

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURE AND COUNTERPRODUCTIVE  
WORKPLACE BEHAVIORS: A META-ANALYSIS

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## ABSTRACT

In the last few decades, there has been a growing interest in counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) – behaviors that are deemed harmful to organizations and their employees (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Unfortunately, little knowledge exists on the universality of well-established theories on CWBs across different cultures. Most theories have been developed using studies conducted in the United States and Canada, limiting our ability to confidently extrapolate these theories to other cultures.

In this study, I examine the relationship between culture and CWBs. Specifically, two questions are addressed. First, does culture have a direct relationship with CWBs? Using GLOBE's cultural dimensions, I proposed that these dimensions either *control* or *motivate* deviant behaviors. Second, does culture moderate antecedent-CWB relationships? Using Marcus and Schuler's (2004) four antecedent categories (triggers, external controls, internal controls and propensities), I proposed that GLOBE's cultural dimensions moderate the relationships between each of these four groups of antecedents and CWBs.

I also examined the effects of two methodological moderators (publication bias and source of ratings) on the relationships between antecedent variables and CWBs and examined whether these two methodological moderators could have confounded any observed cultural moderation effects.

To answer these questions, I conducted a meta-analytic study. For the analyses, 450 studies from 25 countries were used. These studies were obtained from peer-reviewed journals, dissertations, theses, conference papers, and unpublished manuscripts. The data were analyzed using weighted least squares regression and psychometric meta-analysis.

Results indicate that high scores on the cultural dimensions (assertiveness and a composite construct consisting of future orientation, humane orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism and uncertainty avoidance) were associated with low scores on interpersonal and organizational deviance. Furthermore, these cultural dimensions strengthened or weakened the relationships between several of the antecedents in Marcus and Schuler's (2004) four categories and CWBs. Finally, some support was found for the moderating effect of the source of CWB ratings, but not publication bias, on the bivariate relationships. However, these two methodological moderators did not completely confound any observed cultural moderation effects.

These findings have implications for research and practice. These implications as well as the limitations of the study are discussed.

**KEYWORDS:** counterproductive work behavior, culture, cultural dimensions, deviance, GLOBE, interpersonal deviance, meta-analysis, organizational deviance, workplace deviance

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## **Introduction**

In the last few decades, there has been a growing interest in the study of counterproductive work behaviors – behaviors that are deemed harmful to organizations and their employees (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Researchers have studied the structure, antecedents and consequences of these behaviors in a bid to understand them better. Indeed, various literatures (e.g., psychological, organizational behavior, sociological) are inundated with both theoretical and empirical work on this subject. Hence, there isn't a scarcity of information on this issue. However, little knowledge exists on the universality of well-established and tested theories on counterproductive workplace behaviors (CWBs) across different cultures. Most CWB theories have been developed using studies conducted in the United States and Canada, limiting our ability to confidently extrapolate these theories to other cultures. Evidence has shown, however, that culture moderates the relationships between various factors and workplace behaviors (e.g., Ng, Sorensen & Yim, 2009), suggesting that the causes of CWBs in these two North American countries may differ from those in other cultures. Indeed, there seems to be a current lack of understanding of what causes CWBs in cultures outside North America. Hence, strategies to prevent or constrain CWBs in non-North American cultures using current theoretical frameworks may prove ineffective.

In this dissertation, I examine the antecedents of CWB across various cultures. Specifically, I address two questions. First, does culture have a direct relationship with CWBs? Cross-cultural research has grown in popularity and due to the vast amount of resources that has been dedicated to this area of research, we now know that culture

strongly influences the behaviors of individuals. For this study, I examine whether culture directly impacts CWBs. Second, does culture indirectly influence CWB by acting as a moderator between antecedent-CWB relationships? Perhaps, ‘what is good for the goose is not good for the gander’. That is, some factors may be strong predictors of deviant behaviors in one culture but weak predictors in another. It is also possible that other factors may be universal predictors of bad behaviors across different cultures. Answering these two questions may help us to better understand cultural influences on CWB, thereby making a significant contribution to the CWB literature. Perhaps even more importantly, results of these studies may aid organizations in different cultures prevent and reduce CWB.

To answer these questions, I conducted a meta-analytic study. A meta-analysis combines the results of multiple studies “to reveal simpler patterns of relationships that underlie research literatures, thus providing a basis for theory development” (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004, p. 17). There are several reasons why conducting a meta-analysis may be better than conducting a primary study for answering the above questions.

First, meta-analysis has proven quite useful in theory development. In this statistical procedure, the relationships (e.g., correlations) between various pairs of constructs are calculated. These relationships provide the basic building blocks for developing theory and can be further examined using other statistical methods such as structural equation modeling and path analysis (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). As the purpose of this dissertation is to make a theoretical contribution to the counterproductive

work behavior literature by examining the relationships between culture and other constructs, this methodology is appropriate.

Second, primary studies usually suffer from a host of methodological issues such as sampling and measurement error, resulting in conflicting findings across studies examining the same issue. Meta-analysis can correct for the distorting effects of these errors and provide better population estimates. Results obtained from meta-analysis are believed to be more accurate and reliable than the results of any single study (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004).

Third, some research questions could be answered without conducting new primary studies but by using readily available studies – “[meta-analysis] prevents the diversion of valuable research resources into truly unneeded research studies. Meta-analysis applications have revealed that there are questions on which additional research would waste scientifically and socially valuable resources” (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004, p. 21). Hundreds of studies have already been conducted on CWB and the research questions posed in this project could perhaps be answered using some of these studies conducted across various cultures.

Finally, meta-analysis aids cross-cultural research in two key ways. First, conducting a primary study may require collaboration with researchers in different countries to test cross-cultural hypotheses. Researchers may lack the resources to properly conduct such a study. Second, because a meta-analysis utilizes research findings from around the globe, thereby simplifying the logistics involved in conducting a primary study, it increases the quality of moderator analysis as more cultures can be

used, as compared to a primary study. For example, a researcher conducting a primary study to answer the proposed questions might only be able to collect data from a small subset of countries. However, a literature search for the purpose of this study revealed relevant studies from about 25 countries around the globe.

### **The Nature and Structure of Counterproductive Work Behaviors.**

Counterproductive work behaviors refer to “any intentional behavior on the part of an organizational member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interests” (Gruys & Sackett, 2003, p. 30). Synonyms used in the literature for these behaviors include antisocial behaviors (e.g., Giacalone, Riordon, & Rosenfeld, 1997), deviance (e.g., Robinson & Bennett, 1995), destructive behaviors (e.g., Warren, 2003, Murphy, 1993), misbehaviors (e.g., Southey, 2010) and bad behaviors (e.g., Griffin & Lopez, 2005). These are broad terms that represent a host of specific negative workplace behaviors including absenteeism, lateness, theft, sabotage, substance use, hostility, obstructionism, verbal aggression and sexual harassment.

A few criteria have been proposed for labeling or defining work behaviors as counterproductive. First, the behaviors should be intentional and volitional (Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Marcus & Schuler, 2004). Behaviors that lead to negative consequences but are accidental are not considered counterproductive. For example, an employee that deletes an important document from a work computer has not engaged in a CWB, provided the behavior occurred unintentionally. Intentionally engaging in CWB may indicate a motivation to violate organizational norms or may simply indicate a lack of

motivation to conform to these norms (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Kaplan, 1975). It should be noted that although individuals may intentionally engage in bad behaviors, they may not intend to cause harm (Marcus & Schuler, 2004). For example, an employee may deliberately miss a day of work with the sole intention of attending to some personal business and not with the intention of negatively affecting organizational productivity.

Second, although the behaviors are potentially harmful, they need not actually lead to any harm (Marcus & Schuler, 2004). For example, a bus driver who operates a school bus while under the influence of alcohol may be fortunate enough not to get into an accident. However, the seriousness and gravity of his action as a CWB cannot be refuted.

Third, the behaviors could be directed at either the organization (e.g., poor attendance and misuse of time and resources) or other individuals within the workplace (e.g., inappropriate verbal actions; Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

Fourth, the perpetrators of these CWBs should typically be organizational members and not outsiders (e.g., clients or patients). Unwanted behaviors from outsiders can be quite harmful, lead to negative consequences and tend to be a source of concern for organizations and their employees. However, these behaviors are sometimes harder to control than those perpetrated by organizational members. In addition, organizations are primarily concerned with controlling the behaviors of their employees (Gruys & Sackett, 2003).

Fifth, the behaviors should be contrary to the *legitimate* interest of the organization (Sackett, 2002). Employees may engage in behaviors that are contrary to

the interest of the organization and yet, these behaviors may not be deviant or wrong. For example, a star employee who decides to accept a better job offer in another organization or a whistle-blower who exposes wrongdoing within an organization are both engaging in actions that are contrary to the interest of the organization but these actions are not considered counterproductive (Sackett, 2002).

Prior to the 1980s, research on CWB focused primarily on specific behaviors such as unexcused absenteeism, lateness and theft. Researchers lacked general frameworks or comprehensive theories that could be used to study these behaviors. In the early 1980s, researchers began to explore the underlying structure of CWB and today various frameworks have been proposed to explain this structure. A key debate that has emerged from this area of research is the number of factors that explain the underlying structure of CWB. Some researchers have argued for a general factor (e.g., Sackett, 2002), others have argued for two factors (e.g., Bennett & Robinson, 2000) and still others have argued for more than two factors (e.g., Gruys & Sackett, 2003). To date, no conclusion has been reached.

One of the earliest attempts to study the structure of CWB was conducted by Hollinger and Clark. They developed a list of CWB and classified these behaviors into two broad categories: property deviance and production deviance. They defined property deviance as “instances where employees acquire or damage the tangible property or assets of the work organization without authorization” (Hollinger & Clark, 1982, p. 333). Behaviors under this category include theft and sabotage. On the other hand, they defined production deviance as, “behaviors, which violate the formally proscribed norms

delineating the minimal quality and quantity of work to be accomplished” (Hollinger & Clark, 1982, p. 333). These behaviors include tardiness and slow or sloppy work.

In 1995, Robinson and Bennett noted that although Hollinger and Clark’s framework provided a useful starting point in classifying CWB, it was not comprehensive as it failed to take into account behaviors directed at individuals. Using multidimensional scaling techniques, they found that CWB could be categorized along two dimensions – the target of these behaviors (individuals versus organizations) and the seriousness of these behaviors (minor versus serious) resulting in four categories – production deviance, property deviance, political deviance and personal aggression. Behaviors subsumed under production and property deviance target the organization and represent minor and more serious forms of CWB respectively. In addition, these categories are consistent with those of Hollinger and Clark that are identically named. On the other hand, behaviors categorized under political deviance and personal aggression target individuals and represent minor and serious forms of CWB respectively.

The seriousness dimension of Robinson and Bennett’s framework represented a quantitative, rather than a qualitative distinction and as a result, the authors dropped this dimension from their framework in a later study. This resulted in a modified framework with two categories: organizational and interpersonal deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). They also developed a measure of workplace deviance with two scales that measured each of the two constructs. Today, this measure is one of the most widely used instruments in the study of CWB.

Gruys and Sackett (2003) argued that although Bennett and Robinson's (2000) framework provided some insight into the underlying structure of CWB, a few issues regarding the dimensionality of CWB still remained. Specifically, the authors were concerned with the ways in which behaviors within each of the two dimensions co-varied. To examine this issue, they proposed an 11-factor model of CWB and conducted two studies using different methodologies to confirm their model.

By the mid-2000s, the debate on the best way to classify CWB had still not been resolved. In 2006, Spector and his colleagues argued that one- or two- factor models of CWB might obscure relationships between antecedents and specific forms of these negative behaviors. To better understand the causes of CWB, they argued for finer-grained frameworks. Using their 45-items Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C), they proposed a five-factor model of CWB (abuse toward others, productive deviance, sabotage, theft and withdrawal). Similar to Bennett and Robinson (2000), Spector et al. also proposed that CWB could be categorized according to the targets of these behaviors - organizational and personal deviance.

The debate on the underlying structure of CWB is likely to go on for a while. Strong arguments exist for both a general CWB factor solution and multiple factor solutions. Proponents of a general CWB factor argue that the correlations typically found between CWB are generally positive and moderate, indicating that a general factor may underlie all counterproductive behaviors (e.g., Sackett, 2002). Those that favor multiple-factor models argue that although the correlations between CWB factors are high, different sets of antecedents predict these factors, indicating their distinctiveness (e.g.,

Spector et al., 2006). It should be noted that evidence likewise shows that different CWB factors have similar relations with various antecedents (e.g., Berry et al., 2007).

Additionally, proponents of a general CWB factor have argued that although various constructs in this literature have key defining features, they also share substantial conceptual and measurement overlap, indicating the need to synthesize and integrate work in this area (e.g., Raver & Barling, 2008).

Sackett (2002) suggests that while it is reasonable to think in terms of an overall counterproductivity construct, researchers should not dismiss finer-grained models. He proposed a hierarchical model of CWB, with a general factor at the top, a group of CWB (e.g., interpersonal and organizational deviance; Bennett & Robinson, 2000) at the next level and specific behaviors (e.g., absenteeism, theft) at lower levels. He suggested that researchers should focus on the level of analysis that best fits their purpose. If the purpose is to predict broad forms of CWB, then a higher-level construct will suffice. However, if the purpose is to predict specific forms of CWB, then researchers should focus on lower-levels in the hierarchy or more specific behavioral forms.

For the present meta-analytic research, two levels in this proposed hierarchy are used to examine the two research questions. For the first question, which examines culture as a predictor of workplace behaviors, I examine its relationships with organizational and interpersonal deviance. For the second question, which examines culture as a moderator of other predictor-behavior relationships, I examine its relationships with broad forms of CWB (i.e., a general factor will be used).

## **Antecedents of Counterproductive Work Behaviors**

CWB have deleterious outcomes for organizations and their employees.

Organizations lose millions of dollars each year as a result of organization-directed behaviors such as theft and absenteeism (e.g., Martocchio, 1992). CWB directed at individuals also have negative consequences for employees. For example, employees exposed to aggression from other organizational members develop emotional and psychosomatic problems such as gastrointestinal problems, headaches, sleep disturbances and emotional symptoms including anxiety and depression (Leblanc & Kelloway, 2002; Rogers & Kelloway, 1997; Schat & Kelloway, 2000). Employees who fear workplace violence and sexual harassment have been found to suffer from neglect, lower interpersonal job performance ratings and perceptions of injustice. In addition, this fear leads to turnover intentions and decline in productivity levels (Schat & Kelloway, 2000).

Extensive research has led to the discovery of individual and situational variables believed to be predictors of these behaviors. Individual difference variables associated with CWB include the Type A behavior pattern (Baron, Neuman & Geddes, 1999; Evans, Palsane & Carrere, 1987; Neuman & Baron, 1997), trait anger (Douglas & Martinko, 2001), negative affectivity (Folger & Skarlicki, 1998), conscientiousness, emotional stability, agreeableness (Ones, Viswesvaran & Schmidt, 1993), attribution styles (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Martinko & Zellars, 1998), attitudes toward revenge (Douglas & Martinko, 2001), self-control (Marcus & Schuler, 2004), self-monitoring behavior (Neuman & Baron, 1997), integrity (Collins & Griffin, 1998) and some demographic variables such as age, tenure and gender (Dalton & Mesch, 1991; Dalton &

Wimbush, 1998). Some of the findings from this literature have aided researchers in developing selection tools to screen job applicants (see Ones & Viswesvaran, 2001 for a review of some integrity tests used for personnel selection).

Situational factors have also been linked to unwanted behaviors in the workplace. These factors include organizational injustice (e.g., Greenberg & Barling, 1999; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), workplace diversity (Baron & Neuman, 1996), organizational policies, norms and culture (Folger & Skarlicki, 1998) and jobs stressors and stress (Gardner & Martinko, 1998; Spector et al., 2006). Environmental factors have also been found to predict some counterproductive workplace behaviors such as aggression (e.g., Dietz, Robinson, Folger, Baron & Schulz, 2003). In addition, the physical conditions in an organization can foster aggressive work environments. For instance, poor air quality, high noise levels, crowding, poor lighting, uncomfortably high or low temperatures and high humidity have been associated with increased stress and aggression (e.g., Anderson, Anderson & Deuser, 1996; Baron, 1994; Cohn & Rotton, 1997).

For the most part, researchers have classified these antecedents under two broad categories – individual differences and situational variables (see previous paragraphs). One reason for the propensity towards this classification scheme is that typically, research in this area (i.e., predictors of CWB) has taken an intervention focus. For instance, at the individual level of analysis, strategies are usually aimed at personnel selection (e.g., Ones, Viswesvaran & Schmidt, 2003). At the organizational or environmental level of analysis, strategies are aimed at controls (e.g., policies and

procedures; Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, 2006) to prevent or constrain these behaviors (Sackett & DeVore, 2001).

Marcus and Schuler (2004), citing a previous study by Marcus (2001), suggested a second dimension to classify antecedents of CWB – motivation versus control factors. This dimension originates from the sociological and criminology literature and according to the authors, “has engaged [these fields] as much as the person-situation debate did in psychology” (p. 650). For the most part, motivation theorists argue that various factors, internal or external, push individuals towards a life of deviancy or crime. These factors are absent or less forceful for individuals who abstain from deviancy. For example, learning theorists argue that individuals who interact with others who reinforce crime, model crime and possess beliefs that favor crime are at a higher risk of engaging in delinquent acts (Akers, 1985). In addition, strain theorists argue that individuals who are treated in an aversive manner are more likely to engage in crime (Agnew, 1985). Whereas classic strain theories focus on obstacles to reaching goals, general strain theory focuses on a wider range of aversive treatments such as the removal of positive stimuli or addition of negative stimuli (Agnew, 1992).

Control theorists, on the other hand, argue that the outcomes of delinquency are attractive to everyone. However, some individuals choose to engage in crime, while others do not. What needs to be explained is not crime itself but the absence of it. These theorists examine controls or barriers in the society that prevent individuals from succumbing to their deviant desires. For example, social control theorists argue that strong attachment to conventional others, commitment to conventional pursuits and goals,

involvement in conventional activities and the acceptance of conventional beliefs prevent individuals from engaging in delinquency (Hirschi, 1969). In addition, proponents of self-control theory argue that individuals who do not commit crimes or deviant acts possess the ability to restrain themselves from acting on their immediate impulses (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990).

Using these two dimensions (i.e., person-situation and motivation-control), Marcus (2001; as cited in Marcus & Schuler, 2004) comprehensively classified the predictors of CWB into four categories: internal controls (person-control), propensities (person-motivation), opportunities (situation-control) and triggers (situation-motivation). Figure 1 is an illustration of this classification system.

Internal controls refer to, “all stable individual differences that can act as a barrier against the occurrence of [CWB]” (Marcus & Schuler, 2004, p. 650). Self-control is possibly the most evident personality trait falling under this rubric (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). Other personality traits that have been found to protect against CWB include cognitive ability (Dilchert, Ones, Davis, & Rostow, 2007) and conscientiousness (Fallon, Avis, Kudisch, Gornet, & Frost, 2000).

Propensities refer to, “any stable individual difference that drives people toward [CWB] by making the desired outcomes or the course of action itself appear more attractive to those at the high end of the disposition” (Marcus & Schuler, 2004, p. 651). They include traits such as aggression, hostility and trait anger that have been found to prompt aggressive and violent behaviors in individuals (e.g., Aquino, Galperin & Bennett, 2004; Bettencourt, Talley, Benjamin, & Valentine, 2006; Herschovis et al.,

Figure 1. Marcus and Schuler's Classification System

		<b>EXPLANATORY MECHANISM</b>	
		<b>Motivation</b>	<b>Control</b>
<b>SOURCE OF VARIATION</b>	<b>Situation</b>	<p><b><u>Triggers</u></b></p> <p>(E.g., organizational injustice, job dissatisfaction, stressors, victimization)</p>	<p><b><u>Inhibitors</u></b></p> <p>(E.g., organizational commitment, CWB norms, sanctions, job insecurity)</p>
	<b>Person</b>	<p><b><u>Propensities</u></b></p> <p>(E.g., aggressive traits, trait hostility, negative affectivity, risk-taking behaviors, trait anger)</p>	<p><b><u>Internal Controls</u></b></p> <p>(E.g., agreeableness, conscientiousness, positive affectivity, self-control)</p>

2007). They also include sensation-seeking traits that push individuals towards risky behaviors that are delinquent such as drug use and abuse (e.g., Arnett, 1996; Horvath & Zuckerman, 1993; White, Labouvie & Bates, 1985; Wood, Cochran, Pfefferbaum & Arneklev, 1995).

Opportunities refer to, “any situation or perception of the situation that facilitates (or constrains) the exertion of an act of [CWB] by enhancing (or restricting) access to desired outcomes or by making the negative consequences for the actor less (or more) likely or costly” (Marcus & Schuler, 2004, p. 650). These include the cultures, norms and policies in organizations that sanction against these behaviors (e.g., Nicholson & Johns, 1985; Robinson & O’Leary-Kelly, 1998). In addition, some societal-level factors (e.g., unemployment rates; Schnabel & Stephan, 1993, as cited in Marcus & Schuler, 2004) and some job attitudes (e.g., organizational commitment; Meyer et al., 2002) may guard against CWB by increasing the perceived costs of engaging in these behaviors. In line with its definition and to prevent possible ambiguity, I have decided to rename this construct – ‘inhibitors’ – for the purpose of the current study. Variables assigned to this category will henceforth be referred to as inhibitors.

Finally, triggers refer to, “external events or internal perceptions of such events that can provoke [CWB] as a response” (Marcus & Schuler, 2004, p. 650). A significant amount of research on CWB falls under this category (Marcus & Schuler, 2004) and include job dissatisfaction, organizational injustice, pay cuts and other stressors in the environment that *trigger* bad behaviors in the workplace (e.g., Duffy, Ganster & Shaw, 1998; Fox & Spector, 1999).

Marcus and Schuler's framework builds on the classification systems that have typically been used in psychological (i.e., individual differences versus situational factors) and sociological (i.e., motivation versus control factors) research to classify the antecedents of deviant behaviors and provides a more comprehensive system than others that, to my knowledge, are currently available in the literature. For this reason, I use this framework as a guiding scheme for the purpose of this study. Specifically, I examine culture as a situational variable that either acts as a control or motivating factor. I also use the results of their study to support my propositions.

