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How Individual Values and Trait Boredom Interface with Job Characteristics and Job Boredom in Their Effects on Counterproductive Work Behavior

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How Individual Values and Trait Boredom Interface with Job Characteristics and Job
Boredom in Their Effects on Counterproductive Work Behavior

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
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direction, hedonism, tradition, power, stimulation, conformity, security

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Dedication

For the many and varied people in my life. Some of us share the same values across nearly all situations, and some of us are polar opposites almost all the time, but how boring life would be without the full circle.

For those who are not yet in my life, my strong openness to experience values may one day lead me to you, but if not, I wish for you: to be fully present in each moment, never apathetic, listless, or dazed, and to be fully engaged in each endeavor. Both the experience of boredom and its effects are toxic; try to remember – *this* is the moment of your life.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables	iii
List of Figures	iv
Abstract	v
Chapter One	
Introduction	1
CWB	2
Measuring CWB	3
CWB in perspective: Its impact on organizations	5
Individual differences antecedents of CWB	7
Situational antecedents of CWB	8
Values	11
The relationship of values with other variables	16
Individual values & CWB	21
Trait boredom	26
Job boredom	32
Job characteristics	36
The current study	42
Chapter Two	
Method	44
Participants	44
Procedure	45
Measures	45
Demographics	46
Individual values	47
Trait boredom	48
Job boredom	49
Job characteristics	50
Counterproductive work behaviors	51
Chapter Three	
Results	53
Chapter Four	

Discussion	65
Hypothesis 1: Conformity, security, & tradition with CWB	66
Hypothesis 2: Self transcendence values and CWB	69
Hypotheses 3 & 4: Boredom proneness & CWB.....	70
Interaction between trait & job boredom on abuse.....	73
Hypotheses 5-8: Job boredom & CWB	74
Added CWB items: Horseplay.....	77
Hypotheses 9-13: Values and job characteristics as moderators	78
Co-worker report issues	80
Theoretical implications.....	81
Practical implications.....	82
Limitations	83
Conclusions.....	84
References.....	86
Appendices.....	96
About the Author	End page

List of Tables

Table 1	Values and their motivational definitions.....	13
Table 2	Job categories of participants.....	44
Table 3	Descriptive statistics for all study variables.....	53
Table 4	Zero order Pearson correlations among values.....	54
Table 5	First order partial correlations among values and CWB.....	55
Table 6	Zero order Pearson correlations among boredom and CWB.....	56
Table 7	Results for trait boredom, job boredom, abuse moderated regression analysis	57
Table 8	Results for non-significant interactions on sabotage	58
Table 9	Results for non-significant interaction on production deviance	59
Table 10	Intercorrelations among job characteristics	60
Table 11	Correlations with job characteristics and CWB.....	60
Table 12	Moderated regression of benevolence and task significance on CWBO.....	63
Table 13	Summary of all study hypotheses	63
Table 14	Correlations between job boredom and all facets of CWB controlling for trait boredom.....	76

List of Figures

Figure 1.	SSA map of observed relations among values in Portuguese student sample.....	16
Figure 2.	Interaction between trait and job boredom on CWB-abuse.....	58
Figure 3.	Interaction between task significance and benevolence on CWBO.....	63

How Individual Values and Trait Boredom Interface with Job Characteristics and Job
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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine relationships among individual values, trait boredom, job boredom, job characteristics, and CWB. Job boredom and trait boredom were expected to be positively related to CWB. Individual values and job characteristics were expected to moderate the relationship between boredom and different types of CWB.

Completed online questionnaires were received from 211 participants, and 112 co-worker matches also submitted online surveys. The Schwartz Value Survey, Job Descriptive Index, Job Boredom Scale, and Boredom Proneness Scale were used to assess independent variables. The Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist measured the dependent variable. Results were analyzed using correlation and moderated regression.

Both trait boredom and job boredom showed large significant correlations with all forms of CWB. Additionally, co-worker reported job boredom showed significant correlations with some forms of CWB. Values showed small and mostly non-significant relationships with CWB and no moderating effects on the boredom/CWB relationship. Job characteristics showed relationships with some forms of CWB but did not interact with boredom in its effects on CWB. In general, moderating effects were not found in

the relationships among boredom, values, job characteristics, and CWB. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

Chapter One

Introduction

The problems associated with boredom at work have been examined by several researchers (e.g. Kass, Vodanovich, & Callender, 2001; Lee, 1986; MacDonald & MacIntyre, 1997; Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, & Kessler, 2006). In short, this research has demonstrated that boredom is associated with negative outcomes such as diminished job satisfaction, higher self-report and objective-report absenteeism and tardiness, and significantly different workplace outcomes than are associated with other negative emotional states such as anger or disgust.

Counterproductive work behaviors (CWB), or volitional behavior engaged in by employees that harms organizations and/or organizational stakeholders including clients, coworkers, supervisors, or employees (Spector & Fox, 2005), is an outcome variable of interest to organizational researchers because of the great harm it has caused organizations. As an example, the National Retail Security Survey states that \$31.3 billion was lost to inventory shrinkage in 2001, half of which was due to employee theft.

The research evidence linking boredom and CWB has been scant and generally limited to withdrawal behaviors like absenteeism and theft. Furthermore, research to date has not examined the potential impact of job boredom on CWB while simultaneously examining other individual difference and environmental characteristics that could impact the relationship.

Individual values, or deeply entrenched criteria people use to evaluate everything (Schwartz, In press, a), may impact what a person finds boring and how they react to that boredom, for instance. As well, trait boredom, or boredom proneness, may influence how a boring work situation is evaluated by an individual job incumbent. Finally, the actual characteristics of the job itself may provide a good or poor fit with an individual's values and preferences and thereby influence if the work situation is evaluated as boring and whether or not to respond to it negatively by engaging in CWB.

Purpose of this study

The purpose of this study was to examine the counterproductive work behaviors engaged in by individuals who hold boring jobs and who possess different internal characteristics. The main idea was that individuals who have certain characteristics will not react negatively to their boring jobs. So, in essence, this study addressed the incidence of CWB as a function of particular characteristics of the individual, namely individual values and trait boredom, and certain aspects of the job itself, specifically the characteristics of the job and how boring it is. Thus, this study examined both situational and environmental precursors to CWB. In addition, and as recommended in the literature (Sackett & Devore, 2001; Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, Kessler, in press), CWB was looked at comprehensively, as both a total score on a single measure and as scores on multiple indices, each measuring different components of CWB.

CWB

CWB is volitional behavior by employees that harms organizations and/or organizational stakeholders including clients, coworkers, customers, and supervisors (Spector & Fox, 2005). Examples of CWB range from ignoring someone at work to

sabotaging equipment. Counterproductive behavior in the workplace has been studied under many different labels and from numerous theoretical perspectives including organizational aggression (Neuman & Baron, 1998), antisocial behavior in organizations (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1998), organizational delinquency (Hogan & Hogan, 1989), revenge (Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997), organizational retaliation (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), and workplace deviance (Hollinger, 1986; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The common thread among the aforementioned research is that all of the behavior is engaged in by employees of the organization and is detrimental in its effects. The focus of the present study was both overall CWB and various sub-facets of the construct. Therefore, the following review will center on CWB generally and the specific facets of CWB that are of interest in this study. First, the literature pertaining to the measurement of CWB will be reviewed, then I will detail the outcomes associated with CWB, and finally I will discuss antecedents of CWB.

Measuring CWB. The factor structure of CWB was first examined by Spector (1975). Using as a theoretical basis, Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, and Sears's (1939) Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis, which holds that a situation interferes with individual goal attainment resulting in frustration which leads to aggression, Spector devised a study linking frustration at work to a checklist of CWBs. He then factor analyzed the CWB items in his questionnaire, resulting in six interpretable factors: (1) aggression against others (e.g. being rude or nasty to others), (2) sabotage (e.g. damaging property belonging to the employer), (3) wasting of time and materials (e.g. daydreaming), (4) interpersonal hostility and complaining (e.g. speaking ill of the job), (5) interpersonal aggression (e.g.

starting an argument with a co-worker), (6) apathy about the job (e.g. intentionally doing work incorrectly).

In 1983, Hollinger and Clark developed a wide-ranging list of counterproductive behaviors and provided a conceptual framework that divided the behaviors into two categories: production deviance, violating organizational norms about how and when to do work; and property deviance, breaking or misusing organizational assets.

Robinson and Bennett (1995) expanded on the ideas of Hollinger and Clark by adding interpersonally counterproductive behaviors. Using a multi-dimensional scaling technique, they created a typology of deviant behavior. Workplace deviance was defined by the researchers as voluntary behavior that violates organizational norms and threatens the well-being of the organization, its members, or both. Their results indicated a typology with two dimensions and therefore four quadrants; deviant behaviors could be divided on the organizational/interpersonal dimension and on the minor/serious dimension. Taking a cue from Hollinger and Clark (1983), they named the four quadrants as follows: property deviance (organizational – serious), production deviance (organizational – minor), personal aggression (interpersonal – serious), and political deviance (interpersonal – minor). An example of a behavior in the minor organizational deviance quadrant is taking excessive breaks. An example behavior in the major deviant organizational behavior quadrant is destroying property. Likewise, a minor interpersonally deviant act is blaming coworkers for errors while a serious interpersonally deviant act is verbal abuse.

A decade later, Spector et al. (2006) published a paper summarizing research results regarding the dimensionality of a behavioral CWB checklist. Like Robinson and

Bennett's scale, this measure distinguishes between organizational (CWBO) and personal CWB (CWBP). Spector et al. further found that 33 of the 45 items could be sorted by subject matter experts into 5 distinct dimensions: (1) abuse against others; (2) production deviance; (3) theft; (4) withdrawal; and (5) sabotage. Abuse against others consists of either physically or psychologically harmful behaviors directed toward coworkers. These behaviors range in severity from ignoring someone to hitting or pushing someone. Production deviance is the purposeful failure to perform job tasks effectively. An example would be purposely working slowly. Sabotage is defacing or destroying someone else's property. For example, purposely damaging a piece of equipment belonging to the organization is a form of sabotage. Theft, willfully taking someone else's property, can be either organizational or personal CWB depending on the target. Finally, withdrawal encompasses any behavior that restricts time spent working to less than what is required by the organization. The benefit of looking at these behaviors as separate categories rather than in total is that, given the different behaviors' variations in both target and degree, they may have very different antecedents.

CWB in perspective: Its impact on organizations. Until recently, the scope of the organizational effects of the CWB problem had not been empirically examined. Instead, researchers relied on Bureau of Labor Statistics, Chamber of Commerce, and Occupational Safety & Health Administration data involving theft, assaults, and failing businesses in estimating the prevalence of the problem. Although statistics from these sources do shed some light on the scope of problems in the workplace, the trouble is that they often do not distinguish between for instance, violence and homicides perpetrated by co-workers and those committed by customers or other outsiders. As CWB is

concerned with behaviors performed by employees, many of the cases included in the statistics are outside the purview of the CWB construct. A few studies have reported descriptive statistics on the percentage of people who admit stealing from their employers or experiencing verbal aggression at work (e.g. Geddes & Baron, 1997; McGurn, 1988). However, these are essentially samples of CWB behaviors and do not address in a systematic way the larger issue of how widespread and damaging the problem of CWB is to the organization as a whole.

Recently, Dunlop and Lee (2004) sought to specifically address this question: How damaging is individual CWB at the organizational level? The researchers referred to the construct as workplace deviant behavior (WDB) according to Robinson and Bennett's terminology, but the construct space is essentially the same as CWB. The study concurrently looked at the effects of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) on business unit performance. The researchers found that WDB negatively impacted both supervisor (subjective) and financial (objective) indicators of business unit performance. Additionally, they found that OCB exerted much smaller to non-significant effects on unit performance. Finally, they found that the ratios of between-unit variance to within-unit variance were much greater for the WDB variables than for the OCB variables. This means that individuals within the same work group showed considerably more similarity in how much deviant behavior they engaged in than in how much citizenship behavior they engaged in. The authors explained this in the context of experimental gaming literature whereby competitive, exploitative behaviors are more contagious than cooperative behaviors in the short term. In other words, WDB is extremely damaging not

just due to its own monetary effects and due to organizations not operating at peak efficiency but also because WDB tends to catch on in others witnessing the behavior.

Individual Differences Antecedents of CWB. In identifying antecedents of CWB, researchers generally distinguish between individual difference variables and environmental/situational variables. Researchers are even somewhat divided on which antecedents they prefer to study with some stating that individual difference models are of limited utility or even misguided attempts at understanding the problem (e.g. O’Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). In this study, I examined individual values and trait boredom as potential individual difference CWB precursors. Therefore, in this section, I will review the major findings with respect to relevant individual difference precursors to CWB; in the next section, I will describe the research on situational precursors.

No empirical work to date has examined the impact of individual values or trait boredom on CWB; however, researchers have examined various other individual difference variables and their effects on CWB. First, integrity tests have shown promising correlations with CWB. In a series of papers, Ones, Viswesvaran, and Schmidt (1993a, b, & c; 1994) reported that integrity tests predict substance abuse, broad non-theft based CWB behaviors, aggressive behavior, and absence (corrected correlation coefficients range from .13 to .46). These findings are especially significant because in their meta analysis, Ones and colleagues (1993c) only used studies in which an applicant sample was used that employed a predictive design with non-self report of the criterion variable.

Aside from the research on integrity and CWB, researchers have also examined effects of trait anger and other negative personal traits with CWB. Fox and Spector (1999) found that both trait anger and trait anxiety correlated with CWB ($r = .59$ and $r = .36$ respectively). In the study, both angry reaction to provocation and angry temperament were related to CWB. Miles, Borman, Spector, and Fox (2002) found a slightly lower but still significant correlation between trait anger and CWB ($r = .38$) using a different sample and theoretical approach. Similarly, Douglas and Martinko (2001) found that trait anger, attitude toward revenge, hostile attributional style, self control and negative affect correlated significantly with incidence of workplace aggression. Correlations ranged from .21 for negative affect to .68 for trait anger and attitude toward revenge.

In a related vein, Neuman and Baron (1998) indicated that hostile attributional style, Type A behavior patterns, and low self-monitoring play important roles in predicting aggressive workplace behaviors. Further, Penney (2002) found that non-clinical narcissism relates to self-reports of CWB and incivility at work. Finally, Penney and Spector (2005) found positive relationships between negative affectivity and several forms of CWB. Taken as a whole, this research runs counter to assertions that individual difference variables are poor predictors of CWB. Instead, the aforementioned studies give credibility to the idea that personality variables are useful in deepening our understanding of CWB and its causes.

Situational Antecedents of CWB. In this study, I examined a specific component of the environment, namely job characteristics, and a personal reaction to the environment, job boredom, and their relationships with CWB. Some prior work has

examined both of these variables with respect to CWB. That work will be reviewed in this section along with other key situational variables and their relationships with CWB.

Two major streams of research that take a situational approach to CWB are the organizational justice and the emotion/stressor perspectives. The organizational justice perspective, whose major proponents include Greenberg (Greenberg, 1990) and Skarlicki and Folger (1997), view CWB as a cognitive-based response to unfairness, based in part on Adams' (1965) Equity Theory. More explicitly, these studies show that CWB is a response to injustice in the environment. This injustice could be distributive (fairness of outcomes and reward distribution; this is the type that is based on Equity Theory), procedural (process by which decisions about reward allocations are made), or interactional (quality of treatment from organizational members while enacting organizational procedures). Several other studies have shown this link between various types of injustice in the organizational environment and CWB (e.g., Barling & Phillips, 1993; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Goh, Bruursema, Fox, & Spector, 2003).

The emotion/stressor approach as articulated by Spector (1998) and Spector and Fox (2002) looks at CWB as an emotional response to a stressful environment (i.e. job stressors) that results in behavioral strain (in this case, CWB). Many situational factors have been examined through this job stress/emotion-centered lens. Organizational constraints (Peters & O'Connor, 1980) are situations at work that inhibit task performance. Examples are an ill-equipped office and inadequate training. Correlations between organizational constraints and CWB are in the .26 to .32 range (e.g. Goh et al., 2003; Miles et al., 2002). Supporting the job stress model, studies have shown partial (Fox et al., 2001) to full (Bruursema & Spector, 2005) mediation of the relationship

between constraints and CWB by negative emotion. Other situational variables showing very similar relationships with negative emotions and CWB are job autonomy (e.g. Bruursema & Spector, 2005), transactional leadership style (Bruursema & Spector, 2005), and workload (Miles et al., 2002). Conflict with both supervisors and co-workers at work shows one of the strongest relationships with CWB (Bruk & Spector, 2006) and is only partially mediated by negative emotions. Finally, organizational justice also fits within the theoretical approach of the job stress model as shown by Fox and colleagues (2001). In that study, procedural justice was related to CWB and mediated by negative emotions. Additionally Bruursema and Spector (2005) found that both procedural and distributive justice showed significant relationships with CWB and provided evidence for full mediation by negative emotion. To sum, the literature on situational variables supports the idea that situational antecedents of CWB are important in understanding the construct.

