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**Workplace Destructive and Constructive Deviance Behaviour in
India and the USA: Scale Development, Validation, Theoretical
Model Development and Testing.**

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Submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Edinburgh

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Statement of original authorship

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To the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no other material previously published by any other person, except where acknowledgement has been made.

A review paper was also published from the thesis.

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Abstract

Workplace deviance behaviour has resulted in 20% of business failure and annual loss of \$6-\$200 billion in US organizations and it was found that 33% to 75% of employees engage in deviant activities like withdrawal, theft, production deviance, abuse of co-workers etc., (Coffin, 2003; Diefendorff & Mehta, 2007). In addition, several researchers have concentrated on constructive deviance that would benefit the organizations. Thus, deviance has been a topic of interest for many researchers. However, previous research on deviance behaviour has concentrated predominantly in the USA despite proof that Indian organizations are indeed affected by workplace deviance (Pradhan & Pradhan, 2014) and on destructive or constructive deviance. In addition, from the deviance perspective, surprisingly no study so far has examined the presence and effects of individualism and collectivism within the same culture at the individual level.

To contribute towards the extant deviance literature and to fill in the aforementioned gaps, this PhD thesis develops and tests a model using social cognitive theory as a lens to determine the relationship between environment, personality and behavioural outcomes of an individual. It incorporates workplace destructive and constructive deviance in the same study with individualistic and collectivistic orientation of individuals as moderators in India and the USA. What is the relationship of organizational and individual determinants with workplace destructive and constructive deviance when individual cultural orientation acts as a moderator? For this purpose, this research first determines the various factors that will be considered in the model by reviewing previous research done on workplace deviance. It was found that organizational climate, though it contributes to deviance behaviour in the workplace, has not yet been extensively researched so, climate was one of the factors examined in the research. In addition and despite its importance, an individual witness perspective towards deviance is still in its infancy. What are the behavioural responses of an individual while being a witness to supervisor, organizational, co-worker involvement in workplace destructive deviance? Therefore, the present study extended, developed and validated a construct to define and measure the witness behaviour towards workplace deviance behaviour using the theory of planned behaviour as its theoretical lens. This construct formed the second factor to be included

in the model. This research makes use of the multi-strategy research paradigm that consists of two main studies: Study 2, 3 and 4 involves the development and validation of the witness behaviour towards workplace deviance scale; Study 5 involves the development and testing of a theoretical framework.

Study 2 to 4 made use of a mixed methods strategy and inductive approach where the results from analysing the qualitative one-to-one interviews conducted in India and the USA formed the basis of scale construction. The scale, after undergoing rigorous analysis by using the quantitative data collected from India and the USA, resulted in a two-dimensional self-serving and intervening behaviour 9-item measure that proved to be a universal construct. It was then validated for construct, discriminant and predictive validity to classify it within the nomological network. It was found to sit closer to the phenomenon of voluntary behaviours, thus contributing to deviance and scale development literature.

Study 5 involved the development of a conceptual framework that was tested with the quantitative data collected from India and the USA. The results provided support that when an individual has high organizational climate experience as well as more self-serving and less intervening behaviour, he/she would be involved in more constructive and destructive deviance behaviour providing support that organizations should focus on these factors and a clear distinction should be made between negative and positive deviance accepted within the organization. The results also provided support that individualistic and collectivistic orientation of an individual did moderate the effect of organizational climate, self-serving and intervening behaviour with destructive and constructive deviance. Therefore, an individual's orientation to individualism and collectivism would influence the relationship of organizational climate and witness behaviour towards workplace deviance so that organizations may benefit from implementing the study findings and suggestions. This would then prevent individuals from becoming involved in destructive deviance and enhance their involvement in constructive deviance.

Thesis Summary

Workplace deviance behaviour has resulted in 20% of business failure and annual loss of \$6-\$200 billion in US organizations. It is a subject of concern between

researchers of human resource management and organizational behaviour as it contributes to psychological, sociological and economic implications in the organization. The two main categories of workplace deviance behaviour are positive and negative deviance behaviours. The thesis begins with a review of literature on workplace deviance, highlighting the variation in the research findings. The thesis continues with an illustration of the various terminology used in deviance literature within the organizational context. The theories that have been extensively used in deviance, the need for research and gaps are then discussed. This is followed by the development and validation of the Witness behaviour towards the workplace deviance (WBTWD) scale, which was focused on answering two main questions: Firstly, what constitutes individual behaviour towards deviance? And secondly, to what extent do supervisor, organizational and co-worker behaviour as well as personal belief influence an individual behavioural response to organizational and interpersonal deviance? A new 9-item scale of Witness behaviour towards the workplace deviance (WBTWD) was developed from Study 2 (n=28 semi-structured one-to-one interviews) and further validated in study 3 and 4. Study 3 consists of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) (n= 202 India (Sample 2a), n=233 USA (Sample 3a)) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (n= 202 India (Sample 2a), n=350 USA (Sample 3b)) and Study 4 consists of Construct and Criterion-Related Validity (n=233 India (Sample 4), n=222 USA (Sample 5)). Study 5 deals with a multigroup model that is tested in India (n=404) and the USA (n=583) via Amos 22.0 using structural equation modelling (SEM) analysis. The results of the hypothesised model along with the theoretical and practical contribution of the model are discussed. The final chapter provides an overall discussion along with the implication and future directions of the research.

Dedication

To my husband, Mr. Narayanan and kids, Aadhi and Yatra

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Chapter 1

Workplace Deviance in Organizations: Typologies, Theories and Methodology

Overview

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a review of typologies, theoretical and empirical studies in workplace deviance literature with the aim of providing the reader an insight into the phenomenon under study. The chapter has three parts; the first part provides the importance and need for research in the topic. The second part is concerned with the definition and various terminologies of workplace deviance. The third part outlines the empirical study done on the topic so far.

1.1. Introduction: Why Employee Workplace Deviance?

Employee deviance has been found to be the cause of about 30% of failure in many organizations and a subject of concern between researchers of human resource management and organizational behaviour as it contributes to psychological, sociological and economic implications in the organization (Appelbaum, Iaconi, & Matousek, 2007; Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Galperin, 2002). The main reason for increased research in this topic is due to the financial impact of deviance behaviours on organizations (Henle, 2005). Workplace deviance is defined as the occupational crime that ranges from minor acts such as taking long breaks, embarrassing peers and leaving early from work to more serious acts such as theft, sabotage etc. Further examples include use of alcohol and drugs, poor quality of work, stealing from employers, arriving late for work, absenteeism, work time misuse, and property damage (Vardi, 2001).

A huge amount of productivity and resources lost each year due to employee deviance behaviour has led to the importance in the prediction and explanation of deviance behaviour (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). “It has been found that three out of every four employees are reported to have stolen at least once from their employers and 95 percent of companies have reported some kind of deviance related experience within their respective organization. The estimated amount of employee theft has been reported as \$50 billion annually on US economy” (Appelbaum et al., 2007, p. 586-587).

Not all individuals are said to engage in behaviours of these kinds nor that people who engage in these behaviours do so to a great extent. However, it is suggested that some of the employees do engage in deviance behaviour and thus the importance of pursuing the study prevails. Despite the financial impact, victims of interpersonal workplace deviance are known to suffer from stress related issues leading to low productivity and a high turnover rate thus affecting the organization (Henle et al., 2005). Recently, researchers have attributed positive behaviours that break organizational norms to contribute towards the well-being of the organization and individual to workplace deviance behaviour (Galperin, 2002). Employees who violate organizational norms voluntarily would be main sources of innovation and entrepreneurship adding to the competitive advantage of the organizations (Howell et al., 1998). Thus, there is a great incentive for organizations to prevent negative deviance and encourage positive deviance.

The aim of the present research is to find out those factors that have been less researched in deviance literature and to determine their relationship with both destructive and constructive deviance behaviour. The outcome of the research would be beneficial to organizations as they could concentrate on those determinants to bolster positive behaviours and curb negative outcomes.

1.2. Definition and Various Terminologies of Workplace Deviance

1.2.1 Negative Deviance

The research and discussion regarding deviance has been well developed in the past two decades and Table 1 provides some examples and definitions of these undesirable behaviours prevalent in the organizations.

TABLE 1
Various Terminologies of Destructive Deviance Behaviours

Construct	Author	Definition	Examples
NEGATIVE BEHAVIOURS:			
Organizational delinquency	Hogan & Hogan (1989)	No formal definition provided: said to be a syndrome, which is the result of employee "unreliability." Counterproductive acts are elements of the syndrome.	Hostility to rules, thrill seeking, social insensitivity and alienation
Professional deviant-adaptive	Raelin (1994)	Role conflict among the professionals.	Work scale (e.g., unethical practices, absenteeism, work-to-rule, bootlegging) Self scale (e.g., flaunting of external offers, rationalization, alienation, apathy) Career scale (e.g., premature external search, external performance emphasis)
Deviance Behaviour	Robinson & Bennett (1995)	Voluntary behaviours that break significant organizational norms and threaten the well-being of the organization and/or its members.	Production deviance (damaging quantity and quality for work), property deviance (abusing or stealing company property), political deviance (bad-mouthing others, spreading rumours), and personal aggression (being hostile or violent toward others)

TABLE 1
CONTINUED

Construct	Author	Definition	Examples
Workplace aggression	Baron & Neuman (1997); Folger & Baron (1996)	Aggression would be manifested as any behaviour intended to hurt the organization	Sabotage and withholding of output
Organization-motivated aggression	O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin & Glew (1996)	Attempted injurious or destructive behaviour initiated by either an organizational insider or outsider that is instigated by some factor in the organizational context.	Factors in physical environment like temperature and work conditions and co-worker disturbance.
Organizational Misbehaviour	Vardi & Weiner (1996).	Acts that violate core organizational and/or societal norms, intentional workplace acts that violate rules pertaining to such behaviours	Intending to benefit the self and the organization and intended to inflict damage, wasting time, absenteeism, turnover, crime, and sexual harassment.
Revenge	Bies, Tripp & Kramer (1997)	General action of purposeful retaliation within the workplace in an attempt to seek justice	Theft, vandalism, breaking promises, insults and false accusations
Antisocial Behaviour	Giacolone & Greenberg (1997)	Actions that bring harm or are intended to bring harm, to an organization, its employees, and/or the organization's stakeholders	Aggression, theft, discrimination, interpersonal violence, sabotage, harassment, lying, revenge, and whistle blowing, focused mainly on personal and property interactions.

TABLE 1
CONTINUED

Construct	Author	Definition	Examples
Organizational vice	Moberg(1997)	An act that betrays the trust of either individuals or the organizational community.	Employee abusive behaviours
Retaliation	Skarlicki & Folger, (1997)	Adverse reactions to perceived unfairness by disgruntled employees toward their employee	Theft and sabotage
Dysfunctional Behaviour	Griffin, O’Leary-Kelly, & Kelly& Collins (1998)	Actions by employees or groups of employees that have negative consequence for an individual, a group, and/or the organization itself.	Violent and deviant (aggression, physical, verbal assault, terrorism) and nonviolent and dysfunctional (alcohol and drug use, revenge, absence, theft).
Workplace Incivility	Andersson & Pearson (1999)	Low intensity deviant behaviour with ambiguous intent to harm the target. Behaviour characterized by rudeness and disregard for others.	Setting impossible deadlines, using abusive languages, talking negatively about others, interrupting conversations and gossiping.

Legal and illegal behaviours, behaviours that violate and do not violate organizational norms or policies but inflict harm on employees within the organization, behaviours aimed at various targets, both members and organizational outsiders are all included in these definitions. All these behaviours can be summed up as either directed towards the organization or towards the individuals. An overall terminology that would lead to the explanation of these behaviours prevalent in the organization will be taken up for the purpose of the study.

The behaviours that harm the organization may have specific costs or general costs. When interactions between the individuals are severed because of the deviance behaviours, the human resources will not work in teams and there will be a lack of cooperation. The resulting organizational culture then includes disrespect, distrust and dissatisfaction (Appelbaum et al., 2007). The competent employees who are unable to adapt to this kind of culture will eventually resign and those who remain within the organization will be unsatisfied and unhappy (Johnson & Indvik, 2001). The negative behaviour prevalent in the organization can fall into various categories from theft, sabotage and vandalism to harassment and property destruction. The most prominent studies have been carried out on antisocial behaviour, counterproductive behaviour, dysfunctional and organizational misbehaviour. These will be described in the next section.

1.2.2. Forms of Negative Behaviour

Antisocial behaviour is a behaviour that causes harm to an organization, its stakeholders or employees. These include blackmail, bribery, arson, extortion, kickbacks, theft etc., (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997). These behaviours are said to focus more on the personal interactions between the co-workers that are harmful towards the individuals, property damage to organization and political disparity, than the production loss with sabotage as an exception. The consequences of this behaviour affect the social environment in which the organization exists as a whole because of the influence it may have on the general public.

On the other hand, Spector and Fox (2002) described the counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) as intentional behaviour that causes harm to the organization. It includes minor behaviour from inappropriate internet use, rumour spreading and littering to more severe behaviour such as verbal hostility, theft, sabotage, physical aggression and intentionally doing the tasks incorrectly. It is the result of job stress that can be physical (headache, increase blood pressure etc.) or behavioural (withdrawal from the work).

According to Agnew, (1992) individuals who are more worried and stressed tend to behave offensively. In order to escape from the stress, these individuals end up becoming involved in behaviour that is offensive. This leads to the stressor emotional

model that depicts that not only anger, but also other negative emotions cause deviance workplace behaviour (Spector & Fox, 2002). Thus, it has been suggested that the control perceptions are one of the important determinants of the CWB. When control over the stressor of the job is low, the employees are more prone to behave negatively. Having control over task autonomy may result in the reduction of these stressors.

Compared to the two aforementioned examples of deviant behaviour, the organizational misbehaviour (OMB) is a negative behaviour that deliberately violates the societal norms. It is distinguished as three types, “Type S misbehaviour to benefit oneself, Type O misbehaviour to benefit the organization and Type D which inflict damage” (Vardi & Wiener, 2004, p. 37-38). The behaviours that are inconsistent with the societal values but that are consistent with the organizational values are said to form OMB. The employees’ perception of power within the organization is also an important criterion to determine the deviance behaviour as it has its roots in the reasonableness interpretation of power (Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

The other types of negative employee behaviour include retaliation (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), workplace incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), revenge (Bies, Tripp & Krammer, 1997) and organizational aggression (Neuman & Baron, 1998). Robinson and Bennett (1995, p.556) defined workplace destructive deviance as “a voluntary behaviour that violates organizational norms and thus threatens the well-being of the organization and its members”. They suggested that these behaviours could be directed either towards the organization or towards the individuals. These behaviours can be categorised into “production deviance (organizational deviance that includes leaving early, wasting resources and intentionally working slowly); property deviance (serious organizational deviance like lying about hours worked, sabotaging equipment, stealing); political deviance (minor interpersonal deviance like blaming and gossiping about co-workers) and personal aggression (serious interpersonal deviance that includes endangering co-workers, verbal abuse, etc.)” (Robinson and Bennett (1995, p.565). For the purpose of the present study, the above mentioned workplace destructive deviance directed towards the organization (WDB-O) and towards the individual (WDB-I) will be considered, as it acts as a summation of different terminologies which would determine the presence of deviance behaviour within the organization.

1.2.3. Positive Deviance

The positive deviance behaviour can be found to be of various forms from helping the co-workers by breaking the organizational rules, to whistle blowing that is performed to be beneficial toward the organization. Those behaviours that are generally not positive but which are done with honourable intentions are said to be under the positive behaviour category. Table 2 provides some examples and definitions of these positive behaviours prevalent in the organizations.

TABLE 2
Various Terminologies of Constructive Deviance Behaviours

Construct	Author	Definition	Examples
Positive behaviours:			
Extra-role behaviour	Katz (1964); Van Dyne, Cummings & McLean Parks (1995)	Voluntary behaviours that help strengthen social boundaries between individuals	Helping behaviour, cooperative behaviour, constructive expression of challenge, unequal power, criticism of situation, voice and whistle-blowing
Pro-social organizational behaviour	Brief & Motowildo (1986)	Breaking organizational rules in an honourable fashion to help the organization	Assisting co-workers, showing leniency, helping consumers, putting extra effort on job and corporate social responsibility
Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)	Organ (1988)	Individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization'	Altruism-offering to help others, conscientiousness-role beyond work requirement, sportsmanship-employee ability to tolerate change, courtesy-preventing work-related conflicts and civic virtue-concern for employee

TABLE 2
CONTINUED

Construct	Author	Definition	Examples
Organizational spontaneity	George & Brief (1992)	Voluntarily performed extra-role behaviours that contribute to organizational effectiveness	Helping co-workers, Protecting the organization, Making constructive suggestions, Developing oneself, Spreading goodwill.
Generic work behaviours	Hunt (1996)	Behaviours that are both in-role and extra-role related to non-job specific performance, including those behaviours that are extremely frequent or displayed by most deviant employees.	Adherence to confrontational rules, Industriousness, Thoroughness, Schedule flexibility, Attendance, Off-task behaviour, Unruliness, Theft and Drug misuse.
Constructive deviance behaviour	Galperin (2001)	Voluntary behaviour that violates the norms of the organization so as to contribute to the well-being of the organization	Organizational deviance (innovative ideas to respond to customer needs, challenging behaviours to serve the needs of the organization) and interpersonal deviance (disobeying managerial orders to improve organizational process)
Pro-social rule breaking	Morrison (2006)	Volitional rule breaking in the interest of the organization	Breaking rules for better customer service, flexible with policies to assist co-workers and breaking rules to do job effectively.
Pro-active behaviours	Grant & Ashford (2008)	Future focused and self-directed actions of individuals to bring about changes in organization.	Learning new skills, changes to new work methods and strategies

The next section will provide an overview of types of constructive behaviour in some depth. The most prominent studies have been carried out in organizational citizenship behaviour, pro-social rule breaking behaviour, pro-social behaviour, extra-role behaviour and proactive behaviour. These will be described in the next section.

1.2.4. Forms of Constructive Deviance Behaviour

Katz & Khan (1966) argued that there are three types of individual behaviour patterns that are required for organizational effectiveness and functioning. The categories are comprised of the following: join and stay with the organization: in order to reduce turn-over this is a highly desirable behaviour, dependable behaviour: this behaviour demands individuals to fulfil job requirements so as to meet both quantitative and qualitative performance standards and the innovative and spontaneous behaviours: it includes performances that are beyond the requirements of the role and promotes a positive climate in the external environment for the organization.

Organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) can also be related to positive deviance behaviour when rules are broken so as to perform an organizational or individual activity that contributes to the benefit of the organization and not to the individual himself. In general, it is defined “as those behaviours of an individual that is not recognized by the formal reward systems but it promotes the effective and efficient functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988, p. 4). These behaviours become part of an employee’s behaviour when practiced repeatedly by the individual, which ultimately benefits the organization. According to several empirical findings, it has been summed up that OCB has a strong positive influence on the organizational performance. Satisfaction of employee, organizational commitment, leader supportiveness, fairness perceptions have also been linked to OCB (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997). Rather than employee characteristics, job characteristics have been found to have a significant correlation with OCB. These differ from constructive deviance behaviour because these do not depart from the organizational norms.

Pro-social rule breaking (PSRB) on the other hand departs from the organizational norms and “is a positive behaviour which is characterized by rule breaking in the

interest of the stakeholders and the organization” (Dahling et al., 2012, p. 1). Contrary to the belief that individuals are self-interested performers, there are studies that have identified the socially desirable behaviours of the employees, which are beneficial to the co-workers or the organization. The employees can help the co-workers with their tasks and extra effort can be made to complete a job to be a better representative of the organization (Brief & Motowildo, 1986). It has been emphasized that the rule breaking can be pro-social, only if this behaviour helps the organization in an honorable fashion without any individual gain. Individuals are known to engage in these behaviours only if there have been other employees who have already engaged in such behaviours in the past (Morisson, 2006).

Compared to OCB, these behaviours can be either functional or dysfunctional organizationally. The functional behaviour includes all types of behaviours like cooperation, protection and support for the organization. The behaviours such as helping colleagues to complete their job or providing customers with services that are not part of the organizational aims are said to be dysfunctional. These behaviours also include corporate social responsibility (CSR), creativity, and innovation and whistle blowing only if they diverge from organizational norms and the intent is honourable (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004). Whistle blowing can be both negative and positive according to its intentions. If the employee discloses information regarding the organization’s illegal practices, then it is called positive deviance and it is extra-role behaviour.

The extra-role behaviour (ERB) involves the successful implementation of the creative ideas within the organization and it is its nature to depart from the organizational norms. These include challenging, prohibitive, promotive and affiliative behaviours (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). Challenging behaviour brings about new concepts and changes, which can lead to negative impact; the prohibitive behaviours protect and sustain against conditions that are unfavourable; promotive behaviour is that which promotes changes in the organizational system and the affiliative behaviour orients towards other members and cooperates with them. The main types of the ERB are “helping that is a voluntary cooperation which strengthens social boundaries between individuals, voice- suggests and encourages innovative ideas and stewardship brings out the unethical practices that are occurring in an

organization which will initiate actions by the authorities” (Aykler, 2010, p. 23). When the powerful interests of organizations are offended, the individuals face the risk of career loss. Thus in such cases, the voice will be seen as deviance behaviour which is negative (Valacich & Schwenk, 1995).

This explains the growing need of the proactive behaviours that are defined as the future focused and self-directed action of an individual to bring about changes in the organization. This includes the changes within oneself like learning a new set of skills to cope with future demands and change to the situation involving the introduction of new work methods, strategies etc., (Grant & Ashford, 2008). The individuals who are proactive construe and redefine their roles to achieve future goals and tasks (Frese & Fay, 2001).

Constructive or positive deviant behaviour is defined “as the voluntary behaviour that violates the norms of the organization so as to contribute to the well-being of the organization” (Galperin, 2002, p. 9). The organization does not authorize this behaviour but the performance of this behaviour will benefit the organization in reaching the economic and financial objectives (Appelbaum et al., 2007). The growing awareness in positive deviance can be attributed to positive organizational scholarship (POS) developing the human strength so as to result in producing extraordinary individuals (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Thus, these behaviours include the innovative behaviours, criticizing incompetent superiors and non-compliance with dysfunctional directives (Galperin, 2002).

These behaviours can also be categorized “as either directed towards the organization (innovative behaviours that aim to help the organization and the challenging behaviours those that challenge the existing norms of the organization) or the individuals (behaviours that disobey managerial orders so as to improve the organizational process)” (Galperin, 2012, p. 64). For the purpose of the study, the above-mentioned challenging, innovative and interpersonal constructive behaviours will be considered which will determine the presence of positive behaviour within the organization as it involves the breaking of organizational norms but, to benefit the organization or individuals working in it.

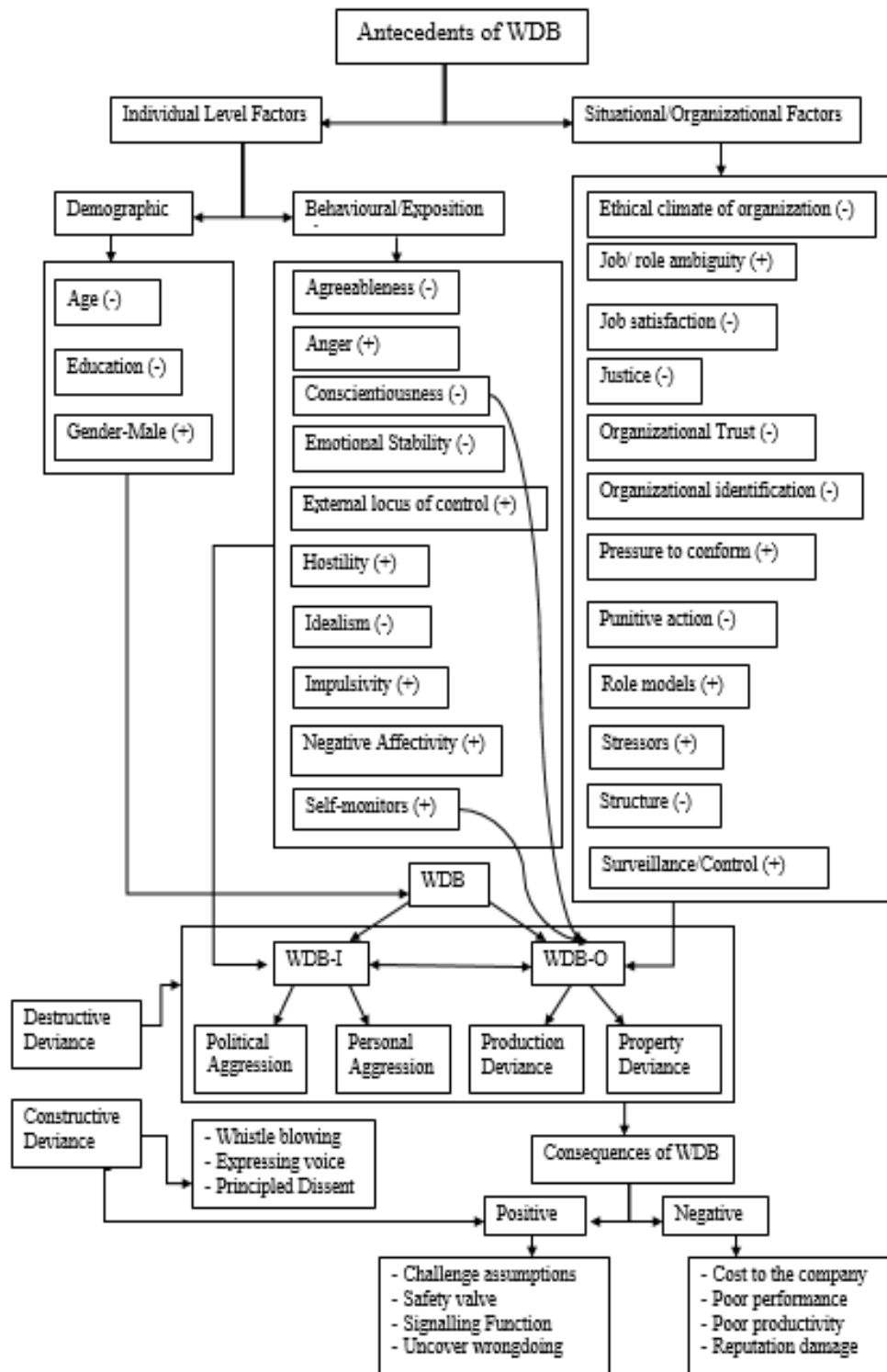
Despite the prevalence of various forms of deviant behaviour, limited studies have been carried out in testing the presence of these behaviours, both constructive and destructive in the organization (Galperin, 2002). The present study determines the relationship of these behaviours with its various determinants from a cultural perspective the rationale behind which is described later in the chapter. This would help to enhance the existing literature and help the organizations to enhance their work environment by bolstering positive behaviour and reducing negative behaviours that will increase the satisfaction level of the employees that is the major factor of workplace deviance behaviour.

1.3. Organization Context of Workplace Deviance Behaviour

Contextualisation entails “linking observations to a set of relevant facts, events, or points of view that make possible research and theory that form part of a larger whole” (Rousseau & Fried, 2001, p.1). The behaviours and attitudes in an organization are embedded within the organizational context, which is a complex network of interdependent relationships. Table 3 (see Appendix) consists of an extensive literature review of all the previous studies done on the topic so far. This was done to understand the previous studies done on the topic so far. From the table it is clear that past research in workplace deviance has been related to various causes, organizational and interpersonal, and has led to several consequences, which are directed towards the organization and individuals working in it (refer Figure 1).

FIGURE 1

General Model of Workplace Deviance



Source: adapted from Nair & Bhatnagar, 2011

1.3.1. Workplace Deviance as an Outcome.

From Table 3 it can be seen that researchers have attributed individual and organizational factors to the cause of workplace deviance such that different factors might explain different types of workplace deviance behaviours (Appelbaum et al., 2005; Greenberg, 1990; Muafi, 2011; Rogoan, 2009). Organizational factors are more likely to influence workplace deviance behaviours directed towards organizations and individual factors would influence interpersonal workplace deviance (Everton et al., 2007; Parks & Mount, 2005). Various organizational factors include different forms of organizational justice (Everton et al., 2007; Henle, 2005; Thau et al., 2007) where an organization perceived as fair would have fewer instances of deviance; organizational ethical climate where an organization that lacks measures to determine and control deviance behaviour is thought to encourage it (Fox & Spector, 1999; Sims, 1992). Job stressors such as role ambiguity, conflict, workload, organizational constraints and interpersonal conflict have been found to be strongly related to abuse and workplace sabotage (Appelbaum, Shapiro & Molson, 2006; Litzky et al., 2006; Penney & Spector, 2005). Task structure has also been found as another determinant of workplace deviance (Osgood et al., 1996) where structured activities reduce the opportunities to engage in workplace deviance. Pressure to conform has been argued as one of the factors that causes workplace deviance. As employees spend more time with peers, their perception of what is ethically right or wrong is likely to change (Appelbaum et al., 2006). Perceived organizational support has been suggested to have a negative relationship with workplace destructive deviance, as it is believed that employees would perceive a positive or negative orientation of the organization towards their contribution and welfare (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Nair & Bhatnager, 2011). Job satisfaction is also argued to eventually lead to workplace deviance as individuals who are more attached to their jobs and organizations would follow the rules set by the organization (Liao et al., 2004; Sims, 2002). The role of the leader/manager is also an important determinant of deviance as deviant role models would influence others in the workgroup to commit acts of deviance as well (Appelbaum et al., 2005). In addition, when leaders exercise control and discipline when witnessing deviance within the organization then the values of the organizational norms are set, thus enforcing justice (Treviño & Brown, 2005).

Individual factors like personality of an individual, trait such as anger, anxiety, locus of control etc., are known to be associated with workplace aggression (Fox and Spector, 1999). Various traits like consciousness and agreeableness are also said to be the cause of workplace deviance where individuals who are low in consciousness and agreeableness are also low in self-esteem and control, thus contributing to deviance (Alias & Mohd Rasdi, 2011). Negative affectivity, which is a result of anger, has also been attributed to workplace deviance (Aquino et al., 1999; Goh, 2007). The emotional intelligence of an individual has also been attributed to being the cause of workplace deviance as employees high in emotional intelligence are said to be better performers than those with low emotional intelligence (Alias & Mohd Rasdi, 2011, 2013). In addition, the more attached and committed an individual is towards his organization, the less likely he is of becoming involved in norm breaking activities (Sims, 2002). The psychological state of frustration is also related to various forms of interpersonal deviance, as people who are more frustrated tend to become more involved in norm breaking activities (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Research has also suggested that people who are high in Machiavellianism engage in counterproductive behaviour given their nature of viewing others as objects rather than showing empathy towards others (Christie & Geis, 1970; Kessler et al., 2010).

Some researchers have also focused on the role of demographics in predicting workplace deviance (Appelbaum et al., 2006). It was found that males engage in more deviance than females. Employees with less tenure are also known to engage in organizational deviance whereas a more educated individual has been known to become involved in less deviance than less educated employees (Raelin, 1994). Young employees were more prone to engage in a higher level of deviance than older employees (Appelbaum et al., 2006; Gruys & Sackett, 2003).

With regard to constructive deviance, the studies defining its antecedents are limited (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004; Vadera et al., 2013). Some of the widely researched antecedents were psychological ownership (Chung & Moon, 2011) where the nature of possession would increase the satisfaction of individuals, thus resulting in constructive deviance. Psychological empowerment is stated as a key enabler of positive deviance (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2005; Vadera et al., 2013). As empowerment involves employee participation in important organizational decision-making, it would

enable them to take risks by trying something new, thus departing from set organizational norms (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2005). Leader member exchange (LMX) is also one of the important antecedents of constructive deviance where individuals who experience high levels of LMX with supervisors benefiting from support and opportunities to become involved in constructive deviance (Tziner et al., 2010). Moreover, when a manager rewards or acknowledges positive deviance, this is found to further enhance constructive deviance within the organization (Treviño & Brown, 2005). Personality traits are also determined as one of the predictors of constructive deviance, (Bodankin & Tziner, 2009) especially Machiavellianism, where individuals use aggressive, manipulative and devious ways to achieve personal or organizational objective as these individuals challenge the rules and norms to benefit the organization (Galperin, 2002). Employees who possess high status and reference groups engage in more positive deviance than others. This has been attributed to various perspective and viewpoints that they gain as a result of being exposed to multiple reference groups, thus increasing workplace creativity, leading to innovation (Galperin, 2002)

1.3.2. Consequences of Workplace Deviance

One of the major consequences of destructive workplace deviance like theft and abuse of responsibility is the huge monetary loss for business (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Dunlop and Lee (2004) found that performance of a work unit would also be affected due to deviance. This can be attributed to stress suffered by victims and perpetrators of deviance leading to a decrease in productivity (Henle et al., 2005). Workplace deviance would lead to increase in intention to quit, absenteeism, dissatisfaction, unpleasant emotions, depression, low self-esteem and anxiety, which would result in a decline in organizational and individual well-being (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Bolin & Heatherly, 2001; Chirasha & Mahappa 2012; Nair & Bhatnagar, 2011). Positive outcomes have also been attributed to deviance such as whistle-blowing and reporting behaviour to uncover wrongdoing within the organization (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Warren, 2003).

Thus, a review of previous studies, determined the various factors that have been researched so far and the consequences of involving in deviance. The next section explains the theories that have been used extensively in deviance literature.

1.4. Theories of Workplace Deviance Behaviour

As the purpose of the study is to implement both organizational and individual determinants to explain destructive and constructive workplace deviance, an overview of previous theories that have been used in deviance literature is presented. Only those theories that would have an impact on an individual's decision to engage in deviant activities are briefed.

Social Exchange Theory (SET): Blau (1986) introduced this concept and it is one of the most widely used conceptual perspectives in management and other fields like sociology. This theory treats social life as a series of relationship between two or more individuals (Mitchell et al., 2012). Organizational researchers use this theory to describe the motivational basis of employees' behaviour (Etzioni, 1961) and to explain the loyalty expressed by individuals towards their organization by engaging in behaviours that are not formally enforced (Organ, 1988; Scholl, 1981). According to this theory, when individuals are benefited by an entity then they will feel obliged to compensate for their actions. Similarly, in organizational setting employers are the sources that meet employees' needs, resulting in a give-and-take relationship between them (Farasat & Ziaaddini, 2013). Here, reciprocity which is based on interdependence, where outcomes/behaviours are a combinations of effort from two parties, is considered a defining characteristic of SET (Molm, 1994). Social exchange theorists argue that when employees feel that their welfare and needs are given more attention by the organization, not because of requirements or pressure from work unions, the employees will work towards realising organizational goals. As organization is a source to satisfy employees' needs of identity, sense of belonging and self-esteem, based on the norm of reciprocity, employees would in turn help the organizations to achieve its goals to maintain the organization as a source for their needs (Taleghani et al., 2009). This theory, along with the norm of reciprocity, (Gouldner, 1960) posits that when individuals perceive unfavourable treatments from their organizations they feel dissatisfied with their organizations and reciprocate with destructive deviance (Alias et al., 2012; Colquitt et al., 2006). This straightforward idea has led to social exchange theory being a widely used conceptual framework (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

The social exchange process is said to begin when a supervisor or a co-worker treats an individual either in a positive or negative way (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Rusbult et al., 1988). Actions that are positive would include activities like providing organizational support (Riggle et al., 2009) or justice (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008) whereas negative actions include abusive supervision (Tepper, 2007; Tepper et al., 2009), incivility (Pearson et al., 2005) or bullying (Lewis, 2004). It is predicted that individuals will respond to these actions by either becoming involved in positive or negative behaviours. Social exchange theory has been used as a framework in a number of studies that determines the antecedents of workplace deviance. These include trust (Abdul, 2008), leadership (Chullen et al., 2010; Mayer et al., 2012; Thau & Mitchell, 2010), personality (Colbert et al., 2004; Flaherty & Moss, 2007; Galperin & Burke, 2006; Mount et al., 2006; Yildiz et al., 2015), perceived organizational support (Farasat & Ziaddini, 2013), justice (Holtz & Harold, 2013; Yen & Teng, 2013), organizational cynicism (Shahzad & Mahmood, 2012). More emphasis is given towards the fairness perspective of this exchange behaviour (Colquit et al., 2006) where the judgement of fairness or unfairness acts as a scale to determine employee engagement in exchange relationships.

Though widely used, this theory is not without its issues; firstly, the theory assumes the absence of positive actions as presence of negative actions where in reality that might not be the case (Cropanzano et al., 2016). Next, social exchange theory contains three parts: “an initiating actions, the relationship between the individuals and a reciprocation response” (Cropanzano et al., 2016, p.6). This might result in similar constructs occupying a similar position within the theory and are likely to include parallel set of behaviours, which will be correlated (see Cropanzano et al., 2016). Also, there is a level of ambiguity with respect to the relationship and exchange that happens between the employees and employers (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Some researchers have developed other theories with social exchange as its base. The LMX and OS theories are briefed.