## **Culture**

In the late 1960s, Geert Hofstede became interested in cultural differences across nations and was presented with the opportunity to study the values of employees working in IBM in 50 countries around the world. He discovered that the nations differed along four dimensions – power distance, collectivism versus individualism, femininity versus masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance. Later, he added a fifth dimension (long-term versus short-term orientation; Hofstede, 2001). His work became a catalyst for cross-cultural research.

More recently, 170 investigators in 62 cultures around the world have worked on the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program (GLOBE). They measured culture at the levels of the industry, organization and society and examined the ways in which culture affected societal, organizational and leadership effectiveness. Results from this project revealed nine cultural dimensions – performance

orientation, assertiveness, future orientation, humane orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance. Although some of these dimensions are similar to those proposed by Hofstede, new dimensions were unveiled (e.g., institutional collectivism, humane orientation).

Although numerous researchers have conducted cross-cultural research, little work has been done to examine the direct or indirect relationships between culture and CWB. In addition, cross-cultural researchers have typically focused their attention on only a limited number of dimensions (e.g., individualism-collectivism and power distance). In fact, the individualism-collectivism dimension has received the most research attention, making authors of cross-cultural reviews, within various content domains, call for more empirical work beyond this cultural dimension (Gelfand, Erez & Aycan, 2007; Kirkman, Lowe & Gibson, 2006; Taras, Kirkman & Steel, 2010; Tsui, Nifadkar & Ou, 2007). It is likely that some cultural dimensions receive more empirical attention because they are thought to possess greater predictive power than other dimensions. Interestingly, however, there is little evidence to support this claim. In their meta-analysis, Taras et al. decided to examine this issue. Specifically, they were interested in examining whether significant differences exist in the overall predictive power of Hofstede's original four cultural dimensions. The results of their study were inconclusive. At the individual level of analysis, differences across dimensions were negligible. At the group level of analysis, masculinity had the greatest predictive power, while power distance had the least predictor power. Finally, at the national level of

analysis, individualism had the most predictive power, while masculinity had the least predictive power. However, they noted that the difference in findings at the individual level of analysis versus aggregate level of analysis could be as a result of limited data for the analyses at the aggregate level, suggesting that differences in the overall predictive power of the cultural dimensions may be non-significant. Examining the influence of a wider range of cultural dimensions on organizational behavior may fill some gaps in the literature. For this reason, in the present research, I examine the relationships between all GLOBE's cultural dimensions and CWB.

Most cross-cultural researchers have used Hofstede's dimensions to examine their research questions. Fewer studies have used the GLOBE dimensions. Of course, this could very well be because the GLOBE project was only recently implemented while Hofstede's study was conducted in the 1960s. There are a few advantages to using the GLOBE dimensions over Hofstede's: (a) the GLOBE findings are particularly strong as the researchers were able to benefit from methodologies developed over a period of five decades and used state-of-the-art methodologies to conduct their research (b) they were able to discover new dimensions that had previously been unavailable for cross-cultural research. Little research has been conducted examining the effects of these new dimensions on behaviors. Studying the effects of these dimensions on workplace behaviors may bring new light to cross-cultural research. For these reasons, the GLOBE cultural dimensions were used for the purpose of this dissertation.

The GLOBE project underwent three main phases. Phase 1 involved the development of research instruments (House & Javidan, 2004). In Phase 2, the

investigators assessed core attributes (i.e., cultural dimensions) of societal and organizational cultures. They collected data from over 17, 000 middle managers in 951 organizations in telecommunications, food processing, and finance industries in 62 societies. They measured cultural *practices* (the way things are) and *values* (the way things should be) at the organizational and societal levels of analysis. Items on the cultural *practices* and cultural *values* instruments were measured on seven-point scales and scores were averaged across individuals in each culture. Using these scores, the 62 cultures were ranked according to their societal dimensions (House & Javidan, 2004). In addition, various research questions were examined. Specifically, the GLOBE investigators examined the relationship between cultural dimensions and several dependent variables (e.g., the Human Development Index, indices of economic prosperity and measures of psychological and physical health of individuals within cultures; House & Javidan, 2004). Findings from this second phase (e.g., cultural dimension practice scores) will be used for the purpose of this study. In Phase 3, the effects of leader behaviors and styles on subordinates workplace attitudes and behaviors were examined (House & Javidan, 2004).

Project GLOBE defines culture as, “shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations” (House & Javidan, 2004, p. 15). As previously stated, this project unveiled nine cultural dimensions. House and Javidan (p.11) describe the dimensions in the following way:

- 1) *Performance orientation* is, “the degree to which an organization or society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence”
- 2) *Future orientation* is “the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies engage in future-oriented behaviors such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying individual or collective gratification”.
- 3) *Humane orientation* is “the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies encourage and reward individuals for being fair, altruistic, friendly, generous, caring and kind to others”
- 4) *Institutional collectivism* is “the degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action”
- 5) *In-group collectivism* is “the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families”
- 6) *Uncertainty avoidance* is “the extent to which members of an organization or society strive to avoid uncertainty by relying on established social norms, rituals, and bureaucratic practices”
- 7) *Gender egalitarianism* is “the degree to which an organization or a society minimizes gender role differences while promoting gender equality”

- 8) *Assertiveness* is “the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in social relationships”
- 9) *Power distance* is “the degree to which members of an organization or society expect and agree that power should be stratified and concentrated at higher levels of an organization or government”

### **Culture as an Antecedent**

A key purpose of this study is to examine the direct relationships between culture and organizational and interpersonal deviance. I propose that GLOBE’s cultural dimensions either *control* deviant behaviors (cultural controls) or *motivate* these behaviors (cultural motivators; see Figure 2). In the following paragraphs, I will provide theoretical explanations for this proposition.

**Cultural motivators.** A cultural motivator could be defined as a societal proclivity that pushes individuals towards deviancy. Three GLOBE dimensions fall under this category: gender egalitarianism, assertiveness and power distance. I discuss each of these cultural triggers in the following paragraphs.

Gender egalitarianism reflects a society’s belief about the roles that individuals should play based on their biological sex. Societies that are more gender egalitarian rely less on biological sex to allocate roles between men and women. They ascribe higher roles and statuses to women and as a result, more women are seen in positions of power and authority and they are also involved in decision-making processes. In addition,

Figure 2. Categorization of GLOBE's Cultural Dimensions using Marcus and Schuler's Classification System

		EXPLANATORY MECHANISM	
		Motivation	Control
SOURCE OF VARIATION	Situation	<p><b><u>Cultural Motivator</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Assertiveness</li> <li>• Gender Egalitarianism</li> <li>• Power Distance</li> </ul>	<p><b><u>Cultural Control</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Future Orientation</li> <li>• In-Group Collectivism</li> <li>• Institutional Collectivism</li> <li>• Performance Orientation</li> <li>• Uncertainty Avoidance</li> </ul>
	Person	N/A	N/A

female education is encouraged, resulting in higher female literacy rates and similar levels of education between the sexes (Emrich, Denmark & Den Hartog, 2004).

Gender egalitarianism consists of an attitudinal component and a behavioral component (Emrich et al., 2004). The attitudinal component reflects the values, attitudes and beliefs a society holds with regards to gender stereotypes and gender role ideologies. In any given society, the stereotypic beliefs about gender attributes determine the roles that are believed to be appropriate or inappropriate for men and women. The manifestation of these attitudes represents the behavioral component of this cultural dimension and includes gender discrimination – “... gender stereotypes and gender-role ideologies play key roles in gender discrimination” (Emrich et al., 2004, p. 350). Members of societies that are less gender egalitarian are more likely to discriminate against others based on their gender. In the workplace, these behaviors may be manifested in counterproductive ways such as inappropriate actions (e.g., verbal abuse, ostracism) against discriminated persons.

GLOBE’s assertiveness dimension reflects the extent to which societies value toughness and aggressiveness in their relationships with others (House et al., 1999). Assertive societies value success, progress and high performance. However, to achieve these goals, individuals engage in behaviors that may be damaging to social relationships – they act aggressively, are highly competitive, value results over people and relationships and see others as opportunistic. These traits may push individuals to engage in deviant behaviors in order to reach their goals and succeed in these societies (Den Hartog, 2004).

Finally, the extent of a culture's power distance may provoke individuals to engage in CWB. Power distance reflects the acceptance of social inequalities within a society. In high power distance cultures, society is differentiated into classes using various criteria (e.g., wealth, authority and education). Power is usually concentrated at the top and possessed by a select few. In addition, upward mobility is limited (Carl, Gupta, & Javidan, 2004). Merton's (1957) strain theory suggests that individuals situated at the low end of the social hierarchy, with little power, wealth or other contingencies, may feel denied of access to their goals through legitimate means. This strain may push them to crime and delinquency, illegitimate means used to achieve their goals. For example, Park (2003) found that societies high on power distance and income disparity had higher corruption levels and proposed that "the majority of people in high income disparity countries, who feel trapped in *structural strain*, seek deviant means such as bribery to achieve their financial goals" (p. 32). Other researchers have made similar discoveries (e.g., Fine, 2010). Hence, high levels of counterproductivity in work organizations may be observed in societies high on power distance.

Therefore, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 1a: Members of organizations embedded in societies that are less gender egalitarian or are high on assertiveness or power distance are more likely to engage in *organizational deviance*, as this cultural dimension acts as a motivator for the enactment of these behaviors.

Hypothesis 1b: Members of organizations embedded in societies that are less gender egalitarian or are high on assertiveness or power distance are more likely to engage in *interpersonal deviance*, as this cultural dimension acts as a motivator for the enactment of these behaviors.

**Cultural controls.** Aspects of a culture that prevent members from engaging in delinquent behaviors, or in crimes by making the outcomes of these acts costly could be referred to as *cultural controls*. These cultural controls prescribe rules and norms that influence behaviors of members in societies. The dimensions falling under this rubric (performance orientation, future orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, humane orientation and uncertainty avoidance) are discussed in the following paragraphs.

In societies high on performance orientation, members are encouraged to be innovative and to perform at high standards (Javidan, 2004). From a young age, children are taught the value of hard work and learn that diligence leads to success. The value of schooling and education is also greatly emphasized. In work organizations, the performance appraisal systems are result-oriented and feedback is considered crucial for improvement. Individuals and groups that are able to produce results and accomplish their goals are valued and rewarded. As a result, individuals in these societies are usually assertive and competitive, have a can-do attitude, take initiative and value material rewards (Javidan, 2004). Members of organizations embedded in these societies may be

less likely to engage in CWB (e.g., misuse of time and resources) as these behaviors will likely hurt performance and productivity.

Societies that are considered high on future orientation value the deferment of gratification and place a higher priority on long-term success; these are qualities that may act as controls against counterproductivity (e.g., theft). Organizations embedded in these societies have longer strategic orientations, are flexible, adaptive and value visionary leadership. On the contrary, societies that are low on this cultural dimension possess fewer such controls. Their members value instant gratification and immediate rewards. They are also less likely to save for the future and have an inclination to spend now. In turn, individuals tend to be unmotivated intrinsically (Ashkanasy, Gupta, Mayfield & Trevor-Roberts, 2004). As a result, members of societies that are low on this dimension may be more likely to engage in CWB (e.g., theft and other related behaviors).

Whereas institutional collectivism is the degree to which a society emphasizes inducements and rewards for collective goals and behaviors, in-group collectivism is the degree to which individuals identify with their family, group, community and organization (Gelfand, Bhawuk, Nishii & Bechtold, 2004). In societies that are high on these dimensions, the collective is more important than the individual. Individuals are integrated into strong cohesive groups, are dependent on these groups and differentiate strongly between in-groups and out-groups. As such, members of these societies have stronger and more extended family structures. For example, marriages are less likely to end in divorce and children are more likely to care for their aged parents. In addition,

group goals are seen as more important than individual ones and members are expected to put group goals ahead of theirs (Gelfand et al., 2004).

In organizations embedded in collective societies, employees tend to be strongly committed to their organizations. More importance is given to teamwork and group rewards than individual contributions. Members of organization also tend to engage in more prosocial and organizational citizenship behaviors than those in less collectivist cultures. Leaders also take greater responsibility for the welfare of their followers. These beliefs and norms in collectivist societies are thought to control the behaviors of individuals. As individuals are expected to act for the interest of the groups, behaviors that are damaging to the collective are strongly discouraged while prosocial behaviors are rewarded (Gelfand et al., 2004). Hence, CWB may be less likely in collective cultures.

Another cultural dimension that may act as a control against delinquency is humane orientation. Recall that this dimension reflects the degree to which societies encourage fairness, altruism, friendliness, generosity and kindness to others (House et al., 1999). Cultures high in this orientation emphasize the importance of others. Individuals have a high need for belonging and affiliation, place great value and importance on family and friends and provide strong social support to each other. Individuals care for the needs and wellbeing not only of those in their close circle (e.g., family and friends), but also of other members of society (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004). In addition, there are strong norms and policies protecting the rights of members of society (e.g., norms against racial discrimination). These values are taught from a young age. For instance, children in these societies are expected to be obedient and are closely controlled by their parents.

They are also expected to care for the needs of their parents when they are older (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004). In a nutshell, countries high in this orientation have strong norms encouraging their members to protect and promote the wellbeing of others. Like in collectivist cultures, these norms help control the behaviors of their members.

The last cultural dimension that falls under the control rubric is uncertainty avoidance. “Uncertainty avoidance involves the extent to which ambiguous situations are threatening to individuals, to which rules and order are preferred, and to which uncertainty is tolerated in society” (De Luque & Javidan, 2004, p.602). Orderliness, consistency, structure, formalized procedures and laws guide societies high on this dimension. Individuals in these societies are more likely to formalize and document their interactions with others. Due to their desire to reduce and avoid uncertainties in their environments, they are less likely to take risks. They also have stronger resistance to change and prefer to maintain the current status quo (De Luque & Javidan, 2004). As a result, organizations in these societies may be more likely to have formalized rules and policies against deviant behaviors. Therefore, I propose the following:

*Hypothesis 2a:* Members of organizations embedded in societies with more cultural controls (performance orientation, future orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, humane orientation or uncertainty avoidance) are less likely to engage in *organizational deviance*, as these cultural dimensions act as controls against the enactment of these behaviors.

*Hypothesis 2b:* Members of organizations embedded in societies with more cultural controls (performance orientation, future orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, humane orientation or uncertainty avoidance) are less likely to engage in *interpersonal deviance*, as these cultural dimensions act as controls against the enactment of these behaviors.

### **Culture as a Moderator**

In the previous section, culture was discussed as a predictor of CWB. Culture may also act as a moderator of the relationships between other antecedents and these behaviors. Recall that Marcus and Schuler (2004) categorized all CWB antecedents along two dimensions (person/situation and control/motivation), resulting in four categories of antecedents: internal controls (person-control), propensities (person-motivation), inhibitors (situation-control) and triggers (situation-motivation). I propose that cultural controls (e.g., uncertainty avoidance) and cultural motivators (e.g., assertiveness) moderate the relationships between each of these four sets of antecedents and CWB.

#### ***Cultural motivators as moderators***

Triggers are factors in the environment that can provoke deviant behaviors (Marcus & Schuler, 2004). These factors include organizational injustice, victimization, and other workplace stressors. I propose that triggers are less likely to incite

counterproductive workplace behaviors in low gender egalitarian, high assertive, and high power distance cultures.

Evidence suggests that in societies with more cultural motivators (e.g., power distance), individuals may react less unfavorably to other stressors in the environment (e.g., injustice, pay cuts). On the contrary, with fewer cultural motivators, the introduction of a stressor may lead to a significant increase in negative behaviors (e.g., Brockner et al., 2001; Kim & Leung, 2007).

For example, in high power distance societies, social inequalities and the status quo are accepted. Injustice and inequity are perceived as legitimate and sanctioned by societal norms. Hence, members of such cultures may not react unfavorably to organization injustice. In low distance cultures, however, injustice may be seen as violating cultural norms and hence, individuals may be more likely to react negatively to it (Brockner et al., 2001; Kim & Leung, 2007; Lam, Schaubroeck & Aryee, 2002; Leung, Su & Morris, 2001; Tyler, Lind & Huo, 2000). Similarly, cultures low on gender egalitarianism are characterized by gender inequality, gender discrimination and occupational sex segregation. These characteristics are accepted as social norms and legitimate and as such, a similar interaction process is expected to occur with this cultural dimension as with power distance.

Furthermore, in high assertive cultures, traits such as aggressiveness, dominance and toughness are valued. These societies do not sympathize with the weak but celebrate the strong. These traits and attitudes make individuals less inclined to react counterproductively to provoking stimuli in the environment such as stressors. Some

evidence in the literature exists for this proposition at the individual level of analysis. For example, Moreno-Jiménez, Rodríguez-Muñoz, Moreno and Garrosa (2007) found that assertiveness attenuates the relationship between workplace inequity and bullying. In their study, those individuals that were victimized were less likely to be adversely affected by the incidents if they had high levels of assertiveness.

*Hypothesis 3:* Cultural motivators (i.e., gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, and power distance) moderate the relationships between triggers (e.g., organizational injustice, workplace stressors) and CWB. Specifically, the relationship between these triggers and CWB will be stronger in cultures with fewer motivators.<sup>1</sup>

Inhibitors (i.e., situation-controls) facilitate or constrain the enactment of CWB by making the consequences of these behaviors more or less costly (Marcus & Schuler, 2004). In controlled situations, individuals are less likely to engage in negative behaviors. Variables falling under this umbrella include sanctions, organizational norms, organizational policies and procedures and unemployment rates. Recall that the presence of cultural motivators in the environment (e.g., assertiveness) increases the likelihood of engaging in deviant behaviors. However, introducing controls in such environments may help reduce the enactment of these behaviors. In their study, Marcus and Schuler (2004) found that provoking factors in the environment moderated the relationships between

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<sup>1</sup> See Figures 3-6 for graphical illustrations of the moderating effects of the cultural dimensions on all proposed relationships.

inhibitors and deviant behaviors, suggesting that in societies with more motivators, organizations with situational constraints may be less susceptible to CWB.

As an illustration, power distance is a cultural motivator that may push individuals towards crime and delinquency. Evidence indicates that this cultural dimension is strongly and positively correlated with corruption at the national level (Fine, 2010). An organization that is embedded in a high power distance society but also enforces policies against bribery, corruption and other related behaviors may be able to curtail these behaviors. However, an organization with little or no sanctions against these behaviors may be particularly susceptible to them. Support for this proposition comes from studies that have found the effects of organizational commitment, a control variable, on workplace behaviors to be greater in cultures that are high on masculinity and power distance (e.g., Cohen, 2006; 2007).

Therefore, I propose the following:

*Hypothesis 4:* Cultural motivators (i.e., gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, and power distance) moderate the relationships between inhibitors (e.g., organizational commitment, workplace norms and sanctions) and CWB.

Specifically, the relationships between these inhibitors and CWB will be stronger in cultures with more cultural motivators.

Internal controls are individual differences that protect against delinquency and play significant roles in constraining CWB (e.g., Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990, Nofziger, 2010). Marcus and Schuler (2004) found that internal controls account for more

variance associated with deviance than any other factor. I propose that the relationships between these internal controls and counterproductive work behaviors will be stronger in high assertive, high power, and low gender egalitarian societies.

For example, assertive societies value success, progress and high performance. However, to achieve these goals, individuals may engage in behaviors that are damaging to other employees and the organization. Possessing high levels of internal controls in such societies may make the enactment of these behaviors less likely, as these personality traits protect against deviancy. However, the restraining effects of these personality traits may be observed less in individuals from societies that have fewer cultural motivators.

Indirect evidence from Marcus and Schuler's (2004) study provides some support for this proposition. The authors found that factors in the environment that push employees towards deviancy also moderate the relationships between internal controls and deviant behaviors. These results imply that with more cultural motivators, individuals with low levels of internal controls are more likely to engage in CWB than those with high levels of these personality traits. I propose the following:

*Hypothesis 5:* Cultural motivators (i.e., gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, and power distance) moderate the relationship between internal controls (e.g., self-control, conscientiousness) and CWB. Specifically, the relationship between these internal controls and CWB will be stronger in cultures with more cultural motivators.

Finally, propensities are individual differences that push people towards CWB (Marcus & Schuler, 2004). I propose that the relationships between these propensities and counterproductive work behaviors will be stronger in societies with high cultural motivators. For example, recall that assertive societies value success, progress and high performance and that individuals embedded in these societies may act aggressively and competitively to achieve these goals. Individuals with high levels of propensities, such as trait aggressiveness, may thrive in such environments, as these traits aid in the achievement of valued goals. However, these traits may further exacerbate the enactment of counterproductive work behaviors.

Some evidence in the literature exists for this proposition. Research indicates that in provoking or aggravating contexts, individuals with high levels of propensities are especially prone to CWB (e.g., Bettencourt et al., 2006). For example, Bettencourt et al conducted a meta-analytic study examining the relationship between personality and aggressive behaviors under provoking (e.g., frustrations, noxious noise) and non-provoking situations. These provoking situations are akin to environmental and cultural factors that motivate or *trigger* deviant behaviors. They found that propensities including trait anger, the Type A personality, dissipation-rumination, emotional susceptibility, narcissism and impulsivity were associated with greater aggressive behaviors but only under provoking conditions. The result of this study suggests that individuals high on propensities are more likely to respond negatively under cultural conditions that may motivate deviant behaviors (in this case, high power distance, high assertiveness, and low gender egalitarianism) than in other situations.

*Hypothesis 6:* Cultural motivators (i.e., gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, and power distance) moderate the relationships between propensities (e.g., trait anger, trait hostility) and CWB. Specifically, the relationship between these propensities and CWB will be stronger in cultures with more cultural motivators.

### ***Cultural controls as moderators***

As previously discussed, cultural controls (i.e., performance orientation, future orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, humane orientation and uncertainty avoidance) inhibit the enactment of deviant behaviors. Societies with fewer of these controls may be more susceptible to the negative influences of other factors in the environment. This proposition can be explained from a statistical standpoint. As members of societies with more controls have reduced opportunities to engage in deviant behaviors, the variance of negative behaviors reported in these societies may be significantly smaller than the variance reported in societies with fewer controls. As a result, the influence of other factors on CWB may be observed more in the latter.

In the paragraphs that follow, I will discuss the moderating effects of cultural controls on four sets of relationships: The relationships between (a) triggers, (b) inhibitors, (c) internal controls, (d) propensities, and counterproductive work behaviors.