More specific to this study, some research has examined the relationships between job characteristics and CWB. Hackman and Oldham's (1976) Job Characteristics Model states that a set of core job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback) lead to set of critical psychological states (e.g. experienced meaningfulness of the work), which lead to a set of job and life-related outcomes. One study that has examined the impact of job characteristics on CWB is by Rentsch and Steele (1998). The researchers found a relationship between job characteristics scores and objective measures of attendance. The correlations were between -.2 and -.25 for skill variety, task identity, and autonomy. This indicates that there is a meaningful relationship between the variety of job duties, ownership of work outcomes, and

independence in completing job tasks and withdrawal behavior. In other research on job characteristics, Klein, Leong, and Silva (1996) found links between self-reported sabotage and autonomy scores. Those individuals reporting that their supervisors watched them too closely and did not allow them to complete their work according to their own plans reported more counterproductive behaviors.

Also germane to this study, some work has looked at the effects of job boredom on CWB. Kass, Vodanovich, and Callender (2001) found that individuals high on job boredom also showed significantly higher scores on an objective measure of absenteeism, which is a form of withdrawal. In a separate study using a truck driver sample, Drory and Ben-Gurion (1982) found that self reports of job boredom were related to objective personnel file reports of reduced work effectiveness. Although reduced work effectiveness is not CWB per se, it is related to the occurrence of CWB. Jointly, these two studies provide preliminary support for a link between job boredom and CWB.

Taken together, the research literature on individual difference and situational antecedents of CWB show that both factors are important in predicting CWB and gives credence to the idea that the individual and situational variables included in this study are viable antecedents of CWB. The remainder of the introduction is devoted to understanding the four independent variables in more detail and laying out the rationale for their projected relationships with CWB.

Values

Values are criteria people use to evaluate actions, people (including the self), and events (Schwartz, In press, a). Elsewhere, Rokeach (1973) gives a similar definition of values as desirable, transsituational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding

principles in people's lives. In 1968, Rokeach, one of the first psychologists to talk about values, predicted that there would be a high degree of interest in values in the social psychology literature. However, the 1970s through early 1990s saw an explosion of research in attitudes, attributions, social cognition, and group processes, while values were largely ignored (Oishi, Schimmack, Diener, & Suh, 1998). Then, starting in 1992, Schwartz and his colleagues began large scale, cross-cultural studies of the nature, content, and structure of human values. As Schwartz's work has become a dominant individual values paradigm to the present day, his theoretical approach and study results will be emphasized here.

After over a decade of research, Schwartz (In press, a) concludes the following about the nature of individual values: (1) Values are beliefs tied inextricably to emotions, (2) Values are motivational, referring to desirable goals people strive to attain, (3) Values transcend specific actions and situations, (4) Values are standards that guide the selection or evaluation of actions, policies, people, and events, and (5) Values are ordered by importance relative to one another. Therefore, values differ from norms and attitudes since these terms refer to specific actions, objects, or situations while values refer to overarching policies to govern choices and behavior across all situations.

Explaining where values come from and what purpose they serve, Schwartz (In press, a) explains that they are inherent from an evolutionary viewpoint and motivated by three major needs: (1) needs of individuals as biological organisms, (2) requirements of coordinated social interaction, and (3) the survival and welfare needs of groups.

Succinctly, values exist to help the individual survive – by helping to meet the

individual's biological needs, get along with others, and protect groups to which the individual belongs.

Schwartz proposes a unifying theory of values for the field of human motivation (see Schwartz, In press, a, for a review). Essentially, through research on 64,271 people drawn from samples from 67 different countries located on every inhabitable continent, Schwartz found evidence for ten consistent human values. Schwartz used Similarity Structure Analysis (SSA; a non-metric scaling technique that maps items as points in multidimensional space where the distance between points represents interrelations among items), elsewhere called Smallest Space Analysis (e.g. Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss, 1999), to reach his conclusion that there are ten motivationally distinct human values that exist across cultures. These ten values and their accompanying definitions are presented in Table 1.

Table 1.
Values and their motivational definitions.

Value	Motive of each value
Power	Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources
Achievement	Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards
Hedonism	Pleasure or sensuous gratification for oneself
Stimulation	Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life
Self-direction	Independent thought and action – choosing, creating, exploring
Universalism	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature
Benevolence	Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact
Tradition	Respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide
Conformity	Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms
Security	Safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self

Further, using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with samples from 27 countries, Schwartz (Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004) established that certain values are compatible with one another while others are in conflict and that a quasi-circumplex model fit the data best. This is because some values reflect motivations that are diametrically opposed to others; thus, they appear opposite in the circumplex structure. For instance, it would be very difficult if not impossible for the same individual, in the same act, to reflect both universalism and power values. By definition, power is about dominating and controlling people or resources and obtaining social status and prestige for the individual. Universalism, on the other hand, is defined as understanding, appreciating, and protecting all people and nature, and being one with the environment. Therefore, in a single act, it would be extremely challenging for an individual to both act to understand and protect people and to dominate and control them.

Figure 1 depicts Schwartz's universal structure of values (Schwartz, 1992, 1994, 1996, 2004). Values adjacent to one another in the circle reflect similar motivational content whereas values opposite one another in the circle reflect conflicting motivational content. Moreover, values on the left side of the circle primarily serve interests of individuals whereas values on the right side of the circle primarily serve interests of the collective. To break it down further, values in the first quadrant (the top right of the circle) all reflect a motivation to go beyond the self and care for others (i.e., self-transcendence values); values in the second quadrant (bottom right of the circle) are motivated by maintaining the status quo (i.e., conservation); values in the third quadrant (bottom left of the circle) are motivated by promoting the self (i.e., self-enhancement);

and values in the fourth quadrant (top left of the circle) are motivated by a desire for novelty (i.e., openness to change).

Delving deeper into the dynamic relationships among the values illustrated in Figure 1, we can extrapolate the shared motivational emphases of adjacent values (from Schwartz, In press, a). Starting in the third quadrant with power and achievement, the shared motive is social superiority and esteem. Moving clockwise around the circle, achievement and hedonism share a motivation for self-centered satisfaction. Hedonism and stimulation are both motivated by a desire for affectively pleasant arousal. Stimulation and self-direction both reflect intrinsic interest in novelty and mastery. Self-direction and universalism share a reliance on one's own judgment and comfort with the diversity of existence. Universalism and benevolence are both motivated by a desire for enhancement of others and transcendence of selfish interest. Benevolence and conformity share a motivation for normative behavior that promotes close relationships. Benevolence and tradition are both motivated by devotion to one's in-group. Conformity and tradition are similar in that both emphasize subordination of the self in favor of socially imposed expectations. Tradition and security are similarly motivated by preserving existing social arrangements that give certainty to life. Conformity and security both emphasize protection of order and harmony in relations. Finally, security and power are similarly motivated by avoiding or overcoming threats by controlling relationships and resources.

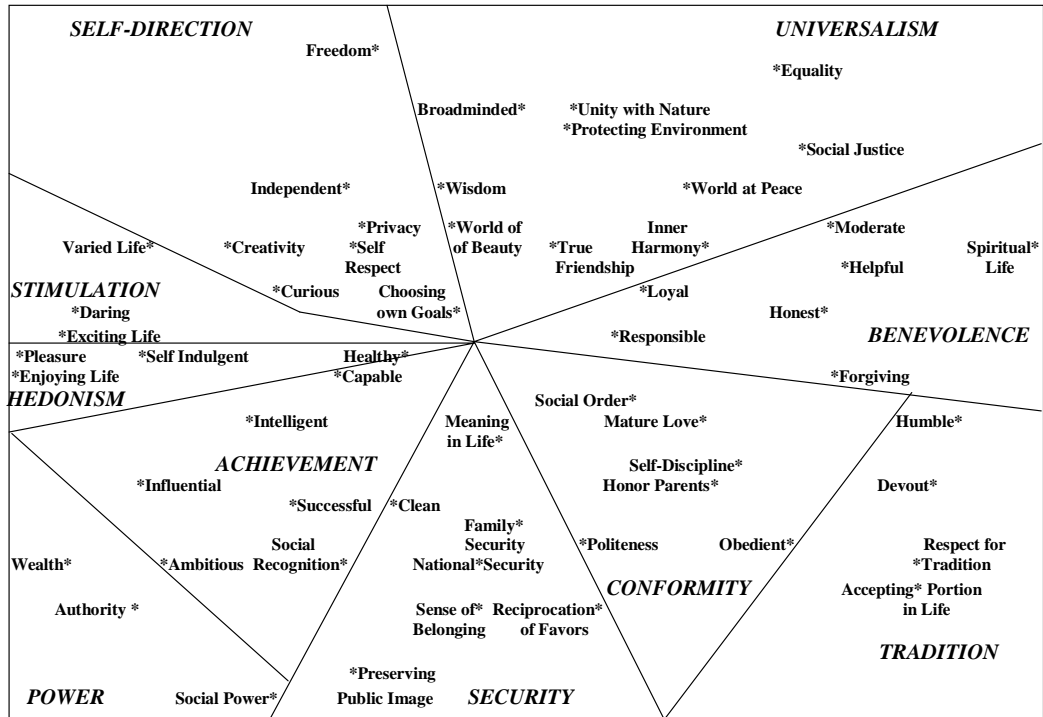


Figure 1. SSA map of observed relations among values in Portuguese student sample (n=198; coefficient of alienation = .24)

The relationship of values with other variables. Schwartz (see In press, b) states that there are two implications of the circular motivational structure for values' relationships with other variables: (1) Values that are adjacent in the structure should have similar associations with other variables, and (2) Associations of values with other variables should decrease monotonically in both directions around the circle from the most positively to most negatively associated value. This yields a systematic, coherent set of hypotheses relating value priorities to other variables. An illustration of this pattern can be seen when examining the relationship of years of education with values. Education is correlated most positively with self-direction ($r = .26$) and most negatively with conformity ($r = -.28$) and tradition ($r = -.22$). The correlations decrease in both directions going around the circle with just one reversal, achievement is more highly

correlated with education ($r = .14$) than is hedonism ($r = .09$). These reversals, or deviations from hypotheses, according to Schwartz (1996), can be useful as they direct us to search for special conditions that enhance or weaken relations of a variable with values. This expected pattern of association following the circular structure is important for this study because the hypotheses for relationships between CWB and various values will relate not only to the value of interest, but also to nearby and opposite values.

A second issue that will have a bearing on this research is the relative stability of values within an individual over time. If values are consistent throughout an individual's lifetime, then their influence on other variables, such as CWB, is more important than if values are constantly in flux. Inglehart (1997) demonstrated that older persons give higher priority to materialist (economic and physical security) vs. post-materialist (self-expression and quality of life) values than younger people. He interpreted this as a cohort effect due to changes in security and prosperity in the past 50 years and concluded that people form values in adolescence that change little thereafter. Elsewhere, researchers have concluded that values are relatively stable motivational characteristics that change little during adulthood (e.g. Feather, 1971; Rokeach, 1973; & Schwartz, 1997).

Schwartz views the causal relationship between individual values and life stages/age as reciprocal (see Schwartz, In press, b). He indicates that though the major transmission of values and their internalization occurs in childhood and adolescence, many factors in one's later years can change values. He discusses that the effects of physical aging may increase one's motivation for security since a more predictable environment tends to be safer. Conversely, hedonism values may become less important as dulling of the senses reduces the capacity to enjoy sensual pleasure. He also discusses

how life stages such as starting a career or family may heighten the motivation for achievement, tradition, and security as individuals become invested in a work and/or family situation that they are committed to preserve. The data support these ideas quite well, showing that age correlates most positively with security ($r = .22$), tradition ($r = .20$), and conformity ($r = .19$) and most negatively with stimulation ($r = -.28$), hedonism ($r = -.33$), and achievement ($r = -.17$). However, Schwartz points out that though it is reasonable to expect that, in general, these values become more or less salient with age, it is not possible to rule out a cohort effect completely.

Further, Schwartz (In press, b) reports test-retest reliabilities for the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS), one of the key measures in his approach, for periods of one week, six weeks, and two years. Reliability correlations for the 1 week time frame ranged from .77 for conformity to .94 for power. For the six week time frame, correlations ranged from .62 for benevolence to .82 for achievement. And for the two year time frame, correlations ranged from .50 for benevolence to .66 for tradition. As one would expect, correlations diminish with length of time between administrations, but individual values do not appear to fluctuate widely even over a period of two years. In brief, research and theory suggest that values are reasonably stable over time but certain values may diminish in importance with age while others become more important.

A third consideration regarding values that is vital to this study is the relationship between values and behavior. If values do not relate to behavior in a reliable, systematic way, then there would be little reason to suspect that values would be associated with CWB. Research by Verplanken and Holland (2002), Bardi and Schwartz (2003), and Schwartz (In press, b) has addressed the question of the extent and nature of the

relationship between values and behavior. First, Verplanken and Holland's (2002) work indicates that value activation must occur in order to affect behavior. And the likelihood that a value will be activated depends on its accessibility, which is largely determined by its importance to the individual. Therefore, important values are more strongly related to behavior. The researchers demonstrated this through priming subjects with environmental words (e.g. nature, river); later, students for whom environmental (i.e. universalism) values were important made more environmentally friendly choices. In the same research, they also demonstrated that self-focus rather than specific value-focus increases value-behavior relations. They manipulated self-focus by having subjects circle words relating to the self in a text (e.g., I, me, mine), or, in the control condition, words that do not relate to the self (e.g., at, the, it). Later, subjects for whom benevolence and universalism values were important gave more to Amnesty International when they were in the self-focus condition. The crucial element here is the presence of experimental control, thereby demonstrating that values cause behavior.

Aside from value activation, there are three other ways by which values can influence behavior. First, values can influence motivation by inducing valences on possible actions (Feather, 1988). Therefore, actions become more attractive to the extent that they promote attainment of valued goals. Moreover, values influence much of our everyday behavior with little conscious awareness of their influence (see Feather, 1995 for elaboration). Connecting this to the current study, values are fundamental to motivating our behavior; this suggests that doing specific CWBs should vary among different individuals depending on which values are most important to them, and therefore motivate different behaviors.

Second, values influence attention, perception, and interpretation in situations. Thereby high priority values are persistent goals that guide people to seek out and attend to value-relevant aspects of a situation (Schwartz, Sagiv, & Boehnke, 2000). In this way, the same situation is defined very differently by different individuals in light of his or her own principal values because these values direct the individual to attend to the things in the situation most salient to those values. This is important in the present study because values influence the way a situation is perceived; accordingly, a situation (or job) is not boring in an objective sense, but through the subjective screen of one's own values.

Third, one's values influence the planning of an action. Gollwitzer (1996) argues that more important goals induce a stronger motivation to plan thoroughly. As follows, higher priority values are more likely to elicit planning and therefore behavioral expression of the value. Gollwitzer's experiments show that planning then increases the probability of goal-directed behavior for three reasons: (1) planning focuses people on the pros of a behavior rather than the cons, (2) planning increases a person's belief in his or her abilities to reach the goal successfully, and (3) planning increases persistence in the face of obstacles.

The four aforementioned processes explain how values can influence behavior. Longitudinal research by Bardi and Schwartz (2003) shows how behavior and values actually relate to one another. The researchers first generated ten sets of 6-10 behaviors that primarily express one of the ten broad values. Participants completed the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) and later rated the frequency with which they had performed the various behaviors in the last year. Romantic partners and peers' reports of participants' behaviors were collected too. The researchers found that stimulation ($r = .64, .35$),

hedonism ($r = .55, .29$), power ($r = .52, .25$), and self-direction ($r = .47, .29$) values were most closely linked to specific behaviors (self-report correlations are listed first, other-report correlations follow). Meanwhile, security ($r = .31, .10$), achievement ($r = .38, .20$), conformity ($r = .40, .18$), and benevolence ($r = .43, .18$) values showed the lowest value-behavior correlations. The specific behaviors examined in the study were cooperation in a game, voting for a center-right over a center-left candidate, and making environmentally friendly purchases. Of note here, all self and other reports of values and behavior were significantly correlated with the exception of other reports of security ($r = .10$). To sum, relationships between values and behavior in the series of studies were moderate or better for self-reports and small to moderate for other-reports.

Concisely, the ten values show systematic relationships with other variables that derive from their circular structure, which will have implications for the hypotheses in this study; values remain reasonably stable over the adult lifespan, allowing for conclusions predicated on them to remain applicable for a reasonable period of time; and values show definite relationships with behavior that is, of course, moderated by circumstances in the environment and other characteristics of the person.

