively challenges the system with the intent to improve rather than criticize (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Loyalty encompasses behaviors that represent allegiance to the organization (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Neglect is defined as inattentive behavior and disregard for fellow co-workers (Farrell, 1983). Since voice describes behaviors that are similar to constructive deviance in that both encompass behaviors that challenge the status quo, it is expected that the constructive deviance measure will correlate positively with voice but not exit, loyalty, and neglect. As expected, voice is positively related to innovative organizational deviance ($\underline{r} = 0.36$, $\underline{p} < 0.01$) and the interpersonal deviance ($\underline{r} = 0.21$, $\underline{p} < 0.05$). Contrary to expectations, voice is not significantly related to challenging organizational deviance ($\underline{r} = 0.14$, n.s.), however, the relationship is in the expected direction. The correlations

suggest that while the conceptualizations of constructive deviance and voice are similar, the two concepts differ as well.

As expected, exit was not significantly related to innovative organizational deviance ($r$ = -0.16, n. s.), challenging organizational deviance ($r$ = 0.001, n.s.), and interpersonal deviance ($r$ = 0.02, n.s.). Similarly, neglect was not significantly related to innovative organizational deviance ($r$ = -0.07, n. s.), challenging organizational deviance ($r$ = 0.09, n.s.), and interpersonal deviance ($r$ = 0.13, n.s.). Loyalty was not significantly related to challenging organizational deviance ($r$ = 0.10, n.s.), and interpersonal deviance ($r$ = 0.05, n.s.), however, a significant relationship was found between loyalty and innovative organizational deviance ($r$ = 0.20, $p < 0.05$.).

## Conclusion

In sum, there has been a lack of research in the area of constructive deviance. One reason for the limited research in this area may be that a reliable and valid measure of constructive deviance does not exist. In this study an attempt was made to develop and validate a new measure of constructive deviance. Since this research only initially validates the measure, researchers are encouraged to assess and further validate the scale. Moreover, it is hoped that future researchers will use this measure of constructive deviance to gain a greater understanding of the antecedents and consequences of constructive deviance.

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Note: References not listed above can be found in the Reference section of the main body of the dissertation on pages 241-277.