Cultural controls may influence the relationships between triggers (situation-motivators) and counterproductive work behaviors. In their study, Marcus and Schuler (2004) found a significant interaction between triggers and controls in the environment, suggesting that in contexts with low situational constraints, triggers are likely to lead to

increased counterproductivity. Extrapolating from this finding, I propose that in societies with fewer cultural controls, the introduction of triggers (e.g., organizational injustice, workplace stressors) may lead to increases in CWB.

There is some evidence for this proposition. For example, Thomas and Pekerti (2003) found that job dissatisfaction, a workplace trigger, has a stronger effect on neglect and turnover intent for employees in New Zealand (an individualistic country) than those in Indonesia (a collectivist country). Recall that collectivism is considered a cultural control. Consistent with this proposition, they also argued that “collectivists would be less affected by situational changes because their behavior is more heavily influenced by cultural norms and perceived duties and obligations.... this effect would be stronger for so-called negative behaviors as opposed to positive behaviors” (p. 272). Therefore, I propose the following:

*Hypothesis 7:* Cultural controls (i.e., performance orientation, future orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, humane orientation and uncertainty avoidance) moderate the relationship between triggers (e.g., organizational injustice, workplace stressors) and CWB. Specifically, the relationships between triggers and CWB will be stronger in cultures with low cultural controls.

Cultural controls may also influence the relationships between other inhibitors and counterproductive work behaviors. I propose that the relationships between these inhibitors and workplace behaviors will be stronger in societies with fewer cultural

controls. Earlier, I argued that the absence of cultural controls in the environment (e.g., low collectivism, low humane orientation) may lead to increases in deviant behaviors. Introducing constraints (e.g., sanctions, policies) into organizations embedded in such societies may help significantly curb unwanted workplace behaviors. However, in societies with more cultural controls, implementing organizational controls may not lead to effects that are as strong or that are as significant.

Support for this proposition is found in empirical work examining the effects of organizational commitment, a situational control, on work-related behaviors (in-role performance, organizational citizenship behaviors and CWB) in different cultures. For example, Agarwal (1993) found a stronger relationship between organizational commitment and work withdrawal in a US sample (an individualist sample) as compared to an Indian sample (a collectivist sample). Furthermore, Oh (1995) found that the relationship between attitudinal commitment and withdrawal behaviors was significantly stronger in a US sample (an individualist sample) than in a Korean sample (a collectivist sample). Therefore, I propose the following:

*Hypothesis 8:* Cultural controls (i.e., performance orientation, future orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, humane orientation and uncertainty avoidance) moderate the relationships between inhibitors (e.g., organizational commitment, workplace norms and sanctions) and CWB. Specifically, the relationships between inhibitors and CWB will be stronger in cultures with fewer cultural controls.

Prior to discussing the moderating effects of cultural controls on the relationships between personality factors (internal controls and propensities) and counterproductive work behaviors, I will briefly discuss the influence of personality traits on behavior in weak and strong situations, as this discussion will pave the way for the formation of the remaining hypotheses.

There is a plethora of research showing the effects of personality and situational variables on workplace behaviors. There is also evidence indicating that these two sets of factors often interact, resulting in inconsistent patterns of personality-behavior relationships across different situations (Mischel, 1977). Situations in which behaviors reflect individual differences are referred to as weak situations, while those that constrain the influence of personality on behaviors are referred to as strong situations - "Situations are likely to matter most when situations are strong, and conversely, personality is likely to matter most when situations are weak... Strong situations constrain options and provide clear signals about what is expected. Uniform expectancies restrict the degree of behavioral variability across individuals, which in turn limit observed personality-behavior relations. In contrast, behaviors are more likely to reflect personality traits when signals and constraints are weak" (Cooper & Withey, 2009, p. 63).

As an illustration, Monson, Hesley, and Chernick (1982) conducted a laboratory study, in which participants were placed in one of three experimental conditions: forced-extraversion, forced-introversion or neutral. The forced-extraversion and forced-introversion represented strong situations, in which confederates either forced participants to become involved in conversations (forced-extraversion) or excluded them

from these conversations without being rude (forced-introversion). In the neutral condition, participants were not forced to be either extroverted or introverted in the conversations. Personality questionnaires were administered to assess the level of extraversion in participants. The authors found that personality traits were more likely to influence participants' behaviors in the neutral condition than in the forced-extraversion or forced-introversion conditions. For example, they expected participants to exhibit more similarity in their behaviors under conditions of high situational constraint (i.e., the forced conditions) than under low situational constraints. Indeed, they found that the variance in the neutral condition was higher than in the other two conditions (i.e., forced-extraversion and forced-introversion conditions). This study indicates that in strong situations, personality traits are less likely to influence behaviors than in weak situations.

As previously discussed, cultural controls represent situational constraints, which could be perceived as strong situations. In societies with high situational constraints, personality traits may influence behavior less than in societies with low constraints. Monson et al. (1982, p. 386) argue that "... since a restriction on the range that a variable can exhibit [in constrained situations] will attenuate the size of the correlation that the variable can exhibit with another variable, a knowledge of individuals' relative positions on trait dimensions should be minimal benefit in predicting their behavior". Therefore, I propose that internal controls and propensities will have significantly stronger relationships with counterproductivity in societies with low situational constraints (i.e., fewer cultural controls) than those with high constraints.

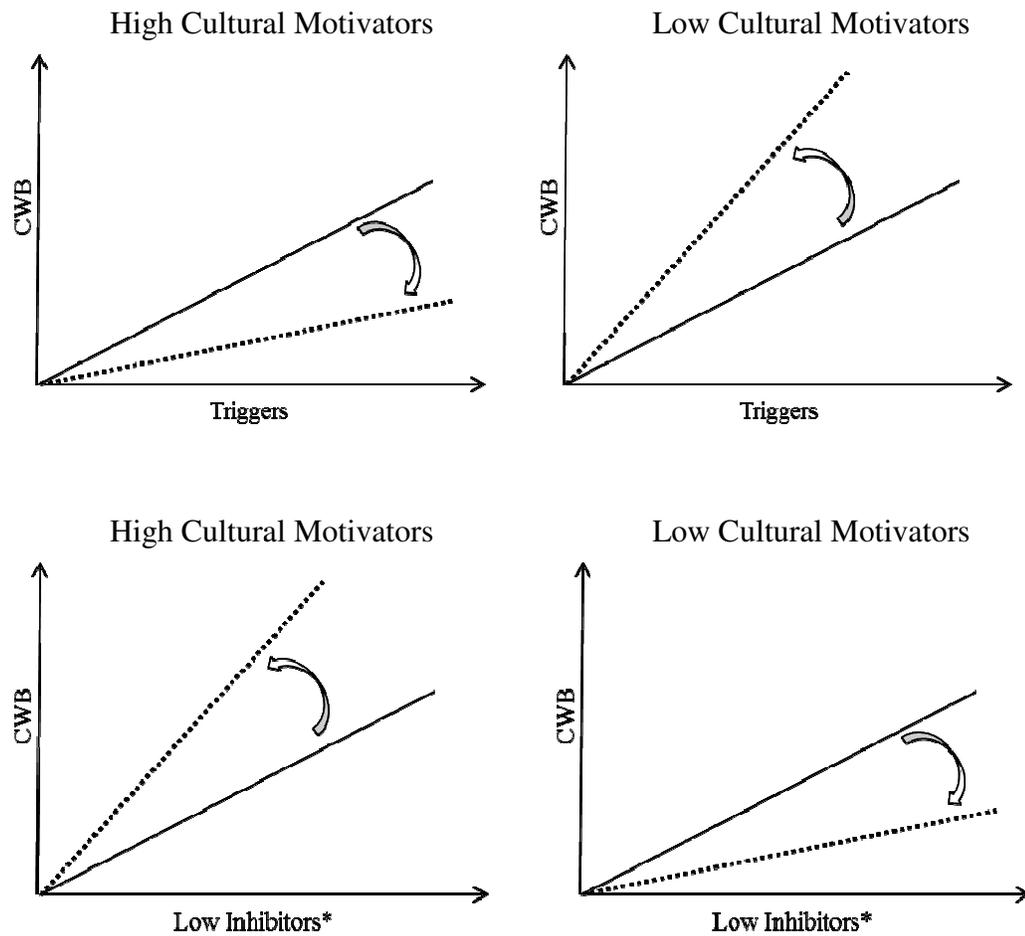
Marcus and Schuler (2004) found that although internal controls significantly influenced CWB at all levels of other environmental controls, this effect became stronger with lower levels of inhibitors. This finding suggests that in societies with fewer cultural controls, employees with low internal controls may be more susceptible to CWB than those with higher levels of internal controls. As a result, I propose the following:

*Hypothesis 9:* Cultural controls (i.e., performance orientation, future orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, humane orientation and uncertainty avoidance) moderate the relationship between internal controls (e.g., self-control, conscientiousness) and CWB. Specifically, the relationships between internal controls and CWB will be stronger in cultures with fewer cultural controls.

In addition, based on theory indicating that personality traits have greater effects on behavior in situations with fewer controls, I propose the following:

*Hypothesis 10:* Cultural controls (i.e., performance orientation, future orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, humane orientation and uncertainty avoidance) moderate the relationship between propensities (e.g., trait anger, trait hostility) and CWB. Specifically, the relationships between propensities and CWB will be stronger in cultures with fewer controls.

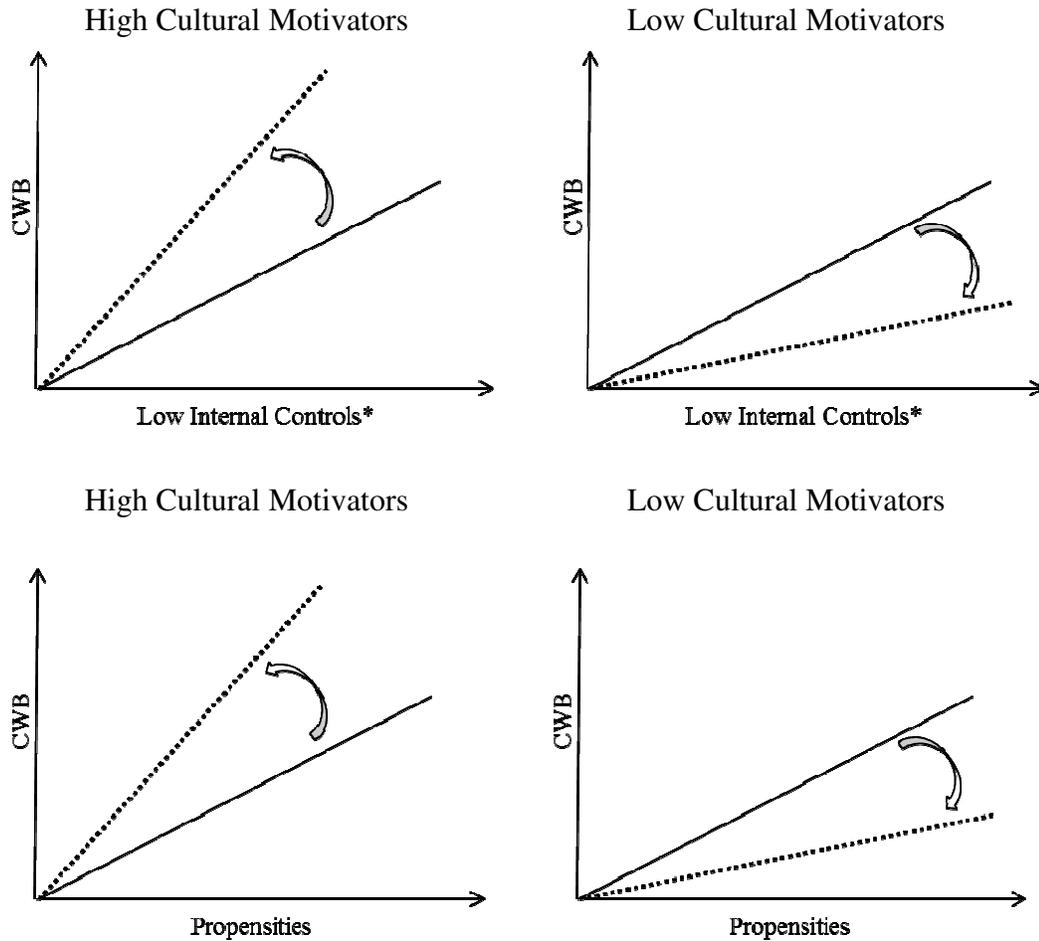
Figure 3. The effects of cultural motivators on the relationships between triggers (Hypothesis 3), inhibitors (Hypothesis 4) and counterproductive work behaviors<sup>2</sup>



\*Note: Inhibitors were reverse coded.

<sup>2</sup> A downward (upward) move from the solid line to the dotted line indicates a weakening (strengthening) of the effect of the antecedent variable on counterproductive work behaviors in the presence of the cultural dimension.

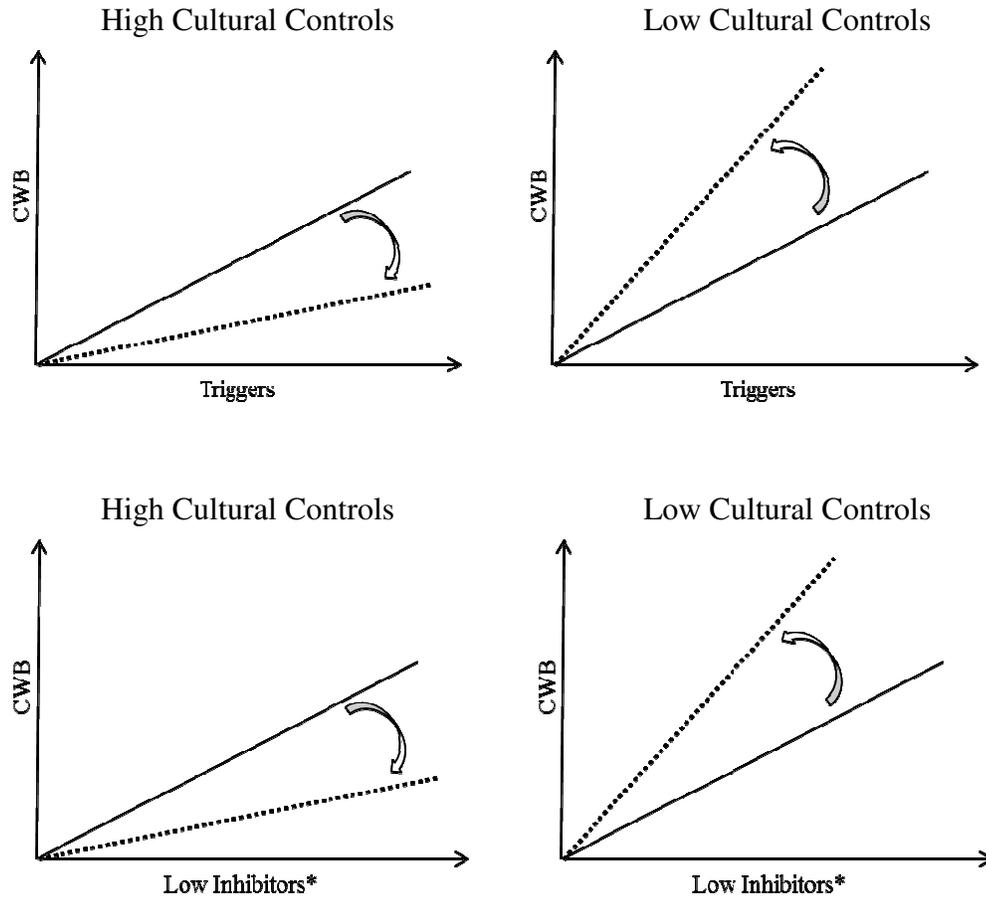
Figure 4. The effects of cultural motivators on the relationships between internal controls (Hypothesis 5), propensities (Hypothesis 6) and counterproductive work behaviors<sup>3</sup>



\*Note: Internal Controls were reverse coded.

<sup>3</sup> A downward (upward) move from the solid line to the dotted line indicates a weakening (strengthening) of the effect of the antecedent variable on counterproductive work behaviors in the presence of the cultural dimension.

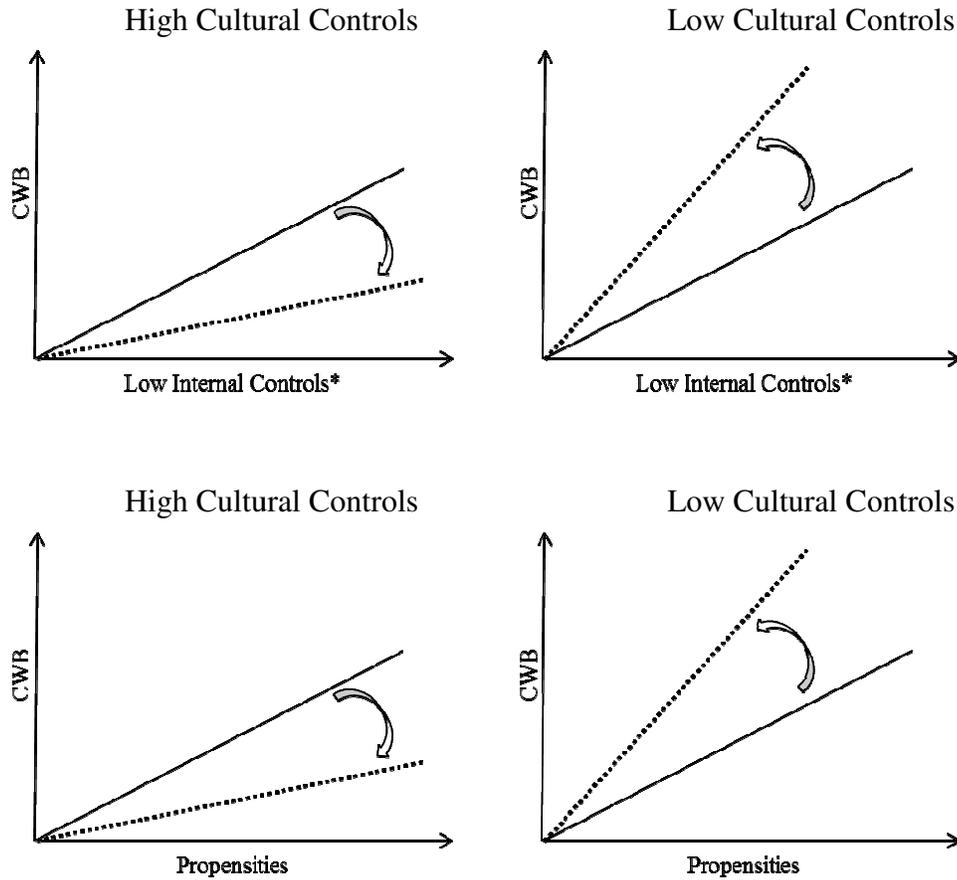
Figure 5. The effects of cultural controls on the relationships between triggers (Hypothesis 7), inhibitors (Hypothesis 8) and counterproductive work behaviors<sup>4</sup>



\*Note: Inhibitors were reverse coded.

<sup>4</sup> A downward (upward) move from the solid line to the dotted line indicates a weakening (strengthening) of the effect of the antecedent variable on counterproductive work behaviors in the presence of the cultural dimension.

Figure 6. The effects of cultural controls on the relationships between internal controls (Hypothesis 9), propensities (Hypothesis 10) and counterproductive work behaviors<sup>5</sup>



Note: Internal Controls were reverse coded.

<sup>5</sup> A downward (upward) move from the solid line to the dotted line indicates a weakening (strengthening) of the effect of the antecedent variable on counterproductive work behaviors in the presence of the cultural dimension.

## **Methodological Moderators**

There is reason to believe that the relationships between the various antecedent variables and counterproductive work behaviors may be moderated by other variables, especially if variability in bivariate correlations is observed. Two of these potential moderators are examined in this paper: publication bias and the source of ratings.

Publication bias has been defined as “the term for what occurs whenever the research that appears in the published literature is systematically unrepresentative of the population of completed studies” (Rothstein, Sutton, & Borenstein, 2005, p. 1). These authors warn that when using only readily available research, which differs from all research that has been conducted in a field, there is a high possibility of drawing erroneous conclusions about what the body of research shows. In fact, evidence suggests that published studies have larger effect sizes than unpublished studies, as reviewers may be biased towards studies that have statistically significant results (Smith & Glass, 1977; Rosenthal & Rubin, 1978). In addition, these studies tend to be better designed (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). As a result, it is expected that effect sizes from peer-reviewed journals will be larger than those from dissertations, theses and even conference articles.

The source of ratings may also moderate the relationships between variables and counterproductive work behaviors. These relationships may be larger when self-reports are used than when other-reports (e.g., supervisor-, peer- or organizational- reports) are used. Most counterproductive work behaviors are not easily observable by others and tend to be private. As a result, others have little basis to rate these behaviors. Even carefully documented organizational reports may only capture a fragment of these

behaviors. In addition, comparing self-ratings of CWB with self-ratings of other variables may inflate effect sizes due to common method variance (Organ & Ryan, 1995). For these two reasons, effect sizes obtained from self-ratings of CWB may be stronger than those obtained from other-ratings of these same behaviors.

### **Present Research**

The purpose of the current study is two-fold. First, the direct relationship between culture and CWBs are examined. I propose that the cultural dimensions could either *control* deviant behaviors (cultural controls) or *motivate* these behaviors (cultural motivators). Second, the moderating effects of these cultural dimensions on antecedent-CWB relationships are examined. For these analyses, the effects of cultural controls and cultural moderators on the relationships between each of Marcus and Schuler's (2004) four antecedent categories (internal controls, propensities, inhibitors and triggers) and counterproductive work behaviors are investigated.

Two studies were conducted (an expert judgment study and a main study). The objective of the main study was to test the discussed propositions. However, prior to testing these propositions, an expert judgment study was conducted to validate the classification schemes used in the study.

### **Expert Judgment Study**

In developing the study's propositions, the antecedent variables and cultural dimensions were classified into higher-order constructs (e.g., *controls* and *motivators*). Prior to testing the hypotheses, it was important to validate this classification system. Specifically, it was important to ensure that the antecedent variables were properly categorized under the four rubrics proposed by Marcus and Schuler (2004): internal controls, propensities, inhibitors and triggers. In addition, the GLOBE cultural dimensions needed to be correctly categorized as either cultural controls or cultural motivators. As a result, an expert judgment study was conducted to answer two key questions:

Question 1: Which antecedent variables fall under Marcus and Schuler's (2004) four categories (i.e., internal controls, propensities, inhibitors and triggers)?

Question 2: Which GLOBE cultural dimensions fall under cultural controls and cultural motivators?