Individual Values & CWB

Now that the relevant values theory and research literature have been elucidated, I will describe the expected connection between individual values and CWB. Essentially, my supposition is that since values are enduring aspects of our personality that permeate all of our motivations and decisions, they should influence our choices and behaviors at work. Interestingly, relatively little work has examined the impact of values at work. One study examined the link between basic individual values and work values (Ros,

Schwartz, & Surkiss, 1999). The researchers found that each of the four work values paralleled one of the four higher order basic values. Specifically, they found that intrinsic or self actualization work values related significantly to openness to change values ($r = .23$) and negatively with conservation values ($r = -.23$). Examples of intrinsic work value items are, “Interesting and varied work,” and, “Work in which you are your own boss.” This finding, extremely relevant to the current study, shows that for some individuals, an interesting job with independence from supervisors is not necessarily important or desirable. Researchers also found that extrinsic work values related significantly with conservation values ($r = .24$) and negatively with openness to change values ($r = -.28$). Example extrinsic work value items are, “Good salary and work conditions,” and, “Job security (e.g. pension).” Thirdly, researchers found that social/relational work values related significantly with self-transcendence values ($r = .25$) and negatively with self-enhancement values ($r = -.32$). Example relational work value items are, “Contributing to people and society,” and, “Social contact with co-workers.” Finally, researchers found that prestige work values correlated significantly with self-enhancement values ($r = .29$) and negatively with self-transcendence values ($r = -.23$). Example prestige items are, “Authority to make decisions over people,” and, “Prestigious, highly valued work.” Though this study did not address any question regarding individual values and work behavior, it does establish that one’s overall values match with what they value on the job. This is a noteworthy link for the current study because it establishes the pervasiveness of individual values even into one’s preferences and desires in the workplace.

To clarify the nature of the expected relationships between values and CWB, I reference Schwartz's (In press, b) discussion of values and anxiety. He states that pursuit of values at the bottom of the circumplex structure (i.e. conformity, tradition, security, power) serve to cope with anxiety due to uncertainty in the social and physical world. Conversely, values toward the top (i.e. universalism, benevolence, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism) express motivations that are anxiety-free. Using this idea, I expect that individuals who value conformity will avoid CWB because of its aberrant nature and its tendency to make an individual more salient (e.g. being late, shouting at co-workers, playing mean pranks). CWB would produce greater anxiety in the individual, rather than less, as it threatens the status quo and the individual's predictable environment. Further, since conformity values are, by definition, about restraining actions, inclinations, and impulses that are likely to upset or harm others or violate social norms, it is likely that they will negatively relate to committing CWBs. Therefore, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 1a: Conformity values will relate most negatively with overall CWB.

In keeping with Schwartz's (In press, b) theory and description of values' relationships with other variables, namely that: (1) Values that are adjacent in the structure should have similar associations with other variables, and (2) Associations of values with other variables should decrease monotonically in both directions around the circle from the most positively to most negatively associated value, the following related hypotheses are proposed:

Because tradition values promote respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas of culture and religion, and because CWBs are either unethical by

religious or traditional culture standards (e.g., stealing from one's employers or leaving work early) or simply frowned upon (e.g., starting rumors, making fun of people), they are likely to be negatively related to CWB. Moreover, tradition shows stronger links with behavior than do both conformity and security (see Bardi & Schwartz, 2003), probably because deeply entrenched religious and cultural ideals inspire a wide range of a person's behaviors, so the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 1b: Tradition values will relate second most negatively with overall CWB, after conformity.

Because security values are primarily about safety, harmony, and stability of society, relationships, and self, and because people who value security will likely be made even more anxious by upsetting an expected course of action, they are likely to relate negatively with CWB. However, security values show the lowest value-behavior correlations (see Bardi & Schwartz, 2003) and an argument could be made that some CWBs could increase one's safety and security (e.g., theft, threatening or hurting someone who has antagonized you), so the expected inverse relationship with CWB should not be as negative as the links between tradition, conformity, and CWB. Briefly:

Hypothesis 1c: Security values will relate third most negatively with overall CWB, after tradition and conformity.

Succinctly, hypothesis 1 states that conservation values will relate most negatively with overall CWB. When we examine the shared motivational structure of the three adjacent conservation values (Schwartz, chapter 1), the reason for this hypothesis is made clearer. First, conformity and tradition share an emphasis on subordination of the self in favor of socially imposed expectations. This self-subordination would most likely

cause individuals to put aside their feelings of injustice or negative emotions for the purpose of maintaining appropriate behavior, thereby inhibiting CWB. Similarly, tradition and security are both motivated by preserving existing social arrangements that give certainty to life, and conformity and security both emphasize protection of order and harmony in relations. As CWB is largely about disrupting harmony (e.g., starting fights) and order (e.g., hiding things so others can't find them), we would expect that individuals who place a strong emphasis on conservation values would not engage in high levels of CWB. In support of this idea, Liu (2003) found that Chinese participants in her study reported significantly less direct conflict than American participants. Her explanation for this was on the level of cultural values. In short, she argues that among Chinese participants, high collectivistic orientation, which places a strong emphasis on group harmony, sanctions direct displays of bad behavior. Meanwhile, Americans' individualist orientation promotes "being true to oneself" and expressing issues openly in order to meet individual needs, therefore promoting a direct confrontational style.

Looking more specifically at the various forms of CWB, there were more proposed relationships with values. First, as previously discussed, personal CWBs (CWBP) reflect behaviors directed at individuals within the organization rather than at the organization as a whole (CWBO). These behaviors are deliberately directed at one's co-workers to create problems (in the case of refusing help or spreading rumors) or induce harm (in the case of pushing, threatening, or verbally abusing). Because universalism values center on understanding, appreciating, tolerating, and protecting the welfare of all people and nature, it is unlikely that individuals motivated primarily by

these values would seek to harm anyone else. Therefore, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 2a: Universalism values will relate most negatively with CWBP.

Similarly, benevolence values should show negative relationships with CWBP. First of all, universalism and benevolence, by virtue of their adjacent placement in the value structure, share a motivation for enhancement of others and transcendence of selfish interest (see Schwartz, chapter 1). Secondly, benevolence itself is about preserving and enhancing the welfare of those with whom one is in frequent personal contact (the ‘in-group’). Although it is likely that one’s co-workers are a part of one’s in-group, it is not necessary. Therefore, for this link to work, it will depend largely on how cohesive one’s workgroup is. This is why the proposed relationship with CWB is smaller than the relationship between universalism and CWB. Concisely,

Hypothesis 2b: Benevolence will relate second most negatively with CWBP, after universalism.

In short, hypothesis 2 says that individuals who place a strong emphasis on self-transcendence values will engage in the least CWBP.

Now that the primary hypotheses regarding simple relationships between values and counterproductive work behavior have been described, I will describe the other individual difference characteristic included in this study, namely trait boredom. I will then describe the expected association between trait boredom and CWB.

Trait Boredom

Boredom is described in the literature as a negative, dissatisfying emotional state (e.g. Farmer & Sundberg, 1986; O’Hanlon, 1981). One common definition for boredom

is, “A state of relatively low arousal and dissatisfaction which is attributed to an inadequately stimulating environment (Mikulas & Vodanovich, 1993).” While boredom is frequently examined as reflecting a temporary state (state boredom), or boredom with the task at hand, some researchers have studied and described trait boredom, or boredom proneness. Farmer and Sundberg (1986) describe the boredom prone individual as, “One who experiences varying degrees of depression, hopelessness, loneliness, and distractibility. Common tasks are perceived as requiring effort, with dissatisfaction with one’s work and psychological well-being.”

Research examining the work outcomes associated with trait boredom is somewhat limited. Watt (2002) explains that many researchers view boredom as a transitory state and do not investigate the dispositional aspects of boredom, particularly with regard to organizational outcomes. His work showed that firefighters who showed high boredom proneness also showed lower personality adjustment, ambition, prudence, sociability, and school success, and perceived higher organizational constraints and inadequate task variety. He concluded that boredom proneness has meaningful organizational consequences that should be examined by other researchers. Supporting this contention, Kass, Vodanovich, and Callender (2001) found that boredom proneness related to decreased satisfaction with the work itself, pay, promotion, supervision, coworkers, and the job in general. In the same vein, Gould and Seib (1997) found that boredom prone teachers and restaurant workers showed significantly lower job satisfaction than teachers and workers who were not boredom prone. Although lowered job satisfaction is not the same thing as CWB, job satisfaction has shown inverse correlations with CWB (Fox & Spector, 1999).

A stream of research has examined the impact of boredom proneness in academic problems and deviant behavior in adolescents. In one study, 481 high school students filled out susceptibility to boredom scales, and these measures were correlated with objective indicators of deviant school behavior (Wasson, 1981). Correlations were significant for both males ($r = .36$) and females ($r = .26$). Almost two decades later, in a correlational survey design, Blunt and Pychyl (1998) found that boredom proneness relates to academic procrastination. The suspected mechanism behind this relationship is that boredom prone people perceive time as passing more slowly and procrastinators underestimate the time it takes to complete a task. Combined, the researchers postulate, the two could contribute to each other. Although the sample consisted of students, this could have implications for CWB acts of production deviance like purposely working slowly. Another study on juveniles (14-18 years), employing a full self-report methodology, found that high levels of delinquent behavior were accompanied by high boredom proneness along with many negative possible selves (a version of the self that the child is afraid of becoming) and few positive possible selves (a version of the self that the child would like to become) (Newberry & Duncan, 2001). A potential reason for this finding may be found in work by other researchers. First, MacDonald and Holland (2002) found significant beta weights for the effects of existential well-being (i.e., meaning and purpose in life and a sense of inner strength to cope with the existential issues of life) on boredom proneness ($R = -.43$ for men, $R = -.38$ for women). Elsewhere, McLeod and Vodanovich (1991) found a significant negative relationship with boredom proneness and self-actualization. Together, these findings indicate that finding meaning

and purpose in one's existence and seeing a desirable future relates negatively with boredom proneness.

Aside from research on school outcomes of boredom proneness in children and adolescents, other work has examined the correlates of boredom proneness in adults in other areas of non-work life. For instance, in research on undergraduate students, Kass and Vodanovich (1990) found that boredom proneness was similar to Type A behavior pattern in that both types of people exhibit impatience in situations imposing constraints and lacking in external stimulation. Boredom proneness was also similar to sensation seeking in that both show a need for a varied, novel, and exciting environment. This finding is potentially important to the current study because it suggests that boredom prone people would do particularly poorly under certain job conditions (e.g. mundane tasks and heavy supervision; i.e., a boring job), and the presence of impatience could signal emotional reactions to negative environmental conditions that could elicit CWB. Couple this with the finding by Watt and Vodanovich (1992) that boredom proneness showed a significant correlation with impulsiveness and the finding by Vodanovich, Verner, and Gilbride (1991) that boredom proneness correlated significantly with all sub-facets of negative affect (i.e. depression, hostility, anxiety, dysphoria), and the case for a relationship with CWB strengthens. Essentially, boredom prone people placed in a non-stimulating work environment are likely to feel impatient, anxious, and hostile and act impulsively; in short, they are in a bad situation, have negative feelings, and may not think about consequences of their actions. Therefore, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypothesis 3a: Trait boredom will be significantly positively related to overall CWB.

Hypothesis 3b: The relationship between job boredom and CWB – abuse and sabotage will be moderated by trait boredom such that, the relationship will be stronger when trait boredom is also high than when trait boredom is low.

To examine the relationships with boredom proneness and specific facets of CWB, we must probe further into the nature of boredom proneness and its relationships with other variables. First, let us discuss the two major types of boredom proneness. Factor analysis of boredom proneness scales has revealed at least two factors: External Stimulation (BPexts) and Internal Stimulation (BPints). BPexts measures one's need for excitement, challenge, and change in the external environment. BPints measures one's ability to generate adequate internal stimulation to keep oneself interested or occupied (Dahlen, Martin, Ragan, & Kuhlman, 2004). Rupp and Vodanovich (1997) found that among boredom prone individuals, high BPexts scored higher on aggression questionnaires, reported more verbal aggression, hostility, and anger, and showed more anger suppression and anger expression than low BPexts. High BPints, on the other hand, differed from low BPints only in that their anger suppression scores were higher and their anger control scores were higher.

In a stronger design that looked at possible moderators of the relationship, Dahlen and colleagues (2004) found that boredom proneness related to high aggression, trait anger, dysfunctional anger expression, and deficits in anger control. Moreover, they were able to extend Rupp and Vodanovich's (1997) previous findings by ruling out the possibility that the relationship was only a function of impulsiveness and sensation

seeking (important because prior work indicates that these three variables are related (Watt & Vodanovich, 1992)). While adding impulsiveness and sensation seeking to the model decreased the variance accounted for by boredom proneness in some of the dependent measures, boredom proneness remained a significant predictor. Of note here is that only BPexts, not BPints, showed significant relationships with the aggression and anger outcome variables. This indicates that individuals who experience boredom due to lack of external stimulation are more likely to feel angry and hostile, outwardly express their anger, and have difficulty controlling their anger.

Considering the implications of these two studies on the current research, it seems very likely that boredom prone individuals will be more likely to engage in both verbally and physically aggressive forms of CWB. In the Dahlen et al. (2004) study, hierarchical multiple regression equations for both physical and verbal aggression showed significant beta weights and a significant increase in R^2 values when boredom proneness (specifically BPext) was added. Considering this, it would seem that individuals who are bored due to their own need for external stimulation would be more likely to engage in CWBs since they are generally more prone to anger and aggression. Angry and aggressive acts of CWB would include primarily the abuse (e.g., threatening someone at work with violence) and sabotage (e.g., purposely damaging a piece of property at work) factors of CWB. Therefore, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypothesis 4a: Trait boredom, particularly BPext, will be significantly positively related to CWB – abuse.

Hypothesis 4b: Trait boredom, particularly BPext, will be significantly positively related to CWB – sabotage.

These hypotheses center on the most severe types of angry retaliation against co-workers (abuse) and the organization (sabotage). These associations are expected due to the findings demonstrated in prior work between boredom proneness and all forms of negative affect (Vodanovich, et al., 1991), boredom proneness and aggression (Rupp & Vodanovich, 1997; & Dahlen et al., 2004), and boredom proneness and sensation seeking, Type A behavior (Kass & Vodanovich, 1990), and impulsivity (Watt & Vodanovich, 1992).

Now that hypotheses involving the two individual difference variables with CWB have been justified, I will describe the two situational variables and their expected relationships with CWB. The following sections will also include hypotheses that link back to both individual difference variables (values and trait boredom); in so doing, the expected relationships among all the independent variables with CWB will emerge. As trait boredom was described most recently, it follows that job boredom will be discussed next.

Job Boredom

The literature examining the link between job boredom and work outcomes is somewhat more developed than that between trait boredom and CWB. Similar to results with trait boredom, MacDonald and MacIntyre (1997) found significant negative correlations between job satisfaction and job boredom. Using an administrative sample, Lee (1986) also found that individuals bored by the job were less satisfied with many aspects of the job.

More to the point, research with the Job Affective Well-being Scale (JAWS; VanKatwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000) gives some additional insight into the

relationship between job boredom, other emotions, and CWB. The JAWS includes one item that reads, “My job made me feel bored.” To this item, respondents indicate on a 5-point scale how often they feel the emotion at work. This item correlates from .20 to .49 with various CWB-withdrawal items (Bruursema & Spector, 2005). Research on relationships between different emotions and CWB have shown that boredom behaves differently than other emotions. Boredom does not inter-relate with other negative emotional states such as angry, anxious, depressed, discouraged, fatigued, frightened, furious, and gloomy (Spector & Fox, 2003). A factor analysis for the Spector and Fox study showed boredom on one factor and all of the other negative emotions on the other. Spector et al. (2006) found that job boredom (measured with 1 self-report item on the JAWS) correlated .27 with withdrawal, which was the only one of the 5 sub-facets of CWB to significantly relate to boredom. Taken together, these findings indicate that boredom has different causes and effects than other negative workplace emotions. Concurrent with the relationship between job boredom and self-reported withdrawal behavior, Kass, Vodanovich, and Callender (2001) found that individuals who reported high job boredom showed significantly higher absenteeism (a form of withdrawal) as measured by objective organizational measures. Therefore, to replicate prior work, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 5: There will be a positive relationship between job boredom and CWB – withdrawal such that individuals high on job boredom will engage in more CWB – withdrawal.