Leader Member Exchange Theory (LMX): This theory was first proposed by Dnasereau et al., (1975) stating that leaders develop different relationships with different employees. Supervisors are known to have relatively high or low quality exchange relationships with their employees (Sparrowe & Liden, 2005) thus

determining the loyalty, liking and respect between them (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden et al., 1997). This theory has emerged based on social exchange theory (SET) and it has been used to assess the supervisor support prevailing within the organizations. Researchers have focused on the outcomes of this relationship (Liden et al., 1997) as high level of LMX would result in higher levels of job satisfaction leading to low turnover intentions, high job performance resulting in positive deviance. However, those individuals experiencing low levels of leader support would feel negative about their job as they face lower job advancement opportunities resulting in involvement in deviance (Duffy et al., 2002). This relationship is known to contribute to organizational effectiveness, as it would affect the extent to which employees engage in innovative activities that are beyond their job description (Katz, 1964; Smith et al., 1983).

Organization Support Theory (OS): This theory also draws on the social and the reciprocity perspective explaining that the organizational support perceived by employees would affect their work attitudes and behaviours (Eisenberger et al., 1986). POS (perceived organizational support) “should produce a felt obligation to care about the organization’s welfare and to help the organization reach its objectives” (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002, p. 699). It states that when employees feel that they are supported by their organization, they will respond with behaviours that are positive to meet the organizational goals (Chullen et al., 2010) whereas when they feel a lack of support from their employer they are more likely known to involve in negative deviance (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Spector, 1997) due to frustration.

Another theory that has LMX and OS theory as its basis is the belongingness theory (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) which suggests an individual need to belong as one of the primary human drivers resulting in a strong interpersonal relationship in the workplace. It is believed that when an individual’s sense of belonging is lower than desired, it can give rise to negative reactions (Baumeister et al., 1996; Thau et al., 2007). Self - esteem has been proposed to be a satisfying indicator of the need to belong. When this is affected as a result of acceptance or rejection within the work environment with respect to the exchange and support relationships, it then causes deviance (Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Thau et al., 2007).

Social Information Processing Theory (SIP): The social information processing theory was an alternative to need satisfaction theories. According to this theory, the needs of an individual and their perception of job characteristics are influenced by the social environment or network in which they are a part of, along with the informational relationship they possess. This approach stems from the fact that “individuals, as adaptive organisms, adapt attitudes, behaviour and beliefs to their social context and to the reality of their own past and present behaviour and situation” (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978, p.226). This theory demonstrates that an employee would depend on several social cues ranging from reactions of the organizations towards co-worker behaviour to determining the relevant norms and expectations (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). This is expected to guide the employee to become involved in appropriate behaviours given the social context. Furthermore, the social context would make the individual’s assumption of his own past activities and thoughts salient by constraining the process of rationalisation.

This theory is suggested to affect the attitude of the individuals, both directly and indirectly. Direct process has to do with the effect of co-worker statements on an individual work attitude. When a co-worker continuously describes a job as being undesirable, then an individual must either reject or assimilate them into their own judgement. Social information is known to be influential, as it would guide the attention of employees to work environmental aspects by providing access to the interpretation of their co-workers and supervisors. The individuals are inclined to the judgements based on the social context for two main reasons: first, being the uncertainty attached to the job’s multidimensional components and reaction towards it where the evaluation of other’s knowledge would give ideas to react to complex cues; second being the individual’s need to agree with the co-worker verbally in order to fit in. These repeated agreements could eventually convince the worker himself (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). It is believed that a co-worker who is socially important to an individual is said to exercise greater influence on the individual (Chen et al., 2013; Katz & Kahn, 1978) as the co-worker who is more familiar with the individual’s work and would have more interaction with the individual would have greater influence on his attitude and behaviour (Mas & Moretti, 2009). In addition, individuals build up their job requirements within an organizational setting according to their perception

such that people who have similar positions would define their roles differently (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Zellars et al., 2002).

Social information processing theory has been used as a framework in a number of studies that determine the antecedents of workplace deviance. These include organizational cynicism (Wilkerson et al., 2008), abusive supervision (Zellars et al., 2002) and norms (Robinson & O' Leary-Kelly, 1998) where social norms have an influential trigger of workplace deviance (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998) especially behaviours like sabotage (Giacalone et al., 1997), aggression (Greenberg & Alge, 1998) and counterproductive behaviour (Boye & Jones, 1997).

The social learning theory (Bandura, 1977b) also posits a similar view that individuals learn the norms regarding appropriate behaviours by being a witness to such behaviours. Leaders/ Supervisors often serve as role models given their status in the organization for determining behaviours that are acceptable and appropriate (Ambrose & Schminke, 2013). Thus, when a supervisor's manager treats him with dignity and provides justifications for his decisions and activities, the supervisor learns this behaviour and he is expected to replicate this positive interpersonal treatment when interacting with his subordinates, thus resulting in a positive workgroup climate (Mayer et al., 2007). Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly (1998) found that employees engaged more in workplace anti-social behaviour when such behaviour was common among members of their work group. In addition, a study by Aquino et al., (2004) showed that employees who observed aggressive role models would engage in higher levels of aggressive behaviours.

Social Bonding Theory: According to Hirschi (1969) attachment, commitment, involvement and belief determine the bond between an individual with his society. Bennett and Robinson (1998) argued that this concept can be applied in organizational context. The attachment element refers to the extent to which an individual is socially attached to others within the organization. It is proposed that a greater degree of attachment of an individual to co-workers or others who are non-deviant would in turn result in less deviance (Galperin & Burke, 2007). Another element, commitment, is viewed as a future component of the social bond as "it refers to the number of "social assets" an actor puts at risk of losing if he or she should be negatively

sanctioned for their rule-breaking activity” (Hollinger, 1986, p. 57). According to this, when an individual’s future commitment to conformity is more, then their involvement in deviance would be less; conversely, when an individual is looking for a new job, then his future commitment to the organization would be less and he would be more likely to engage in deviance (Hollinger, 1986). The third element is involvement that assumes “that a person may be simply too busy doing conventional things to find time to engage in deviant behaviour” (Appelbaum et al., 2007, p. 594). Involvement is conceptualised as workload or individual involvement in activities that are sanctioned (Bennett & Robinson, 1998). Thus, employees who are more involved with their work are less likely engaged in destructive deviance as they do not have time to become involved in deviant activities but this is expected to diminish the chance of involvement in positive deviance. The element of belief was considered to be an endorsement of conventional moral belief but it was not taken as an appropriate component in the workplace setting as employees would not perceive their behaviour to be illegal as individual belief in the legal system would not be relevant to deviance (Horning, 1970). Hollinger (1986) also proposed that the remaining three elements could be directly applied to employee deviance.

This theory, along with control theory, explores the mediating role of social bonds to determine the relationships between self-control and deviance behaviour (Longshore et al., 2004). Association with deviant peers is expected to influence the effect of social bonds on deviance (Krohn et al., 1983; Marcos et al., 1986) as individuals who are exposed to deviance by their peers would engage in deviance and have weak bonds to peers who are conventional (Akers, 1994).

Some factors linked to deviance behaviour using the social bonding framework were job satisfaction, intention to turnover, organizational tenure (Hollinger, 1986; Sims, 2002), work involvement, work enjoyment and feeling driven to work (Galperin & Burke, 2006).

Equity Theory: Many researchers emphasise that workplace deviance is a result of unequal treatment among employees, which is supported by the equity theory (Adams, 1965). When employees compare their outcomes (i.e. pay, promotions etc..) to inputs (i.e. education, effort, skills etc..) with that of their co-workers and experience

inequality, then they are said to be involved in deviance (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Henle, 2005). This concept is related to “perception of fairness and just treatment on the job” (Fox et al., 2001). The evaluation of an individual’s organizational fairness is based on outcomes, procedures and personal interactions (McCardle, 2007). The perception of an unfair work environment would develop negative attitudes like job dissatisfaction and mistrust which would lead to destructive deviance against the organization (Bies & Tripp, 1996). Employees are expected to exhibit positive behaviours when their perception of fairness is to their satisfaction (Greenberg & Alge, 1998; Yildiz et al., 2015).

The effects of fairness on workplace deviance are known to be influenced by a variety of organizational, contextual and personality characteristics. These have been researched from three different perspectives. The first is the instrumental perspective where unfair treatment motivates an individual to take action against the organization so that it could improve the compensation for their input. The relational perspective emphasises the fact that a fair treatment within a group environment would affirm an individual’s identity in that group. Finally, the moral virtue perspective, which determines the organizational adherence to moral standards (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Folger et al., 2005) and violation of these moral principles would trigger deontic anger, which may lead to irrational retaliatory behaviours (Folger et al., 2005).

As discussed earlier, fairness perspective’s link to deviance began by focusing on the assessment of fairness by comparing an individual’s own contribution with his colleague (Adam, 1965). This view was predominant with distributive justice where individuals perceive inequity with respect to resource allocation that led to deviance activities as they felt the company owed them (Sieh, 1987). The view of procedural fairness is also relevant where employees perceive organizations as the source that establishes formal rules and policies that would guide the allocation of outcomes (Masterson et al., 2000). Thus, when an individual perceives that the rules and regulations are not equal, then they would feel that they cannot get a fair outcome for their performance input resulting in low organizational commitment and destructive deviance (Aquino et al., 1999). Finally, the interactional fairness perspective focuses on the interpersonal treatment an individual receives when making organizational decisions. This has been found to have an effect on positive and negative deviance

(Colquitt et al., 2001). Along the same conceptual framework is the effort reward imbalance theory (Siegrist, 1996) which states that employees who experience inequality between their efforts and the rewards given to them in the workplace are then said to become involved in deviance (Shahzad & Mahmood, 2012; Siegrist, 1996).

The direct association of equity theory and workplace deviance with respect to fairness perceptions were only partially supported (Aquino et al., 1999; Moideenkutty et al., 2001; Lipponen et al., 2004). This led to researchers imposing mediator or moderator variables (e.g., trust in organization, perceived organizational support, perceived normative conflict) to reflect the mental process that occurs while perceiving injustice and indulgence in workplace deviance (Aryee et al., 2002; de Lara et al., 2007; Moorman et al., 1998; Moideenkutty et al., 2001). The major limitation of this theory was that it focused on the economic aspect of fairness rather than on the procedural and interpersonal fairness (Colquitt et al., 2001).

Social Identity Approach: This approach consists of both social identity theory, SIT (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and self-categorization theory, SCT (Turner et al., 1987). According to SIT, individuals recognise themselves within their social groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). This gives rise to the sense of an “us” and “them” mentality where they tend to evaluate circumstances in an “us” versus “them” perspective leading to in-group favouritism to retain a positive self-image (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). This classification serves two main functions: first, it segments the social environment so that individuals can define others; second, this enables the individuals to define themselves given the social environment. The SCT extends social identity in a way that individuals use the views of in-group and out-group members to describe themselves. This acts as a judgement frame towards the attitudes and behaviours prevailing in that social context (Doosje et al., 1998; Van Rijswijk & Ellemers, 2001). Thus, these individuals are known to engage in behaviour that is consistent with the norms of their social identities, be it positive or negative (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Chung & Moon, 2011; Lawrence & Robinson, 2007).

These are the theories that have been used extensively in workplace deviance literature, be it destructive or constructive deviance. Moreover, as explained above,

they focus on the individual relationship and fairness perspective with the organization, their supervisors and colleagues with themselves resulting in deviance behaviour as an outcome.

There are other theories that take the effects of stress for which deviance is the response. These include the transactional theory of stress and coping (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Cullen & Sackett, 2003; Folkman et al., 1986), general strain theory (Agnew, 2006; Alias et al., 2013), where individuals who are worried and experience stress are often upset that they become involved in deviant activities as an escape from stress. The affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) is also used in deviance literature as it emphasises that individuals react emotionally to events that happen in their work setting. Their mood on the job is known to be an important predictor of job behaviours (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Studies have also used the theory that focuses on the individual perspective of themselves and their decision to become involved in deviance (Ferris et al., 2009), this includes the self-consistency theory (Korman, 1970) which suggests that individuals tend to engage in activities that relate to their overall view of themselves. A cognitive consistency/balance is maintained, as “individuals will be motivated to perform on a task or job in a manner which is consistent with [their] self-image” (Korman 1970, p.32). This theory posits that the self-esteem of an individual would result in him engaging in deviance (Baumeister et al., 1996).

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT): This theory makes use of an interactive perspective (Bandura, 1986, 1997). The behaviour of individuals is often explained as a unidirectional concept where behaviour is perceived to be the cause of the environment in which individuals work or their own personality but this theory proposes a triadic reciprocal relationship (Bandura, 1986). According to this theory, the environmental factor, personality and behavioural outcome all are said to operate as determinants that interact with each other bi-directionally. This bi-directional relationship does not imply that the influence of these various sources are of equal strength. Some may have a stronger influence than the rest of the factors. In addition, these influences can occur at different times and not simultaneously (Bandura, 1989). Here the environment is an imposed structure where individuals have no control over it but have freedom of how they perceive and react to it. The perception of the

environment varies for each and every individual (Mischel, 1973). The personality reflects the expectations, beliefs, self-perception and intentions of an individual that would result in behavioural actions (Bower, 1975). These actions in turn would determine the thought pattern of an individual (Bandura, 1986).

Five basic capabilities like “1. Symbolizing (Employees process visual experiences into cognitive models that serve as guide to future actions), 2. Forethought (employees plan their actions, anticipate the contingent consequences and determine the level of desired performance), 3. Observational (Employees learn by observing the performances of referent and credible others and the consequences they receive for their actions), 4. Self-regulatory (Employees self-control their actions by setting internal standards and evaluating the discrepancy between the standard and the performance in order to improve it), 5. Self-reflective (Employees reflect back on their actions and perceptually determine how strongly they believe they can successfully accomplish the task in the future given the context)” (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003, p. 129) are linked to an individual’s decision to initiate his own behaviour.

The personality and environmental characters influence each other in a way that the individual expectations and beliefs are influenced by social influences on themselves. Researchers in organization behaviour, posits that behaviour is the result of various interactions between personality traits and environmental characteristics rather than stressing that either personality dispositions or environment separately predict the behavioural outcome of an individual (Chatman & Barsade, 1995). Individual differences like personality, demographics and moral development have resulted in an increase in individual involvement in deviance behaviours (Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Treviño & Weaver, 2001; Vardi & Weitz, 2004). The organizational variables like fairness, social norms, ethical climate and leadership have also been emphasised to have an effect on deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2003; Greenberg, 2002; Robinson & O’Leary-Kelly, 1998; Treviño et al., 1998). Although several researchers believe that these interactions provide better explanation of workplace behaviours, only a few studies have investigated this in deviance literature (Duffy et al., 1998; Skarlicki et al., 1999). The behavioural outcomes also form the heart of self-regulatory mechanisms such that individuals determine to what extent the particular behaviour would violate the moral standards of others or self (Bandura, 1991a). These

personal standards are different from social standards and in an organizational setting, these anticipated social and self-sanctions are important determinants of various behaviours (Bollmann & Krings, 2016). This moral awareness is generally not an intentional process as it happens at a subconscious level of the individual thus resulting in different individuals having different moral cues. They construct the standards of the behaviour to be right or wrong based on its consequences on themselves. The individuals engage in behaviours that give them satisfaction and increase their self-worth (Bandura, 2002).

As mentioned above, past research on deviance literature has separately examined deviance behaviour with respect to the environment of the individuals (Peterson, 2002; Applebaum, Deguire & Lay, 2005) or their personality within the organizational culture (Judge & Cable, 1997) but these three variables were not examined together (Bodankin & Tziner, 2009). The present research aims to fill in this gap by focusing on the Social cognitive theory as it combines the organizational environment with individual personality to determine the individual behavioural outcome.

1.5. Research Paradigm

Several researchers have seen a research paradigm as embedded with both quantitative and qualitative methods (Bryman, 2001). Research paradigm is a belief that directs scientists of particular disciplines on what should be studied, how research should be done and how results are to be interpreted. It is a representation of beliefs, values, rules and techniques accepted by any field at any time (Kuhn, 1970). These paradigms are important, as they are human constructions that guide actions (Lincoln & Guba, 1994). Paradigm provides a world-view along with a conceptual framework within which the researches generate knowledge (Healy & Perry, 2000)

These views fall under different categories. The positivist paradigm ensures that a result obtained through the chosen method can be tested and verified through empirical data (Popper, 1959). Rules are to be placed and tested through hypotheses, which are not facts, but subject to demarcation and when replacing a new hypothesis, the latter should be more testable than the former. Thus, in order to study something scientifically, it needs to be measured. The interpretivist paradigm on the other hand focuses on investigating a research question or a research problem through qualitative

methods like interviews and focus groups (Lee & Lings, 2008). These two paradigms are often considered as two opposing paradigms. However, some authors have argued that both approaches overlap with each other considerably (Bryman, 2001). This has resulted in researchers applying multi-strategy research, a pragmatic view, where both quantitative and qualitative research strategies are implemented to view the same phenomenon from different perspectives rather than viewing them as mutually exclusive. The researcher has the freedom of choice to choose the methods, techniques and procedures to meet the needs and purpose of the study (Creswell, 2003). According to Bryman (2006), 23% of research in management and organizational behaviour implements a mixed method approach. With respect to workplace deviance behaviour, these two paradigms have been extensively implemented over the years to determine the various aspects of this behaviour from determining the nature of the construct to testing the cause and effect of this behaviour in a workplace setting (see chapter 1 for details). When determining the causal factor of workplace deviance, the Witness behaviour towards deviance is still in its early stage, thus an interpretivist view would be appropriate to define and conceptualise the term. A positivistic approach would be implemented in testing the measure of Witness behaviour towards deviance and its effect on workplace deviance. Thus, the present research would follow a pragmatic approach.

1.5.1. Multi-Strategy Research and Methodology

The qualitative and quantitative research discusses two main positions: Ontology and Epistemology in academic literature. According to Hofweber and Velleman (2011), Ontology is the study of the basic structure of reality. Positivist argues that only one true reality exists which the interpretivist denies (Ponterotto, 2005). Epistemological assumption entails what the researcher can know about the reality. Positivists apply rigorous scientific procedures that result in bias-free, generalizable knowledge whereas the interpretivist captures the subjective realities by emphasising the lived experience through participant interactions (Ponterotto, 2005). The knowledge acquired through the interpretivist views are specific to participants, their situations and interactions that would be difficult to generalize.