### **Methodology**

Thirteen Industrial/Organizational Psychology (past and current) graduate students were asked to be subject matter experts for the purpose of this study. Ten respondents agreed to this request, representing a 76.92% response rate. Of these subject matter experts, two were master's degree candidates, six already had master's degrees

and two had doctorate degrees. In addition, 60% of these respondents were women. The mean age of participants was 27.30 years ( $SD = 2.45$ ).

The subject matter experts were asked to conduct two similar tasks. Both tasks involved assigning a number of constructs to higher-order categories. Definitions for all constructs and categories were provided. For the first task, the subject matter experts were asked to categorize 26 antecedent variables<sup>6</sup> (e.g., affective commitment, interactional injustice, conscientiousness, aggressive traits) into one of four umbrella categories (internal controls, propensities, inhibitors and triggers). For the second task, they were asked to label the nine GLOBE dimensions as either cultural controls or cultural motivators (see Appendix A for the full instructions and definitions given to the subject matter experts).

For the most part, for a construct to be assigned to a category, an inter-rater agreement of at least 80% needed to be attained across all subject matter experts. In addition, the categorization of these constructs had to be logical from a theoretical perspective. Hence, in situations where strong theoretical rationales existed for placing an antecedent in a category that differed from that proposed by the SMEs, I allowed these theoretical rationales to overrule the SME ratings.

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<sup>6</sup> These 26 variables were chosen using two criteria, which are discussed in detail in the main study (see p. 54)

## **Results and Discussion**

### *Categorization of Antecedent Variables*

Results indicate that five variables were assigned to the internal controls category: agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, positive affectivity and self-control. Indeed, theoretical evidence exists for the protective attributes of these constructs against CWB (e.g., Fallon, Avis, Kudisch, Gornet, & Frost, 2000; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990).

The subject matter experts assigned two constructs to the propensities category: aggressive traits and negative affectivity. As previously discussed, these negative personality traits have been found to prompt aggressive and violent behaviors in individuals (e.g., Aquino, Galperin & Bennett, 2004; Bettencourt, Talley, Benjamin, & Valentine, 2006; Herschovis et al., 2007).

Two constructs were assigned to the inhibitors category: support and sanctions. In addition, the subject matter experts labeled two additional variables as control variables (affective commitment and job involvement), but disagreed on whether these were individual differences or situational variables. In fact, some researchers have argued that job attitudes tend to be a function of both dispositional and situational variables (e.g., Downey, Hellriegel, & Slocum, 1975). However, I decided to categorize them as situational variables, as theoretically, this categorization is more appropriate – for instance, job attitudes have been studied more as outcomes of job conditions (e.g., Farrell, 1983, O'Reilly & Roberts, 1975). Furthermore, evidence suggests that these

variables act as controls against CWB (e.g., Nicholson & Johns, 1985; Meyer et al., 2002)

Two constructs were classified as triggers: CWB norms and job insecurity. However, theoretical evidence suggests that these variables act more as controls. Organizational norms have been defined as, “unwritten rules that prescribe the ways in which all members of an organization should approach their work and interact with one another” (Hammer, Saksvik, Nytro, Torvatn & Bayazit, 2004, p. 84). CWB norms refer to the extent to which there is homogeneity or mutual agreement among group members about deviant patterns (Xie & Johns, 2000). Organizations or work groups with weak CWB norms (e.g., absence norms) tolerate these behaviors and as a result, have weak controls (Robinson & O’Leary-Kelly, 1998). In addition, evidence indicates that unemployment rates are negatively associated with deviant behaviors (e.g., absenteeism), suggesting that individuals perceive insecure jobs as providing little opportunity to engage in deviant behaviors (e.g., Schnabel & Stephan, 1993, as cited in Marcus & Schuler, 2004). This evidence further suggests that insecure job markets act as controls against these behaviors. As a result, these two variables were categorized as inhibitors, and not as triggers, as suggested by the subject matter experts.

Finally, distributive injustice, interactional injustice, procedural injustice, and stressors were categorized as triggers. Indeed, evidence suggests that these variables *trigger* counterproductive work behaviors (e.g., Duffy, Ganster & Shaw, 1998; Fox & Spector, 1999). Victimization was only classified as a trigger by 60% of the subject matter experts. However, strong theoretical justification exists for keeping it in this

category. For example, Andersson and Pearson (1999) explain how victimization, specifically incivility, can spiral into increasingly intense aggressive behaviors. Other researchers have shown that perceived wrongdoing could also escalate into conflicts (e.g., Bies & Tripp, 1995; Felson & Steadman, 1983; Luckenbill, 1977; Pruitt & Rubin, 1986; Youngs, 1986). In other words, perceived victimization can trigger other counterproductive work behaviors. Finally, job satisfaction was classified as an inhibitor but, for theoretical reasons, was re-assigned to the ‘triggers’ category. For example, Hirschman (1970) argued that employees sometimes respond counterproductively to dissatisfying conditions in the workplace. In fact, Farrell (1983) argued that neglectful behaviors observed in employees are responses to dissatisfying workplace conditions - “temporary abandonment and psychological inattention can be monitored and identified as responses to dissatisfaction. When appropriate, they can serve to warn management of lowered organizational effectiveness” (p. 598).

Some antecedent variables (e.g., continuance commitment) were not unequivocally categorized by the subject matter experts. In addition, there were no strong theoretical reasons to place them in one of the four categories. As a result, they were omitted from further analyses.

#### *Categorization of Cultural Dimensions*

Five dimensions were labeled as control variables: future orientation, humane orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism and uncertainty avoidance. Indeed, these variables represent cultural characteristics that restrain members from

engaging in deviant behaviors. On the other hand, only one cultural motivator was identified, assertiveness. This dimension may push individuals to engage in delinquency. Gender egalitarianism, performance orientation and power distance were not unequivocally categorized and as such, are omitted from subsequent analyses.

To reflect the findings from the pilot study, the hypotheses were modified to the following:

*Revised Hypothesis 1a:* Members of organizations embedded in societies that are high on assertiveness are more likely to engage in organizational deviance, as this cultural dimension acts as a motivator for the enactment of these behaviors.

*Revised Hypothesis 1b:* Members of organizations embedded in societies that are high on assertiveness are more likely to engage in interpersonal deviance, as this cultural dimension acts as a motivator for the enactment of these behaviors.

*Revised Hypothesis 2a:* Members of organizations embedded in societies with more cultural controls (future orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, humane orientation or uncertainty avoidance) are less likely to engage in organizational deviance, as these cultural dimensions act as controls against the enactment of these behaviors.

*Revised Hypothesis 2b:* Members of organizations embedded in societies with more cultural controls (future orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group

collectivism, humane orientation or uncertainty avoidance) are less likely to engage in interpersonal deviance, as these cultural dimensions act as controls against the enactment of these behaviors.

*Revised Hypothesis 3:* Cultural motivators (i.e., assertiveness) moderate the relationships between triggers (e.g., organizational injustice, workplace stressors) and CWB. Specifically, the relationships between these triggers and CWB will be stronger in cultures with low assertiveness.

*Revised Hypothesis 4:* Cultural motivators (i.e., assertiveness) moderate the relationships between other inhibitors (e.g., organizational commitment, workplace norms and sanctions) and CWB. Specifically, the relationships between these inhibitors and CWB will be stronger in cultures with high assertiveness.

*Revised Hypothesis 5:* Cultural motivators (i.e., assertiveness) moderate the relationship between internal controls (e.g., self-control, conscientiousness) and CWB. Specifically, the relationships between these internal controls and CWB will be stronger in cultures with high assertiveness.

*Revised Hypothesis 6:* Cultural motivators (i.e., assertiveness) moderate the relationships between propensities (e.g., trait anger, trait hostility) and CWB.

Specifically, the relationships between these propensities and CWB will be stronger in cultures with high assertiveness.

*Revised Hypothesis 7:* Cultural controls (i.e., performance orientation, future orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, humane orientation and uncertainty avoidance) moderate the relationship between triggers (e.g., organizational injustice, workplace stressors) and CWB. Specifically, the relationships between triggers and CWB will be stronger in cultures with fewer controls.

*Revised Hypothesis 8:* Cultural controls (i.e., future orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, humane orientation and uncertainty avoidance) moderate the relationships between inhibitors (e.g., organizational commitment, workplace norms and sanctions) and CWB. Specifically, the relationships between inhibitors and CWB will be stronger in cultures with fewer controls.

*Revised Hypothesis 9:* Cultural controls (i.e., future orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, humane orientation and uncertainty avoidance) moderate the relationship between internal controls (e.g., self-control, conscientiousness) and CWB. Specifically, the relationships between internal controls and CWB will be stronger in cultures with fewer controls.

*Revised Hypothesis 10:* Cultural controls (i.e., future orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, humane orientation and uncertainty avoidance) moderate the relationship between propensities (e.g., trait anger, trait hostility) and CWB. Specifically, the relationships between propensities and CWB will be stronger in cultures with fewer controls.

## **Main Study (Methodology)**

### **Literature Search**

A dictionary of search terms was developed using definitions of CWB in the literature (e.g., Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett, 2002). This dictionary included the following terms and their spelling variants: *Absenteeism, abuse, aggression, alcohol use, antisocial, bad behavior, bullying, collar crime, counterproductivity, cyber-loafing, destructive behaviors, destruction of property, deviance, drug use, dysfunctional behaviors, embezzlement, fraud, harassment, harm-doing, hostility, immorality, incivility, lateness, loafing, long breaks, misbehavior, misconduct, misuse of information, misuse of time and resources, mobbing, noncompliance, poor attendance, poor quality work, retaliation, rudeness, sabotage, sloppy work, slow work, stealing, substance use, tardiness, unethical behaviors, unsafe behaviors, withdrawal, and wrong-doing*. Using this dictionary, keyword searches were conducted on multiple search engines including: ABI/Inform, Google Scholar, ProQuest

Psychology, PsychINFO, Sociofile, Sociological Abstracts and Social Sciences Citation Index. From these searches, relevant journal articles were obtained<sup>7</sup>.

Following this, manual searches were conducted on various peer-reviewed journals to obtain any relevant articles that may have been omitted in the previous searches. These journals are: the *Academy of Management Journal*, *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *Human Performance*, *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *Journal of Management*, *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes and Personnel Psychology*. These searches were conducted from the earliest available date to the end of 2010.

Meta-analytic studies often suffer from the ‘file-drawer’ problem. This usually occurs when researchers only include the results of studies in their analyses that have been published in scientific journals. However, as previously stated, readily available research is not representative of all research that has been conducted in a particular field. Other research studies need to be included in a meta-analysis database to have a more representative sample. Hence, unpublished data were obtained from three additional sources. First, unpublished dissertations and theses were obtained using search engines

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<sup>7</sup> It should be noted that behaviors that did not meet the criteria for being labeled or defined as counterproductive (see pp. 4-6) were excluded from the database. For example, missing work due to illness (i.e., sick absence) is neither intentional nor volitional and as a result, sick absence was not considered counterproductive.

(e.g., ProQuest Dissertation and Theses). Second, researchers that had previously published studies in this area of research were contacted for unpublished data. Finally, the scientific programs of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology's annual conference for three consecutive years (2006, 2007 and 2008) were searched for relevant articles. However, papers from these searches that were later published in peer-reviewed journals and included in previous steps were omitted from the database to avoid duplications.

## **Procedure**

### *Main Effects Analyses*

Recall that for the main effects analyses, I proposed that culture either *controls* deviant behaviors or *motivates* these behaviors. To test this proposition, the relationship between culture and scores obtained on two widely used measures of counterproductive workplace behaviors in the literature were investigated. These two measures are Bennett and Robinson's (2000) Interpersonal and Organizational Deviance measure and Spector et al.'s (2006) Counterproductive Workplace Behavior Checklist (CWB-C). Studies that used these two measures were retained for the purpose of this study.

For the main effects analyses, this resulted in a database of 61 empirical studies with 70 independent samples from 15 countries. Of these samples, 38 were from published articles, while the remaining samples were from other sources (dissertations, conference presentations, and unpublished data).

### *Moderator Effects Analyses*

I also proposed that culture moderates the relationships between antecedents and counterproductive workplace behaviors. To test this proposition, studies that contained empirical data on the association between an antecedent variable and at least one counterproductive behavior were needed. Several variables (over 60) were obtained during the literature search process. However, for theoretical and methodological reasons, only a subset of these variables could be used for the purpose of this study. Three selection criteria were used.

First, for each bivariate relationship (e.g., the relationship between conscientiousness and CWBs), a sufficient number of samples ( $k$ ) were needed to justify running a moderation analysis. Some researchers (e.g., Steel, 2007; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989) recommend that analyses be limited to situations with at least five cases per moderator variable. Taking into consideration the issue of low power that is usually observed when conducting regression analyses within meta-analysis (Hedges & Pigot, 2004) a more conservative rule was applied. Only bivariate relationships with data from at least 20 samples were retained. (As I will discuss in subsequent sections, the highest number of predictor variables in any regression equation was two, allowing for at least ten cases per moderator variable).

Second, for each bivariate relationship, data from multiple and diverse cultures were needed. As culture was to be studied as a moderator, cultural variability among the samples was necessary. Fortunately, antecedent variables that met the first criterion also

met the second criterion, as information on bivariate relationships was available from multiple cultures, with an average of 10 countries per relationship<sup>8</sup>.

Twenty-six antecedent variables met the first two criteria. However, to be used in subsequent analyses, these antecedents needed to fit the study's theoretical framework. In particular, it was important that they could be unequivocally categorized under Marcus and Schuler's (2004) four antecedent categories: internal controls, propensities, inhibitors (opportunities) and triggers. This issue has already been addressed in the expert judgment study (see p. 43). As a brief reminder, the 26 antecedent variables were presented to subject matter experts and with their help, categorization decisions were made on 22 variables. These variables were retained for subsequent analyses.

Tables 1 to 4 display the number of empirical studies, independent samples, represented countries and sample sizes that were obtained for the moderator analyses for the bivariate relationships in each antecedent category.

### *The Coding Process*

Each study was coded to obtain relevant information. Extracted information included sample characteristics (e.g., country of origin), study characteristics (e.g., publication source, source of ratings) and other statistical data (e.g., effect sizes, reliability coefficients, means, and sample size) that were important for the analyses. At least two individuals, industrial and organizational psychology graduate students familiar

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<sup>8</sup> See Appendix B for list of countries that contributed data for the main and moderator effect analyses.

*Table 1. Study Information for Trigger Variables*

	No of. Studies	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	Countries
Burnout	28	31	8010	9
Distributive Injustice	63	68	25002	15
Interactional Injustice	60	64	17780	13
Job Dissatisfaction	187	207	81350	20
Negative Emotions at Work	36	40	8914	6
Procedural Injustice	66	72	23562	14
Stressors	94	101	88839	16
Victimization	59	83	26693	8

*Note.* *k* = Number of samples in analysis; *N* = Total sample size.

*Table 2. Study Information for Inhibitor Variables.*

	No. of Studies	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	Countries
Affective Commitment	40	46	12571	11
CWB Norms	56	71	21756	10
Job Insecurity	19	20	9884	5
Job Involvement	31	34	10062	8
Sanctions	50	56	17686	9
Support	49	60	20067	13

*Note.* *k* = Number of samples in analysis; *N* = Total sample size.

*Table 3. Study Information for Propensity Variables.*

	No. of Studies	$k$	$N$	Countries
Aggressive Traits	58	69	16238	8
Negative Affectivity	55	49	15568	8

*Note.*  $k$  = Number of samples in analysis;  $N$  = Total sample size.

*Table 4. Study Information for Internal Control Variables*

	No. of Studies	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	Countries
Agreeableness	52	66	19725	12
Conscientiousness	79	96	28086	15
Emotional Stability	50	59	19722	9
Positive Affectivity	26	24	7507	5
Self-Control	21	23	5572	4

*Note.* *k* = Number of samples in analysis; *N* = Total sample size.

with the counterproductive work behavior literature, coded the studies independently. As this process involved coding objective, and not subjective, information, inter-rater consensus was quite high (over 90% for each category). Discrepancies between the coders and other errors that occurred during the coding process were resolved and corrected prior to running analyses.

Culture codes (i.e., scores on cultural dimensions) were assigned to each sample in the database. As previously stated, the GLOBE cultural dimensions were used for the purpose of this study. The GLOBE study differentiates between two culture measures – *practices* and *values*. Cultural *practices* were used instead of *values* as they reflect more of a country's reality than its espoused values (Heals et al., 2004). Practice scores reflect how a society *is* in terms of behaviors, practices, proscriptions and prescriptions, while values reflect how it *should be* (House & Javidan, 2004). In addition, evidence indicates that GLOBE's *practice* scores are more correlated with other measures of cultural dimensions (e.g., Hofstede) than *value* scores. For example, GLOBE's power distance and in-group collectivism dimensions are highly correlated with Hofstede's power distance and collectivism dimensions respectively (Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges & de Luque, 2006).

Culture scores were not available for all countries and, in some situations, multiple scores were available for one country. Steps were taken to address these issues, which were present in two countries: Germany and Canada. In the GLOBE study, culture scores were available for East and West Germany. For the purpose of the current study, German samples were assigned the mean of these two sets of culture scores. An average mean

was computed, as the culture scores in these two societies did not differ significantly from each other. In addition, only scores for English-speaking Canadians were available in the GLOBE study. As a result, all Canadian samples in the database, regardless of first language, were assigned these scores.

Recall that in the pilot study, only one cultural dimension was classified as a motivator: assertiveness. On the other hand, five cultural dimensions were labeled as controls. These cultural dimensions are future orientation, humane orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance. Utilizing a formative indicator model, a cultural control composite was formed for each sample by summing the scores on these five cultural dimensions.

Formative indicators have been defined as “variables that define a convenient composite variable where conceptual unity is not a requirement” (Bollen, 2011, p. 360). In this case, the formative indicators are the five cultural dimensions (controls) and summing the scores on these dimensions forms the composite variable. Theoretically, these indicators are viewed as causing, and not being caused by, the latent variable. Variations in the indicators cause variations in the composite variable and not necessarily vice versa. To better explain the use of a formative composite for this purpose, an analogy from the selection literature is provided. Assume two distinctive skills are measured during the selection process for a sales position: (a) understanding the product to be sold and (b) understanding the needs of the customers. Even though each skill is needed to succeed on the job, these two skills need not be related to each other. However, scores measuring these two skills may be combined in a formative composite

of 'sales skills' as they are both related to the criterion (job performance) in similar ways. Subsequently, the higher an applicant scores on this composite, the more it is assumed that the applicant possesses the necessary sales skills needed to succeed on the job. Hence, in a formative construct, assumptions are not made about the relationships between constructs that form the composite.

Theoretically, the cultural control variables are expected to influence counterproductive workplace behaviors in similar ways (i.e., by restraining them), even though these individual dimensions may not necessarily be related or correlated. Moreover, high scores on a cultural control composite (consisting of all five dimensions) are expected to lead to more restraints against deviancy.

## **Data Analysis**

### *Main Effects*

To examine the direct relationship between culture and counterproductive workplace behaviors, regression analyses were conducted. Specifically, the relationships between culture scores (independent variable) and mean scores on two counterproductive work behaviors measures, interpersonal and organizational deviance (dependent variables), were investigated. Mean scores on counterproductive work behaviors were obtained from two sources: (a) Bennett and Robinson's (2000) interpersonal and organizational deviance measures and (b) Spector et al.'s (2006) interpersonal and organizational deviance subscales on the CWB-C measure.

Deviance scores needed to be standardized to allow for comparisons across the measures from the two camps of researchers (i.e., Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Spector et al., 2006). For example, scores on Bennett and Robinson's interpersonal deviance measure needed to be comparable to those on Spector et al.'s interpersonal deviance subscale in order to conduct subsequent analyses. Using standardized scores enabled the accumulation of scores from both measures, thereby increasing sample size ( $K$ ) and statistical power. Standard scores were computed for each of the two deviance measures (i.e., interpersonal and organizational deviance).

To do this, a country was first chosen as a reference group. The weighted means ( $X$ ) and pooled standard deviations ( $SD$ ) of the interpersonal and organizational deviance mean scores from all samples in the country were computed. These statistical values were then used as standards of comparison to compute the standard scores for all other samples using the following formula:

$$\text{Standard Score} = \frac{X_i - X}{SD}$$

Where

$X_i$  = Mean score on a sample

$X$  = Weighted mean score for the reference country

$SD$  = Pooled standard deviation for the reference country

The standard scores indicate how much the mean scores from each sample deviate from the *population mean* of the reference group. For these analyses, the United States

was used as the country of reference for both measures, as it had the largest number of samples and sample size. This enabled the computation of average scores that were closer to the true population means for this country.

To test the main effects hypotheses, weighted least squares (WLS) regression was conducted. In WLS, additional weights are included in the regression equation, which determine how much each observation in the data influence the parameter estimates. This statistical method was selected over other methods (e.g., ordinary least squares) as differences in sample sizes and variances associated with mean scores made it inappropriate to assign equal weights to all standard scores (Björck, 1996). Sample sizes were used as weights.

Two sets of regression analyses were conducted. For these analyses, the predictor variables were the two cultural dimensions (assertiveness and the cultural control composite), while the criterion variables were interpersonal deviance (for the first analysis) and organizational deviance (for the second analysis). The standard deviance scores were regressed onto the culture scores and the sample sizes were entered as weights. It should be noted that the cultural variables (i.e., assertiveness and the cultural control composite) were both entered as predictors in each equation to examine their unique contributions when the effect of the other was controlled.

### *Moderation Analysis*

Psychometric meta-analysis (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004) was used to test the proposed moderation hypotheses. This procedure involves combining data from

individual studies, correcting for sampling error variance and errors in measurement, resulting in better estimates of population parameters.

Corrections for sampling error are done when bivariate correlations from many studies are averaged. This is because sampling error is a random variable with a mean of zero. When many of these errors are summed, they are assumed to cancel each other out. Psychometric analyses also accounts for the effects of sampling error on the variance of the correlations (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004).

Errors in measurement occur when the measures used to compute bivariate correlations have less than perfect reliabilities, leading to observed correlations that are systematically lower than their population estimates (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). These errors are usually found in both variables contributing to a bivariate correlation.

Therefore, to obtain better population estimates, corrections for unreliability in measurement need to be made. Errors of measurement can be eliminated from a meta-analysis in either of two ways: (a) at the level of individual studies or (b) at the level of averages across studies (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). As regression analyses were to be conducted with the data, corrections needed to be done at the individual level.