In addition, as work by Bruk and Spector (2006) and others (e.g. Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Bruursema & Spector, 2005) has shown, employees direct their CWBs at

the source of their problem. Specifically, Bruk and Spector found that conflict with supervisors resulted in higher levels of CWBO, while conflict with co-workers resulted in higher levels of CWBP. Since job boredom is due to lack of a sufficiently stimulating work environment, one would expect that employees would direct their CWB at the offending organization rather than at their co-workers. In support of this idea, Spector et al. (2006) found that boredom at work correlated .33 with CWBO, an even stronger correlation than with withdrawal. Therefore, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 6: Individuals high on job boredom will engage in more CWBO than individuals low on job boredom.

Further, the relationship between job boredom and CWB is expected to be such that even after the effects of trait boredom are partialled out, job boredom will still show a significant relationship with CWB. To wit, even after removing people who are chronically bored from the analysis, it is expected that people who are simply bored by the work situation (but engaged in other areas of life) will perform higher levels of CWB. By this thinking, the boring work situation can induce negative, counterproductive reactions in all people. Stating this requires two related hypotheses:

Hypothesis 7a. There will be a positive relationship between job and trait boredom.

Hypothesis 7b. After controlling for trait boredom, there will be a relationship between job boredom and CWB such that individuals with higher job boredom levels will engage in more CWB overall.

Recalling that stimulation values are motivated by excitement, novelty, and challenge in life, it would seem that the expression of these values would be thwarted by a boring work environment. In this situation, individuals who place a strong emphasis on

stimulation values may engage in behaviors simply to increase their level of activation. These behaviors could be innocuous in their intention, negative in their organizational consequences, and could simultaneously serve as a form of job enrichment for the bored individual. An example behavior could be inventing a game to play during a boring meeting that distracts co-workers and wastes time. The intention on the part of the actor was to increase activation level, not to annoy or anger others, but the outcome was to waste time and organizational resources and bother co-workers. Under the definition of CWB proposed by Spector and Fox (2005), this type of behavior would still constitute CWB, as it is volitional and harmful, but it is not intentionally harmful, so behavior like it is not included on common measures of CWB. On the flip side, bored individuals who do not place as strong an emphasis on stimulation values would not be expected to engage in additional CWB beyond withdrawal.

Though Spector et al. (2006) found that job boredom did not relate significantly with sabotage ($r = .09$) or abuse ($r = .11$) overall, other research has found that it correlates significantly with certain non-withdrawal CWB items. Specifically, boredom correlated ($r = .173$) with the abuse item, "Played a mean prank to embarrass someone at work," as well as with miscellaneous negativity items such as complaining about the job ($r = .197$) and refusing to help others ($r = .206$) (Bruursema & Spector, 2005). I believe that both the influence of values and the number and nature of the items measuring boredom and CWB could matter significantly as to what we discover with respect to job boredom and active forms of CWB. Specifically, the one item boredom measure from the JAWS may not adequately cover all potential aspects of job boredom whereas a reliable multiple item measure should be more sensitive, and may reveal a relationship

between CWB and boredom that was previously obscured. Looking further at the relationship between boredom and CWB, not all bored individuals will engage in active CWB; whether or not the individual chooses to engage should depend largely on what the person values. If stimulation is very important to the individual, then we would expect that the person would engage not only in withdrawal but also actively commit CWBs to make the job more interesting. On the other hand, if the person does not value stimulation, he or she would be more likely to show the familiar pattern of withdrawing in response to boredom. With a multiple item measure of job boredom and additional items to measure less extreme forms of sabotage and abuse, I suspected that boredom would be related to pranks, games, practical jokes and other stimulating, low-grade forms of production deviance, sabotage, and abuse. Therefore, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypothesis 8a. The relationship between job boredom and CWB-sabotage will be moderated by stimulation values, such that, individuals who value stimulation highly and who are high on job boredom, will engage in more CWB – sabotage.

Hypothesis 8b. The relationship between job boredom and CWB-abuse will be moderated by stimulation values such that, individuals who value stimulation highly and who are high on job boredom, will engage in more CWB - abuse.

Hypothesis 8c: The relationship between stimulation values and CWB – withdrawal sabotage will be moderated by job boredom such that, individuals who value stimulation highly and who are high on job boredom will engage in more CWB – production deviance.

Job Characteristics

Job characteristics theory (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1976) specifies the task conditions under which individuals are predicted to be motivated in their work (Kulik, Oldham, & Hackman, 1987). To summarize, the theory posits that certain core job characteristics must be present for three specific critical psychological states to emerge that then result in four possible positive outcomes for both the individual and the organization. The core job characteristics that influence the first critical psychological state, meaningfulness of the work, are skill variety (i.e. job requires multiple activities calling on different skills and talents of the individual), task identity (i.e. completing a whole, identifiable piece of work), and task significance (i.e. impact of the job on people or some other important outcome). The core job characteristic that influences the second critical psychological state, feelings of responsibility for outcomes of the work, is autonomy (i.e. freedom, independence, and discretion in how to carry out the work). And the final core job characteristic, influencing the final critical psychological state, knowledge of the results of the job, is job feedback (i.e. results of the job give direct and clear information about effectiveness of individual's performance) (Kulik et al., 1987).

The theory suggests that for a job to be high on motivating potential, it must possess at least one of the characteristics that prompt meaningfulness (i.e. skill variety, task identity or task significance), with the idea that deficiencies in one characteristic can be compensated by high levels of another characteristic, and it must possess both autonomy and job feedback. And, a job with low levels of either feedback or autonomy will directly attenuate the overall motivating potential of the work (Kulick et al., 1987).

In this study, I examined characteristics of the job to see how well they matched the individual respondent's values. In general, I expected that individuals whose values matched their job characteristics would report lower job boredom and report engaging in less CWB than individuals whose values were at odds with the characteristics of their jobs.

Specifically, I expected that individuals who value openness to change would report less boredom and less CWB when their jobs were high in the job characteristic of skill variety. The strongest relationship was expected when high stimulation values and high skill variety are paired. This is because stimulation values are motivated by a need for excitement, novelty, and challenge in life. A person who values this would seem to thrive then, in a job that makes use of a wide range of that person's talents and skills. On the other hand, a low scope job, one with low use of a variety of skills, would be perceived as boring by a person who values stimulation highly. Therefore, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 9a: The relationship between job skill variety and both CWB and job boredom will be moderated by stimulation values such that, when both stimulation values and job skill variety are high, there will be less job boredom and less CWB of all forms.

Hypothesis 9a proposes less CWB of all types for a few reasons. First, an individual who values stimulation and who holds a job where s/he can use a variety of his/her skills, will show less organizational CWB since the organization is not a source of stress to the person (since Bruk and Spector, 2006) and others have shown that we tailor our counterproductive responses to the source of the problem). Also, individuals who are having their need for stimulation met by a fulfilling, interesting job, are less likely to

engage in personal CWBs (CWBP) or CWB – sabotage that other people who value stimulation may use to make their jobs more exciting. They were also expected to be less likely to commit CWB – withdrawal behaviors because the job is a source of gratification of their need for stimulation, therefore they do not need to look outside of work to meet this need.

Alternatively, I proposed that skill variety would be unimportant to an individual who reports strong conservation values. In fact, to a person who values security, conformity, and tradition, the variety of tasks and demands may be unappealing and represent a poor fit. This relationship should be most pronounced for individuals who value tradition, as tradition emphasizes maintaining time-honored customs and ways of doing things and submitting to life's circumstances. An individual who strongly values this may find the variety and change in the work threatening and prefer structured, clear-cut job responsibilities that do not vary from the status quo. Keeping in mind the circular, oppositional structure of values as well, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 9b: The relationship between job skill variety and CWB-O will be moderated by tradition values such that, when both tradition values and job skill variety are high, there will be more CWB-O.

The relationship was expected only with CWB-O since research by many authors (e.g. Bruursema & Spector, 2005; Bruk & Spector, 2006; Fox et al., 2001) has shown that acts of CWB are directed at the source of the problem. Since an individual's problem with person-job fit is a problem with the organization rather than individual co-workers, one would not expect said individual to show increased or decreased levels of personal CWBs such as abuse.

Going further with job characteristics, I expected that individuals who valued openness to change would report less CWB when job autonomy was high. This relationship was expected to be most pronounced for self-direction values. Since self-direction emphasizes independent thought and action and freedom to choose, job autonomy would represent an excellent fit between values and job characteristics. Thus, this hypothesis follows:

Hypothesis 10a: The relationship between job autonomy and CWB-O will be moderated by self-direction values such that, when both self-direction values and job autonomy are high, there will be less CWB-O.

On the other hand, job autonomy may be threatening or, at the least, unappealing to some individuals. Likely, individuals who value conservation, specifically security, will see autonomy in a less positive way. This potential moderator could help explain the low positive correlations found previously between autonomy and CWB (e.g. Goh, et al., 2003; Fox, et al., 2001). High job autonomy should be a poor fit for an individual who values stability of society and relationships, safety, and harmony. The high level of autonomy could threaten the security and predictability of this person's environment. Therefore, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 10b: The relationship between job autonomy and CWB-O will be moderated by security values such that, when both security values and job autonomy are high, there will be more CWB-O.

Moving to the next job characteristic of interest, job feedback, I expected that individuals who valued self-enhancement would report less job boredom and less CWB when job feedback was high. This relationship was expected to be most pronounced with

achievement values. Since achievement values are primarily about personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards, job feedback would be a very important built-in feature of the job to these individuals. This way, they can be assured by virtue of their work product that they are meeting some important standard for success. In short, high job feedback represents a good fit for individuals who value achievement. Therefore, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 11: The relationship between job feedback and CWB-O will be moderated by achievement values such that, where achievement values are high and job feedback is high, there will be less CWB-O.

For people who value self-transcendence most, task significance was posited to be the most important job characteristic. This characteristic was expected to be most important to those individuals who value universalism. Task significance is defined as the job's having a substantial impact on the lives of other people, either in the immediate organization or the world at large, while universalism values are primarily about broadmindedness, understanding and protecting the welfare of people. Believing that one's work is significant and has an impact on the well-being of others would therefore represent a good fit for a person who values making a difference in the grand scheme of things. Thus, this hypothesis follows:

Hypothesis 12: The relationship between task significance and CWB-O will be moderated by universalism values such that, where universalism values are high and task significance is high, there will be less CWB-O.

Finally, for individuals who value conservation most, task identity was expected to be the most important job characteristic for on the job well-being. Task identity is

about completing a whole, identifiable piece of work with a visible outcome. Particularly for individuals who value conformity most, task identity serves as an example of the individual's commitment to hard work, self-discipline, and meeting obligations.

Therefore, a match between task identity and conservation values was expected to result in positive motivational outcomes. Thus, this hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 13: The relationship between task identity and CWB-O will be moderated by conformity values such that, where conformity values are high and task identity is high, there will be less CWB-O.

The Current Study

The purpose of the current study was to examine the relationships between trait and job boredom, individual values, and job characteristics on various types of counterproductive work behaviors. There is little existing work with boredom proneness and its effects in the workplace, and little work with job boredom has been extended to examine its effects on CWB. Further, Schwartz's values paradigm has not been used to examine or explain these workplace behaviors.

The current study also made use of co-worker report data to transcend some of the problems with single administration self-report surveys. Co-workers with similar jobs to participants reported on job boredom and job characteristics. The reason for this was to see if supposed objective qualities of the job are interpreted similarly by co-workers in similar jobs. Co-workers were not asked to report on participants' boredom proneness, individual values, or CWB since this information is particular to the individual and can be expected to be unknown to most others.

In sum, this study examined the relationship between job boredom and all facets of CWB. The effects of boredom proneness were partialled out to determine if the relationship with job boredom and CWB persisted. Job characteristics were examined with values to test the idea that a job with objectively less desirable characteristics could be acceptable or even preferable to some individuals for whom the job matched their value preferences.

Chapter Two

Method

Participants

Participants were 211 employees in a variety of jobs from all over North America. Participants were asked to choose one co-worker with a job similar to their own to fill out a brief companion survey as a check on characteristics of the job itself. Of the 211 respondents, 112 returned the co-worker survey as well, resulting in 112 matched pairs. Eighty-three of the 211 participants were male (39%); mean age of participants was 35 years.

Table 2.
Job categories of participants

Job Category	Number of participants	Percentage
Education, training, & library	43	20.4%
Human resources & recruiting	25	12%
Business & financial operations	20	9.5%
Healthcare practitioner & technical	17	8.1%
Office & administrative support	16	7.6%
Computer & mathematical	12	5.7%
Sales & related	12	5.7%
Life, physical, & social science	8	3.8%
Management	8	3.8%
Arts, design, sports, entertainment, or media	7	3.3%
Legal	7	3.3%
Military specific	6	2.8%
Community & social services	5	2.4%
Food preparation & serving related	4	1.9%
Transportation & material moving	4	1.9%
Healthcare support	3	1.4%
Protective service	3	1.4%
Production	2	.9%
Architectural & engineering	2	.9%
Construction & extraction	2	.9%
Building & grounds cleaning & maintenance	1	.5%
Installation, maintenance, & repair	1	.5%

As seen in Table 2, many participants worked in education, human resources, business, office support, computers, or sales. Seventy point five percent of participants had completed a bachelors degree or higher; sixteen participants (7.6%) had a high school diploma only, and one participant had not finished high school. Participants worked an average of 44 hours per week. To ensure anonymity, no names or specific places of employment were collected.

Procedure

All survey responses were collected in an online format using a survey software website. Respondents were recruited through an email snowball administration. The researcher began by asking her network of colleagues, friends, and acquaintances who then asked their colleagues, friends, and acquaintances to participate. The researcher was also provided with email contact lists from some friends and family members, each to whom she sent survey participation request letters. Due to the nature of the administration, there is no way to determine response rates.

Participants were asked to choose one co-worker who had a job similar to their own to fill out the online co-worker survey. Participants were also asked to choose a secret code to enter at the beginning of their survey, and to give the code to their co-worker to enter at the beginning of his/her survey. The code was used to match the pair as no identifying information was collected.

Measures

Participants' surveys included measures of individual values, trait boredom, job boredom, job characteristics, and counterproductive work behavior. Co-worker surveys included measures of job characteristics and job boredom. Both participants and co-workers filled out the demographic items of type of industry, education level, hours worked per week, gender, and age. The complete participant questionnaire can be found in the appendix.

Demographics. Participants were told that all demographic items except for hours worked per week were optional, and that they should feel free to leave anything blank that they found too personal or potentially identifying. All but two participants indicated their age. All but one indicated their gender. All participants listed their average number of hours worked per week.

Participants were also asked to indicate their job type. The type of job measure was taken from the O*Net online job classification database. All but two respondents sorted their job type into one of the 23 given categories; those remaining two participants left the item blank.

All but two specified their highest level of education achieved, and all but eight designated whether or not they were working in the field that they studied in school. Of the eight non-respondents, six stated that their education level was high school or less; therefore, the item would not apply to them. Job type, education, and field were investigated because of prior concerns about compiling many different people in many different types of jobs across many organizational levels. The information gathered was used to further understand the sample and the generalizability of the results and to help us focus future research efforts.

Individual values. Individual values were measured using the 46-item Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) (Schwartz, 1994). The original scale consists of 57 items, but research with the scale repeatedly demonstrates that only 46 of the items consistently load on distinct values; the remaining 9 items show cultural variation (Schwartz, In press, a). Therefore, I administered the 46 scored items, rather than the entire 57 item scale. Each item is a one word stimulus (e.g., equality) followed by a short phrase in parentheses to further specify its meaning (e.g., equal opportunity for all).

The number of items chosen to measure each of the ten values is intended to reflect the presumed conceptual breadth of the value goal (Schwartz, In press, a). Thus, there are three hedonism items, to reflect a fairly simple motivational goal focused on self-satisfaction, and there are eight universalism items, to reflect a more complex motivational goal, a multi-faceted respect for living things (human and animal) and the environment (plants and landscapes).

The SVS asks respondents to rate the importance of each item “As a guiding principle in MY life” on a nine point scale labeled 7 (of supreme importance), 6 (very important), 5, 4 (unlabeled), 3 (important), 2, 1 (unlabeled), 0 (not important), and -1 (opposed to my values). This nonsymmetrical scale is stretched to the upper end and condensed at the bottom values because Schwartz's pre-testing demonstrated that such a scale maps the way people think about values – viewing most of them as varying from mildly to very important (Schwartz, In press, a). This response scale also permits respondents to report their opposition to values that they dislike.

The SVS was selected because it has been translated into 46 languages to investigate individual values cross-culturally, has been used in numerous published

studies, and has had its construct validity supported by research with the Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ), another instrument developed by Schwartz (see Schwartz, In press, b, for a review), and with newer instruments, namely the Pairwise Comparison Value Survey (PCVS) and the Personal Striving Value Survey (PSVS; Oishi et al., 1998).