The ontological position of a researcher would influence their positivist (explaining and predicting) or interpretivist (understanding) research approach (Lee & Lings, 2007). In management research and theory development, Edmondson and McManus (2007) discuss about 'methodological fit'. They state that the qualitative approach is more appropriate for theorizing and quantitative is suited to measuring and determining the relationship of certain phenomenon. The key to determining this methodological fit is to ask the right question and then to choose the right methodology to answer it rather than be driven by methodology (Bouchard, 1976). These two methods could be combined to form a mixed methods approach (Edmondson & McManus, 2007).

Various reasons have been stated by authors in conducting mixed methods research (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). They are triangulation (obtain a single point for results from quantitative and qualitative approaches thus enhancing the reliability of the results), complementarily (illustrates the result obtained through one method by applying another. For example, a result obtained from a quantitative part can be interpreted and evaluated using qualitative approach), development (result from a method develops another method. For example, a qualitative part would help propose hypotheses for a quantitative approach) and expansion (to obtain a richer and detailed understanding of a phenomenon from different facets). Of these, triangulation and complementarily are the most widely stated reasons. The triangulation method is ideal for studies integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). Scale development is one such case where one engages in extensive literature review for theoretical definition of a construct, followed by qualitative data collection and content analysis. Then a quantitative data collection begins to determine the psychometric properties and its relationship with other related variables through factor analysis, reliability analysis and confirmatory factor analysis (Hinkin, 1995).

Drawing on the methodological fit framework of Edmondson and McManus (2007), there are three types of theories: Mature, Nascent and Intermediate. Mature theory results in work that is broadly agreed by scholars by using established constructs and models with increased precision. The Nascent theory focuses on questions of how and why, suggesting new relationships among phenomena. The

Intermediate theory is placed between the other two theories and is often used in developing a new construct and proposing relationship between the developed and established constructs.

In deviance literature, both positivistic and interpretivist approaches are predominant in determining its relationship with various organizational, individual, personality and work related factors through quantitative survey data analysis, qualitative case studies, interviews and focus groups. However, there is a lack of research on witness behaviour towards deviance, which is proposed as a personality measure in terms of both measure and theory. As the present study also involves testing a theoretical model, involving the new construct with well-established constructs is characterised as intermediary.

In a mixed method study, researchers decide the way in which the quantitative and qualitative data is to be collected (Morgan, 1998; Creswell, 2003). It can follow either a priority or a sequential decision. In a priority decision, one method is given more importance than the other method. Sequential decision involves the order in which the quantitative and qualitative data is collected. The way in which these two decisions are combined would result in the research design (Morse, 1991). When one method has a greater weight than the other method, it is shown in capital letters and the symbol ‘+’ is used to indicate simultaneous design, whereas an arrow, ‘→’ refers to a sequential design. The present thesis uses a combination of approaches, as it involves constructing a measure and testing its psychometric properties, then using the measure along with other established constructs to test a theoretical framework through testable hypothesis.

Thus the combination of methods used in the thesis is:



Thus, the mixed methods strategy is considered as an apt approach of the present research.

1.6. Need and Focus of the Present Research

Many researchers have tested the various organizational factors that cause workplace deviance implementing different theoretical lenses (Abdul Rahman, 2008; Bennett, 1998; Faridahwati, 2003; Henle, 2005). The extensive literature review (see Table 3) of all the previous studies was also done to determine the gap and to contribute towards deviance literature by focusing on both destructive and constructive deviance studies. These previous studies on deviance behaviour have led to the researcher taking in view the factors relating to individual and organizational situations that exert a very strong influence on behaviour (Magnusson, 1990; Alias, Razdi, & Said, 2012). The aim of the present research is to include both individual and organizational factors in a theoretical framework and test its relationship with deviance by making use of social cognitive theory.

The situation-based deviance so far has included organizational factors that contribute to employee deviance depending on the work environment like organizational frustration, job stressors, lack of control on work environment, organizational changes, organizational justice, organizational culture and rule violations (Alias et al., 2012; Ferris et al., 2012; Galperin, 2002; Henle, 2005). However, the organizational climate in which the employee works, known to influence his behavioural outcome (Kanten & Ulker, 2013) has not been studied so far in deviance literature though some studies have focused on the various factors that attribute towards the climate of the organization. These factors include fairness perspective (Ambrose, Schminke & Mayer, 2013; Bahri et al., 2013), leader and organizational support (Chirasha & Mahappa, 2012; Chullen et al., 2010; Ferris et al., 2009), interpersonal conflict (Bahri et al., 2013), job autonomy (Galperine, 2002), structure (Onuoha & Ezeribe, 2011). Thus, the present study would focus on organization climate a summation of factors that would contribute to deviance as one of the factor and determine its relationship with both destructive and constructive behavioural outcome from a cognitive perspective (see Chapter 7).

The individual based perspective has taken into account the individual's view who are of Type A personality, risk takers and have negative affectivity and how these would lead to deviance (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Chen et al., 2013; Holtz &

Harold, 2013; Lee & Allen, 2002). However, no studies, as far as we know have taken into account the witness perspective towards these behaviours. When an individual witnesses destructive deviance behaviour taking place within his organization, what does he do? How will he respond to this destructive deviance? From the extensive literature search, this gap was also found and the research will focus on developing a scale to measure this behaviour using theory of planned behaviour as no previous scale exists to measure this construct (chapter 2 will address this in more detail). This would then be implemented in a theoretical framework to determine its relationship with both destructive and constructive deviance.

Moreover, from previous studies, an individual culture is known to have an impact on workplace deviance where individualist are known to be more deviant than collectivist (Robertson & Fadil, 1999). However, no prior studies have been carried out to determine the ways in which the organization and individual determinants result in constructive and destructive deviance behaviour considering the effect of individual cultural orientation from a cognitive perspective. This gap in deviance literature calls for an investigation to test this approach. Therefore, the present research aims to test the moderating effect of individual cultural orientation (individualism and collectivism) on the relationship of the determinants with deviance behavioural outcomes. This will be done by assessing both Indian and US employees rather than just assuming individuals from these two countries to be individualistic (US) and collectivistic (India) thus considering within-group difference at individual level. India and the USA are chosen for the present research, as it would be more appropriate to compare USA with a culture that demonstrates different traditions and economic systems contributing towards the reason to research in India.

The present research will first develop and validate a scale to measure the witness behaviour towards workplace deviance, which will then be implemented along with organizational climate and cultural orientation in a conceptual framework using the social cognitive theory. Thus, the organizational climate is taken as an environmental factor that an individual has no control over and individual cultural orientation is taken as a personality factor that would influence his behavioural outcome. This perspective stems from focusing on the forethought capability of an individual where “employees plan their actions, anticipate the contingent consequences and determine the level of

desired performance” (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003, p. 129). The witness behaviour of an individual is taken as a personality variable that when influenced by individualistic or collectivistic orientation of the self would result in deviance outcomes. This makes use of the self-reflective capability of an individual where employees “reflect back on their actions and perceptually determine how strongly they believe they can successfully accomplish the task in the future given the context” (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003, p. 129). Based on the social cognitive theory we propose that an individual’s capability to involve in deviance behaviour would be increased, based on the reflective capability of the individual. Thus, this theory will be used as a theoretical background to determine the relationship between the organization and individual factors with culture as a moderator.

The research will thus, make use of a multi-strategy research paradigm beginning with qualitative interviews and then developing a measure that will be validated using quantitative surveys, then finally testing the proposed hypotheses using a new set of survey data. The following research questions will be addressed

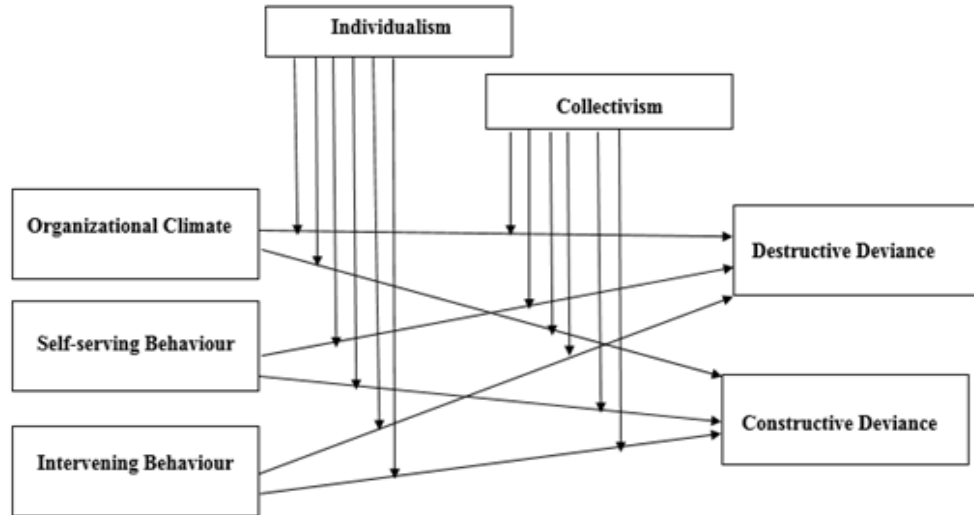
RQ1: What is the relationship of organizational and individual determinants with workplace destructive and constructive deviance when individual cultural orientation acts as a moderator?

RQ2: What are the behavioural responses of an individual while being a witness to supervisor, organizational and co-worker involvement in workplace destructive deviance?

1.7. Conclusion

Thus, the following conceptual framework was developed and tested by making use of the social cognitive perspective to determine the individual behavioural outcome due to organizational and individual factors. Chapter 6 and 7 will discuss this further. The next chapter would describe the witness behaviour towards workplace deviance scale, its need, development and validation.

FIGURE 2
Conceptual Model



Chapter 2

Development and Validation of Witness behaviour Towards Workplace Deviance

STUDY 1

Overview

The purpose of this chapter is to clarify the need to develop a measure to determine the witness behaviour of an individual towards workplace deviance. This follows a tripartite structure. First, the need for research is discussed. Second, the witness behaviour towards deviance within the organizational context is outlined. Finally, the theoretical grounding for this research is explained.

2.1. Introduction: Need for Research

As explained in the previous chapter, the workplace deviance phenomenon has captured the attention of several management researchers due to its economical, organizational and individual consequences of these behaviours. It is defined as a voluntary behaviour that violates the norms of the organization and threatens the well-being of the organization or its members (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Though it is a voluntary behaviour, the intention of an individual need not be towards harming the organization. The individuals who are on the receiving end of interpersonal deviance (behaviours that include verbal abuse, making offensive comments, involving in ethnic or racial slurs) are known to be suffering from psychological distress, work dissatisfaction (Cortina et al., 2001; Vartia, 2001). This deviance induced stress may in turn result in anger, frustration, individual isolation, a desire to involve and reciprocate these deviant behaviours, high turnover intention and low commitment towards the job for the individuals (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Pearson et al., 2001) which would also destruct the organization's well-being (Porath & Pearson, 2010). Though research along interpersonal deviance domain has explored the repercussion of being a target of these behaviours (Cortina et al., 2001; Milam et al., 2009) the research on the effects of these behaviours on individual observers is yet to flourish (Ferguson & Barry, 2011).

As discussed in the previous chapter, most of the research on workplace deviance has focused on deviance as an outcome due to stress, perception of support, fairness, leader member relationship prevailing within the organizational context. Some studies have focused on the organizational and leader reactions towards deviance i.e. whether a person who is involved in deviant activities is being punished or not so those individuals understand the behaviours that are acceptable within the organization (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Hogan & Emler, 1981; Treviño & Brown, 2005). Studies have also focused on the leader-follower perspective where individuals follow leader's behaviour irrespective of their own ethical views considering the reward the leader was given from his organization that would facilitate employee imitation (Kemper, 1966; Treviño & Brown, 2005). These studies have explored whether an individual would engage in this behaviour after determining the consequences of becoming involved in them.

Though deviance harms the target organization or the individual, it is still important to understand how witnessing these behaviours would affect the individuals; as the individual might accept deviance or make it a culture among their workgroup (Ferguson & Barry, 2011). An organizational culture that accepts deviance is known to influence an individual's behaviour (Di Stefano et al., 2017; Kidwell & Martin, 2005; O'Boyle et al., 2011). This may affect his job satisfaction, work engagement, performance and finally the individual well-being. Thus, it is important to measure the behaviour of an individual towards organizational/interpersonal deviance while being a witness. This is where the contribution of the present study lies as no study so far has measured it.

2.2. Various Contexts in Deviance Research

The Witness perspective has been researched extensively in bullying behaviour within the classroom context (Jessor et al., 1995; Salmivalli et al., 2005; Twemlow et al., 2004). These witnesses have been defined as bystanders (Glew et al., 2005) who may intervene actively in order to stop a behaviour, encourage the perpetrator to continue bullying or just view it passively (Cowie, 2000). Some authors have also described the various roles taken by the witness to either sustain or prevent such

behaviours: “reinforcer (e.g., laughing or seeing what is happening), assistant (e.g., follower of the bully), defender (e.g., being supportive of the victim), or outsider (e.g., remaining away from the bullying situation) (Polanin et al., 2012, p. 49; Salmivalli et al., 1996). Several studies were conducted to measure the bystander intervener to assess the contribution of the bystander to a bullying behaviour (Frey et al., 2005, 2009). All these studies focused on classroom bullying and resulted in researchers coming up with intervention programmes for students who are not only victims, but also witnesses (Polanin et al., 2012; Salmivalli et al., 2005).

The other area that has researched witness perspective is the social norm violation. Social norms act as a guideline for behaviour in situations that are ambiguous thus rendering other’s reactions more predictable (Brauer & Chaurand, 2010). An individual exercises social control/pressures to conformity/negative social sanctions i.e. disapproval towards someone else’s behaviour by comparing it with the social norms (Chaurand & Brauer, 2008). It was found that personal implication of an individual plays an important role in determining the social control reactions i.e. when they personally suffer due to acts of deviance. The researchers’ main focus were on the uncivil behaviours that individuals witness in everyday life such as kicking a soda machine, throwing plastic bottles on the street etc., (see Brauer & Chaurand, 2010; Chekroun & Brauer, 2002). Other studies have also focused on bystander intervention with behaviours like sexual assault (Banyard et al., 2004; Foubert, 2000; Schewe, 2002), adolescent problem behaviour like drinking, drug abuse etc., (Jessor et al., 1995).

These studies were focused on two main concepts. First: the witnessing individual tends to remain silent and ignore these activities or follow the perpetrator and encourage him. Second: the individuals might follow the approach suggested in the bystander intervention model (Latane & Darley, 1970); the bystander first witnesses the behaviour/event, then decides whether an intervention is needed, followed by taking up the responsibility to act on it, then deciding how he can be of help and finally, intervening. Thus, the present research aims to implement and determine the individual views on workplace deviance in the organizational context, which will be discussed in the following section.

2.3. Organizational Context

The study of witness perspective has gained importance recently within the organizational context (Porath & Erez, 2009). Deviance in organization encompasses a variety of behaviours that serve organizational norms or social norms and includes but is not limited to incivility (Pearson et al., 2001) or workplace bullying (Rayner & Keashly, 2005). Research in workplace bullying has found that witnessing bullying behaviour would result in a negative organizational climate (Hansen et al., 2006) leading to these behaviours becoming part of the organizational environment. In addition, extending this to workplace deviance, Ferguson and Barry (2011) found that witnessing workplace deviance would increase involvement in deviance over time when indirectly learning about such activities. The extensive theory used in this aspect is the social learning theory where workplace deviance and organizational citizenship behaviour of individual employees are known to be associated with their co-worker's engagement in these behaviours (Bommer et al., 2003) suggesting that employees look at others within the organization to behave in a similar fashion (O' Leary et al., 1996). Similarly Dietz et al., (2003) found that societal violence had a spill over effect on the organization that resides within it, leading to increased organizational violence. Dineen et al., (2006) also found that supervisor behavioural integrity i.e. the conduct of the supervisor depicting how closely his actions are consistent with standard principles would in turn influence the tendency of an employee to engage in deviance or organizational citizenship behaviour. Individuals are expected to rely on the inferences they draw by observing their supervisor (Rousseau & Greller, 1994) using them as referents to shape their own behaviour (Lewicki et al., 1997). Employee group behaviour has also been known as an influential factor in determining the acceptable group norms within an organization (Greenberger et al., 1987) using the social information processing approach. According to Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) co-workers define and influence the behaviour of other members towards various work tasks and stimuli (Griffin, 1983). The co-worker approvals and pressures were found to have more impact on an individual's involvement in property and production deviance compared to the management (Hollinger & Clark, 1982). This can be attributed to the social bonding theory where employees feel attached to their colleagues (Appelbaum et al., 2006).

These studies have examined those factors that would influence an individual's inclination to become involved in norm violating behaviours. However, no study so far has measured this behaviour from a witness perspective, which the present study proposes to achieve.

2.4. Theories and Behaviour Towards Deviance

The theories that have been implemented to determine the individual response towards deviance so far are discussed below.

Problem Proneness Theory: This theory explores the three major aspects that influence an individual's lifestyle. The personal system consists of personal belief and social criticism and addresses the attitude towards deviance. The personal belief refers to an individual's belief on "society, self and self in relation to society" (Jessor & Jessor, 1977, p.20) to restrain or engage in non-conforming behaviours, while social criticism determines the acceptance or rejection of the society's norms and practices to determine an individual's decision to engage in actions that depart from the societal norms. The personal control system is also another system of the theory that refers directly to an individual's attitude, belief and values towards deviance. The focus of this theory is towards behaviour like drug abuse and drinking problems, especially among the youth, taking into account factors like personality, perceived environment, behaviour of friends and relatives. The personality factor was found to result in an individual's proneness to drinking due to low impulse control, greater involvement in deviant behaviour and low expectations of academic success among the youth in the academic context (Berkowitz & Perkins, 1986). Their level of involvement in this behaviour was attributed to sociability or social interaction and sometimes towards escaping negative emotions (Jessor et al., 1980).

Differential Association Theory: This theory has been widely used in deviance literature and it incorporates tolerance towards deviance (Sutherland, 1939) with principles of social learning theory (Bandura, 1977). It argues that interaction with co-workers who are deviants would lead to an individual learning the attitude and values for engaging in deviance. This theory focuses mainly on criminal behaviours. It focuses on how one learns such behaviours by interacting with others who are inclined

towards criminal attitudes and behaviours. Individuals are presented with various criminal patterns, techniques, motivations and stances of legal norms, which influence their intention to conform or be a deviant from a legal code. This theory has also been implemented to determine the cheating tendency among individuals i.e. when close friends and local peers are expected to perceive cheating as a negative behaviour; then an individual's probability of cheating is said to be reduced (Liska, 1978; Gentina et al., 2015).