Unfortunately, complete reliability information was not reported in all the primary studies. Information was only available sporadically. Missing values were obtained by computing the average reliability values for each construct. These values were generated using the primary studies in the database (see Table 5).

In several cases, multiple correlations were available between measures that represent the same operational construct (i.e., measures that are not conceptually distinct)

*Table 5. Reliabilities for Constructs used in the Study*

Variables	Average	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>
Affective Commitment	0.84	45	12487
Aggressive Traits	0.83	58	14467
Agreeableness	0.77	57	17149
CWB Norms	0.78	45	13631
Burnout	0.88	29	7370
Conscientiousness	0.78	80	23020
Distributive Injustice	0.89	62	21029
Emotional Stability	0.83	48	15885
Interactional Injustice	0.91	58	16376
Job Dissatisfaction	0.84	170	69265
Job Insecurity	0.85	11	3200
Job Involvement	0.77	32	8526
Negative Affectivity	0.85	51	14819
Negative Emotions at Work	0.88	36	8331
Positive Affectivity	0.85	24	7141
Procedural Injustice	0.88	66	22467
Sanctions	0.80	43	13196
Self-Control	0.84	18	4889
Support	0.87	60	20067
Victimization	0.90	72	21455
Work Stressors	0.82	85	33461

*Note.* *k* = Number of samples in analysis; *N* = Total sample size.

within a sample. For example, the following two correlations may have been provided in a study: the correlations between (a) affective commitment and absenteeism and (b) affective commitment and lateness. However, for the purpose of the current study, ‘absenteeism’ and ‘lateness’ represent the same operational construct (i.e., counterproductive work behavior). In such situations, linear composites across these conceptually similar measures needed to be formed, as using independent estimates have been found to distort the sampling error variance estimate (Viswesvaran & Ones, 1995). Composites were formed by averaging the component correlations.

To examine the effects of the cultural and methodological moderators on the bivariate relationships, regression analyses were conducted. Similar to the main effect analyses, weighted least square (WLS) regression was employed. There are various statistical techniques that can be used to detect moderation within meta-analytic data (e.g., ordinary least squares, hierarchical subgroup analysis). However, WLS has been found to provide the most accurate results (Steel & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2002).<sup>9</sup> A statistical program designed by David Wilson and specifically written to conduct regression analysis within meta-analyses was used for this purpose (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). Following the recommendations of psychometric meta-analysis researchers, each bivariate relationship was weighted by a combination of its sample size ( $N-1$ ) and the reliability of its measures. As a result, the following formula was used to calculate the weight:  $(N-1) * R_{xx} * R_{yy}$ .

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<sup>9</sup> For the methodological moderators, which are categorical in nature, hierarchical subgroup analyses were also conducted and results of these analyses are presented in Tables 16 to 19.

The first set of analyses examined the moderating effect of culture on the bivariate relationships. These moderators were examined regardless of the amount of heterogeneity, or lack thereof, observed among the effect sizes. The predictor variables were the two cultural constructs (assertiveness and the cultural control composite), while the criterion variables were the bivariate correlations (that is, the effect sizes). The bivariate correlations were regressed onto the culture scores, using the predetermined weight discussed in the previous paragraph. Similar to the main effect analyses, the two culture scores (assertiveness and the cultural control composite) were both entered as predictors in each equation to examine their unique moderating effects.

The second set of regression analyses involved the test for methodological moderators (i.e., publication bias and the source of CWB ratings). Unlike the previous analysis, the data were only probed for these moderators if sufficient evidence existed for the absence of homogeneity in bivariate correlations. The degree of variability in effect sizes across studies is typically examined using the  $Q$  statistic, a test defined by Cochran (1954). “The  $Q$  test is computed by summing the squared deviations of each study’s effect estimate from the overall effect estimate, weighting the contribution of each study by its inverse variance. Under the hypothesis of homogeneity among the effect sizes, the  $Q$  statistic follows a chi-square distribution with  $k - 1$  degrees of freedom, with  $k$  being the number of studies” (Huedo-Medina, Sanchez-Meca, Marin-Martinez, & Botella, 2006, p. 194). A significant  $Q$  signals heterogeneity in the effect sizes, indicating that they do not estimate a common population correlation.

It should be noted that various statistical tests have been proposed for assessing homogeneity. For example, Hunter and Schmidt (2004) suggested a rule of thumb - if sampling error accounts for 75% or more of the observed variability, then the distribution is homogenous (i.e., the 75% rule). Researchers may probe for moderators if the sampling error accounts for less than 75% of observed variability. Other methods for detecting heterogeneity include the inclusion of zero (0) in the credibility interval around the corrected  $r$  and the size of this interval (e.g., Whitener, 1990). In a study, Sagie and Koslowsky (1993) compared the accuracy levels of seven techniques in detecting the presence of moderators and found the  $Q$  statistic to be superior to other techniques, but comparable to the 75% rule, for detecting heterogeneity.

If results indicated a significant  $Q$ , the data were probed for the two methodological moderators. These categorical variables were dummy-coded: publication status<sup>10</sup> (1 = peer-reviewed journal, 0 = other publications) and source of ratings (1 = self-ratings, 0 = other-ratings). The constructs were entered into the regression equation as predictors, while the bivariate relationships represented the criteria. The regression was conducted using the predetermined weight discussed earlier.

It is possible that any observed cultural moderation effect could have been confounded by the methodological moderators (i.e., publication bias and source of ratings). This could happen if the confounding variable (methodological variable) is

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<sup>10</sup> I coded the publication status of the studies (i.e., whether they were obtained from peer-reviewed journals or from other sources such as dissertations). Although publication bias cannot be directly coded, it is my belief that publication status is a strong indicator of publication bias.

significantly correlated with both the predictors (culture variables) and criteria (bivariate relationships). To examine the presence of any spurious relationships, a few steps were taken. First, as stated in the previous paragraph, the moderating effects of the two methodological variables on each bivariate relationship (e.g., job dissatisfaction and counterproductive workplace behaviors) were examined. If one or both variables were significant moderators of a bivariate relationship, and a cultural variable had also been identified as a significant moderator of the same bivariate relationship, then further analyses were conducted. The correlations between the (significant) moderators and the cultural constructs were examined to see whether they covaried in the same sample of interest (e.g., among studies examining the relationships between job dissatisfaction and CWB). If either of the methodological moderators was significantly correlated with a cultural construct, then both were added as predictors in a WLS regression to examine their unique effects on CWB. A significant moderator effect of the cultural variable, even in the presence of the methodological variable, indicates the absence of a spurious relationship. That is, the cultural variable is not confounded by the methodological variable.

## **Results**

### **Main Effects Analyses**

Table 6 displays the number of samples ( $k$ ), overall sample size ( $N$ ), number of countries, overall  $N$ -weighted means and pooled standard deviations for the interpersonal and organizational deviance scales (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Spector et al., 2006) used in the analyses.

*Table 6. Study Information for the Main Effects Analyses*

	No. of Studies	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	Countries	Weighted Mean		Pooled SD	
					B&R	Spector	B&R	Spector
Organizational Deviance	54	65	20174	10	1.83	1.52	0.82	0.44
Interpersonal Deviance	44	55	16488	12	1.81	1.32	0.94	0.22

*Note.* *k* = Number of samples in analysis; *N* = Total sample size; B&R = Bennett and Robinson's deviance measures; Spector = Spector et al.'s (2006) CWB-Checklist.

## Hypotheses Testing

WLS regression analyses were conducted to examine the direct relationships between the culture variables (assertiveness and the cultural control composite) and interpersonal and organizational deviance. For the first equation, the organizational deviance standard scores were regressed on the culture scores and weighted by sample size. Results indicate that the model added significantly to the prediction of organizational deviance,  $F(2, 61) = 3.09, p < .05$ . This model accounted for a small amount of variance in organizational deviance ( $R^2 = .09$ ). In addition, both assertiveness ( $\beta = -0.35, p < .05$ ) and the cultural control composite ( $\beta = -0.36, p < .05$ ) had significant relationships with organizational deviance. However, the relationship between assertiveness and organizational deviance was not in the hypothesized direction (see Table 7). These results provide support for Hypothesis 2a but not Hypothesis 1a.

Similar to the first regression equation, in the second equation, the interpersonal deviance standard scores were regressed on the culture scores and weighted by sample size. Results indicate that the model was not significant  $F(2, 52) = 1.07, p > .05$ . However, although neither assertiveness ( $\beta = -0.24, p > .05$ ) nor the cultural composite variable ( $\beta = -0.25, p > .05$ ) had statistically significant relationships with interpersonal deviance, these associations were in the same direction as the previous analysis (i.e., the relationships between the cultural variables and organizational deviance) providing some support for Hypothesis 2b but not Hypothesis 1a<sup>11</sup> (see Table 7).

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<sup>11</sup> The logic of psychometric meta-analysis implies that for main effects analyses, effect sizes are given more weight than statistical significance in interpreting results (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). As a result,

## Moderator Analyses

Although the purpose of the current study precludes an examination of the bivariate relationships between antecedent variables and counterproductive workplace behaviors, in line with traditional meta-analysis, this information is presented in Tables 8 to 11. These tables display the results of the meta-analysis for each bivariate relationship in the four categories: internal controls, propensities, inhibitors, and triggers. Information provided includes the number of samples ( $k$ ) and overall sample sizes ( $N$ ) associated with each relationship, the corrected effect sizes ( $\rho$ ) after controlling for sampling error and measurement error in both variables, and the standard deviations prior to correcting for sampling error ( $SD_o$ ) and after controlling for this error ( $SD_\rho$ )

The 95% credibility and confidence intervals are also included. These intervals both aid in providing the best estimates of the true bivariate relationships between two constructs of interest (Whitener, 1990). The credibility interval examines the extent to which moderators might account for unexplained variance in effect sizes and is computed from corrected standard deviations (Whitener, 1990). A wide interval indicates the presence of moderators and the lack of generalizability across different situations (Whitener, 1990). On the other hand, the confidence interval estimates the extent to which sampling error remains in the effect size and is computed from standard errors. A

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though the effects of the cultural variables on interpersonal deviance were not *statistically* significant, they were still interpreted as having effects on deviance scores.

*Table 7. Cultural Predictors of Organizational and Interpersonal Deviance*

	Cultural Dimension	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	$R^2$	<i>k</i>
Organizational Deviance	Assertiveness	-1.57*	0.71	-0.35	0.09	63
	Cultural Control Composite	-2.58*	1.13	-0.36		
Interpersonal Deviance	Assertiveness	-0.75	0.57	-0.24	0.04	54
	Cultural Control Composite	-1.28	0.94	-0.25		

*Note.* *k* = Number of samples in analysis

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

Table 8. Corrected Correlations between Internal Control Variables and Counterproductive Work Behaviors

	<i>N</i>	<i>k</i>	$\rho$	$SD_o$	$SD_\rho$	95% <i>CR</i>	95% <i>CI</i>	<i>Q</i>
Agreeableness	19725	66	-0.36	0.19	0.17	-0.70 to -0.01	-0.40 to -0.31	515.17**
Conscientiousness	28086	96	-0.36	0.16	0.15	-0.65 to -0.08	-0.40 to -0.33	428.58**
Emotional Stability	19722	59	-0.24	0.16	0.14	-0.52 to 0.04	-0.28 to -0.20	348.70**
Positive Affectivity	7507	26	-0.16	0.17	0.16	-0.47 to 0.15	-0.23 to -0.10	155.85**
Self-Control	5572	23	-0.31	0.27	0.26	-0.83 to 0.20	-0.42 to -0.19	350.90**

Note. *k* = number of samples in analyses; *N* = total sample size;  $\rho$  = weighted average corrected correlation;  $SD_o$  = observed standard deviation of corrected correlations;  $SD_\rho$  = estimated true/residual standard deviation of corrected correlation; 95% *CR* = 95% credibility interval; 95% *CI* = 95% confidence interval; *Q* = test of heterogeneity.

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

*Table 9. Corrected Correlations between Inhibitor Variables and Counterproductive Work Behaviors*

	<i>N</i>	<i>k</i>	$\rho$	$SD_o$	$SD_\rho$	95% <i>CR</i>	95% <i>CI</i>	<i>Q</i>
Affective Commitment	12571	46	-0.12	0.21	0.20	-0.52 to 0.27	-0.15 to -0.11	422.02**
CWB Norms	21756	71	-0.17	0.33	0.33	-0.81 to 0.47	-0.26 to 0.10	1743.10**
Job Insecurity	9884	20	-0.01	0.20	0.19	-0.38 to 0.37	-0.09 to 0.08	258.64**
Job Involvement	10062	34	-0.09	0.13	0.10	-0.29 to 0.12	-0.13 to -0.04	101.87**
Sanctions	17686	56	-0.16	0.21	0.20	-0.54 to 0.23	-0.21 to -0.10	526.85**
Support	20067	60	-0.14	0.14	0.12	-0.37 to 0.10	-0.17 to -0.10	265.67**

*Note.* *k* = number of samples in analyses; *N* = total sample size;  $\rho$  = weighted average corrected correlation;  $SD_o$  = observed standard deviation of corrected correlations;  $SD_\rho$  = estimated true/residual standard deviation of corrected correlation; 95% *CR* = 95% credibility interval; 95% *CI* = 95% confidence interval; *Q* = test of heterogeneity.

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

Table 10. Corrected Correlations between Trigger Variables and Counterproductive Work Behaviors

	<i>N</i>	<i>k</i>	$\rho$	<i>SD<sub>o</sub></i>	<i>SD<sub>ρ</sub></i>	95% <i>CR</i>	95% <i>CI</i>	<i>Q</i>
Burnout	8010	31	0.29	0.20	0.19	-0.09 to 0.66	0.21 to 0.36	265.46**
Distributive Injustice	25002	68	0.15	0.17	0.16	-0.17 to 0.47	0.11 to 0.19	554.88**
Interactional Injustice	17780	64	0.23	0.18	0.17	-0.09 to 0.56	0.19 to 0.28	472.50**
Job Dissatisfaction	81350	208	0.14	0.19	0.18	-0.22 to 0.50	0.11 to 0.16	2018.18**
Negative Emotions at Work	8914	40	0.32	0.18	0.16	0.00 to 0.63	0.26 to 0.37	222.35**
Procedural Injustice	23562	72	0.19	0.15	0.14	-0.08 to 0.46	0.15 to 0.22	401.54**
Stressors	88839	101	0.12	0.12	0.11	-0.10 to 0.34	0.09 to 0.14	852.16**
Victimization	26693	83	0.36	0.17	0.16	0.05 to 0.66	0.31 to 0.39	673.75**

*Note.* *k* = number of samples in analyses; *N* = total sample size;  $\rho$  = weighted average corrected correlation; *SD<sub>o</sub>* = observed standard deviation of corrected correlations; *SD<sub>ρ</sub>* = estimated true/residual standard deviation of corrected correlation; 95% *CR* = 95% credibility interval; 95% *CI* = 95% confidence interval; *Q* = test of heterogeneity.

\**p* < .05

\*\**p* < .01

*Table 11. Corrected Correlations between Propensity Variables and Counterproductive Work Behaviors*

	<i>N</i>	<i>k</i>	$\rho$	$SD_o$	$SD_\rho$	95% <i>CR</i>	95% <i>CI</i>	<i>Q</i>
Aggressive Traits	16238	69	0.32	0.17	0.15	0.03 to 0.62	0.28 to 0.36	375.16**
Negative Affectivity	15568	55	0.28	0.19	0.18	-0.07 to 0.63	0.22 to 0.33	455.09**

*Note.* *k* = number of samples in analyses; *N* = total sample size;  $\rho$  = weighted average corrected correlation;  $SD_o$  = observed standard deviation of corrected correlations;  $SD_\rho$  = estimated true/residual standard deviation of corrected correlation; 95% *CR* = 95% credibility interval; 95% *CI* = 95% confidence interval; *Q* = test of heterogeneity.

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

confidence interval that excludes zero suggests a significant and positive or negative relationship between the two variables of interest (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001).

Finally, the  $Q$  statistics are also provided in the tables. As previously discussed, these statistics provide information on the degree of variability in effect sizes across studies. A significant  $Q$  signals heterogeneity in effect sizes, indicating that they do not estimate a common population correlation. If results indicated a significant  $Q$ , the data were probed for the two methodological moderators.

## **Hypotheses Testing**

### **Cultural Moderators**

One of the main research questions in this study examines the moderating effects of culture on the strength of the relationships between variables in the four antecedent categories (triggers, inhibitors, internal controls and propensities) and counterproductive workplace behaviors. To examine these effects, WLS regression analyses were conducted.

#### *Triggers*

Recall that eight variables were assigned to this category: burnout, distributive injustice, interactional injustice, job dissatisfaction, procedural injustice, negative emotions at work, stressors, and victimization. I proposed that these variables would have stronger relationships with counterproductive behaviors in low assertive cultures (*Hypothesis 3*) and in cultures with fewer controls (*Hypothesis 7*). Eight regression

analyses, one for each bivariate relationship, were conducted. Both cultural variables (assertiveness and the cultural control composite) were entered as predictors in the regression equations to examine their unique effects. On the other hand, the bivariate relationships were entered as the criteria and the analyses were run using the predetermined weights  $((N-1)*R_{xx}*R_{yy})$ . Results of the eight regression analyses are presented in Table 12.

Results indicate that the  $Q$  statistics<sup>12</sup> for seven regression models were significant: distributive injustice ( $Q(2,62) = 157.38, p < .001$ ), interactional injustice ( $Q(2,59) = 51.69, p < .001$ ), job dissatisfaction ( $Q(2, 200) = 44.55, p < .001$ ), procedural injustice ( $Q(2,66) = 22.18, p < .001$ ), negative emotions at work ( $Q(2, 36) = 51.70, p < .001$ ), stressors ( $Q(2, 97) = 10.23, p < .01$ ), and victimization ( $Q(2, 76) = 9.18, p < .01$ ). The regression model for burnout ( $Q(2, 28) = 3.88, p > .05$ ), however, was not significant.

Some support was found for *Hypothesis 3* but only in the bivariate relationships between the organizational injustice constructs and counterproductive workplace behaviours. Specifically, the relationships between distributive injustice ( $\beta = 1.38, p < .01$ ), interactional injustice ( $\beta = 0.50, p < 0.01$ ), and procedural injustice ( $\beta = 0.55, p < 0.01$ ) and CWB were stronger in cultures with reduced assertiveness.

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<sup>12</sup> The  $Q$  statistics for the regression analyses differ from those associated with the bivariate relationships analyses and which were discussed in earlier sections. Whereas the latter provide information on the homogeneity in effect sizes across different samples, the former is a homogeneity test for the regression model and indicates whether the model is statistically significant (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). In this case, a significant  $Q$  statistic indicates how well the independent variables (i.e., moderators) predict the dependent variable (i.e., the bivariate effect sizes).

*Table 12. Regression Analysis: Assertiveness and the Cultural Control Composite as Moderators of Trigger-CWB Relationships*

Antecedent	Moderators	$B^{13}$	$SE B$	$\beta$	$R^2$	$df$ (Model, Residual)	$Q$ statistic
Burnout	Assertiveness	0.22	0.15	0.34	.02	2, 28	3.88
	Cultural Control Composite	0.09	0.05	0.41			
Distributive Injustice	Assertiveness	-0.23**	0.02	-1.38	.35	2, 62	157.38**
	Cultural Control Composite	0.05**	0.00	1.39			
Interactional Injustice	Assertiveness	-0.12**	0.02	-0.50	.12	2, 59	51.69**
	Cultural Control Composite	0.03**	0.00	0.57			
Job Dissatisfaction	Assertiveness	0.06**	0.01	0.11	.02	2, 200	44.55**
	Cultural Control Composite	-0.02	0.00	-0.16			
Negative Emotions	Assertiveness	0.64**	0.09	0.79	.27	2, 36	51.70**
	Cultural Control Composite	0.16**	0.03	0.69			

<sup>13</sup> Supplementary information to aid in the interpretation of Tables 12 to 15 is provided below each table. For example, information is provided on the expected direction (i.e., valence) of the regression coefficients and if these hypotheses were supported.

Procedural Injustice	Assertiveness	-0.10**	0.02	-0.55	.06	2, 66	22.18**
	Cultural Control Composite	0.02**	0.00	0.55			
Stressors	Assertiveness	0.05*	0.02	0.35	.01	2, 97	10.23**
	Cultural Control Composite	-0.01**	0.00	-0.41			
Victimization	Assertiveness	0.16**	0.06	0.22	.02	2, 76	9.18**
	Cultural Control Composite	0.05**	0.02	0.22			

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*Note.*  $\rho$  = weighted average corrected correlation;  $Q$  = homogeneity test for the regression model, which indicates whether the model is statistically significant.

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

*Supplementary Information to Aid the Interpretation of Table 12*

Antecedent	Moderators	Hypothesized <i>Beta</i> Direction	Results
Burnout	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Not Significant
	Cultural Control Composite	Negative (-)	Not Significant
Distributive Injustice	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Negative (-)	Not Supported
Interactional Injustice	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Negative (-)	Not Supported
Job Dissatisfaction	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Not Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Negative (-)	Not Significant
Negative Emotions	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Not Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Negative (-)	Not Supported
Procedural Injustice	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Negative (-)	Not Supported
Stressors	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Not Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Negative (-)	Supported
Victimization	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Not Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Negative (-)	Not Supported

Contrary to *Hypothesis 3*, the relationships between job dissatisfaction ( $\beta = 0.11, p < .01$ ), negative emotions at work ( $\beta = 0.79, p < .01$ ), stressors ( $\beta = 0.35, p < .05$ ), victimization ( $\beta = 0.22, p < .01$ ) and counterproductive work behaviors were all significantly stronger in cultures with high assertiveness. In addition, although not significant, this association was in the same direction for burnout ( $\beta = 0.34, p > .05$ ). These associations were not in the hypothesized direction.

Little support was found for *Hypothesis 7*. Specifically, as proposed, the relationship between stressors ( $\beta = -0.41, p < .01$ ) and counterproductive work behaviors was significantly stronger with fewer cultural controls. In addition, although not significant, the relationship between job dissatisfaction and CWB ( $\beta = -0.16, p > .05$ ) was in this same direction.