Mean coefficient alphas for the ten values scales are as follows: benevolence (5 items) = .70, universalism (8 items) = .74, self-direction (5 items) = .70, stimulation (3 items) = .72, hedonism (3 items) = .74, achievement (4 items) = .72, power (4 items) = .68, security (5 items) = .70, conformity (4 items) = .72, and tradition (5 items) = .60 (this low reliability is attributed to a value consisting of two components, faith and self-restriction). These reliabilities are based on representative national samples from 23 nations (Schwartz, In press, b).

For this study, coefficient alphas were as follows: benevolence (5 items) = .71, universalism (8 items) = .83, hedonism (3 items) = .76, achievement (4 items) = .74, power (4 items) = .76, security (5 items) = .58, conformity (4 items) = .71, and tradition (5 items) = .64. By deleting item ten on the value survey (i.e., reciprocation of favors), coefficient alpha on the security sub-scale was increased to .61. The only other item on the value survey to show an unacceptably low item-total correlation was item number three. This value item, pleasure, when removed, raised coefficient alpha on the hedonism scale to .79. Since so much work has already been done with these scales, the items were not removed for analysis; however, it is worth noting low reliabilities for security and tradition when considering results including these variables.

Trait boredom. Trait boredom or boredom proneness was measured using Farmer and Sundberg's (1986) 28-item Boredom Proneness Scale (BPS). The response format

was changed from true-false to a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = mildly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = mildly agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree) in order to increase its sensitivity, following the procedure used by Dahlen et al. (2004). Example items include, “I often find myself with time on my hands – nothing to do,” and, “It takes a lot of change and variety to keep me really happy.”

This measure was chosen because it has been used in much prior research on boredom (e.g. Kass, et al., 2001; Dahlen, et al., 2004) supporting construct validity, and it has reported internal consistency between .79 and .84 (e.g. McLeod and Vodanovich, 1991; Kass & Vodanovich, 1990; Watt & Blanchard, 1994). For this study, internal consistency reliability was .82.

Subscales for internal and external stimulation boredom proneness were obtained from factor analysis results (Vodanovich & Kass, 1990). A similar factor structure has been demonstrated before and since (e.g., Ahmed, 1990). The 8-item sub-scale making up external stimulation BP (BPext) had a Cronbach's alpha of .75. The 8-item subscale making up internal stimulation BP (BPint) had a Cronbach's alpha of .68.

Job boredom. Lee's (1986) Job Boredom Scale was used to measure boredom on the job. It is a 17-item scale in which respondents indicate how dull and tedious their jobs are. Example items are, “Do you get bored with your work?” and “Does the time seem to go by slowly?” Response choices are 1 = never, 2 = very rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often, 6 = almost always, and 7 = always.

Coefficient alpha for the scale has been reported at .95 (Kass, Vodanovich, & Callender, 2001). For this study, average alpha for participant and co-worker job boredom scales was .94. Validity evidence was provided by significant negative

correlations with overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with the work itself scores using the Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). Also, Farmer and Sundberg (1986) found a significant positive relationship ($r = .49$) between Lee's Job Boredom Scale and the BP scale. For this study, the correlation between the job boredom scale and the boredom proneness scale was .68.

Job characteristics. Job characteristics were measured using a 15-item version of the Job Design Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), modified by Idaszak and Drasgow (1987). The scale is composed of 5 factors: autonomy, the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom and discretion in scheduling and conducting the work; task identity, the extent to which employees do an entire, identifiable piece of work; skill variety, the degree to which the job requires employees to perform a wide range of activities using a number of different skills and talents; task significance, the extent to which the employee feels the job impacts some important result; and job feedback, the degree to which employees receive information as they are working that reveals how well they are performing (Kulik, Oldham, & Hackman, 1987).

This iteration of the JDS was selected because it addresses a measurement problem with the task characteristics scales that existed on the original JDS (Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987). Coefficient alphas for the JDS have ranged from .68 (task significance) to .83 (task identity) (Oliver, Bakker, Demerouti, & DeJong, 2005). Elsewhere, coefficient alpha ranged from .73 (task significance) to .87 (autonomy) (Spector & Fox, 2003a). For this study, average coefficient alphas (for participant and co-worker responses) were as follows (all three item scales): .81 (task significance), .75 (autonomy), .81 (skill variety), .79 (job feedback), and .68 (task identity).

Counterproductive work behaviors (CWB). CWB was measured using a 45-item scale developed by Spector et al. (2006). This scale has been used in at least 11 studies and has been through several revisions and expansions since its first use by Spector (1975). The scale consists of an overall CWB measure, sub-indices of CWBO and CWBP, and five other subscales of CWB. These other subscales are: abuse, production deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal. These subscales were developed by a sorting technique. A group of six subject matter experts sorted the behaviors into CWBO, CWBP, abuse, production deviance, sabotage, theft, or withdrawal. All 45 items were classified into at least one subscale by a 5/6ths majority of subject matter experts.

Response choices for the scale were: 1 = never, 2 = once or twice, 3 = once or twice per month, 4 = once or twice per week, 5 = daily or almost daily. Respondents were instructed to answer the questions with respect to their present job.

Since this scale is a causal indicator one, meaning that the related but conceptually distinct items combine to form the construct, rather than vice versa (Bollen & Lennox, 1991), coefficient alphas for the scale and subscales are not important. However, they range from .58 (theft) to .85 (CWBP), and .87 for the total scale (Spector et al., 2006 March). For this study, total scale reliability was .91.

Additionally, to measure additional non-malicious intent CWBs, five items were added to the scale that deal with playing games or engaging in time and resource-wasting but potentially fun or interesting activities. These additional items were necessary to examine the potential for certain CWBs to be committed in order to enrich or liven work activities in response to boring jobs. Since CWB is a causal indicator, any activity that meets the definition set forth by Spector and Fox (2005) (intentional acts committed by

organizational members that result in harm to the organization or its members) and is not redundant with existing items on the list should constitute a form of CWB. These five items correlated .62 with the original list of 45 CWB items. The five new items are as follows: Created or engaged in a non work-related game or activity to entertain myself and/or others during a meeting, seminar, or training session; Used the internet to browse, blog, email, or otherwise amuse myself for non work-related purposes; Engaged in amusing activities such as gossiping or joking with co-workers that distract me and others from work; Played practical jokes on co-workers or customers to entertain myself and/or co-workers during work time; Wasted company resources or supplies to create something for my own purposes or to amuse myself or others.

Chapter Three

Results

Descriptive statistics were calculated for all study variables. Means, standard deviations, and ranges (observed and possible) can be found in Table 3. Observed ranges were generally approaching possible ranges with a few exceptions. Value survey ranges were generally upwardly skewed, especially for security and self-direction. Conversely, the range for CWB was compressed to the lower end of the scale. Alphas were generally acceptable to very good, with the exception of .58 for security, .64 for tradition, and .68 for task identity. The range restriction and low reliabilities should be considered when interpreting hypotheses concerning these variables.

Table 3.
Descriptive statistics for all study variables.

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Observed Range	Possible Range	Coefficient alpha
Universalism	37.2	9.0	5-55	-8-56	.83
Benevolence	26.4	4.6	8-35	-5-35	.73
Tradition	17.2	6.7	3-35	-5-35	.64
Security	23.0	5.3	10-35	-5-35	.58
Conformity	19.1	4.7	5-28	-4-28	.71
Power	11.3	5.9	-2-27	-4-28	.76
Achievement	20.0	4.3	8-28	-4-28	.74
Hedonism	13.7	3.9	2-21	-3-21	.76
Stimulation	12.6	4.0	1-21	-3-21	.70
Self-direction	25.3	5.0	10-35	-5-35	.70
Trait boredom	89.4	17.4	56-150	28-196	.82
Job boredom	56.9	15.6	21-108	17-119	.93
Co-worker job boredom	54.5	17.6	18-111	17-119	.95
Job characteristics	81.9	13.8	28-105	15-105	.88
Co-worker job characteristics	83.6	13.9	20-105	15-105	.88
Autonomy	17.3	3.0	6-21	3-21	.71
Co-worker	17.4	3.4	3-21	3-21	.78

autonomy					
Task significance	16.1	4.4	3-21	3-21	.80
Co-worker task significance	16.9	3.8	3-21	3-21	.81
Task identity	15.4	4.1	3-21	3-21	.69
Co-worker task identity	15.8	3.9	4-21	3-21	.66
Skill variety	17.1	3.7	3-21	3-21	.84
Co-worker skill variety	17.8	3.4	3-21	3-21	.78
Job feedback	16.0	3.4	3-21	3-21	.76
Co-worker job feedback	15.7	3.8	3-21	3-21	.82
CWB	72.8	15.1	51-151	51-255	.91

Intercorrelations among values are listed in Table 4. For the most part, values followed the pattern established by Schwartz, decreasing monotonically around the circle with the lowest intercorrelations existing between opposite values. Results for achievement were somewhat discrepant in that self-direction correlated higher with achievement than did either hedonism or stimulation. Another reversal was where conformity related more strongly with achievement than with power.

Table 4.
Zero order Pearson correlations among values

Values	Trad	Secur	Power	Achieve	Hedon	Stim	Self	Univ	Benev
Conf	.74	.59	.27	.39	.24	.16	.20	.34	.69
Trad		.49	.29	.25	.16	.11	.18	.30	.59
Secur			.46	.45	.34	.23	.31	.43	.45
Power				.54	.43	.38	.33	.13	.15
Achieve					.34	.36	.46	.28	.42
Hedon						.46	.41	.33	.22
Stim							.49	.37	.20
Self								.56	.32
Univ									.52

Since the -1 through 7 response scale for the value survey is used differently across individuals and cultures, it is necessary to correct for differences in scale use

across respondents. Therefore, in order to make proper inferences regarding relationships among values and CWB, mean value scale scores were calculated for each individual participant. Then, partial correlations were computed between the raw score on each of the ten values and the CWB score, where mean scale score on the value survey was the covariate. All correlations with values and CWB and its sub-facets are listed in Table 5.

Table 5.
First order partial correlations among values and CWB.

	CWB	CWBP	CWBO	Abuse	Sabo -tage	With- drawal	Theft	Prod. Dev.	Horse- play
Universalism	-.01	-.12	.07	-.04	-.09	.08	.00	.01	-.06
Benevolence	-.16*	-.13	-.20**	-.16*	-.09	-.18*	-.21**	-.08	-.12
Tradition	-.11	-.07	-.04	-.09	.00	.01	-.06	-.05	-.21**
Security	-.07	.00	-.12	-.06	-.10	-.05	-.02	-.13	-.08
Conformity	-.01	.08	-.05	.03	.11	-.08	-.06	.02	-.12
Power	.06	.10	.02	.10	.05	-.03	.06	.03	.02
Achievement	-.09	-.01	-.14*	-.07	-.13	-.17*	-.02	-.07	-.07
Hedonism	.16*	.11	.13	.12	.14*	.14*	.12	.04	.14*
Stimulation	.14*	.05	.16*	.10	.09	.12	.14*	.09	.09
Self- direction	.12	.10	.11	.11	.05	.06	.04	.14*	.02

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

Observing the correlations in Table 5, one can conclude that Hypothesis 1 is not supported. Neither conformity, nor tradition, nor security showed any significant relationships with any type of CWB. Looking further at Table 5, Hypothesis 2 is unsupported as well; no values showed any significant relationship with personal CWB. However, it is worth noting that benevolence ($r = -.13$, $p = .07$) and universalism ($r = -.12$, $p = .08$) were the only values that showed correlations approaching significance with personal CWB.

The key finding with respect to relationships among values and CWB was thus: Benevolence related inversely with most forms of CWB ($r = -.16$ to $-.21$); benevolence also showed the largest absolute correlations with CWB. Another finding of note: hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction, all openness to change values, showed small, significant, positive correlations with several types of CWB. Finally, an unexpected and un-hypothesized finding was the inverse relationship between achievement and both organizational CWB and withdrawal.

Relationships with trait boredom, self and co-worker reported job boredom, and all forms of CWB are presented in Table 6. Correlations between CWB and job boredom and between CWB and trait boredom are some of the highest observed CWB correlations in any study.

Table 6.
Zero-order Pearson correlations among boredom and CWB variables.

Variable	Trait boredom	BP ExtStim	BP IntStim	Job boredom	Co-worker job boredom
CWB	.44***	.38***	.04	.48***	.22*
CWBO	.50***	.43***	.08	.58***	.19*
CWBP	.32***	.28***	.00	.30***	.23*
Abuse	.41***	.32***	.06	.47***	.23*
Sabotage	.25***	.27***	-.07	.31***	.16
Withdrawal	.44***	.40***	.08	.52***	.16
Production Deviance	.31***	.29***	-.03	.31***	.22*
Theft	.34***	.30***	.09	.32***	.05
Horseplay items	.26***	.23**	-.01	.29**	.16
Job boredom	.68***	.54***	.20**		.29**
Co-worker job boredom	.19*	.15	-.03		

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

Hypothesis 3 is supported in that trait boredom correlated significantly with overall CWB ($r = .44, p = .000$). Hypothesis 4a is supported; trait boredom's correlation with abuse is a significant .41. ExtStim trait boredom is related to abuse ($r = .32, p = .000$) as well. Hypothesis 4b is also supported. Trait boredom's correlation with sabotage is .25; ExtStim trait boredom is also related to sabotage ($r = .27, p = .000$). However, the highest correlations with trait boredom were with organizational CWB ($r = .50, p = .000$) and withdrawal ($r = .44, p = .000$). Furthermore, according to a Hotelling's t for dependent correlations, trait boredom's correlation with organizational CWB was significantly larger than its correlation with personal CWB, which was not expected.

The results of moderated regression analyses showed partial support for Hypothesis 3b in that there is a significant interaction ($p = .045$) in the expected form between trait and job boredom in their effects on abuse. However, the interaction between trait and job boredom in their effects on sabotage did not rise to the level of significance ($p = .054$). Table 7 presents the multiple regression results. The significant interaction is pictured in Figure 3. The figure does show that when both trait boredom and job boredom are high, reported abuse is higher than when either job boredom or trait boredom is low. In fact, the effects of job boredom occur mostly for those who are high on trait boredom; the impact on abuse of being bored at work is higher for those high in trait boredom.

Table 7.

Results for trait boredom, job boredom, abuse moderated regression analysis

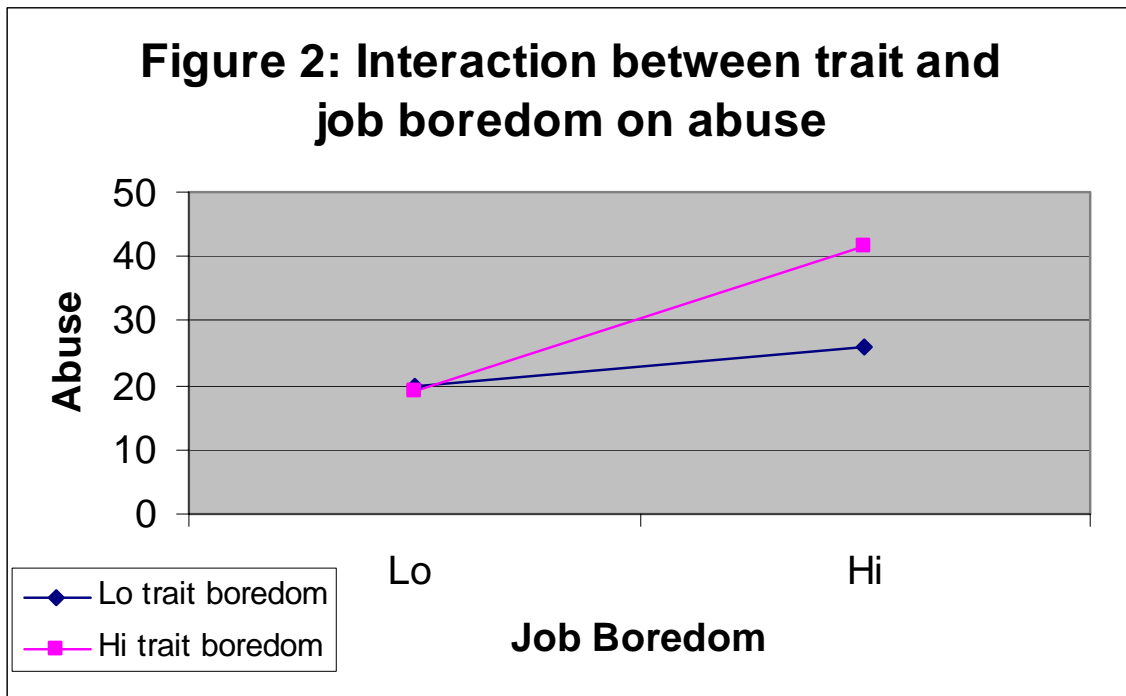
Step	Independent variable	Abuse		
		Unstandardized bs	Total R ²	Change in R ²
1	Job boredom	.168***	.22***	
2	Trait boredom	.058*	.23***	.01

Step	Independent variable	Unstandardized bs	Total R ²	Change in R ²
3	Trait x job boredom	.002*	.25***	.02
1	Job boredom	.168***	.22***	
2	Stimulation	.100	.22***	.00
3	Stimulation x job boredom	.005	.23***	.01

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

Figure 2.