Social Control Theory: An individual's attitude towards deviance can also be determined through bond of belief. Here belief refers to the acceptance of the value system (Hirschi, 1969) and an individual's relational bonds are expected to restrain his deviance. According to this theory, deviance occurs as a result of a variation in an individual's acceptance of the society's value system. Some individuals engage in deviance, as they do not accept the rationality of norms. This theory has been used in determining the individual attitude towards social norm violation (Chekroun & Brauer, 2002). The focus of the theory is not on why individuals engage in deviance but on why they do not engage in it. It is emphasised that when an individual's social bond is stronger, then he is in a position to conform and a weak social bond would result in deviance. Deviance was argued to be the result of low self-control (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990) and this is characterized by impulsivity and risk-taking behaviour. Individuals low in self-control would identify deviant individuals as friends and then commit deviant activities (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Lee et al., 2013)

Each of these theories have incorporated and validated attitudes towards deviance through research and have examined how socialization practices would affect and influence an individual attitude towards deviance, yet they have not focused on the measurement of an individual's actual behaviour towards deviance which is the focus of the present research.

2.5. Focus of the Present Study

Most of the previous studies have focused on an individual's engagement in deviant behaviour like bullying, drug usage, alcohol consumption, harassment and cheating in classroom and workplace context given his/her relationship with others in

the social and work context and have focused mainly on health issues (Jessor & Jessor, 1977; Chekroun & Brauer, 2002; Salmivalli et al., 2004). The present study proposes to provide a comprehensive scale that would measure the behaviour of individuals towards organizational and interpersonal deviance in the organizational context from the witness perspective.

Various literatures on helping behaviour imply that the decision to either exert social control or not depends on individual's perceived personal implication. It is conceptualized as "A commitment to conventional values and disapproval of norm-violating activities, and serves as a direct personal control against involvement in such activities" (Jessor et al., 1995, p.925). Several studies have confirmed such a relationship between beliefs of anti-social behaviour and its participation (Barriga & Gibbs, 1996; Liau et al., 1998). Previous studies have focused on individual's reactions to deviant behaviour like bullying in classroom context (Salmivalli et al., 2004). The present study proposes to determine the individual behaviour considering his attitude, norms and beliefs towards organizational and interpersonal deviance in the organizational context, partly addressing the call for research in this area (Pearson & Porath, 2004)

For over four decades, research has been carried out on individual behaviour taking into consideration the deviance factor and researchers have concentrated on individual's involvement in bullying and anti-social behaviour, which were found to have a relationship with problem behaviour (Cheating, drug abuse, drinking alcohol etc.,) and attitudinal intolerance of deviance (Jessor et al., 1995). Attitudinal intolerance of deviance was measured by respondent's opinions on how wrong they felt by giving certain types of deviance behaviour as examples (Donovan et al., 1999; Jessor et al., 1968, Ridenour et al., 2011). These scales were focused on the belief of the "moral wrongness" of the individual. When an individual feels that certain behaviour is wrong, then he is said to be intolerant towards that behaviour compared to others. The problem behaviour determines that the tolerance of deviance is due to the willingness to behave against the personality characteristics and predefined norms, taking into account the individual's belief and perception of others (Jessor et al. 1968; Donovan et al., 1999).

The concept of attitude towards deviance has also emphasised the individual cultural orientation; whether an individual considers himself to be an individualist or a collectivist is said to influence his decision to engage in deviance (Bond & Smith 1996; Jetten & Hornsey, 2014; Welbourne et al., 2015). Hawdon (2005) and Rothwell (2009) argued that individualism and cultural ideology are factors that influence the individual's tolerance to deviance. It has been found that individualism can lead to an increase in the tolerance of behaviour that is normally against and deviate from known policies and norms as these individuals are more prone to challenge the prevailing social structures (Hawdon, 2005; Rothwell & Hawdon (2008). This is due to fact that in individualistic culture, the individual's benefit is important and they will become involved in innovative positive behaviour and also in negative behaviour as the person's own goal is important to them (Chirkov et al., 2003). People in collectivistic cultures would work in groups and are more prone to conform to various behaviours that the group endorses as the peer group's behaviour would influence the behaviour of the individual and also his tolerance to deviance (Sutherland, 1939). The individuals who are ethical need to conform to the group norms be it negative or positive, in order to work in harmony with the other members. According to the social learning theory, the individuals in close association with the deviants will also engage in deviant behaviour (Bandura, 1977). In order to increase the overall success of the group, these individuals become highly tolerant. Recent research based on societal norms adherence has determined that individuals in individualistic cultures have a high tolerance for deviance and this is known as a loose culture. A collectivistic culture on the other hand, has low tolerance and is called tight culture (Gelfand et al., 2011). Thus, given the importance of individual cultural perspectives, the present study proposes to develop a scale that would be generalizable across different cultures, taking into account views of individuals from two different countries.

In addition, over the past decade, research on abusive supervision in organizations has gained interest among researchers (Brown et al., 2010; Tepper, 2000). It is defined as “subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which their supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviours, excluding physical contact” (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). Individuals who witness these behaviours are known to be influenced by them and get involved in deviance as they take supervisors as their

role models (Mawritz et al., 2012). Mitchel and Ambrose (2007) also determined that an individual's reciprocity nature would result in an individual getting involved in different workplace deviance directed towards the supervisor, organization and interpersonal (peers) or sometimes it may lower the observer's involvement in deviance due to emotional arousal (O' Leary- Kelly et al., 1996).

Work group member behaviour is also said to influence individual employee behaviour (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998; Thau et al., 2007a). According to Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly (1998) the behaviour of a group has its roots in the behaviour of the members of the group. In order to get a sense of belonging to a workgroup, an individual emulates behaviour influenced by their coworkers (Thau et al., 2007b). More research has been focused on gaining indirect information of an individual regarding a particular behaviour in group settings (Degoey, 2000; Greenberg, 1997; Pearson & Porath, 2004) and little is known about directly witnessing deviant activities.

Group cohesion also creates a culture where deviance behaviour is accepted and seen as part of the group (Ferguson & Barry, 2011). Peer affiliations are known to have different effects on group members as these groups are based on the perception that members of the group have similar beliefs (Bukowski et al., 2000). Individual members are often known to change their behaviour to be close to their peer groups norms and attitudes (Ojala & Nesdale, 2004). Over time, this may result in members becoming similar to one another (Brown, 1988). Multiple witnesses to this behaviour can typically result in a bystander effect where none of them feels personally responsible, thus expecting actions to be taken by someone else (Darley & Latane, 1968).

Direct observation of an event will lead to an individual interpreting the activity in his own way. Porath and Erez (2009) suggested that witnessing interpersonal deviance might prime the interpretation of that individual which may affect peers. Thus, direct observation of an activity provides cues about acceptable behaviour in a work environment (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Overtime individuals may perceive that deviance is appropriate and even commendable thus leading to less resistance against activities that are against the norms of the organization (Bandura, 1973; Wheeler &

Caggiula, 1966). Members look up to their colleagues to determine what behaviour is acceptable in order to advance in the organization (Festinger, 1954).

Robinson et al., (2014) carried out a review of literature to determine the impact of co-worker's deviant or counter-productive work behaviours on individual employees. They came up with a framework that reveals the impact of deviant behaviour on individual attitudes, affect and actions through 3 routes: "(a) direct impact, whereby an employee is the target of co-workers' deviant behaviours; (b) vicarious impact, whereby an employee is impacted by witnessing or learning of co-workers' deviant behaviours; and (c) ambient impact, whereby an employee is impacted by working in an environment characterized by collective co-worker deviant behaviour" (p. 123). Our contribution lies in the action outcome of Vicarious impact route where very few studies have been carried out (Ferguson and Barry, 2011; Hung et al. 2009; Wilkerson et al., 2008) and suggest direct or indirect knowledge about co-worker behaviour would prime the individual to engage in deviance. The present study focuses on the behaviour of the individual themselves as witnesses, rather than on the consequences, this behaviour would have on him.

Thus, given the implications that witnessing deviance behaviour has on the individual, the present study proposes to develop a scale to measure the behaviour of an individual where an individual's decision to react would be focused on various personal and situational considerations such as socialization, career aspects, personal belief, empathy and reputational consequences to aid in construct development. The overall aim of this chapter is to provide a rationale to develop a valid and universal measure of individual Witness behaviour towards deviance that could then be incorporated into a theoretical framework to test various hypotheses. It was important that the measure 1) captured the construct definition fully 2) was precise enough to be incorporated into a wider questionnaire across organizations 3) was clear and understandable to employees

2.6. Theoretical Perspective: Theory of Planned Behaviour

Since the focus of the present research is to measure the behaviour of an individual considering his belief, values, various norms that would influence his decision to react

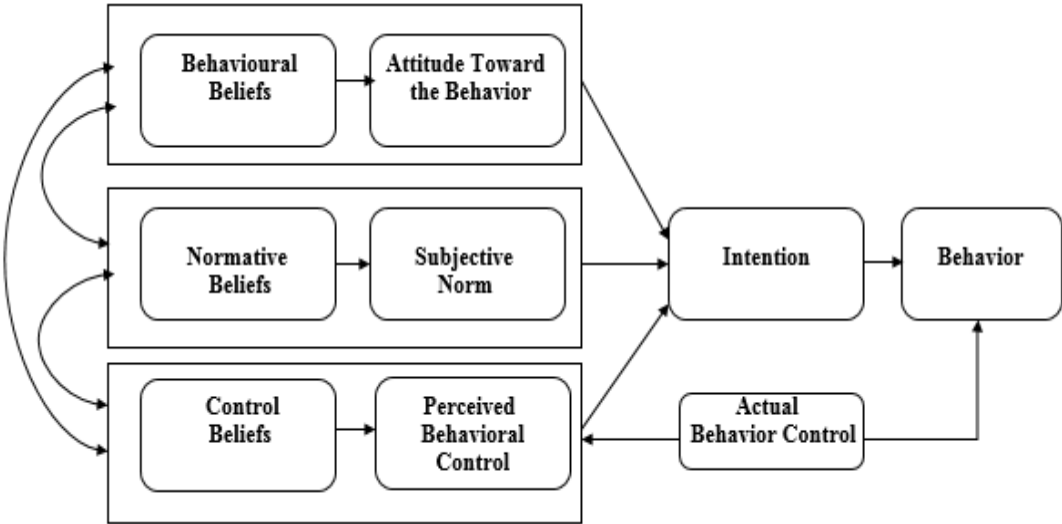
towards deviance behaviour, the theory of planned behaviour is chosen as the theoretical lens that could best explain the behavioural outcome. The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1985, 1991) has been widely applied in studies based on individual behaviour, especially in predicting the intention of an individual to behave as well as the actual behaviour. This is an extension of Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) theory of reasoned action according to which the intention of an individual determines the motivation behind an individual's behaviour; a stronger intention would result in greater possibility of him engaging in deviant behaviour. Thus, intention acts as a direct predictor of behaviour. Moreover, the intention to engage in certain types of behaviour was based on the attitudes and the subjective norm towards that behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). The theory was later extended into the theory of planned behaviour to predict the behaviour, even those an individual does not wish to engage at will. This theory has been applied in various studies involving binge drinking, smoking and other health related behaviour (Godin & Kok, 1996; Marcoux & Shope, 1997; Norman et al., 1999). The widespread application of the TPB is its embrace of several new variables that can predict behavioural intentions (Lin & Chen, 2010).

The intentions of the individual are found to be related to three determinants: attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control according to the theory. The first is the attitude, which determines the degree to which an individual evaluates his positive or negative belief towards performing a particular behaviour known as the behavioural beliefs. The intention of an individual to involve in a specific kind of behaviour will be more when his evaluation is positive. These attitudes are driven by an individual's belief regarding the consequences of performing that behaviour. It is also linked to subjective norms and perceived behavioural control.

The subjective norms are beliefs that individuals approve or disapprove of when engaging in a particular kind of behaviour. These beliefs are termed as normative belief where an individual engages in behaviour, as he/she perceives that others who are important to the individuals think he/she should do. These others could be a person's spouse, close friends etc., and focuses on their approval or disapproval of an individual's involvement in certain behaviours.

The perceived behavioural control determines the feeling of having volitional control in becoming involved or not in a behaviour. It is assumed that individuals might not have a strong intention to become involved in a behaviour when there is a lack of resources or opportunities. The control factors can be both internal and external. The internal factors include the skills, abilities, emotions etc., and external factors would be situation or environmental variables. Individuals would be influenced by control perception even if they had a positive attitude towards that behaviour and believe that other individuals would approve of it. This can also influence the behaviour directly or indirectly through intentions towards the behaviour.

FIGURE 3
Theory of Planned Behaviour

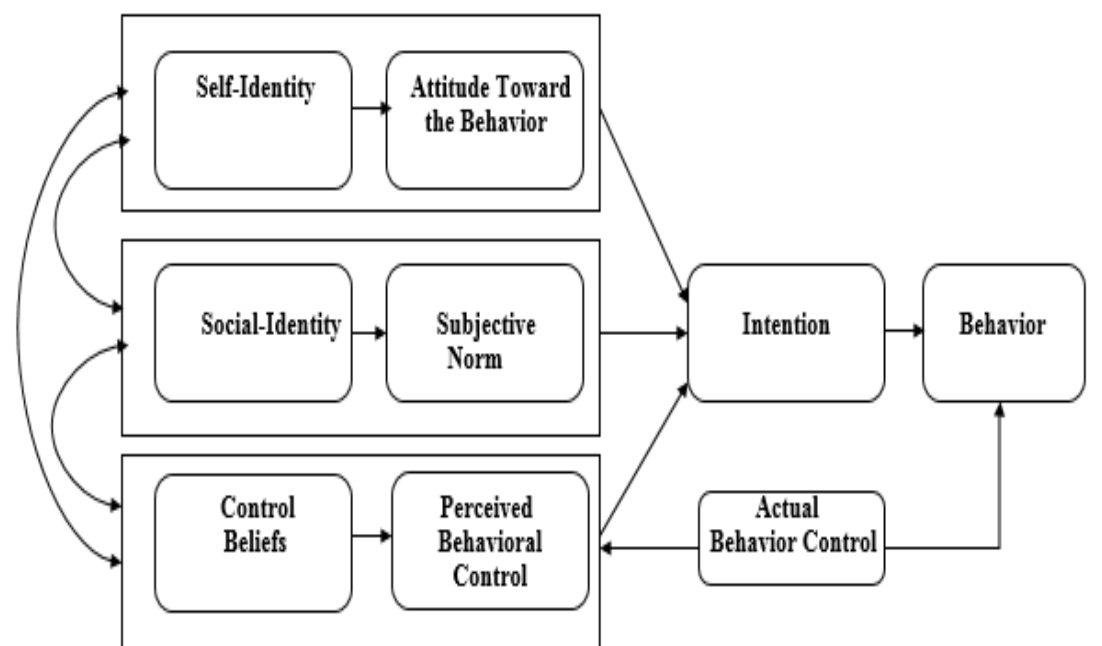


Source: Ajzen (1985).

It was also determined that not all predictors of intention to involve in a particular behaviour have been researched (Abrams & Hogg, 2006; Sparks & Shepherd, 1992; Theodorakis, 1994). One of the important variables that have been found as an additional distinctive variable predicting intention is self-identity; performing a particular behaviour is an important aspect of an individual’s self-concept and an important component of this self-concept is known to be derived from membership of an individual in different social groups forming their social identity (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). This is due to the weak relationship between subjective norms component and intention to become involved in behaviour in TPB (Armitage & Conner, 2001). This

was attributed to the conceptualisation of the subjective norms in TPB where individuals feel the pressure from important others to get involved in this behaviour or not. This was then argued by Terry et al., (1999, 2000) that it is the expectation and behaviour of relevant group members that influences an individual's intention to become involved in a particular behaviour. According to the social identity theory, the social identity determines the degree to which factors that are group related and individual personality characteristics would influence his feeling and hence the actions (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). According to Terry and Hoggs (1996), the perceived norms of a group that has an impact on individual behaviour was related to his intention to engage in that behaviour. Hence, consistent with prior findings, individuals who considered the role of becoming involved in a particular behaviour as an important component of their self-identity were more influenced to become involved in that behaviour than those who did not (Charng et al., 1988; Ries et al., 2012; Sparks & Shepherd, 1992; Thorbjørnsen et al., 2007). Thus supporting the addition of self and social-identity in the theory of planned behaviour.

FIGURE 4
Theoretical Perspective of the Present Research



As deviant behaviour is facilitated by various factors like societal (Bennett et al., 2005), organizational culture (Vardi & Weitz, 2004), policies in the workplace (Schat

et al., 2005) and other situational variables, the theory of planned behaviour is preferred for predicting and explaining deviance behaviour in organizations (Becker & Bennett, 2007). This is because limitations on different behaviours are interpretation oriented and the same events may not be equally constraining for everyone.

The attitude towards deviance would refer to an individual's favourable and unfavourable evaluation concerning workplace deviance behaviour. It is an individual's expectation of becoming involved in deviant activities, which would lead to certain consequences and his positive or negative interpretation of those consequences (Becker & Bennett, 2007). Applying this to the witness perspective on workplace deviance would result in determining an individual's attitude towards deviant activity considering the consequences like being fired from the job, being socially excluded, reporting to the management to benefit the organization, etc.,

The subjective norms with respect to deviance would be the social pressure perception of an individual to engage in deviant activities. This deals with the individual's belief about whether his manager or peers think that he should become involved in deviance and the employees motivation to conform to that view (Becker & Bennett, 2007). The witness perspective towards deviance from the subjective norm point of view would enable the individual to rationalise the behaviour by witnessing the supervisor's and peer's behaviour. This would enable them to justify their own actions based on other's views, supporting the use of social identity theory and enforcing the importance of self-concept.

The perceived behavioural control towards workplace deviance refers to the extent to which an individual believes that the necessary resources like personal (justification for engaging in deviance), social (peers who are sympathetic towards them) and other resources (like opportunities to involve in deviant activities) are present to engage in workplace deviance. The usefulness of these resources while engaging in deviance is also taken into account (Becker & Bennett, 2007). The perceived behavioural control for a witness of a deviant activity would stem from the knowledge of getting away for becoming involved in a behaviour due to peers or supervisor involvement in it or trying to reduce deviance behaviour as he witnesses the implication of that activity.