However, contrary to *Hypothesis 7*, the relationships between distributive injustice ( $\beta = 1.39, p < .01$ ), interactional injustice ( $\beta = 0.57, p < .01$ ), negative emotions at work ( $\beta = 0.69, p < .01$ ), procedural injustice ( $\beta = 0.55, p < .01$ ), and victimization ( $\beta = 0.22, p < .01$ ) and counterproductive work behaviors were significantly stronger in cultures with more cultural controls. In addition, although not significant, this relationship was in the same direction for burnout ( $\beta = 0.41, p > .05$ ). These associations were not in the hypothesized direction.

### *Inhibitors*

Six variables were assigned to the inhibitor category: affective commitment, job insecurity, CWB norms, sanctions, support, and job involvement. I proposed that these

variables would have stronger relationships with counterproductive behaviors in high assertive cultures (*Hypothesis 4*) and in cultures with fewer controls (*Hypothesis 8*).

Results of the six regression analyses are presented in Table 13.

All six regression models were significant: affective commitment ( $Q(2, 42) = 43.84, p < .001$ ), job insecurity ( $Q(2, 17) = 11.97, p < .01$ ), CWB norms ( $Q(2, 66) = 173.16, p < .001$ ), sanctions ( $Q(2, 53) = 31.22, p < .001$ ), support ( $Q(2, 57) = 24.69, p < .001$ ), and job involvement ( $Q(2, 29) = 5.84, p < .05$ ).

Support was found for *Hypothesis 4*. Specifically, the relationships between affective commitment ( $\beta = -0.84, p < .01$ ), job insecurity ( $\beta = -0.60, p < .05$ ), CWB norms ( $\beta = -0.38, p < .01$ ), support ( $\beta = -0.82, p < .01$ ), and job involvement ( $\beta = -0.56, p < .05$ ) and counterproductive work behaviors were significantly stronger with high assertiveness. However, although the relationship between sanctions ( $\beta = 0.44, p < .01$ ) and these behaviors was significantly moderated by cultural assertiveness, this relationship was not in the hypothesized direction.

Some support was also found for *Hypothesis 8*. The relationships between affective commitment ( $\beta = 0.73, p < .01$ ), sanctions ( $\beta = 0.35, p < .01$ ), support ( $\beta = 0.83, p < .01$ ), and job involvement ( $\beta = 0.56, p < .05$ ) and counterproductive work behaviors were stronger with fewer cultural controls. Furthermore, although the moderating effect of the cultural control composite on the relationship between job insecurity ( $\beta = 0.42, p > .05$ ) and counterproductive work behaviors was also in the hypothesized direction, this effect was not significant. However, the relationship between CWB norms ( $\beta = -0.19,$

Table 13 Regression Analysis: Assertiveness and the Cultural Control Composite Moderators of Inhibitor-CWB Relationships

Antecedent	Moderators	B	SE B	Model	R <sup>2</sup>	df (Model, Residual)	Q statistic
Affective Commitment	Assertiveness	-0.19**	0.03	-0.84	.11	2, 42	43.84**
	Cultural Control Composite	0.04**	0.01	0.73			
CWB Norms	Assertiveness	-0.39**	0.03	-0.38	.12	2, 66	173.16**
	Cultural Control Composite	-0.05**	0.01	-0.19			
Job Insecurity	Assertiveness	-0.10*	0.05	-0.60	.05	2, 17	11.97**
	Cultural Control Composite	0.01	0.01	0.42			
Job Involvement	Assertiveness	-0.17*	0.07	-0.56	.06	2, 29	5.84*
	Cultural Control Composite	0.04*	0.02	0.56			
Sanctions	Assertiveness	0.28**	0.05	0.44	.06	2, 53	31.22**
	Cultural Control Composite	0.10**	0.02	0.35			
Support	Assertiveness	-0.14**	0.03	-0.82	.10	2, 57	24.69**
	Cultural Control Composite	0.03**	0.01	0.83			

Note. = weighted average corrected correlation; Q = homogeneity test for the regression model, which indicates whether the model is statistically significant

\* p<.05

\*\* p<.01

*Supplementary Information to Aid the Interpretation of Table 13*

Antecedent	Moderators	Hypothesized <i>Beta</i> Direction	Results
Affective Commitment	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Positive (+)	Supported
CWB Norms	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Positive (+)	Not Supported
Job Insecurity	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Positive (+)	Not Significant
Job Involvement	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Positive (-)	Supported
Sanctions	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Positive (+)	Supported
Support	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Positive (+)	Supported

$p < .01$ ) and deviant behaviors was significantly moderated by the cultural control composite but not in the hypothesized direction.

### *Internal Controls*

Recall that five variables were assigned to the internal controls category: agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, positive affectivity and self-control. I proposed that these variables would have stronger relationships with counterproductive behaviors in high assertive cultures (*Hypothesis 5*) and in cultures with fewer controls (*Hypothesis 9*). Results of the five regression analyses are presented in Table 14.

Results indicate that whereas the regression models for agreeableness ( $Q(2, 63) = 83.23, p < .001$ ), conscientiousness ( $Q(2, 93) = 144.67, p < .001$ ), positive affectivity ( $Q(2, 23) = 5.97, p < .05$ ), and self-control ( $Q(2, 20) = 6.21, p < .05$ ) were significant, that for emotional stability ( $Q(2, 56) = 2.08, p > .05$ ) was not significant.

Little support was found for *Hypothesis 5*. Specifically, the relationships between agreeableness ( $\beta = 0.70, p < .01$ ), conscientiousness ( $\beta = 0.72, p < .01$ ), and self-control ( $\beta = 0.32, p < .05$ ) and counterproductive work behaviours were stronger with low assertiveness. In addition, although not significant, this relationship was also in the same direction for emotional stability ( $\beta = 0.15, p > .05$ ). These moderating effects were in the opposite direction to what was hypothesized. On the other hand, the moderating effect of assertiveness on the relationship between positive affectivity ( $\beta = -0.21, p < .05$ ) and counterproductive work behaviours was significant and in the hypothesized direction

*Table 14. Regression Analysis: Assertiveness and the Cultural Control Composite as Moderators of Internal Control-CWB Relationships*

Antecedent	Moderators	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>df</i> (Model, Residual)	<i>Q</i> statistic
Agreeableness	Assertiveness	0.35**	0.04	0.70	0.19	2, 63	83.23**
	Cultural Control Composite	0.13**	0.03	0.40			
Conscientiousness	Assertiveness	0.34**	0.03	0.72	0.31	2, 93	144.67**
	Cultural Control Composite	0.07**	0.02	0.28			
Emotional Stability	Assertiveness	0.08	0.05	0.15	0.01	2, 56	2.08
	Cultural Control Composite	0.05	0.04	0.13			
Positive Affectivity	Assertiveness	-0.15*	0.07	-0.21	0.05	2, 23	5.97*
	Cultural Control Composite	-0.01	0.01	-0.07			
Self-Control	Assertiveness	0.11*	0.06	0.32	0.02	2, 20	6.21*
	Cultural Control Composite	0.64*	0.27	0.39			

*Note.*  $\rho$  = weighted average corrected correlation; *Q* = homogeneity test for the regression model, which indicates whether the model is statistically significant.

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

*Supplementary Information to Aid the Interpretation of Table 14*

Antecedent	Moderators	Hypothesized <i>Beta</i> Direction	Results
Agreeableness	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Not Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Positive (+)	Supported
Conscientiousness	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Not Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Positive (+)	Supported
Emotional Stability	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Not Significant
	Cultural Control Composite	Positive (+)	Not Significant
Positive Affectivity	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Positive (+)	Not Significant
Self-Control	Assertiveness	Negative (-)	Not Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Positive (+)	Supported

The relationships between agreeableness ( $\beta = 0.40, p < .01$ ), conscientiousness ( $\beta = 0.28, p < .01$ ), and self-control ( $\beta = 0.39, p < .05$ ) and counterproductive work behaviours were stronger with fewer cultural controls. In addition, although not significant, this relationship was also in the hypothesized direction for emotional stability ( $\beta = 0.13, p > .05$ ). These results provide some support for *Hypothesis 9*. However, the moderating effect of the cultural control composite on the relationship between positive affectivity ( $\beta = -0.07, p > .05$ ) and counterproductive work behaviours was neither significant nor in the hypothesized direction.

### *Propensities*

Propensities represent the final category in the theoretical framework used in this study. Two variables were assigned to this category: aggressive traits and negative affectivity. I proposed that these variables would have stronger relationships with counterproductive behaviors in high assertive cultures (*Hypothesis 6*) and in cultures with fewer controls (*Hypothesis 10*). Results of the two regression analyses are presented in Table 15.

Results indicate that the regression models for both variables were significant: aggressive traits ( $Q(2, 66) = 14.40, p < .001$ ) and negative affectivity ( $Q(2, 52) = 51.75, p < .001$ ). Furthermore, the relationships between aggressive traits ( $\beta = 0.48, p < .01$ ) and negative affectivity ( $\beta = 0.36, p < .01$ ) and counterproductive work behaviours were both stronger with high assertiveness. These results provide support for *Hypothesis 6*.

*Table 15. Regression Analysis: Assertiveness and the Cultural Control Composite as Moderators of Propensity-CWB Relationships*

<i>Antecedent</i>	<i>Moderators</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	$R^2$	<i>df(Model, Residual)</i>	<i>Q statistic</i>
Aggressive Traits	Assertiveness	0.12**	0.03	0.48	.04	2,66	14.40**
	Cultural Control Composite	-0.02**	0.01	-0.45			
Negative Affectivity	Assertiveness	0.34**	0.05	0.36	.13	2,52	51.75**
	Cultural Control Composite	0.00	0.01	0.00			

*Note.*  $\rho$  = weighted average corrected correlation;  $Q$  = homogeneity test for the regression model, which indicates whether the model is statistically significant.

\* $p < .05$

\*\* $p < .01$

*Supplementary Information to Aid the Interpretation of Table 15*

<i>Antecedent</i>	<i>Moderators</i>	<i>Hypothesized Beta Direction</i>	<i>Results</i>
Aggressive Traits	Assertiveness	Positive (+)	Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Negative (-)	Supported
Negative Affectivity	Assertiveness	Positive (+)	Supported
	Cultural Control Composite	Negative (-)	Not Supported

Some support was found for *Hypothesis 10*. Specifically, the cultural control composite moderated the relationship between aggressive traits ( $\beta = -0.45, p < .01$ ) significantly and in the hypothesized direction. However, the moderating effect of the cultural control composite on the relationship between negative affectivity ( $\beta = 0.00, p > .05$ ) and counterproductive work behaviours was not significant.

### **Methodological Moderators**

As previously stated, if heterogeneity was observed in effect sizes, indicating that they do not estimate a common population correlation, the data were probed for the effects of two methodological moderators: publication bias and source of ratings. The  $Q$  statistic was used to test for heterogeneity and a significant value signaled that the variability of the effect size is larger than would be expected from sampling error alone (i.e., the presence of heterogeneity; Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). Tables 8 to 11 display the  $Q$  statistic for each bivariate correlation. As illustrated, the statistics for all the bivariate correlations were significant. As a result, the effects of the methodological moderators were examined in all bivariate relationships.

These two categorical variables were dummy-coded: publication status (1 = peer-reviewed journal, 0 = other publications) and source of ratings (1 = self-ratings, 0 = other-ratings). As planned, WLS regression was conducted. The constructs were individually entered into regression equations as predictors, while the bivariate relationships represented the criteria.

### *Publication bias*

It was expected that the effect sizes from peer-reviewed journals would be larger than those from other sources (i.e., dissertations, conference papers, unpublished data). Results of the WLS regression showed 13 significant moderating effects for the following antecedents: agreeableness ( $Q(1, 64) = 4.87, p < .05$ ), conscientiousness ( $Q(1, 95) = 7.52, p < .01$ ), aggressive traits ( $Q(1, 66) = 7.27, p < .01$ ), negative affectivity ( $Q(1, 54) = 14.66, p < .01$ ), CWB Norms ( $Q(1, 68) = 38.09, p < .01$ ), sanctions ( $Q(1, 54) = 8.32, p < .01$ ), support ( $Q(1, 58) = 6.48, p < .01$ ), distributive injustice ( $Q(1, 64) = 46.68, p < .01$ ), interactional injustice ( $Q(1, 61) = 72.05, p < .01$ ), procedural injustice ( $Q(1, 68) = 30.06, p < .01$ ), job dissatisfaction ( $Q(1, 205) = 16.51, p < .01$ ), stressors ( $Q(1, 98) = 156.71, p < .01$ ), and victimization ( $Q(1, 79) = 4.85, p < .05$ ).

An examination of the subgroups (i.e., peer-reviewed journals versus other publications) revealed that in eight of these cases, the effect sizes were larger in peer-reviewed journals. These include: conscientiousness (peer-reviewed journals:  $\rho = -.38, k=66$  versus others:  $\rho = -.33, k=30$ ), aggressive traits (peer-reviewed journals:  $\rho = .34, k=50$  versus others:  $\rho = .28, k=18$ ), negative affectivity (peer-reviewed journals:  $\rho = .30, k=38$  versus others:  $\rho = .22, k=17$ ), sanctions (peer-reviewed journals:  $\rho = -.17, k=35$  versus others:  $\rho = -.12, k=21$ ), distributive injustice (peer-reviewed journals:  $\rho = -.22, k=46$  versus others:  $\rho = -.09, k=20$ ), interactional injustice (peer-reviewed journals:  $\rho = -.29, k=41$  versus others:  $\rho = -.13, k=22$ ), procedural injustice (peer-reviewed journals:  $\rho = -.22, k=53$  versus others:  $\rho = -.12, k=17$ ), and victimization (peer-reviewed journals:  $\rho = .37, k=50$  versus others:  $\rho = .33, k=31$ ). These results were in the expected direction.

On the other hand, the effect sizes of peer-reviewed journals were smaller in the other bivariate relationships including: agreeableness (peer-reviewed journals:  $\rho = -.35$ ,  $k=49$  versus others:  $\rho = -.39$ ,  $k=17$ ), CWB norms (peer-reviewed journals:  $\rho = .14$ ,  $k=42$  versus others:  $\rho = .25$ ,  $k=28$ ), support (peer-reviewed journals:  $\rho = -.12$ ,  $k=34$  versus others:  $\rho = -.17$ ,  $k=26$ ), job dissatisfaction (peer-reviewed journals:  $\rho = -.13$ ,  $k=137$  versus others:  $\rho = -.17$ ,  $k=70$ ), and stressors (peer-reviewed journals:  $\rho = .11$ ,  $k=71$  versus others:  $\rho = .14$ ,  $k=29$ ).

An additional analysis was conducted. The weighted grand means of the effect sizes across all bivariate relationships were computed for the two publication groups (i.e., peer-reviewed journals and those from other sources). Results indicate that the effect sizes from peer-reviewed journals ( $\rho = -.20$ ) did not differ from those from other sources ( $\rho = -.20$ ). (Note that all effect sizes were keyed in the same direction). Overall, these results provide little support for the proposition that the effect sizes in peer-reviewed journals are larger than those from other sources.

### *Source of Ratings*

It was expected that the effect sizes from self-reported deviance would be larger than those from other sources (i.e., peer-ratings, supervisor-ratings and organizational reports). Results of the WLS regression showed 16 significant moderating effects for the following antecedents: agreeableness ( $Q(1, 64) = 34.62$ ,  $p < .01$ ), conscientiousness ( $Q(1, 95) = 7.58$ ,  $p < .01$ ), emotional stability ( $Q(1, 57) = 7.37$ ,  $p < .01$ ), positive affectivity ( $Q(1, 24) = 13.29$ ,  $p < .01$ ), self-control ( $Q(1, 22) = 82.54$ ,  $p < .01$ ), negative affectivity

( $Q(1, 54) = 17.10, p < .01$ ), affective commitment ( $Q(1, 44) = 10.74, p < .01$ ), job insecurity ( $Q(1, 18) = 46.36, p < .01$ ), CWB Norms ( $Q(1, 68) = 34.26, p < .01$ ), sanctions ( $Q(1, 54) = 19.18, p < .01$ ), support ( $Q(1, 58) = 16.68, p < .01$ ), burnout ( $Q(1, 29) = 6.76, p < .01$ ), job involvement ( $Q(1, 31) = 19.14, p < .01$ ), negative emotions at work ( $Q(1, 37) = 15.11, p < .01$ ), stressors ( $Q(1, 98) = 31.96, p < .01$ ), and victimization ( $Q(1, 79) = 13.70, p < .001$ ).

An examination of the subgroups (i.e., self-ratings versus other ratings) revealed that in 12 of these cases, the effect sizes were larger in self-ratings. These include: agreeableness (self-ratings:  $\rho = -.37, k=55$  versus others:  $\rho = -.16, k=11$ ), conscientiousness (self-ratings:  $\rho = -.37, k=71$  versus others:  $\rho = -.32, k=25$ ), positive affectivity (self-ratings:  $\rho = -.20, k=19$  versus others:  $\rho = -.07, k=7$ ), self-control (self-ratings:  $\rho = -.40, k=15$  versus others:  $\rho = -.09, k=8$ ), negative affectivity (self-ratings:  $\rho = .30, k=42$  versus others:  $\rho = .20, k=13$ ), affective commitment (self-ratings:  $\rho = -.15, k=31$  versus others:  $\rho = -.07, k=15$ ), sanctions (self-ratings:  $\rho = -.17, k=43$  versus others:  $\rho = -.05, k=13$ ), support (self-ratings:  $\rho = -.17, k=41$  versus others:  $\rho = -.09, k=19$ ), burnout (self-ratings:  $\rho = .30, k=26$  versus others:  $\rho = .21, k=5$ ), negative emotions at work (self-ratings:  $\rho = .33, k=36$  versus others:  $\rho = .05, k=3$ ), stressors (self-ratings:  $\rho = .20, k=67$  versus others:  $\rho = .08, k=33$ ), and victimization (self-ratings:  $\rho = .36, k=78$  versus others:  $\rho = .21, k=3$ ). These results were in the expected direction.

On the other hand, the effect sizes of self-ratings were smaller in the other bivariate relationships including: emotional stability (self-ratings:  $\rho = -.23, k=47$  versus others:  $\rho = -.30, k=11$ ), job insecurity (self-ratings:  $\rho = .04, k=14$  versus others:  $\rho = -.15,$

$k=6$ ), CWB norms (self-ratings:  $\rho=.15$ ,  $k=50$  versus others:  $\rho=.27$ ,  $k=20$ ), and job involvement (self-ratings:  $\rho=-0.03$ ,  $k=9$  versus others:  $\rho=-.14$ ,  $k=24$ )

Similar to the previous set of analyses, the weighted grand means of the effect sizes across all bivariate relationships were computed for the two sources of CWB ratings (i.e., the self-ratings and those from other sources). Results indicate that the effect sizes from self-ratings ( $\rho = -.23$ ) were larger than those from other sources ( $\rho = -.13$ ). (Note that all effect sizes were keyed in the same direction). Overall, these results provide more support for the proposition that the effect sizes in self-ratings are larger than those from other sources than the previous methodological moderator (i.e., publication bias).<sup>14</sup>

Results reported in the preceding paragraphs revealed that the methodological constructs (i.e., publication bias and source of ratings) moderated several bivariate relationships (see pp. 90-94). In addition, the cultural constructs (i.e., assertiveness and the cultural control composite) also moderated some of these same relationships (see pp. 79-90). It is possible that the observed cultural moderation effects could have been confounded by the methodological moderators. Therefore, it was important to examine whether any spurious relationships were present.

If a methodological variable was a significant moderator of a bivariate relationship, and a cultural variable had also been identified as a significant moderator of this same bivariate relationship, then the biserial point correlation between these two moderators (i.e., the methodological and the cultural construct) was tested for

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<sup>14</sup> See Tables 16 to 19 for full information on regression and subgroup hierarchical analyses for the effects of methodological moderators on bivariate relationships.

Table 16. WLS Regression and Hierarchical Subgroup Analyses for the Effects of Methodological Moderators on Internal Control-CWB Relationships

	<i>N</i>	<i>k</i>	$\rho$
Agreeableness (Overall)	19725	66	-0.36
Journal			
Peer-Reviewed	15805	49	-0.35
Other	3920	17	-0.39
Rater*			
Self	18386	55	-0.37
Other	1339	11	-0.16
Conscientiousness (Overall)	28086	96	-0.36
Journal*			
Peer-Reviewed	21294	66	-0.38
Other	6792	30	-0.33
Rater*			
Self	23096	71	-0.37
Other	4990	25	-0.32
Emotional Stability (Overall)	19722	59	-0.24
Journal			
Peer-Reviewed	14938	41	-0.24
Other	4156	17	-0.23
Rater*			
Self	16733	47	-0.23
Other	2361	11	-0.30
Positive Affectivity (Overall)	7507	26	-0.16
Journal			
Peer-Reviewed	4851	17	-0.16
Other	2656	9	-0.16
Rater*			
Self	5302	19	-0.20
Other	2205	7	-0.07
Self-Control (Overall)	5572	23	-0.31
Journal			
Peer-Reviewed	4900	20	-0.31
Other	672	3	-0.36
Rater*			
Self	3986	15	-0.40

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Other	1586	8	-0.09
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*Note.*  $N$  = total sample size;  $k$  = number of samples in analyses;  $\rho$  = weighted average corrected correlation. Asterisks (\*) indicate that the effect sizes of the subgroups were significantly different.

Table 17. WLS Regression and Hierarchical Subgroup Analyses for the Effects of Methodological Moderators on External Control-CWB Relationships

	<i>N</i>	<i>k</i>	$\rho$
Affective Commitment (Overall)	12571	46	-0.12
Journal			
Peer-Reviewed	10208	34	-0.13
Other	2363	12	-0.11
Rater*			
Self	8681	31	-0.15
Other	3890	15	-0.07
CWB Norms (Overall)	21756	71	0.17
Journal*			
Peer-Reviewed	14014	42	0.14
Other	7322	28	0.25
Rater*			
Self	16316	50	0.15
Other	5020	20	0.27
Job Insecurity (Overall)	9884	20	-0.01
Journal			
Peer-Reviewed	8335	16	-0.02
Other	1549	4	0.10
Rater*			
Self	7433	14	0.04
Other	2451	6	-0.15
Job Involvement (Overall)	10062	34	-0.09
Journal			
Peer-Reviewed	8363	25	-0.08
Other	1279	8	-0.09
Rater*			
Self	4928	9	-0.03
Other	4714	24	-0.14
Sanctions (Overall)	17686	56	-0.16
Journal*			
Peer-Reviewed	11661	35	-0.17
Other	6025	21	-0.12
Rater*			
Self	15053	43	-0.17

Other	2633	13	-0.05
Support (Overall)	20067	60	-0.14
Journal*			
Peer-Reviewed	12770	34	-0.12
Other	7297	26	-0.17
Rater*			
Self	12411	41	-0.17
Other	7656	19	-0.09

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*Note.*  $N$  = total sample size;  $k$  = number of samples in analyses;  $\rho$  = weighted average corrected correlation. Asterisks (\*) indicate that the effect sizes of the subgroups were significantly different.