Interaction between trait and job boredom on CWB-Abuse



Examining Table 6 shows that Hypothesis 5 is partially supported; participant-reported job boredom correlated with participant-reported withdrawal behaviors ($r = .52$, $p = .000$). However, co-worker reported job boredom did not correlate significantly with participant-reported withdrawal ($r = .16$, $p = .09$). Hypothesis 6 is fully supported. Both participant ($r = .58$, $p = .000$) and co-worker ($r = .19$, $p = .04$) reports of job boredom correlated with organizational CWB.

Again, referencing Table 6, Hypothesis 7a is supported. Trait and job boredom correlated with each other ($r = .68, p = .000$). Hypothesis 7b is also supported; controlling for the effects of trait boredom by using partial correlation, the relationship between job boredom and overall CWB was still significant ($r = .28, p = .000$).

There was no support for Hypothesis 8. There is no significant interaction between stimulation values and job boredom in its effects on CWB-sabotage (Table 8). There is also no significant interaction between stimulation and job boredom in their effects on CWB-abuse. Finally, there is no significant main effect with stimulation and CWB-production deviance, and no interaction between stimulation and job boredom in their effects on the outcome variable (Table 9).

Table 8.
Results for non-significant interactions on sabotage.

Step	Independent variable	Sabotage		
		Unstandardized bs	Total R ²	Change in R ²
1	Job boredom	.020***	.09***	
2	Trait boredom	.004	.10***	.01
3	Trait boredom x job boredom	.000*	.11***	.01
Step	Independent variable	Unstandardized bs	Total R ²	Change in R ²
1	Job boredom	.020***	.09***	
2	Stimulation	.023	.10***	.01
3	Stimulation x job boredom	.001	.11***	.01

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

Table 9.
Results for non-significant interaction on production deviance.

Step	Independent variable	Production Deviance		
		Unstandardized bs	Total R ²	Change in R ²
1	Job boredom	.042***	.10***	
2	Stimulation	.029	.10***	.00
3	Stimulation x job	.001	.11***	.01

boredom

*** p < .001

Table 10.

Inter correlations among job characteristics variables.

Variable	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.
1. Job characteristics	.66	.79	.73	.76	.77	.25	.20	.18	.28	.12	.16
2. Task identity		.36	.21	.43	.43	.44	.23	.36	.15	.11	.09
3. Skill Variety			.51	.48	.64	.21	.08	.23	.22	.10	.15
4. Task Significance				.48	.44	.05	-.06	.00	.28	-.01	-.06
5. Job Feedback					.45	.19	.09	.10	.20	.18	.14
6. Autonomy						.23	.22	.18	.20	.08	.21
7. Co-worker job char							.76	.76	.74	.76	.79
8. Co-worker identity								.38	.36	.51	.60
9. Co-worker variety									.59	.43	.53
10. Co-worker significance										.42	.42
11. Co-worker feedback											.47
12. Co-worker autonomy											

Correlations above .19 are significant at the .05 level; above .27 are significant at the .01 level; above .35 are significant at the .001 level.

Intercorrelations among self and co-worker reported job characteristics are displayed in Table 10. Bolded correlations are correlations between like self and co-worker scales. The overall scale and four of the five sub-scales showed significant correlations between self and co-worker report data. Job feedback just missed significance at .18 (p = .058). In general, participants and co-workers showed some agreement on the characteristics of the job.

Table 11.
Correlations with job characteristics and CWB.

Vars.	CWB	CWBO	CWBP	With- drawal	Abuse	Sabo -tage	Theft	Prod Dev.	Horse- play
Job char.	-.14*	-.28***	-.02	-.24**	-.11	-.14*	-.15*	-.16*	.02
Auto- nomy	-.06	-.19**	.02	-.14*	-.05	-.13	-.04	-.13	.10
Var- iety	-.10	-.22**	-.04	-.14*	-.12	-.15*	-.09	-.15*	.09
Signif	-.15*	-.29***	-.01	- .29***	-.10	-.06	-.19**	-.11	-.03
Feed- back	-.10	-.20**	.04	-.15*	-.06	-.09	-.14*	-.10	-.03
Iden- tity	-.09	-.15*	-.06	-.13	-.07	-.09	-.07	-.11	-.01
Cojob char	.00	.02	-.04	.02	.04	-.04	-.06	-.03	.01
Co Auton	.06	.04	.03	.02	.10	-.03	-.05	-.02	.10
Co Vari.	.00	.05	-.11	.08	-.02	-.09	-.01	-.04	.04
Co Signif	-.12	-.07	-.16	-.07	-.15	-.03	-.05	-.05	-.10
Co Fdbk	-.05	-.04	-.04	-.03	.03	-.02	-.08	-.08	-.04
Co Ident.	.11	.10	.11	.08	.19*	.00	-.03	.08	.07

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

Table 11 shows the correlations among self and co-worker reported job characteristics and all aspects of CWB. The overall scale and all five sub-scales of co-worker reported job characteristics relate inversely and significantly with organizational CWB; CWB-withdrawal related inversely with all characteristics but task identity. However, the only co-worker-reported variable to reach significance with CWB was a positive correlation between task identity and abuse, a very unexpected correlation,

particularly since none of the participant-reported job characteristics scales related to CWB-abuse.

Hypothesis 9a is not supported. Interactions with stimulation and job skill variety on both CWB and job boredom were not significant. There was also no significant interaction between stimulation and job skill variety, though both showed significant main effects, on CWB-O. Hypothesis 9b is not supported. There was no interaction between tradition and job skill variety on CWB-O.

Hypothesis 10 is not supported. There was no interaction between self-direction and autonomy on CWB-O. There was also no interaction between security and autonomy in their effects on CWB-O.

Hypotheses 11 and 12 are not supported. There was no interaction between achievement and job feedback in their effects on CWB-O. Further, there was no significant interaction between universalism and task significance in their effects on CWB-O. However, since both self-transcendence values (i.e., universalism and benevolence) were anticipated to interact with significance in their effects on CWB-O, I ran the moderator analysis with benevolence and task significance on CWB-O, and the result was a significant interaction. Results of the moderated regression can be seen in Table 12 and the graph can be viewed in Figure 4. The form was not as expected; in fact, when benevolence values were low and task significance was low, the most organizational CWB was observed. However, when benevolence was high, task significance did not impact CWBO. Hypothesis 13 is not supported. There is no significant interaction between conformity and task identity in their effects on CWB-O.

Table 12

Moderated regression of benevolence and task significance on CWB-O

Step	Independent variable	CWB-O		
		Unstandardized bs	Total R ²	Change in R ²
1	Task significance	-.496***	.08***	
2	Benevolence	-.128	.09***	.01
3	Benevolence x Task significance	.053*	.11***	.02

Figure 3

Interaction of task significance and benevolence on CWBO

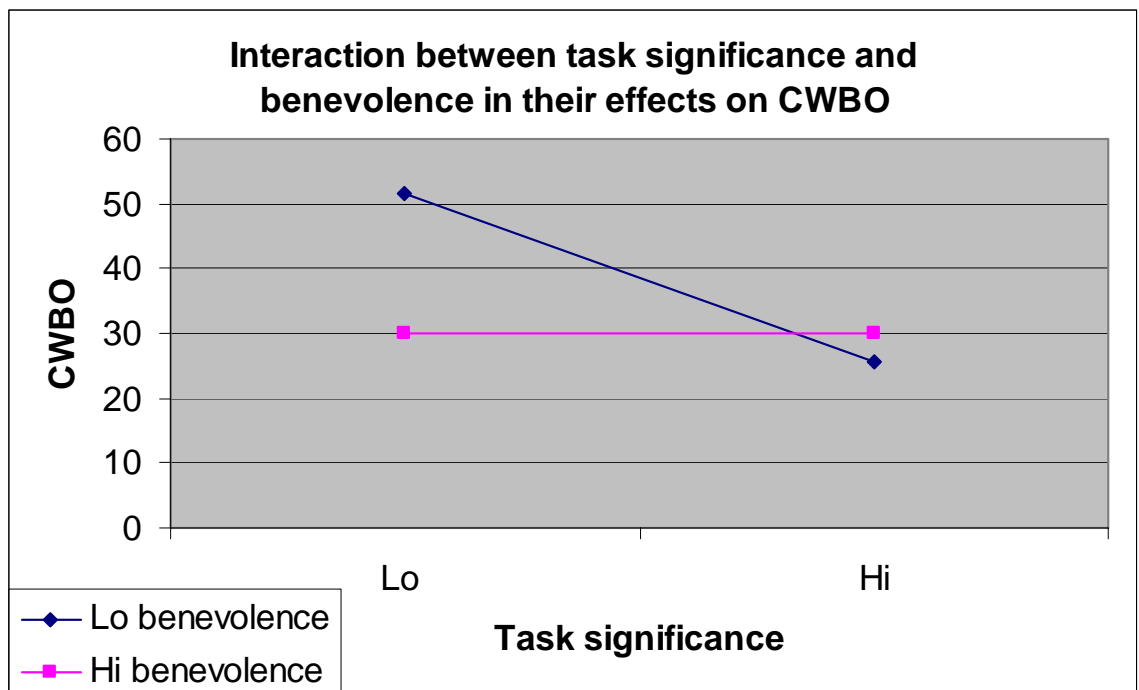


Table 13 is provided for quick reference of the results of all study hypotheses. Of the expected moderator relationships, only the one with boredom and abuse came out as expected.

Table 13.

Summary of all study hypotheses.

#	Hypothesis Description	Method of Analysis	Support
1a.	Conformity & overall CWB	r	None
1b.	Tradition & overall CWB	r	None
1c.	Security & overall CWB	r	None

2a.	Universalism & CWB-O	r	None
2b.	Benevolence & CWB-O	r	None
3a.	Trait boredom & overall CWB	r	Full
3b.	Trait boredom, CWB, & job boredom	Moderated regression	Partial
4a.	Trait boredom & CWB-abuse	r	Full
4b.	Trait boredom & CWB-sabotage	r	Full
5.	Job boredom & CWB-withdrawal	r	Partial
6.	Job boredom & CWB-O	r	Full
7a.	Job & trait boredom	r	Full
7b.	Control for trait boredom, job boredom & CWB	r	Full
8a.	Stimulation & CWB-sabotage, moderated by job boredom	Moderated regression	None
8b.	Stimulation & CWB-abuse, moderated by job boredom	Moderated regression	None
8c.	Stimulation & CWB-production deviance, moderated by job boredom	Moderated regression	None
9a.	Stimulation & CWB & job boredom, moderated by skill variety	Moderated regression	None
9b.	Tradition & CWB, moderated by skill variety	Moderated regression	None
10a.	Self-direction & CWB-O, moderated by job autonomy	Moderated regression	None
10b.	Security & CWB-O, moderated by job autonomy	Moderated regression	None
11.	Achievement & CWB-O, moderated by job feedback	Moderated regression	None
12.	Universalism & CWB-O, moderated by task significance	Moderated regression	None
13.	Conformity & CWB-O, moderated by task identity	Moderated regression	None

Chapter Four

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of values, job characteristics, and boredom on different types of counterproductive work behavior. Essentially, it was believed that different types of jobs (i.e. job characteristics) would be enjoyable to different sorts of people depending on what they value most and how prone they are to boredom; therefore, the amount and type of counterproductive work behavior reported by an individual was expected to vary according to their individual predispositions and how they fit with their work environment.

Supporting these ideas, research by Verplanken and Holland (2002) and Bardi and Schwartz (2003) has shown that values show important links with many different types of behavior, particularly when values are first activated. Schwartz (In press b) showed that values remain reasonably stable over time, even over a period of years, indicating that values are stable, individual difference characteristics of a person affecting many areas of his or her life.

Moreover, boredom proneness has shown relationships with poor job satisfaction and performance in employee samples and a whole host of other issues in research with young adults (Kass, Vodanovich, & Callender, 2001; Gould & Seib, 1997). Job boredom has also shown inverse relationships with job satisfaction and some forms of performance (MacDonald & MacIntyre, 1997; Lee, 1986). Finally, job characteristics theory (Kulik, Oldham, & Hackman, 1987) suggests that certain characteristics of the job (i.e. skill variety, task identity, and task significance) must be present to experience

meaningfulness of the work, certain characteristics (i.e. job autonomy) must be present to experience responsibility for work outcomes, and certain characteristics (i.e. job feedback) must be present to produce knowledge of job results. It was suggested here that different characteristics of the job may be more or less important to certain individuals and more instrumental in creating a situation that is or is not conducive to CWB.

Generally, results of the study did not provide support for the idea that different characteristics and features of a job would work well or poorly for certain individuals based upon their values. In fact, values showed only minor relationships with a few of the outcome variables. Further, values did not interact in any of the ways predicted with job characteristics in their effects on CWB.

Though both self and other reported job boredom and trait boredom showed strong relationships with many types of CWB, a new finding in the literature, the mechanism proposed by the study to understand the relationship were not supported. Namely, a person's values did not make a person more or less suited for a boring job. Therefore, efforts to understand the significant relationship between boredom and CWB are speculative and are discussed herewith.

Hypothesis 1: Conformity, security, and tradition with overall CWB

Contrary to predictions made in hypothesis 1, conservation values (i.e., conformity, security, and tradition) showed no significant relationships with any form of CWB. In fact, benevolence, the value bordering conformity and tradition showed the only significant negative correlation with overall CWB ($r = -.16, p = .011$). Likewise, hedonism, the value opposite benevolence in the circumplex structure, displayed a

positive correlation with overall CWB ($r = .16, p = .009$). Also in accord with value theory, stimulation, hedonism's neighboring value showed a significant positive correlation with overall CWB ($r = .14, p = .024$). Though the pattern of relationship followed theory (decreasing monotonically in opposite directions around the circle), the two correlations are not significantly different from one another. None of the other correlations with CWB were significantly different from zero.

As noted in the method section, coefficient alpha reliabilities for security ($\alpha = .58$), tradition ($\alpha = .64$) and conformity ($\alpha = .71$) were poor to merely acceptable. This may have limited the ability to find any potential relationships with any outcome variables.

The significant inverse correlation with benevolence and CWB was expected, and may be due to the tendency for highly benevolent individuals to think in terms of what they can give to a situation rather than what they can get from it. Short, Sy, and Strauss (2006) found that benevolence, as opposed to entitledness, in an employee related positively with organizational commitment ($r = .35, p < .001$), job satisfaction ($r = .30, p < .001$), and negatively with turnover intentions ($r = -.12, p < .05$). Benevolent individuals, who were also termed, "less equity sensitive," were found to have high job satisfaction regardless of how helpful and responsive their manager/leader was to their needs; entitled individuals, also termed, "more equity sensitive," showed job satisfaction scores that varied to a much larger degree based upon their leader's helpfulness/responsiveness. This would imply that benevolent individuals maintain a somewhat pleasant, giving attitude irrespective of what they are or are not gaining from their environment or individuals in it.

Hedonism's positive relationship with CWB ($r = .16, p < .05$) may be explained through understanding that the value is about pursuing one's own desires, indulging in what one wants, and enjoying life's pleasures. A significant part of the variance in CWB has been explained through emotion-centered models and ideas (e.g., Fox & Spector, 2002), whereby negative environmental circumstances lead to negative emotions which then lead to negative behaviors. It may be that hedonistic individuals are more likely to become angry or upset when their goals to pursue their desires are thwarted. Or, it may be that hedonistic individuals are more impulsive and likely to commit CWBs spontaneously, and without regard to consequence, en route to going about their business of enjoying themselves.

The positive correlation with stimulation and CWB is encouraging as it indicates that CWB may act as a stimulant in the work environment for those who need it. The correlation with dishonesty and stimulation values ($r = .14, p < .05$) is interesting and may make it worthwhile to look into providing fun and excitement as a potential reason for lying or stealing at work.