In addition, the intention to become involved in this behaviour is the extent to which an individual wishes to respond to deviant behaviour considering the perception of self and others towards the given behaviour and finally, involving in that behaviour. Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) suggested that the behaviour of interest should be defined clearly in terms of target, action and context. In the present research, the witness of workplace deviance (Target) decides to respond with relevant behaviour (action) within the organization (context). Thus, the theory of planned behaviour along with self and social identity is preferred as a theoretical basis for the development of the new measure.

2.7. Conclusion

This chapter outlined and discussed the theoretical perspectives attributed to Individual Witness behaviour towards deviance and the need for the research in this topic. The previous studies on the same topic in different context were first discussed. The focus of the study and the theoretical grounding of the measure that is to be developed was then determined. Thus, the main purpose of this chapter is to set the background for the development of the Witness behaviour towards the workplace deviance scale.

Chapter 3

STUDY 2

Item Generation for Witness Behaviour Towards Workplace Deviance Scale

Overview

This chapter describes the method of developing and validating the witness behaviour towards workplace deviance scale. The triangulation method was used; a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods was used to achieve this. The recommendations set forth by Hinkin (1995, 1998) were followed for generating items for the new scale. This chapter details the approaches, context, research design, sample, procedure and results from 28 one-to-one interviews along with its validation.

3.1. Introduction: Scale Development Approaches

Several guidelines have been provided by researchers for scale development (De Villis, 2003; Farah, Cannella, & Lee, 2006; Hinkin, 1995). Farah, Cannella and Lee (2006), discusses four different approaches to developing a scale depending on the source of the scale: developed from scratch or derived from existing measure and its cultural specificity: universal ('etic') or specific to a cultural context ('emic').

The first is the translation approach involving direct translation of a western scale in order to create a different language version of the scale to be used in different target context. The adaptation approach involves translation of an existing scale but some modification would be made to add more meaning to the target version of the scale. The de-contextualisation involves formulating a scale from scratch in a specific context with the assumption that the construct is universal. The contextualisation approach involves developing a scale from scratch with the assumption that the construct is specific to the context it was developed in.

3.1.1. Translation Approach

In cross-cultural literature, scale translation could mean different literal, adapting parts of an instrument or assembling a new instrument (Van de Vijver & Leung, 1997).

This approach has two major assumptions: (i) the construct's meaning is the same across cultures; (ii) the construct has a high quality unbiased scale in its source language (Schwab, 1980). When translating a scale into a different language version, the translated and the source language scales should be semantically equivalent. Several techniques are used (Behling & Law, 2000) and the forward and back-translation procedure is the most widely used (Brislin, 1980). The high quality of a scale refers to its construct validation and justification to be a valid measure of the intended construct in source language; unbiased implies that the format and administration of the scale is systematic error free across cultures (Van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). This method is not feasible for the present study, though previous scale does exist, that measures the attitudinal intolerance of deviance with its core as 'moral wrongness' which is not the focus of the present research. The nature of research in witness behaviour deviance from a witness perspective is still in its early stage, lacking proper conceptualisation and measures within the organizational context, thus proving the infeasibility of this approach.

3.1.2. Adaptation Approach

Adapting a scale to fit to a target context would involve wording the items differently, dropping items that are deemed to be inappropriate and adding new items to the scale. It also requires uniformity in its definition of the target construct. When a scale is adapted, researchers should assume that the content domain is the same across cultures. This approach falls under the emic orientation and is not feasible for the present research due to lack of witness behaviour towards deviance scale from witness perspective. If the research question were to determine the wrongness felt by individuals towards a particular behaviour then this approach would have been appropriate.

3.1.3. De-Contextualisation Approach

The two aforementioned approaches enable the researcher to use pre-existing western scales from available literature. However, when a scale is not available to address a research question, the researcher must develop a new scale from scratch. The new scale construction would depend on the etic and emic assumptions of the construct

by the researcher. The new scale should be developed in a way that transcends cultural boundaries (Farh et al., 2006). Any context specific factors should be omitted from the scale construction process to avoid any cultural bias. This was carried out by Wong and Law (2002) when they constructed a scale for emotional intelligence. They determined the need for a measure of emotional intelligence from literature and then a scale was constructed deductively based on the conceptualisation of the term emotional intelligence by Mayer and Solovey (1997). They tested the scale using various samples from Hong Kong without mentioning the cultural context, which was deemed to be theoretically irrelevant. Thus, the cultural context is removed from the scale construction process. The present research follows this approach as the developed scale is tested and validated in two different cultures to determine the universal validity of the scale, thus neutralising the context of culture and contributing to the literature on scale construction.

3.1.4. Contextualisation Approach

Researchers of the contextualisation approach believe that constructs are embedded in the culture in which a scale is developed. They emphasise the understanding of local context through historical, cultural and institutional contexts. Through contextualisation, different instruments are assembled for different cultural groups (Farh et al., 2006). As an example, Chinese personality Assessment Inventory (CPAI) consisted of harmony and keeping face, which are unique to China only. Yet, its contextual nature was not proved because the scale was not validated in a Western culture and the researchers were uncertain as to whether the construct was context specific or if it was the scale. These difficulties, along with different sampling errors, would make an assumption that a construct is emic to be hazardous. Thus, for a construct to be emic it needs to be validated appropriately. The present research does not take up this approach as any specific context was intentionally kept out of the development and validation process of the scale.

3.2. Item Generation Approaches

According to Hinkin (1995), there are two primary approaches to item generation: the deductive and the inductive approach. In the deductive approach, a thorough

review of literature is done to come up with a comprehensive definition of the construct, thus grounding it firmly in the theory. This definition would then act as a conceptual guide in subsequent scale development (Schwab, 1980). In this approach, the items are developed using theoretical definition of the construct and its measure available in literature. The inductive approach on the other hand, is chosen when the construct lacks a strong theoretical foundation. A qualitative research is used to derive the item pool from either face-to-face interviews or focus group discussions, where descriptions and interpretations regarding the construct under study is given by individuals. These descriptions are then analysed using content analysis techniques (Hinkin, 1995; DeVellis, 2003).

An inductive approach was chosen for the present research as the construct of witness behaviour workplace deviance had little theory to guide in the generation of items for the scale. Though a scale to measure the individual attitude towards deviance exists, it was not developed for use in workplace context and it focuses on how wrong an individual felt towards certain behaviours. However, the focus of the present research was to develop a scale to determine the witness perspective where an individual decides to act or not towards deviant behaviour. In addition, the lack of a proper definition for this construct led to choosing an inductive approach over the deductive approach.

3.3. Research Context

A research context proposes a framework to study the attitude and behaviour of employees. Past research in deviance behaviour have been concentrated in developed countries like the USA, Israel (Ambrose & Schminke, 2013; Bodankin, & Tziner, 2009; Bolin & Heartherly, 2001; Chullen et al., 2010; Colbert et al., 2004; Dagher & Junaid, 2011; Diefendorff & Mehta, 2007; Ferris, Brown, & Heller, 2009; Ferris, Brown, Lian, & Keeping, 2009; Ferris, Spense, Brown, & Heller, 2012; Galperin, 2002; Henle, 2005; Holtz & Harold, 2013; Judge et al., 2006; Mayer et al., 2012; Mount et al., 2006; Peterson, 2002; Thau & Mitchell, 2010) and recently more research has been carried out in developing countries like India, Malaysia, Nigeria, Pakistan and Turkey (Abdul, 2008; Alias, Rasdi, & Said, 2012; Alias, Rasdi, Ismail, & Samah,

2013; Fagbohunge et al., 2012; Galperin, 2002; Galperin & Burke, 2006; Hussain et al., 2013; Kanten & Ulker, 2013; Kura et al., 2013; Nasir & Bashir, 2012; Pradhan 2013 ; Sudha & Khan, 2013). Most of these studies have made use of the same workplace deviance construct in different cultures, in different organizational contexts and among different participants, proving the de-contextual nature of workplace deviance. Not much is known about the individual behaviour towards this behaviour and the only scale that measures this, the intolerance for deviance scale was not developed but was adapted from Robinson & Bennet's (2000) workplace deviance measure to determine the wrongness felt by an individual.

Ferguson and Barry (2011), note the importance of individuals' attitudes towards accepting deviance behaviour and becoming involved in such behaviours, thus proving the importance of individual perspective than emphasising on factors like culture, industry, job function or technology. Literature on helping behaviour implies the decision to exert social control or not depends on the individual's perceived personal implication (Barriga & Gibbs, 1996; Liau et al., 1998). Largely unexamined to this point is the context of individual behaviour towards deviance. This would condition the nature, meaning and importance of individual personality to contribute to the organization's effectiveness. This had been a subject of research in USA-based studies and it is not known whether witness behaviour would have the same dimensionality in a different culture or in a different system of economic organization.

3.4. Research Design Overview

Table 4 illustrates the study design. A number of guidelines have been published to guide in the development of a new measure (Ghiselli et al., 1981; Schwab, 1980).

TABLE 4
Study Design

Studies	Analysis	Validity established	Data/Sample
Study 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - One to One Interview - Content Analysis - Item Development - Item sorting Task 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Content Validity (Face) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - N= 28 (Sample 1) -15 participants in India (Sample 1a) - 13 participants in USA (Sample 1b) - 30-45 minutes tape recorded

A multistage process was used to determine the integrity of the new instrument as per Hinkin (1995) and DeVellis' (2003) recommendations. The process includes item generation, i.e., development of items from interviews using content analysis. These items were then validated using cognitive interview and item sorting task to test each item for ease of understanding and meaning.

3.4.1. Interviews

Twenty-eight one-to-one interviews were conducted. According to Kvale (1983, p.174), interview in a qualitative study is defined as “an interview, whose purpose is to gather descriptions of the life-world of the interviewee with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena”. One-to-one interview is the most common method in behavioural research. In-depth interviews provide insights into the attitudes and behaviours of a participant, which could then be refined to be implemented in a survey design (Bauman & Adair, 1992). The in-depth semi-structured interview is one where the respondents talk about a topic and the researcher asks questions or an explanation for their statements. It is well suited for “the exploration of the perceptions and opinions of respondents regarding complex and sometimes sensitive issues and enable probing for more information and clarification of answers” (Louise Barriball & While, 1994, p.330). Semi-structured face-to-face interviews were used as the primary data collection method to gain in-depth insight into the attitude of respondents towards the workplace deviance behaviour. The semi-structured interviews allow the interviewees to respond freely with flexibility in explaining their views and experiences, and the interviewer to ask probing questions based on the flow of the interview. It was also the preferred method because it provides

a synchronous communication between the interviewer and the interviewee, leading to spontaneity without extended reflection (Opdenakker, 2006). The face-to-face interview provides an opportunity to validate the respondent's answers through non-verbal indicators (Gordon, 1975), in research involving a sensitive topic. It also allows the interviewer to concentrate on the response of the single respondent and gain all the insight regarding a topic as the focus of the research was on individual perspective and not on group, thus negating the need for focus group discussions. Thus, this method was chosen as the more appropriate method for item generation.

Common method variance were also accounted for during the interview process, as social desirability plays an important role in diminishing the respondent's motivation to answer accurately in face-to-face interviews (Kaminska & Foulsham, 2013). This has been attributed to the comfort level and individual's feelings to reveal true attitudes known as impression management (Ellis et al., 2002; Holgraves, 2004; Groves et al., 2009; Tourangeau et al., 2007). The interviewees were assured of their anonymity and that, there are no right or wrong answers to the question asked as the purpose of the research was to get their own views on the topic and that their responses would be taken as a whole and not by individual participant. This was done to undermine social desirability following the recommendations of Adams and Cox (2008). In addition, though a variety of methods such as face-to-face and online, interviews could be taken up to diminish the effect of social desirability (Chillag et al., 2006); the present research preferred face-to-face interview given its advantages of non-verbal cues. These visual cues would result in the loss of contextual information (Patton, 2002); the inability to develop good rapport with the interviewee leading to probing questions and reduces the misinterpretation of responses (Chapple, 1999; Fontana & Frey, 2005). In addition, during semi-structured interview, it is a preferred method as the interviewer can formulate further questions, taking advantage of its interactive nature. Since the aim of the research was to develop a scale that has a universal validity, using a semi-structured interview would give the researcher an opportunity to change the words and not meaning of the questions asked as per the respondents (Denzin, 1989), thus acknowledging the culture of an individual that not every respondent use the same vocabulary (Treece & Treece, 1986).

Other methods like focus groups, skype and telephone interviews were not considered for the study. Though focus group discussion would be the best method to conduct for less structured interviews, when there is a lack of pre-constructed questionnaire, it is accepted that the presence of other participants in a group would lead to the participant's opinion being led by others in the group (Krueger, 2014; Marlowe, 2000). Furthermore, the focus of the present study was to determine the individual's witness perspective towards workplace deviance, thus supporting one-to-one interviews rather than focus group discussions.

The use of Skype for research using in-depth interviews involving individuals from different countries has also been encouraged by many researchers (Carr, 2001; Deakin & Wakefield, 2013; Seitz, 2015). With Skype, the issue of rapport was not found to have an impact on the research finding, as according to Deakin and Wakefield (2013, 8), 'Skype interviewees were more responsive and rapport was built quicker than in a number of face-to-face interviews'. In addition, it was suggested that exchanging a series of emails before the interview would create connection between the interviewer and participants, thus strengthening the rapport (Seitz, 2015). Similarly, telephone interviews would also have been an alternative to face-to-face interviews but since the audio recording and then its transcription of the participant's response from an in-depth conversation had a major role to play in this research; these two methods were excluded due to several reasons. The reasons include technical errors (Opdenakker, 2006), length and participant attention to the discussion compared to face-to-face interviews (Creswell, 1998; Sturges & Hanrahan, 2002; Sweet, 2002), employability of highly-structured and closed-ended questions than open-ended questions that would generate more responses that accompany these methods. Another reason is, when respondents agree to participate in research using these methods, there are no set guidelines to keep up the concentration of the participant by restraining them from indulging in other activities like eating, being on their computer, being in somebody else's company etc. in their environment (McCoyd & Kerson, 2006; Opdenakker, 2006).

3.4.2. Study Design

Semi-structured face-to-face interviews were conducted to develop items for witness behaviour deviance measurement. Before proceeding with the interview, the interview questions were pre-tested with four respondents from United Kingdom (UK) at the University of Edinburgh Business School in April 2015. The respondents were current PhD students from the USA and India who had previously worked in organizations. Participants were chosen from India and the USA because the main of the research was to develop a universal scale that can be used across cultures irrespective of their nationality as we make use of the view that individuals within the same country can be individualist and collectivists. In addition to the explanation given in Chapter 1, the focus of India and the USA during the scale development process was the diversity present in these two countries taking into account the number of states, different cultural background that will influence the individualistic and collectivistic attitudes of individuals belonging to these countries. Moreover, empirically these two countries were preferred instead of India and the UK as the theoretical model was tested in India and the USA. This made it necessary to develop the scale with participants from these two countries, as a scale developed in one country cannot be validated in another (Farh et al., 2006).

Factors like age, many years of experience, sector or status of the individual, which are known to affect workplace deviance, were not taken into consideration. Individuals from both the countries were interviewed randomly as the focus was to get a general response of being a witness to the norm breaking behaviours irrespective of the influence of these factors. Although US and Indian samples were not formally matched, during data collection, their demographic profiles were similar and these factors were controlled by including them as covariates in our models.

The requirement to participate in the interview was to have at least 3-6 months of work experience in order to understand the industry and their work. This was the only requirement to take part in the research, as its aim was to develop a scale that is generalizable across cultures. A pre-test was necessary, as it would give a general idea of what is to be expected from the discussion and allow the researcher to develop probing questions that could be used in the actual interview.

During the interview process, I assumed the role of a moderator in order to a) encourage responses from the participant; b) to provide a brief summary for the question asked; c) ask for clarification when an explanation on points made by the respondent was not clear. A general definition of the term deviance behaviour which “is a voluntary behaviour that violates organizational norms and thus threatens the well-being of the organization and its members” and examples of this behaviour: “Taking property from work without permission, daydreaming, falsifying receipt, taking long breaks, coming late to work, littering, neglect boss’s order, working slow, discussing confidential company information, consumed drug/alcohol at work, little effort at work, dragged work, make fun of someone, said something hurtful, made ethnic, religious or racial remark, cursed at someone, played a mean prank, acted rudely, publicly embarrassed someone” were given to the participants to make them understand the focus of the study. The participants were then asked to determine their various reactions and attitudes when they witnessed these behaviours in their workplace. This was done to generate multi-dimensional items for the final measure. The actual interview was conducted in India from June 2015 to August 2015 and with the USA participants from October 2015 to February 2016.

Both the pre-test and the actual interview lasted for around 30 - 45 minutes, all of which were tape recorded with the permission of the respondents. At the beginning of each interview, I started with some general ice-breaker questions to make the participants feel more comfortable. Throughout the interview, I provided respondents with probing questions, directing them to stay focused on the topic at hand and asking for clarification when responses were not clear. In addition, a brief summary of what they said was discussed after each aspect of the questions asked so that no responses given by any of the respondents were misunderstood by me. Notes were also taken during the interview to come up with probing questions with regard to that particular respondent’s views. The interviews were conducted until a point of saturation where no additional information could be generated from any new participants (Silverman, 2000; 2001), thus resulting in a total of 15 Indian and 13 US participants.

3.5. Access and Ethics

Though getting access to organizations was unique with respect to every sample, for the actual interview, Human Resource (HR) managers were mailed a booklet about the study in India and the USA with the help of the Business School Alumni office. Once support from the HR was assured, access was negotiated with the CEO, department heads or managers. Ethics approval for carrying out the research was sought from the University of Edinburgh Business School during the annual review, outlining how the ethical conditions for carrying out this research was addressed. The team leaders of the organizations that agreed to participate in the research acted as the points of contact who then mailed the research summary along with the researcher details to their teams and only those who agreed to participate were chosen for the interview given their availability and willingness for a face-to-face interview. As the present study involves individuals from India and the USA, the participants were also recruited through personal contacts. The criteria for participation in the interview were that they should be an Indian or American national who has work experience of at least 6 months in an organization. The participants were assured of the confidentiality of the interview, irrespective of the place in which the interview took place and that they could withdraw from the interview at any time, should they feel uncomfortable. On the day of the interview, a consent form was given/sent to the participants, detailing the issues of confidentiality, anonymity and privacy, as well as how the data would be stored and analysed by the researcher during the study process.

In order to accomplish a sample consisting of employees from different sectors, the participants were also asked to refer other participants who would be willing to participate in the research as per its requirement referred to as the sampling method. This method is also common in qualitative social science research. The demographics and participant profile are given in Chapter 4. Thus, following Hinkin (1995) suggestions, the items were developed using 28 semi-structured one-to-one interviews; 15 participants from India and 13 participants from the USA, forming Sample 1 of the entire research.