Table 18. WLS Regression and Hierarchical Subgroup Analyses for the Effects of Methodological Moderators on Trigger-CWB Relationships

	<i>N</i>	<i>k</i>	$\rho$
Burnout (Overall)	8010	31	0.29
Journal			
Peer-Reviewed	6612	26	0.29
Other	1398	5	0.26
Rater*			
Self	6778	26	0.30
Other	1232	5	0.21
Distributive Injustice (Overall)	25002	68	0.15
Journal*			
Peer-Reviewed	15150	46	0.22
Other	6141	20	0.09
Rater			
Self	18527	56	0.18
Other	2764	10	0.19
Interactional Injustice (Overall)	17780	64	0.23
Journal*			
Peer-Reviewed	11288	41	0.29
Other	5846	22	0.13
Rater			
Self	15129	52	0.23
Other	2005	11	0.25
Job Dissatisfaction (Overall)	81350	208	0.14
Journal*			
Peer-Reviewed	60863	137	0.13
Other	20067	70	0.17
Rater			
Self	64157	142	0.14
Other	16773	65	0.15
Negative Emotions (Overall)	8914	40	0.32
Journal			
Peer-Reviewed	3723	22	0.33
Other	4545	17	0.32
Rater*			
Self	7969	36	0.33

Other	299	3	0.05
Procedural Injustice (Overall)	23562	72	0.19
Journal*			
Peer-Reviewed	15002	53	0.22
Other	4808	17	0.12
Rater			
Self	17582	60	0.20
Other	2228	10	0.22
Stressors (Overall)	88839	101	0.12
Journal*			
Peer-Reviewed	79902	71	0.11
Other	8297	29	0.14
Rater*			
Self	24429	67	0.20
Other	63770	33	0.08
Victimization (Overall)	26693	83	0.36
Journal*			
Peer-Reviewed	17646	50	0.37
Other	7773	31	0.33
Rater*			
Self	24649	78	0.36
Other	770	3	0.21

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*Note.*  $N$  = total sample size;  $k$  = number of samples in analyses;  $\rho$  = weighted average corrected correlation. Asterisks (\*) indicate that the effect sizes of the subgroups were significantly different.

*Table 19. WLS Regression and Hierarchical Subgroup Analyses for the Effects of Methodological Moderators on Propensity-CWB Relationships*

	<i>N</i>	<i>k</i>	$\rho$
Aggressive Traits (Overall)	16238	69	0.32
Journal*			
Peer-Reviewed	11534	50	0.34
Other	4071	18	0.28
Rater			
Self	14184	59	0.32
Other	1421	9	0.34
Negative Affectivity (Overall)	15568	55	0.28
Journal*			
Peer-Reviewed	10806	38	0.30
Other	4762	17	0.22
Rater*			
Self	12669	42	0.30
Other	2899	13	0.20

*Note.* *N* = total sample size; *k* = number of samples in analyses;  $\rho$  = weighted average corrected correlation. Asterisks (\*) indicate that the effect sizes of the subgroups were significantly different.

significance, to examine whether the variables covaried in the same sample of interest. If the methodological moderator was significantly correlated with the cultural construct, then both were added as predictors in a WLS regression to examine their unique effects on counterproductive work behaviors. A significant moderator effect of the cultural variable, even in the presence of the methodological variable, indicates that culture is not confounded by the methodological variable.

Although the methodological and cultural variables were both significant moderators of the same bivariate relationships in numerous cases, a methodological moderator was significantly correlated with the cultural constructs in only two cases: (a) in the relationship between agreeableness and counterproductive work behaviors and (b) in the relationship between victimization and counterproductive work behaviors.

In the first bivariate relationship (agreeableness-CWB), the source of ratings and the cultural control composite were significantly correlated ( $r = .25, p < .05$ ). As a result, both variables were entered into a WLS equation as predictors to examine their unique moderating effects. Results indicate that the cultural control composite ( $\beta = -0.12, p < .01$ ) remained a significant moderator of this bivariate relationship, even after controlling for the effect of the source of ratings ( $\beta = -0.26, p < .001$ ).

In the second bivariate relationship (victimization-CWB), the source of ratings was significantly correlated with assertiveness ( $r = .24, p < .05$ ) and the cultural control composite ( $r = -.29, p < .01$ ). These three variables were entered as predictors in a regression equation, in order to examine their unique moderating effects on CWB. Results indicate that assertiveness ( $\beta = 0.22, p < .01$ ) and the cultural control composite

( $\beta = 0.28, p < .001$ ) remained significant moderators of this bivariate relationship, even after controlling for the effect of the source of ratings ( $\beta = 0.20, p < .001$ ).

These results indicate that the effects of culture on the bivariate relationships were not completely confounded by either of the two methodological variables.

## Discussion

The main purpose of this dissertation was two-fold. First, the direct relationship between culture and CWBs were examined. I proposed that the cultural dimensions would either *control* deviant behaviors (cultural controls) or *motivate* these behaviors (cultural motivators). Second, the moderating effects of these cultural dimensions on antecedent-CWB relationships were examined. For these analyses, the effects of cultural controls and cultural motivators on the relationships between each of Marcus and Schuler's (2004) four antecedent categories (internal controls, propensities, inhibitors and triggers) and counterproductive work behaviors were investigated. In addition, the effects of two methodological moderators (publication bias and source of ratings) on these bivariate relationships were examined. Furthermore, I examined whether these two methodological moderators could have confounded any observed cultural moderation effects.

These propositions were studied using a combination of psychometric meta-analysis and weighted least squares regression analysis. These methods were identified as having advantages over other methods for analyzing the data and forming valid conclusions from the analyses.

Overall, some interesting findings emerged from the study. First, the two cultural variables (i.e., assertiveness and the cultural control composite) had similar relationships with organizational deviance and interpersonal deviance (although the relationship between culture and organizational deviance was stronger than that with interpersonal deviance). In addition, the relationship between cultural assertiveness and deviance was not in the proposed direction. Second, these cultural variables moderated the relationships between several of the antecedents in Marcus and Schuler's (2004) four categories and CWBs. Finally, some support was found for the moderating effect of the source of CWB ratings, but not publication bias, on the bivariate relationships. However, these two methodological moderators did not completely confound any observed cultural moderation effects.

In the sections that follow, I will discuss these findings, their implications for practice, as well as limitations of the current study and directions for future research.

### **Main Effects**

For the main effects analysis, I proposed that the cultural dimensions would either *control* deviant behaviors (cultural controls) or *motivate* these behaviors (cultural motivators). Hence, I expected the cultural control composite variable (composed of future orientation, in-group and institutional collectivism, humane orientation, and uncertainty avoidance) to be negatively associated with the two deviance scales (organizational deviance and interpersonal deviance) but the cultural motivator variable (assertiveness) to be positively associated with these deviance measures.

Results indicate that both the cultural control composite and assertiveness were negatively associated with both organizational and interpersonal deviance. The relationships between the cultural control composite and both forms of deviance were in the hypothesized direction, indicating that with increased cultural controls, CWBs were observed less. Theoretically, this finding makes sense. Societies high on the cultural control dimensions value the deferment of gratification (future orientation); place great importance on identifying with the collective and pursuing group goals (in-group and societal collectivism); encourage fairness, altruism, generosity, and kindness to others (humane orientation); and prefer orderliness, consistency, structure, formalized procedures and laws to guide society (uncertainty avoidance). These norms, values, and beliefs may, independently or collectively, avert deviant behaviors in the workplace. For example, organizations embedded in societies high on uncertainty avoidance are likely to possess policies and procedures prohibiting deviant behaviors among employees. In addition, employees from collectivist cultures who identify with work groups and the organization are less likely to engage in behaviors that will cause harm to the collective.

Contrary to prediction, the relationships between assertiveness, the cultural motivator, and both forms of deviance were negative, indicating that with increased assertiveness, CWBs were less likely. A plausible explanation for this finding is obtained from some theoretical works examining the influence of culture on national corruption. For example, Seleim and Bontis (2009) argued that societies with high levels of assertiveness value dominant and tough behaviors, yet they encourage members to be aspiring, competitive, and to struggle for success. Furthermore, individuals from these

societies are goal-driven and value high performance. They argued that these characteristics and values guard against corruption and similarly, bad behaviors in the workplace. For example, employees may believe that engaging in deviance (e.g., arriving late to meetings, leaving work early, taking long breaks, being verbally or physically aggressive) may obstruct job performance and also negatively affect the achievement of work-related goals.

It is also possible that a lack of construct equivalence across cultures may explain the current finding (in particular, the negative relationship between cultural assertiveness and interpersonal deviance). Evidence indicates that individuals from different cultures may not use the same frame of reference when responding to items on workplace behavior instruments (e.g., Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994). For example, respondents from assertive cultures may possess evaluative and semantic interpretations of the term *rudeness* that differ from those in other cultures. Specifically, respondents from assertive cultures may be less likely to evaluate behaviors as rude. On the other hand, respondents in low assertive cultures may consider behaviors, which are considered normal in high assertive cultures, as rude. As a result, items on Bennett and Robinson's (2000) scale such as "acted rudely towards someone at work" may receive lower scores from respondents in assertive cultures, which may also explain why CWBs were observed less in these cultures.

It should be noted that although the cultural control composite and the cultural motivator (assertiveness) were negatively associated with interpersonal deviance, their relationships with this deviance variable was not as strong as their relationships with

organizational deviance. Two plausible explanations could be provided for this finding. Moreover, results from a study investigating the role of organizational climate in workplace deviance provide some evidence for both explanations (Peterson, 2002). First, it may very well be that culture influences organizational deviance more than interpersonal deviance. Empirical evidence does suggest that the antecedents of these two deviance constructs sometimes differ (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Berry et al., 2007; Spector et al., 2006). Peterson found that the policies, practices, and procedures (i.e., climate) within an organization influence the behaviors of employees, particularly deviant behaviors. Seven organizational climate dimensions were identified and these dimensions had distinct relationships with organizational and interpersonal deviance. For example, the rule dimension (i.e., the perceived importance the organization places on complying with company rules and regulars) predicted serious forms of organizational deviance, but did not predict interpersonal deviance, suggesting that in certain situations, norms and practices are perhaps better at predicting organizational deviance.

A second explanation could be provided for the weaker relationship between culture and interpersonal deviance. It is possible that culture has distinct relationships with more specific forms of interpersonal deviance. Finer-grained models of CWBs have been proposed in the literature including Gruys and Sackett's (2003) 11-factor model and Spector et al.'s (2006) five-factor model. For the most part, the factors in these models can be grouped under Bennett and Robinson's (2000) two higher-order factors (i.e., interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance). For example, inappropriate verbal actions and inappropriate physical actions, two factors from Gruys and Sackett's model,

both represent interpersonal forms of deviance. The influence of organizational norms and practices on these two specific forms of interpersonal deviance could differ. For example, Peterson (2002) found that the perceived concern the organization has for its employees influences verbal forms of aggression but not physical forms of aggression. On the other hand, the perceived degree to which an organization lets individual employees decide what is right and wrong influences physical forms of aggression but not verbal forms of these behaviors. When these two specific forms of interpersonal deviance, which are distinctively influenced by environmental factors, are combined, prediction could be minimized or obscure relationships observed. Future studies should consider the relationships between culture and more specific forms of CWB, as important relations could be overlooked with broader forms of these behaviors.

## **Moderation Analyses**

### **Cultural Moderators**

The second purpose of this dissertation was to examine the moderating effects of culture on the relationships between each of the four antecedent categories (internal controls, propensities, inhibitors and triggers) and counterproductive work behaviors. In the following sections, I discuss the findings that emerged from these analyses.

#### *Triggers*

Recall that *triggers* are events or perceptions of these events that can provoke CWBs as a response. Eight variables were identified as triggers: burnout, distributive

injustice, interactional injustice, job dissatisfaction, procedural injustice, negative emotions at work, stressors, and victimization. Building on theory, I proposed that the relationships between these variables and CWBs would be stronger in cultures with low assertiveness and in those with fewer controls.

The moderating effect of assertiveness on the bivariate relationships between all but one trigger variable (burnout) and CWBs were significant; the form of these moderating effects, however, varied. Whereas some relationships were stronger in low assertive cultures, others were stronger in high assertive cultures. Specifically, the relationships between the organizational injustice constructs (distributive injustice, interactional injustice, and procedural injustice) and CWBs were stronger in low assertive cultures. On the other hand, the relationships between job dissatisfaction, negative emotions at work, stressors, and victimization and CWBs were stronger in high assertive cultures. In addition, although not significant, this association was in the same direction for burnout.

One way to explain these findings is that individuals react differently to *triggering* events in their environments based on their perceptions of these events, which are in turn influenced by culture. Events that are believed to violate cultural norms are more likely to elicit negative responses than other events that do not violate these norms. An example of such an event is organizational injustice. Researchers have argued that individuals' reactions to perceptions of organizational injustice differ across various cultures (e.g., Blader, Chia-Chi & Tyke, 2001; Pillai, Williams, & Tan, 2001; Rahim, Magner, Antonioni, & Rahman, 2001). For example, in high assertive and high power distance cultures, injustice and inequity are perceived as legitimate and even sanctioned

by societal norms. As a result, employees in such cultures may not react unfavorably to organizational injustice. In low assertive and low distance cultures, however, injustice may be seen as violating cultural norms and hence, individuals may be more likely to react negatively to it (Brockner et al., 2001; Kim & Leung, 2007; Lam, Schaubroeck & Aryee, 2002; Leung, Su & Morris, 2001; Tyler, Lind & Huo, 2000).

On the other hand, unlike organizational injustice, other *triggers* in the work environment including dissatisfaction, negative emotions, stressors, and victimization are not events that violate societal norms in assertive cultures. Although culture influences the manner in which individuals react to these *triggers* in the environment, it does so differently (i.e., distinct from events that violate norms). Results of the current study indicate that in high assertive cultures, these triggers provoke deviant behaviors. Theoretically, this finding can be explained. Recall that individuals from high assertive cultures value success, progress, and high performance (House et al., 1999). In these cultural contexts, unfavorable environmental factors such as work stressors may be especially frustrating, as they hinder employees' abilities to meet their performance and success goals. Furthermore, these individuals are aggressive, assertive, highly competitive, and confrontational - traits that make them particularly likely to react negatively to frustrating events in their work environments.

I also predicted that the relationships between triggers and CWBs would be stronger in cultures with fewer controls. However, contrary to this proposition, most triggering variables (distributive, interactional, and procedural injustice, negative emotions at work, and victimization) had stronger relationships with CWBs in cultures

with more controls. An explanation, similar to that discussed in the preceding paragraph, is provided for these findings. Recall that in the previous paragraph, I argued that events that violate cultural norms are more likely to elicit negative responses than those that do not violate these norms. Societies that score high on the cultural dimensions categorized as controls (i.e., future orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, humane orientation and uncertainty avoidance) value fairness, kindness and altruism, and have norms and policies protecting the rights of individuals. In addition, in these societies, great value and importance is placed on family and friends, and members provide support to each other. Thus, when they are faced with *triggering* events in the work environment, which violate these norms, such as injustice and victimization, they are likely to react negatively and with outrage.

On the other hand, other *triggers* in the work environment including dissatisfaction, and stressors are not events that violate societal norms. Recall, however, that these triggers can provoke CWBs. As I initially proposed, strong cultural norms and values in society prevent individuals from reacting negatively to such triggers. Results of the study support this proposition - individuals from cultures with more controls were less likely to react counterproductively to these triggers (job dissatisfaction and work stressors) than those from cultures with fewer controls.

In summary, if triggers in the environment violate perceived societal norms, individuals are likely to react counterproductively to them. However, if these triggers do not violate perceived norms, reactions are likely to be counterproductive in high assertive cultures and in cultures with fewer controls.

It should be noted that the neither assertiveness nor the cultural control composite had significant effects on the relationship between burnout and CWBs. Burnout is composed of three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Emotional exhaustion describes “feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one’s work” (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; p. 101). Depersonalization describes “an unfeeling and impersonal response towards recipients of one’s care or service” (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p. 101). Finally, personal accomplishment describes, “feelings of competence and successful achievement in one’s work with people” (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p.101). Although all three dimensions are inter-related, meta-analytic evidence and results from other studies indicate that they have distinct relationships with counterproductive work behaviors (e.g., Liang & Hsieh, 2007; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). For example, Liang and Hsieh found that depersonalization significantly predicted workplace deviance but neither emotional exhaustion nor reduced personal accomplishment predicted these behaviors. When these three dimensions are combined, prediction could be minimized. In addition, the power to detect significant moderators could also be lowered and may explain the current non-significant results.

### *Inhibitors*

Recall that inhibitors constrain CWBs by restricting access to desired outcomes or making the negative consequences of these behaviors more costly (Marcus & Schuler, 2004). Six variables were identified as inhibitors: affective commitment, job insecurity,

CWB norms, sanctions, support, and job involvement. I proposed that the relationships between these variables and CWBs would be stronger in high assertive cultures and in those with fewer controls.

Strong support was found for the moderating effect of assertiveness on these relationships. Affective commitment, job insecurity, CWB norms, support, and job involvement had stronger relationships with CWB in more assertive cultures. Initially, I had proposed that in high assertive cultures, employees are more likely to engage in deviant behaviors. However, introducing inhibitors to such environments may help reduce these behaviors. The current results support this proposition. However, recall that in the main effects analyses, assertiveness was found to *decrease* the likelihood of engaging in CWBs and not *increase* it, indicating that this finding requires an alternate theoretical explanation.

Inhibitors (e.g., affective commitment, organizational support, job insecurity, and job involvement) do not only have negative relationships with CWBs (e.g., Meyer et al., 2002; Schnabel & Stephan, 1993; as cited in Marcus & Schuler, 2004) but also have positive relationships with job performance (e.g., Diefendorff, Brown, Kamin, & Lord, 2002; Keller, 1997; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999). As previously discussed, in assertive societies, members are encouraged to be aspiring, competitive, struggle for physical success, and perform optimally. For these cultures, inhibitors may be more important drivers of performance than cultures that are not as goal-oriented. As a result, inhibitors may influence both task and contextual performance more in assertive cultures than in other cultures.

Interestingly, although the relationship between sanctions and CWBs was significantly moderated by cultural assertiveness, this effect was not in the expected direction. Specifically, organizational sanctions had stronger relationships with CWBs in low assertive cultures. Evidence from the literature does in fact support this finding. Research has shown that codes of conduct and ethics differ in terms of their systems, implementations and communications across various cultures (e.g., Gnyawali, 1996; McGrath, Macmillan, Yang, & Tsai, 1992; Sanyal, 2005; Scholtens & Dam, 2007; Thomas & Mueller, 2000). These factors refer to the availability and comprehensiveness of conduct codes; the possession of systems for implementing them; and the adoption of business principles by which organizations communicate to all their employees (Scholtens & Dam, 2007). In assertive cultures, individuals pay less attention to these codes of conduct and regard these policies as of little importance (Scholtens & Dam, 2007). As a result, sanctions implemented in organizations within these assertive cultures may be less likely to control the behaviors of employees than those implemented in less assertive societies. Hence, the impact of organizational sanctions will be observed more in the latter cultures (i.e., less assertive cultures).

I also predicted that the relationships between the inhibitor variables and CWBs would be stronger in cultures with fewer controls. As proposed, with fewer cultural controls, affective commitment, sanctions, support, and job involvement had stronger relationships with deviant behaviors. In addition, although not significant, this relationship was also in the hypothesized direction for job insecurity. Theoretically, these findings are to be expected. Fewer cultural controls in the environment (e.g., low

collectivism, low humane orientation) may increase the likelihood of engaging in deviant behaviors. However, introducing constraints (e.g., sanctions) into organizations embedded in these societies may help significantly curb unwanted workplace behaviors. On the contrary, in societies with more cultural controls (e.g., high uncertainty avoidance), implementing inhibitors may not lead to effects that are as strong or that are as significant. These results are also in line with those found elsewhere in the literature (e.g., Agarwal, 1993; Oh, 1995).

As indicated in the previous paragraph, although the moderating effect of the cultural control composite on the relationship between job insecurity and CWBs was in the hypothesized direction, it was not significant. Recall that to be included in the analyses, a sufficient number of samples ( $k$ ) for each bivariate relationship were needed to justify running a moderation analysis. Although the proposed cutoff of 20 samples was met (in this case,  $k$  was exactly equal to 20), it is possible that this sample size was not large enough to detect this moderating effect. For this particular analysis, statistical power may have been low.

Another interesting finding emerged from the analyses. The relationship between CWB norms and deviant behaviors was significantly moderated by the cultural control composite, but not in the expected direction. With increased cultural controls, the impact of weak CWB norms on deviance grew stronger. A plausible explanation for this finding is obtained from theoretical works on group processes (e.g., self-identity theory; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Research has shown that groups are motivated to maintain a sense of uniformity around important group norms. This motivation might be particularly salient

in societies with more cultural controls, which place high emphasis on collective goals and group norms. Members that portray values or behaviors that deviate from those of the group are in danger of being devalued, evaluated negatively, and even ostracized. Furthermore, according to social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), individuals' self-concepts and self-esteem come from their memberships with social groups. Hence, although these cultures typically encourage members to act for the benefit of the organization, members may be more likely to follow counterproductive norms to maintain group membership and identity, and also avoid negative evaluations from the group. As a result, it is possible that the relationship between weak CWB norms and counterproductive work behaviors will be stronger in cultures with more cultural controls.

### *Internal Controls*

Recall that internal controls are stable individual differences that protect individuals from acting counterproductively in the workplace. Five variables were identified as internal controls: agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, positive affectivity, and self-control. I proposed that the relationships between these variables and CWBs would be stronger in cultures with high assertiveness and in those with fewer controls.