The low correlations with CWB and values may be because values are such a distal contributor to a complicated and narrow workplace behavior. There are many other more proximal factors (both individual difference and situational variables) that explain the CWB space quite well. For example, trait anger ($r = .48, p < .001$; Spector, Fox, Penney, 2006), negative affectivity ($r = .30, p < .01$; Penney, 2001), negative emotions ($r = .52, p < .001$), and narcissism ($r = .14, p < .05$) are individual difference predictors of CWB. While, conflict ($r = .41, p < .01$; Penney, 2001; $r = .47, p < .001$; Bruursema, 2004), organizational constraints ($r = .35, p < .01$; Penney, 2001), procedural justice ($r = -$

.29, $p < .001$; Bruursema, 2004), job satisfaction ($r = -.33$, $p < .01$; Penney, 2001), and transactional leadership style ($r = .24$, $p < .01$; Bruursema, 2004) are situational predictors of CWB.

CWB has been theorized and empirically demonstrated to show relationships with negative situations in the environment through affecting a person's emotional response; people who are prone to negative emotional states and moods are more affected by the negative environment and therefore commit more CWBs. In general, CWB has been related to "bad" emotions like anger, anxiety, dissatisfaction, and in the current study, boredom; since there are no "bad" values, there is no good reason to suspect that any of the values would be systematically related to negative emotional propensities.

Instead, values were theorized in the present study to affect the way the environment was interpreted (whether or not a boring or unstimulating job could be preferable or tolerable) by an individual. To understand this, we need to look at the other study hypotheses.

Hypothesis 2: Self-transcendence values and CWBP

None of the values showed relationships with personal CWB. Personal CWB may be more dependent on the quality of the relationships with co-workers; research has demonstrated correlations around .40 between conflict with co-workers and CWBP (Brock & Spector, 2006). Values may be far too remote an individual difference variable to predict specific behaviors such as gossiping about co-workers.

The most notable relationship between values and CWB was with benevolence which significantly negatively correlated with five of the nine types of CWB. Other research has shown that benevolence correlates most highly of all ten values with a social

desirability index (Schwartz, Vekasolo, Antonovsky, & Sagiv, 1997). Therefore, it may just be that people who are likely to report on one survey that they value honesty and loyalty and helpfulness are also likely to report that they do not engage in dishonest or abusive or otherwise negative work behaviors. Since there was no co-worker report of participant values (an awkward measure that would be) and no co-worker report of participant CWB, there is no way to rule that out as the driver of these relationships.

Stimulation showed three significant positive correlations (with CWB, CWBO, and dishonesty) which may indicate, as mentioned in the discussion above, that counterproductive behaviors are exciting for some individuals to commit. Likewise, hedonism showed three significant positive correlations (with CWB, sabotage, and withdrawal) indicating that pleasure seekers may engage in CWB either because it is pleasurable in itself or because leaving early and coming late to work allows them to pursue other pleasurable goals.

Elsewhere, researchers have had trouble linking values to work behavior. For example, Siu, Spector, Cooper, and Lu (2005) found only weak relationships between work values and work stress and well-being and few moderating relationships with job satisfaction. It may be that values are too remote a predictor for many workplace behaviors, not just CWB.

Hypotheses 3 & 4: Boredom proneness and CWB

As predicted by hypothesis 3, boredom proneness showed a strong relationship with overall CWB ($r = .44$, $p = .000$). This is a new finding and complements the findings by Watt (2002) and Kass, Vodanovich, and Callender (2001) that boredom proneness related to many negative attitudinal variables in the workplace (e.g.,

dissatisfaction with pay, promotions, supervision, and perceived high constraints). It also extends the findings of the ill effects of boredom in educational settings (e.g., Blunt & Pychyl, 1998; Newberry & Duncan, 2001) to problem behaviors in the work setting.

More research is needed on the mechanism operating to create this relationship. Vodanovich (1990) showed that boredom proneness overlaps with Type-A behavior and sensation seeking, although, Dahlen et al. (2004) showed that boredom proneness contributed incrementally more to predicting aggression over and above that predicted by Type-A and sensation seeking. Moreover, Watt and Vodanovich (1992) showed that boredom proneness relates to impulsivity and all aspects of negative affect; further research should determine what is conceptually unique about boredom proneness and why it relates to such negative work outcomes.

Given prior work on boredom proneness and its two main factors, boredom proneness due to an inability to generate external stimulation (BP_{ext}) and boredom proneness due to an inability to generate adequate internal stimulation (BP_{int}), it was expected that boredom proneness would relate to CWB-abuse and sabotage. Full support was garnered for this hypothesis. Trait boredom correlated significantly ($r = .41, p = .000$) with abuse and ($r = .25, p = .000$) with sabotage. Also as expected, BP_{ext} correlated significantly with both abuse ($r = .32, p = .000$) and sabotage ($r = .27, p = .000$). BP_{ext} is made up of eight items like: "I would like more challenging things to do in life," "It takes a lot of change and variety to keep me really happy," and "I feel that I am working below my abilities most of the time." If future research continues to support the idea that boredom proneness (BP_{ext} in particular) relates to negative workplace

behaviors, then it may be useful for some jobs to include the 8 item short scale as a part of the selection process.

On the other hand, and as expected, BPint does not relate to any type of CWB. It is made up of reverse-coded items like, "Many people would say that I am a creative or imaginative person," "I have projects in mind all the time, things to do," and, "I often wake up with a new idea." The lack of ability to generate new ideas, be creative, or dream up projects is not related to negative work behaviors. The items on this factor relate more to energy and imagination than they do to listlessness and apathy; it follows that they would not relate with CWB.

In general, boredom proneness and BPext correlated significantly with every type of CWB. The highest observed correlations were with trait boredom and CWBO ($r = .50$, $p = .000$), and trait boredom with both CWB and withdrawal ($r = .44$, $p = .000$). The larger correlation with CWBO than CWBP was not expected since there was no reason to suspect that negative internal feelings would be directed at the organization more than any other target.

Trait boredom is clearly an important predictor of the variance in the CWB space. Of the internal, trait variables studied, only trait anger has shown similarly high correlations with CWB. Douglas and Martinko (2001) found a correlation of .68 between self-reported trait anger and self-reported incidence of workplace aggression. Similarly, Spector et al. (2006, March) found an average correlation (across several study samples) of .49 between trait anger and various forms of CWB. Since understanding the nature of trait boredom was not a focus of this study, efforts to identify why this relationship exists are speculative. Given Spector and Fox's (2002) emotion-centered model for CWB and

the findings from studies that followed using the model (e.g., Bruursema & Spector, 2005), it may be that boredom proneness enacts a host of negative emotions which then act to promote committing CWBs.

Another potential reason that boredom shows relationships with CWB that are as strong as those with trait anger is that the two may be different types of expression of the same underlying feeling. Some clinical therapists (e.g., Lantz, 1988; McHolland, 1988) have suggested that boredom is a manifestation of inner anger. Boredom can represent a safer expression of angry feelings; if it is unkind or unpleasant to display anger, then anger can be directed inward to become boredom. To discern the relationships among trait boredom, trait anger, and CWB, future research should examine them in the same study.

Interaction between job boredom and trait boredom on CWB-abuse

It was expected that the effects of boredom on abuse and sabotage would be stronger when both trait and job boredom were high. In accord with hypothesis 3b, job boredom's affects on CWB-abuse were moderated by trait boredom; concisely, the effects were multiplicative whereby when both job boredom and trait boredom were high, there was more abuse than in any other combination. Further, when job boredom was low, trait boredom did not impact CWB-abuse, indicating that trait boredom must be "activated" by a boring environment in order for the negative effect on abuse to occur. Also of note is the finding that abuse increased as job boredom increased even for those individuals who were low on trait boredom. However, the effect on abuse was not nearly as profound for those who were low on trait boredom.

This is a potentially important finding for a few reasons. First, people who are boredom prone are more likely to respond maladaptively to boredom in their jobs. This would indicate that more care should be taken in assigning tasks or duties (for supervisors) and in selecting a job (for boredom prone) since boredom prone individuals tend to be more volatile in response to their environments. Second, boredom prone people are not inclined to abuse their co-workers when placed in a stimulating job. This is good news and bad news. On the positive side, a manager (or the boredom prone individual him/herself) can indirectly control his/her boredom prone employee's behavior by monitoring what tasks and duties the individual finds interesting and assigning them accordingly. On the negative side, it would be difficult to work with a person (or be a person) whose behavior was so heavily determined by external circumstance.

Hypotheses 5 through 8: Job boredom and CWB

It was reasoned that job boredom would relate to CWB-withdrawal because prior work had already established this finding (Spector et al., 2006). In partial support of Hypothesis 5, this finding was replicated with self-report data. Job boredom correlated with CWB-withdrawal ($r = .52, p = .000$). However, co-worker reported boredom correlated a non-significant .16 with CWB-withdrawal. The lack of a relationship with co-worker report is surprising since most other types of CWB were significantly related to co-worker reported boredom.

A second somewhat puzzling finding is the significant correlation between co-worker reported job boredom and participant reported trait boredom ($r = .19, p < .05$). Perhaps individuals high in trait boredom tended to be found in objectively more boring

jobs, or perhaps being in an objectively boring job tended to affect people's trait boredom.

The expected relationship between job boredom and CWBO (Hypothesis 6) was fully supported. Both participant ($r = .58, p < .001$) and co-worker ($r = .19, p < .05$) reported job boredom related positively with organizational CWB. This is concurrent with prior work (e.g. Bruk & Spector, 2005; Bruursema & Spector, 2005) showing that negative reactions brought on by the job situation are directed back at the organization. In fact, job boredom correlated positively ($p < .001$) with every sub-facet of CWB. Moreover, co-worker reported job boredom correlated positively ($p < .05$) with all sub-facets of participant-reported CWB except for sabotage, withdrawal, and theft. Taken together, these findings lend support to the idea that understanding employees' level of boredom with a job and understanding what engages them has meaningful organizational consequences. There is also some support for the idea that job boredom is an objective part of the job, and not a subjective interpretation on the part of the job incumbent. Further research should determine what aspects of a job cause it to be experienced by incumbents as boring.

Based on conceptual similarities between job and trait boredom, it was thought that they should be positively correlated. In full support of Hypothesis 7, job and trait boredom correlated significantly. ($r = .68, p < .001$). This follows since not only are the emotions the same, though one is a general feeling and the other is related to a specific situation, but also because those who report that most of life leaves them feeling bored are also likely to report that their job makes them feel bored.

A key study finding, and a new contribution of this research, is that the relationship between job boredom and CWB held even after controlling for trait boredom ($r = .28, p < .001$). In fact, after controlling for trait boredom, all relationships between job boredom and CWB remained except for those with theft and personal CWB. See Table 14 for a summary. Of note, after controlling for trait boredom, the largest correlations are with CWBO and withdrawal. This makes sense since if the person is bored by their job, but otherwise well-adjusted (i.e., not boredom prone), they are likely to act out against the offending organization and/or stop coming to work as often; likewise, a person who is bored by the job should not be more likely to hurt or bother co-workers (i.e., engage in personal CWB), and the data bear this out as well.

Referring again to Table 14, at first glance, the positive relationship between abuse and job boredom after controlling for trait boredom is perplexing, but when the scale is separated into abuse targeting the organization and abuse targeting individuals, the relationship is made clearer. For the three abuse items that target the organization (from Spector et al., 2006), the correlation with job boredom after controlling for trait boredom is .42 ($p < .001$). An example item is, "Told people outside the job what a lousy place I work for." However, for the 12 abuse items that target individuals within the organization (e.g., "Verbally abused someone at work), the correlation with job boredom was a non-significant .11. This further supports the idea advanced in this research and prior work that situational work stressors result in CWB directed back at the source of the problem (i.e., the organization) and not directed randomly.

Table 14.

Correlations between job boredom and all facets of CWB controlling for trait boredom.	
CWB variable	Job boredom

CWB	.28***
CWBO	.38***
CWBP	.12
Abuse	.27***
Sabotage	.19**
Withdrawal	.34***
Production Deviance	.16*
Theft	.12
New Items	.16*

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

Believing that individuals who value stimulation would be especially sensitive to boredom in their jobs and would react with more CWB, a moderating effect of stimulation values on the relationship between boredom and different types of CWB was tested. Moderated relationships were not found; the data did not support the idea that boredom at work was less acceptable to those with high stimulation values. This finding may be due to issues already discussed with the difficulty of linking values to workplace behaviors. Or, it could be a problem with the variables both being measured by self-report survey method; for instance, people who do not value stimulation and who have boring jobs may not report that their jobs are boring because they don't need a lot of excitement in their work; this could obscure a relationship where one might exist. To clarify this issue, a better method to test this idea would be to look at objective measures of job boredom (e.g., external panel judgment, co-worker report) with self-report stimulation values and CWB. With only 112 co-workers, power was too low to detect a potential moderating effect.

Added CWB items: Horseplay

The five added CWB items testing a proposed sixth facet which could be called "horseplay" did not perform exactly as expected. First, they showed the lowest

correlation with job boredom ($r = .29, p < .01$) when they were expected to show one of the highest. Second, they did not correlate with co-worker reported job boredom. Third, the items did not relate positively with stimulation values. Although, they did correlate positively ($r = .14, p < .05$) with hedonism and negatively with tradition values ($r = -.21, p < .01$). This was the only CWB measure to relate in any way with any conservation values. Tradition values were measured by items like, "Moderate," "Devout," and "Humble." Meanwhile, hedonism was measured by, "Self-indulgent," "Enjoying life," and "Pleasure." The added items, which are predominantly rowdy, distracting, or goofy behaviors, may be offensive to a very traditional person and enjoyable to a very hedonistic person.

However, the horseplay scale did correlate .62 with the existing CWB measure indicating high similarity with those items. It may be that these behaviors (e.g., "Played practical jokes on co-workers or customers to entertain myself and/or co-workers during work time.") actually enrich a job to the point that it is not perceived as boring. Another possibility is that playfulness, goofing off, or "horseplay" exists as a part of a positive organizational culture and is encouraged by managers, executives, and owners. However, high significant correlations with all other facets of CWB (r ranges from .34 with sabotage to .59 with abuse) would argue against the interpretation that these behaviors are part of a positive environment.

Hypotheses 9 through 13: Values and job characteristics as moderators

There was some support for the idea that job characteristics should relate inversely with CWB. Though no co-worker reported characteristics showed no significant relationships with any kind of CWB (save co-worker task identity which

showed a very surprising positive relationship with abuse). All self-reported characteristics scales correlated negatively and significantly with organizational CWB. This makes sense according to job characteristics theory which states that for a job to be experienced positively, scores on the characteristics need to be high. Similarly, all self-reported characteristics except task identity correlated inversely with CWB-withdrawal. When a job is unfulfilling, it seems that incumbents are likely to withdraw from it or actively commit adverse acts against the organization. To sum, there were some moderate relationships between job characteristics and various forms of CWB.

A central premise of this study was that what a person valued would influence the way s/he interpreted and reacted to the work environment. Numerous studies supported the idea of a value-behavior link, and prior research using Schwartz's ideas were promising. However, the data for this study did not substantiate this idea. Instead, values' relationship with CWB, trait boredom, and all other study variables were small to non-existent. Moreover, values did not operate to determine when a particular relationship between boredom or characteristics and CWB occurred. In fact, they seemed largely irrelevant in determining any relationships with CWB.

The one exception to this rule was the interaction between benevolence and task significance on CWBO. Even this relationship, however, was not in the expected direction. It was reasoned that when values were in concert with characteristics (i.e., self transcendence and task significance), that the situation would be ideal, and there would be less CWBO. In fact, the relationship was just the opposite, one where task significance only mattered to those who were low on benevolence. Low benevolence and low task significance resulted in the most organizational CWB, but low benevolents in a

job perceived as highly significant were least likely to commit CWBO. Further, when benevolence was high, CWBO stayed the same regardless of how significant the task. It may be that benevolent individuals just ask less of their environments and tend to behave the same regardless of the perceived importance of their tasks. This idea is supported by the research by Short et al. (2006) that showed that benevolent individuals were less equity sensitive and generally showed high job satisfaction regardless of circumstance.

Co-worker report issues

It is most likely that cross-source correlations underestimate the true relationship between boredom or job characteristics and CWB. Participants were instructed to select one co-worker with a job similar to their own. The extent to which a job is similar can differ very much, however. Take the positions of college professor and human resources manager (20.4% of participants were employed in education, training, or library; 12% were employed in human resources or recruiting). A professor may select a co-worker who is an assistant professor (while s/he is an associate or full professor) and for whom the job may be very different in terms of expectations, resources, and pay. Or, a professor could select a co-worker whose area of study is very different from his/her own and may be more or less interesting. With a human resources manager, the problems are even more profound; a participant could be manager of selection and assessment and their nearest counterpart is manager of training or performance management. These jobs often differ widely in terms of who the supervisor is, the expectations or workload, amount of travel, and actual job responsibilities. Beyond the issue of true job differences among co-workers in similar jobs, participants may have also selected someone who

works next to them but has an entirely different role. To sum, it is unknown the extent to which the co-worker pairs represent a true job match.