3.6. Sample

A total of 9 males and 6 females from India with the average age of the participants being 30; 6 males and 7 females with the average age being 32 from the USA participated in the interview. The Indian participants were from Mumbai, Delhi, Bangalore, Chennai, Pondicherry and the US participants were from New York, New Jersey, Washington and were in Edinburgh during the interview. In order to ensure anonymity, they were then coded for further research.

Table 5 lists the details of the participants in the study.

TABLE 5
Interview Participant Details

Name	Age	Employment level	Experience	Sector
I1M	32	Senior Marketing Executive	8 years	Information Technology
I2M	34	Team leader	10 years	Software
I3M	28	Sales executive	5 years	Manufacturing
I4M	48	HR	25 years	Information Technology
I5M	40	Manager operations	12 years	BPO
I6M	28	Operations leader	4 years	Manufacturing
I7M	25	Team member	3 years	Manufacturing
I8M	24	Trainee	1 year	BPO
I9M	29	Team member	6 years	Banking
I10F	30	Manager sales	3 years	BPO
I11F	33	HR Team member	8 years	Manufacturing
I12F	26	Probationary officer	5 years	Banking
I13F	25	Team member	3 years	Software
I14F	30	Team leader	8 years	Information Technology
I15F	26	Team member	2 years	Banking
USA1M	30	Finance executive	7 years	Finance
USA 2M	49	HR Team member	27 years	Public service
USA 3M	32	Team leader	9 years	Information technology
USA 4M	24	Team member	3 years	Education
USA 5M	22	Team member	1 year	Manufacturing
USA 6M	40	Manager Sales	12 years	Software
USA 7F	33	Team member	10 years	Education
USA 8F	48	Senior PR executive	15 years	Public service
USA 9F	23	Team member	1 year	Service
USA 10F	35	Team leader	11 years	Information Technology
USA 11F	28	Senior manager sales	5 year	Manufacturing
USA 12F	29	Team leader	4 years	Public service
USA 13F	23	Team member	1 year	Finance

I- Indian participants, USA- USA participants.

3.7. Procedure

Given the sensitivity of the study, the participants were explained the objectives of my research and the rationale for the individual discussion. They were assured of their anonymity and that their responses would be used in developing a scale and would not be used as a separate finding. During the interview, I listened carefully, encouraged the interviewee to speak freely and avoided questions that would prompt yes or no response (Edwards & Holland, 2013). Each interview lasted for about 30-45 minutes. I also kept the conversation going by asking probing questions and clarifying any questions to the interviewee. I conducted interviews until I reached saturation (Silverman, 2000). As English is the common mode of communication in organizational settings, the interviews were conducted in English in India too. The participants were first given the definition of deviance behaviour, followed by few examples as mentioned in Chapter 3, Study 2. Then, questions were asked where the participants assume the role of a witness to these kinds of behaviour when their supervisor, team members or anyone in the organization is involved. This was done in order to generate multi-dimensional items for the construct under study. The interview schedule is presented in Appendix Ia.

After the interviews, I transcribed all of the interview data into written transcripts. These scripts were then coded using the NVivo software. In order to demonstrate inter-rater agreement and inter-coder reliability (Cohen, 1960), a co-analyst, another PhD student within the University who knew nothing about the research was invited to code the responses. The coding was done separately and all 28 interviews were thus coded twice. Initially, the agreement was above 80% for all coding, which was higher than the recommended 70% (Boyatzis, 1998). Later, a meeting was conducted with the other researcher to discuss any difference in coding. The wordings or sentence phrasing issues were sorted out. Then the finalised version of the coding was achieved.

Both the coders followed a same pattern for content analysis. A descriptive story for each interview was constructed; this was followed by splitting them into different themes based on behaviour (example of this analysis is explained in Appendix Ib). This helped in structuring the response according to different patterns found. Thus, a data reduction process was followed by both the coders (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) often

recommended in qualitative research with a large amount of data. Codes were generated, describing how employees reacted towards their supervisors, team members and anyone else in the organization's deviant behaviours by: confronting, being silent, being influenced by supervisor, reporting that behaviour, judging the behaviour by comparing it with their moral values, intervening to stop the behaviour, being influenced by the peers, their need to belong, trying to understand why such behaviours took place, thinking about their career before deciding to act regarding a behaviour, getting support from the management. These nodes were then reduced to interpretative clusters (Miles & Huberman, 1994). It was made sure that the clusters were consistent and distinct from each other. Initially, four sub-clusters were formed for those involving in self-serving behaviours i.e. attitudes such as waiting for someone to take actions or ignoring such activities. The coders labelled this behaviour as self-serving. The second cluster dealt with behaviours like understanding why someone was involved in particular behaviour; trying to talk to the person involved to prevent a particular behaviour etc.,. The coders labelled this as problem solving. The third cluster consisted of behaviour like intervening if the organizational output or individual deliverable is impacted; leaving the organization if deviance became part of the organization with the coders labelling it defender whereas the final cluster consisted of behaviour like talking to the supervisor; getting help from management thus the coders labelling it social support. Finally, the three sub-clusters of social support, defender and problem solving were considered as a single cluster labelling it Intervening behaviour, resulting in two main clusters: Self-serving and Intervening behaviour.

Any data that did not fit any of the two clusters was then discarded after discussion with the other coder, as this data was unrelated to the construct being developed. In the process of checking the developed codes against extant literature in social, helping and workplace ethics behaviour (Chakrabarti, 2013; Chekroun & Brauer, 2002; Fredricks et al., 2011; Gaertner, Dovidio, & Johnson, 1982; Hart & Miethe, 2008; Low et al., 2007), it was found that these had similarities with existing concepts. This provides validation as a finding that lacked no similarity with prior work would have been questionable (Hair et al., 2006). The focus of the intervening construct used in previous studies was similar to that from the present study: For example, previous

studies focused on how the presence of someone would affect helping behaviour where the person would either try to defend the victim or try to get someone to help etc.,. Whereas in the present study the term “Intervening behaviour” is given to the individual’s behaviour combining both these types of behaviours. Having a similar concept would thus enable the definition of the construct explicitly.

Lastly, after the initial coding process, the items were written from these themes, which could be determined as the dimensions of Witness behaviour towards the workplace deviance scale. Items that were repeated or those with reverse coding were eliminated as they are known to reduce the validity of the questionnaire and introduce error (Hinkin, 1995).

3.8. Results

In the one-to-one interview, after giving an initial definition of workplace deviance and its example behaviour, the participants were asked about their response towards these behaviours when they witness their supervisor, team member and anyone else in the organization involving in these behaviours.

3.8.1. Self-Serving Behaviour

USA 9F: “ Well, (Thinks) I think it’s because you’d feel, not just because it doesn’t affect you, but you would feel that you don’t have the right to say anything about what they’re doing...” (US participant 9; Female; Age 23)

USA 10F: “I don’t feel I have the authority to act, I don’t have the whole information...” (US participant 10; Female; Age 35)

I15F: “I can’t react on this, I’ll, I’ll do my work (pauses). I will concentrate on my work and I will complete my target. So, I will not do anything with this...” (Indian participant 15; Female; Age 26)

USA 2M: “I really didn’t want to do it (nods), you know, then, I really wouldn’t, I really wouldn’t do it. I would appear to do it like when I would take that bottle of beer and I will pretend, I will pretend that I was drinking but actually I would not touch it...” (US participant 2; Age Male; 49)

USA 12F: “I think it is not that I feel like I am getting away with that. I think that if higher up there has been no action taken and is not seen as an issue then I wouldn’t see as an issue....” (USA participant 12; Female; Age 29)

I12F: “I don’t want to be the odd man out, so, if it is going to make me, if it is going to eliminate me from the group, make me a single person away from the group, then it is something , to think about...also (when seeing others being deviant)if there are people to back me up then, yeah I can directly go. When there is no one to back me up then I have to form a team so that, it will be more effective” (Indian participant 12; Female; Age 26)

USA 6M: “If you are younger or less sure of yourself, less confident, you might feel the pressure to go and be part of a team and to correspond to the behaviours of that team, then almost by definition you are not deviant or that behaviour is not deviant, it is departing from your norms, but it is joining the team’s norms...” (US participant 6; Male; Age 40)

I8M: “...there is difference. Like (Thinks) when you are, within the group of your same level, you tend to say “no, I am not interested in that”. But, when you move up to the level, say like, within, with your boss level and that category, when you have to be there, if some, something’s, even if you don’t like it you have to do it.” (Indian participant 8; Male; Age 24)

I10F: “So someway, I have to engage in those activities so I can prove my presence as well as I can tell them confidently that I can also be as a group, I can also follow them as a unit we can do everything.” (Indian participant 10; Female; Age 30).

I11M: “...just to be a part of the group there are a few employees who will go ahead and do something that they usually won’t do.” (Indian participant 1; Male; Age 32)

USA 11F: “Where they are in the same level as me, and yes it does impact you a little bit but not to the extent that I would want to, [Thinking] to act like that as well, because it is your career and your work at stake if you follow suit” (US participant 11; Female; Age 28)

USA 7F: “Your, your internal perception about what people have about you within an

organization is also really important because, it affects your career and affects how you get on at work.” (US participant; Female; Age 33)

I2M: “I will think about me, my work life, you know, my work experience is being impacted right and what I am supposed to learn and I am supposed to do if it gets affected...” (Indian participant, Male; Age 34)

I10F: “...If there is a mutual concern between them then I think it’s not necessary for me to indulge and give them advice regarding those things. It’s their mutual thing, they are comfortable and then why should I go and interfere in those things... I probably wouldn’t be the first person. I probably would want to see if other people thought the same.” (Indian participant 10; Female; Age 30)

USA 13F: “I will be completely honest with you, I... (Thinking) I’m not a very confrontational person and I think, I think probably most people are like this actually...” (US participant 13, Female; Age 23)

These were some of the responses from the participants, about their reactions towards supervisor and team member deviance activities. In helping behaviour literature, being a witness has been related to the individuals waiting for someone to step in before deciding to act upon a situation individually or to ignore those activities and remain an outsider (Salmivalli et al., 1996) considering the implications it would have on them or their career. Although this was also evident in the responses from the participants, other aspects of their responses were also determined with regard to deviance literature. In addition, the individual witnessing deviant behaviours tend to accept these behaviours to be part of an organization and group (Porath & Pearson, 2010), which was also evident from the responses of the participants. These provide details as to why these responses were coded into Self-serving behaviour as the behavioural responses were focused on himself/herself during the analysis.

3.8.2 a Problem Solving

USA 9F: “You wouldn’t know the situation for it, and it wouldn’t be necessarily implicating on you in the same way as it was with your supervisor, for example. I think

I would probably... I think I would kind of personally, I might talk about it with a colleague or something but I don't think I would to try to intervene in any way." (US participant 9; Female; Age 23)

US 3M: "...And I will also wanting to be look about what may be behind those reasons. So, depending on the conversation with the person, it may be other issues going on in their life. So, I would want to find and pick what the reason behind them working so slowly." (US participant 3; Male; 32)

I10F: "I can find out the reason for what and why he is doing such a, such a thing. Which will definitely affect his career also. Because some things are like it will definitely affect the workplace, also it will go beyond our managers also. And then, of course, a discussion will be going on, so why he is doing. What makes him to do this?" (Indian participant 10; Female; Age 30)

I7M: "First of all I have to understand, for what reason he is getting emotional, keep on irritating and scolding others, putting problem in them, normally boss will not do that. If initially they are have that kind of activity then they have some problem..." (Indian participant 7; Male; 25)

I8M: "I would try to take it up to that manager and ask him to correct it. The reason I will do that is, like when the other department people are do it and it is becoming repeated and no actions is going to be taken, then how get tempted sometimes, same temptation is going to happen in my department employees and they are going to start following that. So I don't want that type of thing to get, what to say, intrude into my department." (Indian participant 8; Male; Age 24)

USA 4M: "I would first of all try and find out what the underlying problem was. Usually if someone turns around one day and decides they're going to take drugs at work or make little effort or be rude to people, usually there's some kind of underlying problem. So if I did notice that kind of behaviour from someone I would probably suggest taking them for lunch or a walk somewhere and trying to find out what the problem was." (US participant 4; Male; Age 24)

I5M: “..... If that group has a person who’s known to me probably I would immediately go there and talk to them to stop a behaviour. If it is not, related to me, I will expect someone to, go and talk to them.” (Indian participant 5; Male; Age 40)

One of the important implications of deviance behaviour is stress and in the extant literature related to stress, coping strategies towards these stressors result in problem solving activities (Roth & Cohen, 1986; Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) where an individual decides to understand and clear the issue pertaining to negative behaviour by finding solutions to such behaviour. These were some of the responses from the participants while witnessing deviance behaviour where they try to understand the reason for such kinds of activities, thus were coded into problem solving behaviour during the analysis.

3.8.2.b. Defender

USA 9F: “I think it would depend on how many people were being implicated as well, so like in the case of somebody who was saying horrible things to other people or trying to mess with lots of people’s work, that’s another situation where I would be more inclined to say something to somebody.” (US participant 9; Female; Age 23)

I12F: “I will personally inform, write a mail or post a letter or whatever it is, sign my name in it. I would take up the matter very seriously. Because this is something. Just because he did it another person might do it in my own team and that might, they, initially they might be okay with it then finally they will blame me. Because it is my team.” (Indian participant 12; Female; Age 26)

I14F: “Yeah we have, ethics and compliance training, once a month or thrice a month we are having some down hall, we are having some meetings, frequently so, we are having many other channels through which we come to know what are behavioural things which are acceptable, which are accepted inside the organizations, which are not accepted.” (Indian participant 14; Female; Age 30)

USA 8F: “I guess I have the sense of what it means to be a professional and I have my own internal code of values of what professional behaviour is and I am more likely to follow that than I am organizational culture... Mm Hmm. I think I would judge it by

own values, my professional training rather than the values of the organization.” (US participant 8; Female; Age 48)

USA 11F: “My own morals and ethical principles are not always, entirely in line with, with morals in a particular country. [Thinking] I am not sure, I am not sure, because as they say, you know, which societies values? There are different values in different countries, in different cultures. So, I do respect values here in Britain because I live here. But I don’t necessarily subscribe to absolutely everything British people do. [Thinking] It, it would be my personal decision whether to act upon the situation or not, whether to take it up to somebody, that would be based on my core values and wouldn’t have to do a lot with Britain specifically.” (US participant 11; Female; Age 28)

USA 6M: “Now that I am older, I would say that I probably have more confidence to say, “No, I don’t wish to take part in that, just because, everybody else is doing it”. Whereas when I was younger I probably would have responded more to the pressure, more to the deceived pressure to conform. When I say it is a perceived one it is not the actual pressure to confirm. You always take your own decision and live your own life, but, yes being older and a little more experienced and more confident in being able to say “No, I wouldn’t do that; if you do that you know do as you wish, but I wouldn’t choose to do it”.” (US participant 6; Male; Age 40)

I2M: “Well, in the beginning of my career, the predominant reason why that would happen is would be fear, that you just felt completely desperate to have this job and you wouldn’t want to lose it and there wouldn’t be lot of options. It would probably be fear. Right now when I am experienced and got many years of experience behind me and I feel much more confident” (Indian participant 2; Male; Age 34)

USA 2M: “As long as it didn’t really interfere very much with me then I wouldn’t be so concerned about that but discriminatory behaviour or hurtful behaviour like treating employees badly that would be different. ” (US participant 2, Male, 49)

USA 13F: “I don’t think it would make a particular difference whether it was my boss or a peer or somebody junior because, you know, at the end of the day, we’re all people, we all have stuff going on, we all have late calls sometimes that might cause us to take

time back. So, for me, it wouldn't matter so much. The, the, the behaviours that I regard as unacceptable, such as the racial remarks, falsifying receipts, yeah those type of things, I would say... I mean, it's unacceptable for anyone but it's particularly unacceptable in the case of a boss because they should be setting a good example.” (US participant 13; Female; Age 23)

I11F: “So after one point if I think that it's not helping and there is no point in trying to. If the entire culture is as such I don't think it can be changed overnight and it cannot be changed by one person. So then I think I would rather consider an exit than stick around in that environment you know and take an emotional break”. (Indian participant 11; Female; Age 33)

I11M: “I'll definitely notify the person, at least request them to not do it because that would impact the team itself and being my supervisor, if not me, it will alter me also, when work towards the same kind. So I will definitely notify the person choosing to do it or not do it, is completely institutional. ” (Indian participant 1; Male; Age 32)

Employee experience and job status were known to be related to workplace deviance behaviour (Hollinger, 1986). Participant roles in behaviours like bullying, a form of deviance in classroom context were attributed to individual's assuming the role of a defender who taken action to stop a particular behaviour by encouraging others to report. In addition, Chekroun & Brauer (2002) determined that when personal implication on an individual is high, they tend to exercise social control by trying to do something about the behaviour. Krishnan and Sing (2010) determined a high correlation between intention to quit and organizational deviance. The responses from the participants supported these. These provide details as to why these responses were coded into defender behaviour during the analysis.

3.8.2.c Social Support

USA 9F: “I don't think I would go and tell anybody. I think I would take it higher in the organisation if it wasn't in my own realm or my own department. You wouldn't know the situation for it, and it wouldn't be necessarily implicating on you in the same way as it was with your supervisor, for example. I think I would probably... I think I would kind of personally, I might talk about it with a colleague or something but I

don't think I would to try to intervene in any way.” (US participant 9; Female; Age 23)

USA 7F: “I don't know, that my reaction per se would be hugely different other than depending upon the nature of my relationship with them...depending upon the nature of my relationship with them I might and there is other things where I would feel uncomfortable talking to that person most likely and would then pick a most formalized channel and....If you get on really well with your boss and you feel like you can talk to your boss, so there will be something you will say to them”. (US participant 7; Female; Age 33)

I9M: “We are all one team actually, and then he is also part of my team and he is leader to me. If my leader is doing some, deviating, he is deviating, from the current situation, then it's up to me, I have all rights to go and tell him, yeah, that is the relationship between boss and employee.” (Indian participant 9; Female; 29)

USA 2M: “If I heard something happening in another team then I would speak to my, I would speak to my manager about it or I would speak to the union organizer about it. Or I would speak to somebody I knew in that team who didn't seem like a jerk.” (US participant 2; Male; 49)

USA 10F: “I certainly don't feel that I would be comfortable approaching that person because obviously reporting to them as my supervisor I would not feel comfortable to approach them. But, it's something I would probably speak to my peers about. It's something I would speak to my peers about, my colleagues.” (US participant 10; Female; 35)

I 1M: “I don't know them at all, then I would take it up with their supervisor, they're, who I can go and talk to... I will tell him first, and if he is not going to follow that advise then I will have to take it up with the supervisor and escalate the matter...if there are people who I really cant do anything about then I would be responsible enough to actually go and talk to their supervisor...It is impacting that particular department or it is impacting people around it, that is when, I think, I will be reporting it to their Supervisor.” (Indian participant 1; Male; 32)

One of the important implications of deviance behaviour is stress and seeing support from others is an important coping strategy (Roth & Cohen, 1986; Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) where an individual seeks support from other authorities to discuss such behaviour. These were some of the responses from the participants supporting this which were coded into social support behaviour during the analysis.