The relationships between agreeableness, conscientiousness, and self-control and CWBs were stronger with reduced assertiveness. In addition, although not significant,

this relationship was in the same direction for emotional stability<sup>15</sup>. These relationships, however, were contrary to prediction. Initially, I had proposed that in high assertive cultures, individuals are more likely to engage in deviant behaviors. Nevertheless, possessing internal controls in such environments may help reduce these behaviors (e.g., Dilchert et al., 2007; Fallon et al., 2000; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990;). The current results do not support this proposition. The results suggest that possessing internal controls in *low* assertive cultures helps reduce CWBs. A straightforward explanation could be provided for this finding. Recall that in the main effects analyses, assertiveness was found to *decrease*, and not *increase*, the likelihood of engaging in CWBs. That is, deviant behaviors were more likely in low assertive cultures. In line with my initial proposition, this finding suggests that internal controls may be more effective in preventing CWBs in low assertive cultures (i.e., in cultures with a higher likelihood of deviancy, as indicated in the current study), supporting and explaining the current results.

I also predicted that the relationships between the internal control variables and CWBs would be stronger in cultures with fewer controls. Support was found for this proposition. The relationships between agreeableness, conscientiousness and self-control and CWBs were in the expected direction. In addition, although not significant, this relationship was in the hypothesized direction for emotional stability. First, these findings demonstrate that personality factors are more likely to influence behaviors with fewer constraints. As Triandis (1995, p. 74) argued, “personality is less evident in

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<sup>15</sup> The moderating effects of assertiveness and the cultural control composite on the relationship between positive affectivity and CWBs are discussed in a later section (see p. 119).

collectivist cultures [controlled setting] than it is in individualistic cultures, because the situation is such a powerful determinant of social behavior". Second, these findings demonstrate that with fewer cultural controls in the environment, individuals may be more likely to engage in deviant behaviors. However, possessing internal controls in such environments may prevent employees from acting counterproductively. On the contrary, in societies with more cultural controls (e.g., high uncertainty avoidance), having internal controls may not lead to effects that are as strong or that are as significant.

### *Propensities*

Recall that propensities are stable individual differences that drive people towards counterproductivity. Two personality variables were classified as propensities: aggressive traits and negative affectivity. I proposed that both variables would have stronger relationships with counterproductive behaviors in high assertive cultures and in cultures with fewer controls.

As predicted, aggressive traits and negative affectivity each had stronger relationships with CWBs in high assertive cultures. Recall that individuals in assertive societies value success, progress and high performance. However, to achieve these goals, individuals act aggressively, are highly competitive, value results over people and relationships, and see others as opportunistic. Individuals with high levels of propensities, such as trait aggressiveness and hostility, may thrive in such environments. Propensities prompt aggressive behaviors in individuals (e.g., Aquino, Galperin &

Bennett, 2004; Bettencourt et al., 2006; Herschovis et al., 2007) and as assertive environments encourage the expression of these traits, individuals high on them may be more likely to engage in CWBs in these environments (e.g., Bettencourt et al., 2006).

I also predicted that the relationships between the two propensities and CWBs would be stronger in cultures with fewer controls. Some support was found for this proposition. Specifically, the relationship between the aggressive traits variable, but not negative affectivity, and CWBs was stronger with fewer cultural controls. In other words, in societies with more controls, employees with high levels of aggressive traits are less likely to engage in deviant behaviors.

It should be noted that, the moderating effects of culture on the relationships between positive affectivity, negative affectivity, and emotional stability and CWBs were, for the most part, not significant or inconsistent with the observed effects on other bivariate relationships within the same category (for example, whereas the relationship between positive affectivity and CWBs was stronger with increased assertiveness, the opposite effect was observed in the relationships between the other internal control variables and CWBs). Positive affectivity and negative affectivity are robustly correlated with extraversion and neuroticism (i.e., emotional stability) respectively (e.g., Tellegen, 1985; Watson & Clark, 1984), and are all broad personality factors composed of multiple facets. Whereas some of these facets could act as *controls* against deviant behaviors, others could *motivate* these behaviors. For example, extraversion is composed of *controlling* (e.g., cheerfulness) and *motivating* (e.g., assertiveness, sensation/excitement seeking) narrow traits. As a result, when these narrow facets, which might be distinctly

influenced by cultural factors, are combined, non-significant or even aberrant results may be observed. Further research would perhaps benefit from examining the moderating effects of culture on the bivariate relationships between narrower traits of these constructs and CWBs.

### **Methodological Moderators**

The data were probed for two methodological moderators (publication bias and the source of CWB ratings), as sufficient evidence existed for the absence of homogeneity in bivariate correlations. Little support was found for the proposition that the effect sizes in peer-reviewed journals are larger than those from other sources (i.e., dissertations, conference presentations, and unpublished data). In fact, Dalton et al. (2012) found that the assumption that statistically non-significant results are less likely to be published in peer-reviewed journals (i.e., the file drawer problem) is fallacious. These authors found consistent empirical evidence indicating that the file drawer problem does not produce an inflation bias and does not pose threats to the validity of meta-analytically derived conclusions. Furthermore, some support was found for the proposition that the effect sizes in CWB self-ratings are larger than those from other sources.

These two methodological moderators however could not account for the heterogeneity observed among the effect sizes, indicating that further research is needed. This issue is discussed further in a later section. Although the methodological moderators could not fully account for the observed heterogeneity, the results of the study

indicate that these moderators did not confound the observed cultural moderating effects. In other words, the observed cultural effects were not spurious.

### **Implications for Practice**

Counterproductive work behaviors are quite prevalent in organizations today (e.g., Boye & Slora, 1993; Schat, Frone, and Kelloway, 2006) and organizations need useful and effective ways to control these behaviors. As a result, it is worthwhile to consider some implications of the current findings for practice.

First, organizations situated in low assertive societies or those with fewer cultural controls should be aware of their susceptibility to organizational deviance (e.g., theft, absenteeism, lateness) due to the nature of their environments and subsequently, plan intervention strategies accordingly. Furthermore, the ability of individual differences or situational factors to predict deviant behaviors in organizations may depend on the cultural environments surrounding these organizations. Therefore, intervention strategies aimed at an organization in one culture cannot be assumed to have similar effects on another in a completely different culture. For example, the results of the study suggest that in developing a selection tool for a Nigerian (a high assertive culture) organization, trait anger and trait hostility may be better personality variables to measure than conscientiousness. Furthermore, intervention strategies aimed at reducing workplace stressors and job dissatisfaction in these organizations may have stronger effects on CWBs than those aimed at reducing organizational injustice.

### **Limitations of Study and Directions for Future Research**

A few limitations of this dissertation and directions for future research warrant discussion. First, in examining the moderating effect of culture on antecedent-CWB bivariate relationships, some important antecedent variables were omitted from the study. In order to develop the hypotheses for the study, Marcus and Schuler's (2004) theoretical framework was used as, to my knowledge, this framework is the most comprehensive classification system currently available in the literature. Unfortunately, a few antecedent variables that have often been examined in the CWB literature could not be unequivocally categorized using this framework and therefore, were omitted from this study. Furthermore, because a sufficient number of samples were needed to justify conducting a moderation analysis and to avoid low power issues, only bivariate relationships with data from at least 20 samples were retained. As a result, other antecedent variables of interest could not be included in the study. These omitted variables include cognitive ability, engagement, narcissism, openness to experience, extraversion, normative commitment, and continuance commitment (see Appendix C for complete list of omitted variables). Additional research should be conducted to examine the effects of culture on these other variables, as valuable information could be obtained.

Another limitation to using Marcus and Schuler's (2004) taxonomical framework is that variables that are highly correlated may fit into different antecedent categories. For example, although affective commitment and job satisfaction are strongly correlated (e.g., Meyer et al., 2002), these two variables were placed in different categories: inhibitors and triggers respectively. As they are both correlated, they could also be expected to display

similar patterns in influencing CWBs. For example, similar to affective commitment, job satisfaction should inhibit deviant behaviors. In other words, high and low valence poles of the same variable could be placed in different antecedent categories. Evidence from the literature suggests otherwise and provides little support for this argument. For example, Marcus and Wagner's (2007) found that job dissatisfaction triggers CWBs, especially if dissatisfied employees feel that they can neither improve their situations nor leave their organizations. Similarly, Farrell (1983) found that neglectful behaviors (e.g., psychological inattention) occur as responses to dissatisfying workplace conditions. These findings clearly point to the triggering mechanisms of dissatisfaction but do not necessarily imply that high satisfaction (on the other end of the pole) acts as an inhibitor against these behaviors.

The subject matter experts were also unable to unequivocally categorize some cultural dimensions from the GLOBE study as *controls* or *motivators*, and consequently these dimensions were not used in the current study. These include performance orientation, gender egalitarianism, and power distance. Power distance, for example, was labeled a control by half of the subject matter experts and a motivator by the other half. Power distance, the degree to which members of society expect and agree that power should be concentrated at higher levels of an organization or government, could in fact act as both a control and a motivator. If leaders punish CWBs, followers may refrain from it. However, if these leaders reinforce these behaviors, the opposite may be true. Additional research should be conducted to examine the main and moderating effects of power distance and the other two omitted cultural dimensions on CWBs.

Overall, the theoretical framework that was used to develop the hypotheses was problematic for several reasons (e.g., the inability to unequivocally categorize some key antecedent variables into any of its four proposed categories, the inability to categorize three cultural dimensions as controls or motivators, and the high correlations between variables in opposing categories) and may explain why the current results could not be fully explained using this framework. Unfortunately, alternative frameworks are currently not available in the literature. The lack of comprehensive frameworks may limit our ability to study important research questions such as the ones posed in the current study. As a result, there is a need for conceptual and empirical work to be conducted in this area. In particular, a theory-driven model that comprehensively and unambiguously groups antecedents of workplace behaviors should be developed. This model could aid and advance research in this field of study.

Additionally, it may be interesting to examine whether similar results to those found in this study would be obtained using other frameworks of national culture. For example, two other frameworks are frequently used and compared in the literature: Hofstede's (1980, 2001) and Schwartz's (1994) cultural frameworks. Hofstede's collectivism and power distance dimensions and Schwartz's embeddedness and hierarchy dimensions are theoretically similar to GLOBE's in-group collectivism and power distance dimensions respectively. Evidence indicates that similar dimensions across different frameworks are also highly correlated. For instance, GLOBE's power distance practice scores and in-group collectivism are highly correlated with Hofstede's power distance and collectivism dimensions respectively (e.g., Javidan et al., 2006). This

evidence suggests that similar results should be expected using other cultural frameworks and may provide further support for the current results.

Furthermore, the methodological moderators that were included in the analyses could not fully account for the heterogeneity that existed among the effect sizes, suggesting that variables other than publication bias and the source of CWB ratings may be responsible for the observed heterogeneity. There is a need to examine the effects of other potential methodological moderators on observed bivariate relationships. For example, previous meta-analyses have included the following variables in their moderation analyses: education level of rater, inclusion of antithetical items in measures, format of response options, organizational settings (e.g., Dalal, 2005). These and other factors may explain the heterogeneity observed in the effect sizes.

Finally, a large percentage of studies included in the meta-analysis were conducted in the United States and Canada. Nonetheless, enough cultural variation among samples existed to warrant conducting moderation analyses. This meta-analysis was conducted as a first step in understanding cross-cultural differences in workplace behaviors. However, more research needs to be conducted cross-culturally to examine this subject further.

## **Conclusion**

The purpose of this dissertation was to examine two primary issues: (1) the direct relationship between culture and counterproductive work behaviors and (2) the indirect (i.e., moderating) effect of culture on the bivariate relationships between various antecedents and these behaviors. Although the results of the study suggest that culture

influences behaviors in the workplace, the results also point to the complexity and the dynamic nature of culture in predicting these behaviors and a need to investigate this environmental factor further. (Clearly, much more work needs to be conducted in this area). Nonetheless, it is my belief that this meta-analysis makes a theoretical contribution to the industrial/organizational psychology and organizational behavior literatures and that the results it uncovered can serve to stimulate future research designed to examine the complexity of culture in influencing work behaviors.

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## Appendix A

Hi [Subject Matter Expert's Name],

I am writing to ask for your help with my dissertation. I am hoping to get a number of Industrial/Organizational Psychology (past and current) graduate students to be subject matter experts and perhaps provide me with some feedback. I would be quite grateful if you are willing to be of assistance.

Should you decide to provide your expertise, you will be asked to conduct two similar tasks. Both tasks involve assigning a number of constructs to higher-order categories. Definitions for all constructs and categories are provided (see attached file for specific instructions). Please note that there are two worksheets in the excel file ('antecedents' and 'cultural dimensions') and both include the required exercises. Please complete both sheets!

For these tasks, it is important that you do not use external aids, as doing so may reduce the validity of the results. The tasks require that you simply read the definitions provided and then categorize the constructs. If you are unable to categorize any of the constructs, please select the 'not sure/ can't be categorized' option. Furthermore, assign each construct to one and only one category.

This task should take about 30 minutes to complete. Should you choose to help me, I'll need your responses in a week (March 12<sup>th</sup>). I'll be very happy to return the favor in the future or to buy you a coffee/tea as a token of my appreciation. Please let me know if you have any comments or questions.

Thanks!

Anita

**INSTRUCTION:** Below is a group of four categories (Internal Controls, Propensities, Opportunities and Triggers). The categories represent the four quadrants that are obtained from a two-dimensional solution. The first dimension represents the distinction between *personality* (personality traits/individual differences) and *situational* (external) factors. On the other hand, the second dimension represents the distinction between factors that act as *controls* against deviant behaviors and those that *motivate* these behaviors. Hence, the four categories: Internal Controls (person/controls), Propensities (person/motivators), Opportunities (situation/controls) and Triggers (situation/motivators). Specific definitions have been provided for each category (two per category). Also included in this sheet are 27 other constructs. These constructs have been identified as antecedents of counterproductive work behaviors. Your task is to assign each of the 27 variables to **ONE AND ONLY ONE** of the four categories (Insert an 'X' to the assigned category). Scroll further down to read the definitions for the antecedent variables, if needed. If you are unable to categorize any of the variables, please select the last option ('Not sure/ Can't be categorized').

Internal Controls:	<p>All stable individual differences that can act as barriers against the occurrence of deviant behaviors</p> <p>Individual differences or personality traits that restrain/control the enactment of deviant behaviors.</p>
Propensities:	<p>Any stable individual difference that drives people toward deviant behaviors by making the desired outcomes or the course of action itself appear more attractive to those at the high end of the disposition</p> <p>Individual differences/ personality traits that motivate or push people to act deviatetly.</p>
Opportunities:	<p>Any situation or perception of the situation that facilitates (or inhibits) the exertion of a deviant act by enhancing (or restricting) access to desired outcomes or by making the negative consequences for the actor less (or more) likely or</p>

	costly
	External situations or perceptions of these situations that restrain/control the enactment of deviant behaviors.
Triggers:	External events or internal perceptions of such events that can provoke deviant behaviors as a response
	External situations or perceptions of these situations that motivate or push people to act deviantly.
Affective Commitment	Affective commitment denotes an emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization.
Aggressive Traits	Individuals high on aggressive traits are prone to hostile cognitions and angry affect as well as readiness to engage in physical and verbal aggression.
Agreeableness	The Big Five personality trait generally reflecting the degree to which a person is likeable, easy to get along with, and friendly.
Anti-CWB Norms (e.g., Absence Cultures)	Organizational norms are unwritten rules that prescribe the ways in which all members of an organization should approach their work and interact with one another. CWB norms refer to the extent to which there is homogeneity or mutual agreement among group members about deviant patterns.
Burnout	Burnout is a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job and is defined here by the three dimensions of exhaustion, cynicism, and sense of inefficiency.
Conscientiousness	The Big Five personality trait generally reflecting the degree to which a person is hardworking, dependable, and detail-oriented.
Continuance Commitment	Continuance commitment denotes the perceived costs associated with leaving an organization.
Distributive Injustice	A type of organizational injustice perception focusing on the degree to which an employee feels the allocation of outcomes or rewards was unfair.

Emotional Stability	The Big Five personality trait generally reflecting the degree to which a person is secure, is calm, has low anxiety, and has low emotionality.
Extraversion	The Big Five personality trait generally reflecting the degree to which a person is sociable, assertive, talkative, ambitious and energetic.
Intelligence/ Cognitive Ability	Cognitive ability refers to the general factor that is associated with performance on all tests that involve the active processing of information.
Interactional Injustice	A type of organizational injustice perception focusing on the degree to which an employee feels he or she has not been treated sensitively and is respected.
Job Insecurity	Job insecurity is defined as the perceived powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation.
Job Involvement	Job involvement has been operationalized as the internalization of values about the goodness of work and the degree to which a person's work affects his or her self-esteem
Job Satisfaction	Job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences.
Negative Affectivity	Negative affectivity is a unidimensional, pervasive disposition to experience high levels of distressing emotions such as anger, hostility, fear, or anxiety.
Negative Emotions at Work	Include fear, anger, stress, hostility, sadness expressed at work
Openness to Experience	The Big Five personality trait generally reflecting the degree to which a person is curious, intelligent, imaginative, and independent.
Positive Affectivity	Positive affectivity reflects pervasive individual differences in positive emotionality and self-concept
Procedural Injustice	A type of organizational injustice perception focusing on the degree to which an employee feels the process by which rewards are distributed or decisions are made was

unfair.

Sanctions	Sanctions are penalties or other means of enforcement used to provide incentives for obedience or compliance with organizational rules and regulations.
Self-Control	Self-control has been described as the tendency to avoid acts whose long-term costs exceed momentary advantages.
Stressors	Job stressors are situations that elicit an adaptive response or negative emotional reactions.
Support	Support refers to the degree to which employees believe that others (e.g., colleagues, family members, and their organizations) value their contributions and care about their well-being.
Turnover Intentions	Turnover intention may be defined as the intention of employees to quit their organization.
Victimization	Victimization has been defined as the individual's self-perception of having been exposed, either momentarily or repeatedly, to aggressive acts emanating from one or more other persons.

**INSTRUCTION:** Below are two categories (cultural controls and cultural motivators) and also GLOBE's nine cultural dimensions. The categories and cultural dimensions are all defined below. Similar to the previous exercise, your task is to assign each of the nine cultural dimensions to **ONE AND ONLY ONE** of the two categories (i.e., cultural controls OR cultural motivators). Insert an 'X' to the assigned category. Scroll further down to read the definitions for the cultural dimensions. If you are unable to categorize any of the variables, please select the last option ('Not sure/ Can't be categorized').

Cultural Controls: These are cultural dimensions that prevent members from engaging in delinquency/crime by making the outcomes of these acts costly.

Question to ponder: If a culture scores high on a dimension, would that make individuals in this culture refrain from delinquency/crime? If yes, the variable is likely a control (note that absence of a control (low score) is not the same as a motivator).

Cultural Motivators: These are societal proclivities that can aggravate delinquency/crime or make these behaviors more attractive to its members.

Question to ponder: If a culture scores high on a dimension, would that make delinquency/crime more attractive to people in that culture? If yes, the variable is likely a motivator (again, a low score would indicate absence of this motivator, but not a controlling factor).

Assertiveness The degree to which individuals in organizations or societies are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in social relationships.

Future Orientation The degree to which individuals in organizations or societies engage in future-oriented behaviors such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying individual or collective gratification.

Gender Egalitarianism	The degree to which an organization or a society minimizes gender role differences while promoting gender equality
Humane Orientation	The degree to which individuals in organizations or societies encourage and reward individuals for being fair, altruistic, friendly, generous, caring and kind to others.
In-Group Collectivism	The degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families.
Institutional Collectivism	The degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action.
Performance Orientation	The degree to which an organization or society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence
Power Distance	The degree to which members of an organization or society expect and agree that power should be stratified and concentrated at higher levels of an organization or government.
Uncertainty Avoidance	The degree to which members of an organization or society strive to avoid uncertainty by relying on established social norms, rituals, and bureaucratic practices

**Appendix B**

## List of Countries Included in Study

Australia	Mexico
Belgium	Netherlands
Canada	New Zealand
China	Nigeria
England	Philippines
Finland	Singapore
France	Slovenia
Germany	Spain
Hong Kong, China	Switzerland
India	Taiwan
Ireland	Thailand
Israel	Turkey
Japan	United Kingdom
Korea	United States

## Appendix C

### Variables Excluded from Meta-Analyses

*Age	Locus of control
Boredom (situation)	Machiavellianism
Centralization	*Marital status
Competence	Need for autonomy
Complexity	Normative commitment
Control over job	Openness to Experience
Department or Organizational Type	Pay
*Education	Positive emotions at work
Extraversion	Religion
Feedback	Routinization
Formalization	Self-efficacy
Frustration	Self-esteem
*Gender	Shift (day/night)
Group cohesion	Significance
*Hierarchical status	Skill variety
Hours worked per week	Skilled/unskilled jobs
Identity	Task interdependence
Intelligence	*Tenure
Job autonomy	Trait boredom
Job characteristics	Trust
Job importance	Turnover intentions
Job scope	Type A
Job stress	Union membership
*Job type	
Kinship responsibility	

*Note. \*Demographic variables, which typically are difficult to classify as controlling or motivating factors and therefore, were automatically omitted from study.*

## Curriculum Vitae

**Name:** Olusore A. Taylor

**Post-secondary Education and Degrees:** McMaster University  
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2002-2006 B.A. (Hon.) Psychology and Sociology.

The University of Western Ontario  
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**Honours and Awards:** Dr. Harry Lyman Hooker Scholarship (2005)  
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Dean's Honor List  
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**Related Work Experience** Research Analyst  
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### **Conference Presentations:**

Hastings, S.E., Taylor, O.A., Marcus, B., & Strum, A. (August, 2011). *Antecedents of Counterproductive Work Behaviors: A Meta-Analysis*. Paper presented at the American Psychological Association (APA) annual conference, Washington, DC.

Taylor, O.A., Hastings, S.E., Strum, A., & Marcus, B. (July, 2010). *The Internal Structure of Counterproductive Work Behaviors: A Meta-Analysis*. Paper presented at the International Congress of Applied Psychology, Melbourne, Australia.

Taylor, O. A., & Dietz, J. (April, 2010). *Observing Workplace Aggression: What Intervention Strategies Should I Use?* Paper presented for presentation at the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP) Annual Conference, Atlanta, GA.

Taylor, O. A., Dietz, J., & Marcus, B. (June, 2009). *Observing Workplace Aggression: Should I intervene or Should I not?* Poster presented at the 70th Annual Conference of the Canadian Psychological Association in Montreal, QC.

Taylor, O.A., Dietz, J., & Marcus, B. (April, 2009). *Observing Workplace Aggression: Should I Intervene or Not?* Interactive poster presented at the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP) Annual Conference, New Orleans, LA.