In spite of these issues, there was reasonable agreement among co-workers and participants regarding job characteristics and job boredom. The latter showed correlations of .29 while the former had correlations ranging from .21 to .28 for the various facets; only job feedback showed a non-significant correlation of .18. This indicates that it is likely that participants and co-workers are referencing similar jobs when making their judgments about its various characteristics.

Theoretical Implications

To place boredom proneness in context of CWB theory, there are several possibilities. First, it may be that boredom proneness can be explained as a negative feeling state, such as anger directed inward, and understood through the job stress/emotion CWB model (Spector & Fox, 2002). Boredom proneness may be a negative emotional state that predisposes a person to experience the work environment as boring and distressing. Because of this, s/he engages in damaging workplace behaviors to manage bad feelings and/or to cope with a perceived poor work environment. To examine this theory, boredom proneness should be looked at with trait anger and negative emotions in the same study.

An alternative theory is that boredom prone individuals pursue these behaviors to enrich their jobs and provide excitement for them. Since boredom prone people tend to experience hopelessness, apathy, loneliness, and distractibility, engaging in these behaviors may provide excitement and stimulation. It may focus them and provide needed entertainment in their environments. To support this theory, evidence would need

to be gained, potentially through a longitudinal study, showing that engaging in these behaviors actually alleviated or reduced bored feelings or enhanced positive feelings in the individual.

Job boredom seems to fit nicely in the job stress/emotion CWB model. A useful theory may be that certain characteristics of a job are universally monotonous, require vigilance, and induce boredom; therefore, the environment is perceived as stressful, and job boredom and other negative feelings emerge. The result is behavior directed at the source of the stress and overwhelming negative feelings – the organization.

Other theoretical implications of this study are that values theory may not be as robust in predicting behavior as prior social psychological research might indicate. One reason could be the extremely small range of work behaviors examined in this research, but other information points to another explanation. A dearth of research results linking values to work behavior may indicate that there hasn't been much research with it, or may indicate that studies examining values with work criterion values show null results and are not published.

Practical Implications

As mentioned previously, boredom proneness may be a personality variable that has the potential to predict job relevant criteria. Thus, it might be worth using a measure of boredom proneness as a selection device. Knowing the detrimental workplace issues associated with boredom proneness, an employer could either make the decision not to hire someone who scores high on the scale or to carefully examine the environment for an appropriate fit. Since at low levels of job boredom, boredom prone individuals tend to

do just fine, an employer could make the decision to monitor the job environment and ensure that it is stimulating enough.

Further, knowing that job boredom shows even stronger relationships with CWB than boredom proneness alone, employers should be actively invested in creating a stimulating workplace for their employees. Organizational surveys should include a measure of what employees find boring and interesting about their jobs. Jobs could then be re-formulated to suit tastes, boring tasks eliminated or reduced, and interesting pieces of the work added or enhanced.

Finally, organizations could hold focus groups or discussion panels about CWB, asking employees for input about the possible causes and solutions. They could use this information in conjunction with the research literature to help devise effective strategies to control behaviors that are potentially detrimental to employees and their organizations.

Limitations

Limitations of this study include the single source for CWB data. Although respondents are the only people who would be fully aware of which behaviors they engage in, there are issues with social desirability in responding. Research using multi-source data has found significant convergence between self and other report CWB measures (e.g., Bruk & Spector, 2006; Penney & Spector, 2005). The problem is who to view as more accurate when sources disagree; while respondents may underreport their actual CWB for cognitive dissonance or social desirability purposes, co-workers may underreport participant CWB due to not being present to witness it or to not make the participant look bad.

Another limitation is in the study design. This research was not set up to answer the question of why and how boredom (both job and trait) affects CWB. Though these relationships proved to be the most important findings in the study, there is no way to tell the mechanism by which boredom affects CWB. There is also no way to tell how much incremental variance in the CWB construct is explained by boredom proneness and job boredom over and above what has been covered by stressors and personal factors in other research.. To examine this issue, the variables would have to be examined in a new study including other known predictors of CWB.

Further, the cross-sectional survey design does not allow us to draw any causal conclusions. Though it would be extremely difficult to create a controlled experimental or even quasi-experimental design to study CWB, it would be helpful if more conclusive designs could be used to study CWB. A more realistic goal is to conduct a longitudinal CWB study whereby stressors and individual characteristics are measured at time 1 and time 2 and the change in CWB across time can be seen. Co-worker reported job boredom and characteristics helped us get past this design issue a bit, but results with co-worker reports were only somewhat supportive for reasons already discussed.

A final limitation of this study is the lack of enough pairs ($n = 112$) to have adequate power to run moderated regressions. Though there were 211 individual participants to analyze, there was a wide difference in the number of pairs. This also may have obscured or attenuated some potentially significant cross-source correlational relationships. Agreement across sources was not terribly high, so this is just one potential reason for lowered or non-significant correlations.

Conclusions

This study provided no support for the proposition that values moderate relationships between boredom and CWB. It also provided no support for the idea that job characteristics can match well with values and act to impede the expression of CWB.

The major findings of this study suggest that job boredom is a somewhat objective feature of the job resulting in negative employee behaviors. A key takeaway finding is that job boredom is a problem for everyone who experiences it, not just the chronically bored. This should induce organizations to create meaningful and interesting work opportunities for their employees. Much more research is needed on boredom, this relatively unexplored realm of workplace problems.

A further conclusion is that trait boredom is a negative emotional state resulting in numerous aggressive and adverse organizational and personal acts by the bored individual. Further research should seek to understand the nature of trait boredom in adults in the workplace and realize what other potentially important outcome variables it impacts.

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1146.

Appendices

Appendix: Measures

Demographic Questions

Directions. Please indicate your responses to the following questions by marking the check boxes next to the item responses.

1. Please select the one (1) job category listed that most closely matches the category of your current job:

- Architectural & Engineering
- Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports, or Media
- Building & Grounds Cleaning & Maintenance
- Business & Financial Operations
- Community & Social Services
- Computer & Mathematical
- Construction & Extraction
- Education, Training, & Library
- Farming, Fishing, & Forestry
- Food Preparation & Serving Related
- Healthcare Practitioner & Technical
- Healthcare Support
- Installation, Maintenance, & Repair
- Legal
- Life, Physical, & Social Science
- Management
- Military Specific
- Office & Administrative Support
- Personal Care & Service
- Production
- Protective Service (Fire, Police, Animal, Special Agent)
- Sales & Related
- Transportation & Material Moving

2. What is the highest level of education that you have achieved?

- Less than high school
- Some high school
- High school diploma or GED
- Trade or technical school
- Some college
- 2-year degree (associates)
- 4-year degree (bachelors)
- Some graduate school
- Masters degree
- Ph.D./M.D./J.D./other advanced degree
- Post-graduate studies

3. Is your current job in the same field that your degree or certificate is in?

- Yes
- No

4. On average, how many hours do you work per week?

5. What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

6. What is your age?

VALUE SURVEY

In this questionnaire you are to ask yourself: "What values are important to ME as guiding principles in MY life, and what values are less important to me?" There are two lists of values on the following pages. In the parentheses following each value is an explanation that may help you to understand its meaning.

Your task is to rate how important each value is for you as a guiding principle in your life. Use the rating scale below:

- 0--means the value is not at all important, it is not relevant as a guiding principle for you.
- 3--means the value is important.
- 6--means the value is very important.

The higher the number (0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6), the more important the value is as a guiding principle in YOUR life.

- 1 is for rating any values opposed to the principles that guide you.
- 7 is for rating a value of supreme importance as a guiding principle in your life; ***ordinarily there are no more than two such values.***

Next to each value, circle the number (-1,0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7) that indicates the importance of that value for you, personally. Try to distinguish as much as possible between the values by using all the numbers. You will, of course, need to use numbers more than once.

AS A GUIDING PRINCIPLE IN MY LIFE, this value is:

opposed to my values	not important		important		very important	of supreme importance		
-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Before you begin, read the values in List I, choose the one that is most important to you and rate its importance. Next, choose the value that is most opposed to your values and rate it -1. If there is no such value, choose the value least important to you and rate it 0 or 1, according to its importance. Then rate the rest of the values in List I.

VALUES LIST I

1. EQUALITY (equal opportunity for all)	-1 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
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32. CHOOSING OWN GOALS (selecting own purposes)	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. CAPABLE (competent, effective, efficient)	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. ACCEPTING MY PORTION IN LIFE (submitting to life's circumstances)	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. HONEST (genuine, sincere)	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. PRESERVING MY PUBLIC IMAGE (protecting my "face")	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. OBEDIENT (dutiful, meeting obligations)	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. HELPFUL (working for the welfare of others)	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. ENJOYING LIFE (enjoying food, sex, leisure, etc.)	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. DEVOUT (holding to religious faith & belief)	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. RESPONSIBLE (dependable, reliable)	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. CURIOUS (interested in everything, exploring)	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43. FORGIVING (willing to pardon others)	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. SUCCESSFUL (achieving goals)	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. CLEAN (neat, tidy)	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46. SELF-INDULGENT (doing pleasant things)	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



Boredom Proneness Scale

The questions that follow all deal with your thoughts and preferences about boring or exciting things. Please answer them while thinking about your **life as a whole**, not just one aspect of your life such as leisure activities.

Instructions. Please use the following scale to answer the questions.

1 = strongly disagree

5 = mildly agree

2 = disagree

6 = agree

3 = mildly disagree

7 = strongly agree

4 = neither agree nor disagree

1. It is easy for me to concentrate on my activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Frequently when I am working on something, I find myself worrying about other things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Time always seems to be passing slowly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I often find myself at "loose ends," not knowing what to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I am often trapped in situations where I have to do meaningless things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Having to look at someone else's home movies or travel photos bores me tremendously.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I have projects in mind all the time, things to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I find it easy to entertain myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Many things I have to do are repetitive and monotonous.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. It takes more stimulation to get me going than most people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I get a kick out of most things I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I am seldom excited about my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. In any situation, I can usually find something to do or see to keep me interested.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Much of the time, I just sit around doing nothing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I am good at waiting patiently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. I often find myself with nothing to do – time on my hands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. In situations where I have to wait, such as a line, I get very restless.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I often wake up with a new idea.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. It would be very hard for me to find a job that is exciting enough.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I would like more challenging things to do in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I feel that I am working below my abilities most of the time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Many people would say that I am a creative or imaginative person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I have so many interests; I don't have time to do everything.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Among my friends, I am the one who keeps doing things the longest.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Unless I am doing something exciting, even dangerous, I feel half-dead and dull.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. It takes a lot of change and variety to keep me really happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. It seems that the same things are on television or the movies all the time; it's getting old.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. When I was young, I was often in boring or tiresome situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Job Boredom Scale

The questions that follow all deal with your experience of your job as dull or exciting. Please answer the questions with respect to your own reactions to your **present** job.

Instructions. Please use the scale that follows to answer the questions.

- | | |
|-----------------|-------------------|
| 1 = Never | 5 = Very Often |
| 2 = Very rarely | 6 = Almost always |
| 3 = Sometimes | 7 = Always |
| 4 = Often | |

1. Do you get bored with your work?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Is your work tedious?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. If the pay were the same, would you like to change from one type of work to another from time to time?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Do you like the work you do?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Do you get tired on the job?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Do you find the job dull?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Does the job go by too slowly?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Do you become irritable on the job?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Do you get apathetic on the job?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Do you get mentally sluggish during the day?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Do you get drowsy on the job?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Does the time seem to go by slowly?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Are there long periods of boredom on the job?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Does the job seem repetitive?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. During the day, do you think about doing another task?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Does monotonous describe your job?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Is your work pretty much the same day after day?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Job Design Survey

The following questions all deal with different aspects of your work. Please respond to the items with respect to your **present** job.

Instructions. Please use the following scale to answer the questions.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 = Very inaccurate | 5 = Slightly accurate |
| 2 = Mostly inaccurate | 6 = Mostly accurate |
| 3 = Slightly inaccurate | 7 = Very accurate |
| 4 = Uncertain | |

1. I decide on my own how to go about doing the work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I do a “whole” and identifiable piece of work. It is not a small part of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people or by automatic machines.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The job requires me to do many different things using a variety of my skills and talents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The results of my work significantly affect the lives and well-being of other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. The actual work itself provides clues about how well I am doing – aside from feedback that co-workers or supervisors provide.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. The job is arranged so that I can do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. The job requires me to perform a variety of tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. The job is one where lots of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. The job provides me the chance to completely finish the piece of work I begin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. After I finish a job, I know whether I performed well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. The job itself is very significant and important in the broader scheme of things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist

The remaining questions ask about various behaviors and reactions to your **present** job. Remembering that this is strictly anonymous, please answer them as honestly as possible.

Instructions. Please use the following scale when answering the questions.

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

On my present job, I have...

1. Purposely wasted my employers materials/supplies	1	2	3	4	5
2. Daydreamed rather than did my work	1	2	3	4	5
3. Complained about insignificant things at work	1	2	3	4	5
4. Told people outside the job what a lousy place I work for	1	2	3	4	5
5. Purposely did my work incorrectly	1	2	3	4	5
6. Came to work late without permission	1	2	3	4	5
7. Stayed home from work and said I was sick when I wasn't	1	2	3	4	5
8. Purposely damaged a piece of equipment or property	1	2	3	4	5
9. Purposely dirtied or littered my workplace	1	2	3	4	5
10. Stolen something belonging to my employer	1	2	3	4	5
11. Started or continued a damaging or harmful rumor at work	1	2	3	4	5
12. Been nasty or rude to a client or customer	1	2	3	4	5
13. Purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done	1	2	3	4	5
14. Refused to take on an assignment when asked	1	2	3	4	5
15. Purposely came late to an appointment or meeting	1	2	3	4	5
16. Failed to report a problem so it would get worse	1	2	3	4	5
17. Taken a longer break or meal period than I was allowed to take	1	2	3	4	5
18. Purposely failed to follow instructions	1	2	3	4	5
19. Left work earlier than I was allowed to	1	2	3	4	5
20. Insulted someone about his or her job performance	1	2	3	4	5
21. Made fun of someone's personal life	1	2	3	4	5
22. Taken supplies or tools home without permission	1	2	3	4	5
23. Tried to look busy while doing nothing	1	2	3	4	5
24. Put in to be paid for more hours than I worked, or worked fewer hours than required	1	2	3	4	5
25. Taken money from my employer without permission	1	2	3	4	5
26. Ignored someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
27. Refused to help someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
28. Withheld needed information from someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
29. Purposely interfered with someone at work doing his/her job	1	2	3	4	5
30. Blamed someone at work for an error I made	1	2	3	4	5
31. Started an argument with someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
32. Stolen something belonging to someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
33. Verbally abused someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
34. Made an obscene gesture (the finger) to someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
35. Threatened someone at work with violence	1	2	3	4	5
36. Threatened someone at work, but not physically	1	2	3	4	5
37. Said something obscene to someone at work to make him or her feel bad	1	2	3	4	5
38. Hid something so someone at work couldn't find it	1	2	3	4	5
39. Did something to make someone at work look bad	1	2	3	4	5
40. Played a mean prank to embarrass someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
41. Destroyed property belonging to someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
42. Looked at someone at work's private mail/property/documents	1	2	3	4	5

without permission					
43. Hit or pushed someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
44. Insulted or made fun of someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
45. Avoided returning a phone call to someone you should at work.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Created or engaged in a non work-related game or activity to entertain myself and/or others during a meeting, seminar, or training session.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Used the internet to browse, blog, email, or otherwise amuse myself for non work-related purposes.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Engaged in amusing activities such as gossiping or joking with co-workers that distract me and others from work.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Played practical jokes on co-workers or customers to entertain myself and/or co-workers during work time.	1	2	3	4	5
50. Wasted company resources or supplies to create something for my own purposes or to amuse myself or others.	1	2	3	4	5
51. Falsified an expense report or abused an expense account to gain extra money for myself.	1	2	3	4	5

About the Author

Kari Bruursema obtained her B.S. in Psychology from Grand Valley State University in 2001. She attended GVSU on a full academic scholarship and received the annual senior award from faculty for "Most Outstanding Student in the Department of Psychology" in 2001. She received the Presidential Doctoral Fellowship award from the University of South Florida for the years 2001-2006 and completed her M.A. in Industrial/Organizational Psychology in 2004.

During her doctoral tour at USF, Kari has examined counterproductive work behavior and its various antecedents in a number of different studies. She has completed this research using the model developed by her major professor and using other ideas advanced by fellow doctoral students Stacey Kessler and Angeline Goh. She has presented her findings at SIOP conferences and in peer-reviewed journals.

She currently works in the pharmaceutical industry in the area of assessment and selection. Kari's immediate plans are to pursue a career in I/O consulting areas related to assessment, development, and coaching.