Thus, these three factors were all assumed under one big umbrella term called the Intervening behaviour, as the result of all these were to involve in behaviour focusing on the deviant activity and were expected to have high correlations with each other.

3.9. Newly Developed Scale of Witness Behaviour Towards Workplace Deviance

Based on the participant's responses, an open coding method was used to generate a list of items for the new measure. These items were then validated using face and content validity. This section thus focuses on item generation and item sorting task of the witness behaviour towards workplace deviance scale.

3.9.1. Item Generation

Based on the two clusters i.e. self-serving and intervening behaviour, an open coding method created a list of possible resources within these two clusters. They are shown below:

Career Aspects

Sixty-four per cent of respondents stated that they had to think about their career before deciding to taken actions or react against a behaviour. They mentioned that their career was important to them and that they would not want to jeopardise their future by going against the organization or their superiors.

Need to Belong

Seventy-one per cent of respondents stated that they do not want to be the odd man out in their organization. And that to adapt within the work environment they had involved in activities that they wouldn't otherwise do.

Do Not Take the Initiative

Eighty-two per cent of respondents accepted that they would not be willing to take the first step to stop a behaviour stating that it was not their job. They also said that it takes time to take actions against these behaviours as it involves paperwork and a long processing time that they were not willing to spend their time on.

Being Conscientious

Sixty per cent of respondents said that they would try to understand why someone was behaving in a deviant manner. They said that they would try to talk to the person involved and come up with solutions or suggestions that can be implemented to stop that behaviour.

Reporting a Behaviour

Eight-nine per cent of respondents felt that they would encourage the people affected to talk to their supervisor as it would be better to let that particular individual solve it rather than taking actions or reporting to another. They also felt that, if the situation did not change then they would take matter into their hands and make an official complaint.

Challenge an Unacceptable Behaviour

Seventy-eight per-cent of the respondents felt that they would confront anyone working in their organization, be it a fellow co-worker or their supervisor when they felt that a particular behaviour was wrong. They mentioned that they would even consider leaving the organization if such situations persisted.

Support

Eighty per cent of respondents felt that they would talk to their peers first before they decided to talk to their supervisors regarding behaviour. After seeking their advice on similar situations, they would talk to their supervisors. However, they mentioned that it would also depend on the relationship they had with their supervisors. Many also suggested that they would make use of the organization's formal complaint methods to stop different types of deviance behaviour.

The descriptions of every resource quoted within the two clusters were carefully studied along with various literature reviews available in the extant literature, existing scales and seeking expert advice to refine the list of resources. These were then expanded into a 20-item scale to describe the witness behaviour towards workplace deviance (refer to Appendix Ib). The above-mentioned categories were expanded to form them into separate items as, 1) some of these resources contains more than 1 item within them and should be separated to be used in a scale. E.g. Need to belong resource would be clear, if split into a) need to belong to the organization and b) need to belong to the work group which will determine the different response of an individual on deviance behaviour. 2) Some of these resources were more general descriptions, which needed to be broken down to be used in a scale, e.g. Challenge an unacceptable behaviour, which might involve intervening, confronting or leaving a particular organization to stop a behaviour. Thus, it was necessary to have separate items from a single resource.

Therefore, the above resources were used to form a 20-item scale. As scales with very few items can lack internal consistency, content validity and reliability, over inclusivity is most desirable (Nunnally, 1967). Wording of the new items followed the scale development recommendations (see DeVellis, 2003; Hinkin, 1995; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). First, as the scale was developed to be used across cultures and in different workplace contexts, care was taken to use straightforward wordings, non-lengthy or complex sentences. A 5-point Likert scale was chosen as Likert-type scales allow the measurement of concepts of continuum and generate sufficient variance among different cases. The full list of 20 items is presented in Table 6.

3.10. Developed Items to Measure Witness Behaviour towards Workplace Deviance

The following are the statements that describe the individual behaviour of an employee while witnessing workplace deviance.

TABLE 6
Developed Items

While witnessing supervisors/peers/anyone behave in ways that are against organizational norms I would...

Self-Serving Behaviour

Concentrate on my work ignoring other's activities.

Also, involve in those activities just to be part of the organization.

Also, involve in those activities if they conform to group norms just to be part of the team.

Think about my career before I confront anyone about his/her involvement in certain behaviour.

Wait for someone to confront the person involved in such behaviour.

Intervening Behaviour

Try to understand why someone was involved in a particular behaviour.

Try to think of different ways to stop a particular behaviour from happening again.

Try to talk with the person involved to stop a particular behaviour.

Decide how to deal with the behaviour and make sure to do it.

Encourage the people affected to report to their supervisors about it.

Compare different behaviour with personal ethics before deciding to take action about it.

Intervene to stop a behaviour when I have more experience and authority.

Intervene if the organizational output or my deliverable is impacted.

Confront the supervisor regarding his behaviour, as he should be a role model.

Confront anyone involved in such activities.

TABLE 6
CONTINUED

Leave the organization if such activities become part of the organization culture.

Talk to supervisor or peer about how particular behaviour made me feel.

Get help from the management.

Ask a peer for advice.

Ask support from someone who has come across similar behaviour, what you should do about it.

3.11. Validity

Validity is central to the development of a measure. The measurement validity of a scale determines the extent to which a scale actually measures the construct that it was developed for. It is important for researchers to establish content, construct and criterion validity during scale development (American Psychological Association, 1985). According to Hinkin (1998), content validity captures the measure's adequacy to assess the construct's domain. It takes on a deductive approach where experts in a particular field assess the items in the item pool formulated from the interviews before incorporating them in further analysis (Schriesheim et al., 1993). Content validity also involves the validation of the structure of a scale by analysing the component/subscale of the construct it was developed to measure. Study 2 comprises of the item sorting task and cognitive interviews that establish this validity.

3.11.1. Item Sorting Task

There were 20 items at this stage to measure the witness behaviour towards workplace deviance. This was first subjected to cognitive interviewing (see Appendix Ic). Interviewees were five PhD students from the business school. The interviews lasted for 5-10 minutes. At the beginning of the interview, participants were given a briefing about the nature of the research and what their participation involved. They were assured anonymity and confidentiality of their participation. Participants were then asked to read over the 20 items that aim to understand the Witness behaviour of

an individual towards workplace deviance. This was followed by a structured interview. This was used to check the readability, grammar and general meaning of the item pool. Results proved that there were no underlying problems with the scale. The items were then subject to face validity assessment by staff members who were specialised in the area of organizational behaviour research. They were asked to identify any items, which did not appear to fit into either of these dimensions. The wording of each items were also closely examined. Simultaneously a content validity assessment of the item pool was also conducted. Ten PhD students who were familiar with the research in organizational behaviour were asked to take part in a short sorting task (see Appendix Id) which required them to assign each item blindly to each of the two sub-dimensions. After assigning an item to a category, they were also asked to rate how difficult it was to assign them using a 5-point Likert scale. Six PhD students who had no background in organization behaviour were also asked to complete the task. This was done to ensure the simple format of each item and their understanding of what dimensions each item reflected. According to Hinkin (1998), a minimum correct classification of 75% is required for adequate content validity. Thus, those items that were assigned more than 75% of time were retained and in this case it was all 20 items (see Appendix Id for item classification). Thus, based on the results of cognitive interviews, face validity assessment and item sorting task initial assessments, 20 items were retained that were used in further analysis.

3.12. Conclusion

Study 2 was used to understand and define the witness behaviour towards workplace deviance. From the responses of the one-to-one interview, it was found that Self-serving and Intervening behaviour were the common behavioural outcomes from the witness perspective. The real life experiences and examples given by the respondents were helpful in generating a 20-item measure. Face and content validity assessment were performed using co-analysts coding, expert reviews and item sorting task so that the newly developed measure is well grounded within the psychometric guidelines. The next chapter focuses on the exploration of the scale's construct and criterion related validities.

Chapter 4

STUDY 3

Validating Newly Developed Witness behaviour towards Workplace Deviance scale

Overview

Study 2 described the development of the new measure of witness behaviour towards workplace deviance and initial face and content validity were established. This chapter describes the method to validate the witness behaviour towards the workplace deviance scale. This chapter consists of Study 3, which explores the structural validity of the developed scale. First, the data collected from India and the USA was tested for missing data and common method bias then, they were split into two random dataset followed by an exploratory factor analysis on one half of the data to determine the factor structure of the scale and then a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed on the other half to confirm this structure in both India and the USA.

4.1. Introduction: Validity

Validity is central to the development of a measure. The measurement validity of a scale determines the extent to which a scale actually measures the construct that it was developed for. It is important for researchers to establish content, construct and criterion validity during scale development (American Psychological Association, 1985). Construct validity addresses the relationship between the newly developed scale and other attributes it was designed to assess theoretically. Nomological validity is one, which addresses this by examining the new construct within a network of related constructs. The nomological network development phase is important in validating the measure (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). A number of hypothesis are proposed to relate the main construct to other theoretically related constructs before incorporating other methods to gain evidence (Messick, 1995). It is critical to establish that the construct being developed is related (convergent validity) yet distinct (discriminant validity) with other constructs that are deemed to be theoretically relevant (Chapter 5 discusses further on construct validity). Convergent validity

determines the extent to which a developed measure relates to other measures of the same theoretically underlying construct (Bryant et al., 2007) whereas discriminant validity determines that the developed scale measures something that is distinct theoretically and not just a surrogate of a related construct (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Criterion-related validity determines the association between the developed construct and theoretically relevant outcomes. This process is guided by the nomological network, exploring the concurrent and predictive validity, thus proving the criterion validity of the construct (chapter 5 discusses further criterion-related validity).

To determine the structural validity of the newly developed witness behaviour towards workplace deviance scale, first an exploratory factor analysis was conducted by splitting the samples into 2 almost equal halves. Then a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to determine the fit of the measure. Furthermore, a reliability analysis was carried out to test the internal consistency of the items for the newly developed measure.

4.2. Research Design

Table 7 illustrates the study design.

TABLE 7
Study 3 – Study Design

Study	Analysis	Validity established	Data/Sample
Study 3	Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Reliability Estimations. Item reduced to a 9 item scale on cross cultural data	Content Validity (Structural & Face)	N= 202 India (Sample 2a) N=233 USA (Sample 3a) Total N = 435 N= 202 India (Sample 2a) N=350 USA (Sample 3b) Total N = 552

A survey design was used to collect data through online questionnaires. An online panel survey was used for the study using Qualtrics from September 2016 to November 2016. The objective of this sample was to test the factor structure of the developed measure. Typical limitations of a cross sectional design such as common method variance (Lindell & Whitney, 2001) were also accounted for in the study

design. Sources of common method variance, amongst others, the common source (i.e. predictor and outcome rated by the same subject; e.g., consistency motif and transient mood states) and items characteristics (e.g., same response format) was addressed through both procedure (Podsakoff et al. 2003) and empirical assessments (Malhotra, Kim, & Patil 2006). From a procedural standpoint, the surveys were anonymous; the respondents were assured that there are no right or wrong answers and they should answer as honestly as possible. The scale items within the measure were also randomly ordered to avoid response sets and a pilot was conducted to assess the clarity and ambiguity (Podsakoff et al. 2003). This procedure would reduce the respondents' evaluation hesitation and make them less likely to edit their responses. From the empirical standpoint, confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to test for the discriminant validity of all the scales. (More discussion can be found in Chapter 5).

Since the purpose of study 3, was to determine the factor structure of developed measure, the sample was split randomly into two approximately equal halves to conduct exploratory factor analysis (EFA- Sample 2a, 3a) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA- Sample 2b, 3b) respectively. Hinkin (1995) suggests splitting the data to enable testing of models on different cases and fitting it to a data it was created from.

Initial face validity during item generation was established; items were then subject to item sorting process and a pilot study was also conducted. For an effective EFA analyses, a rule of thumb is at least 10 cases per items is recommended (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003; Gorsuch, 1997) and with respect to CFA, a minimum of at least 200 cases are necessary (Zhang et al., 1999). The requirements of the sample size were discussed with qualtrics along with the study demographic details so that datasets were more or less equal.

4.2.1. Data Collection

Sample 2, 3 (Total N=987) consisted of employees working part-time or full-time and working in any sector from both India and the USA as the focus of the study was on the scale's validity across culture without setting an industry or organizational context. Online panel reduces the cost involved in locating respondents who are appropriate; ensure instance availability with many benefits like identifying key

samples, increase response rate and quality with ethical advantages (Görizt, 2002). Taking into account the requirement and sensitivity of the research, qualtrics was preferred as participant's behavioural outcomes were required from India and the USA belonging to different industries working part-time or full-time. Qualtrics recruits participants for survey panels through invitation-only to avoid professional survey takers and self-selection of respondents. They tap into qualified panels of survey participants through various other companies. These participant pools consist of people who have accepted to take part repeatedly in web surveys (Görizt et al., 2002). The motivation of their participation is through incentives after taking part in the survey (Görizt, 2004), which is paid by the researcher to qualtrics who then pays them. The use of qualtrics have also been described as providing researchers with data of acceptable quality (Brandon et al., 2013) and several advantages (DeSantis, 2013).

There are several advantages to using qualtrics:

- There is no way of knowing the respondents identity ensuring complete anonymity.
- Selecting the option “Prevent Ballot Box Stuffing” would prevent the respondents from taking the survey more than once.
- The responses are hidden from the instructor, as the researcher would be the only person who would access the survey results.
- The response data can be downloaded in a usable format saving time.

4.3. Access and Ethics

Questionnaires were administered through online surveys due to the sensitivity of the research. The University of Edinburgh Research Ethics committee granted ethical approval to carry forward the research. Participants for Sample 2 and 3 were selected from Qualtrics panel survey given the sensitivity of the research and the length of the questionnaire. The panel survey was chosen as it is widely used in research studies due to the increased response rates this type of data collection assures. Also, with a panel survey, the respondents are selected from a large pool of participants who are not professional survey takers, thus allowing the researcher the freedom to set demographics, as per the requirements which is not possible in other methods. In

addition, since the survey link is sent from qualtrics and not through the researcher or company mail, the respondents are assured of anonymity, thus reducing the chance of social desirability which is always an issue in studies related to attitude and behaviour.

A cover letter stating the objective of the survey, its benefits to organizations, confidentiality that their responses would be analysed together with other participants in the survey was mentioned to reduce any concerns. Their choice to withdraw from the research at any time during the process was also made clear. The consent of the respondents to participate in the study was sought by providing them with a yes or no option. Further information about the nature of the study as well as about the ethical aspects of the research was assured to be produced upon request.

4.4. Sample

The respondents for Study 3 consisted of Sample 2 and 3. Sample 2 consisted of Indian participants 51.0 % males and 49.0% female. The samples reported their age as 25 or younger (37.1%), 26-35 yrs (40.3%), 36-45 yrs (14.1%), 46-55 yrs (4.0%) and 56 yrs or older (4.0%). Most of them described their job level as non-supervisory position (26.5%), first line supervisor or manager or team leader (23.0%), mid-level manager (24.3%), senior manager (20.8%) and above senior manager (5.4%) working as permanent (69.1%), temporary (30.9%), full-time (69.8%) or part-time (30.2%) with an experience of upto 5 years (59.7%), 6-10 years (24.8%) and 11 years or more (15.6%). They also reported their educational qualifications as high school (11.4%), Bachelor's degree (50.0), Master's degree (37.4%) or PhD/MD (1.2%).

Sample 3 consisted of US participants 48.7% males and 51.3% female. The samples reported their age as 25 or younger (23.5%), 26-35 yrs (25.7%), 36-45 yrs (19.7%), 46-55 yrs (23.5%) and 56 yrs or older (7.5%). Most of them described their job level as non-supervisory position (51.1%), first line supervisor or manager or team leader (18.0%), mid-level manager (16.8%), senior manager (9.6%) and above senior manager (4.5%) working as permanent (92.1%), temporary (7.9%), full-time (78.9%) or part-time (21.1%) with an experience of up to 5 years (57.5%), 6-10 years (24.0%) and 11 years or more (18.5%). They also reported their educational qualifications as high school (35.5%), Bachelor's degree (44.8), Master's degree (16.0%) or PhD/MD (3.8%). These two samples were split into two halves using SPSS split cases. This

would enable model testing on various cases than those it was created from and it would fit well to data it was created from (MacCallum et al., 1999). Thus EFA consisted of N = 435 (N= 202 India (Sample 2a), N=233 USA (Sample 3a)) and CFA N=552 (N= 202 India (Sample 2a), N=350 USA (Sample 3b)). Table 8 represents the sample characteristic for exploratory Factor analysis.

TABLE 8
Sample Characteristics for EFA

Sample Characteristics	India	USA
1. Gender		
Male	50.50%	51.50%
Female	49.50%	48.50%
2. Age		
<25 yrs or younger	41.10%	23.20%
26-35	35.10%	27.50%
36-45	15.80%	16.30%
46-55	4.00%	26.60%
>56 yrs or above	4.00%	6.40%
3. Job level		
Non-supervisor position	30.70%	47.20%
First line supervisor or manager or team leader	23.30%	19.70%
Mid-level manager	22.30%	18.90%
Senior manger	18.30%	11.20%
Above senior manager	5.40%	3.00%
4. Work Experience		
Upto 5 years	57.90%	60.50%
6-10 years	25.70%	23.20%
11 years or more	16.30%	16.30%
5. Employment status		
Permanent	64.40%	92.70%
Temporary	35.60%	7.30%
Full-Time	66.80%	80.70%
Part-Time	33.20%	19.30%
6. Education Qualification		
High School	13.90%	36.90%
Bachelor's degree	52.50%	45.50%
Master's degree	32.70%	14.60%
PhD or MD	1.00%	3.00%

4.5. Procedure

Following the recommendations of Hinkin (1995; 1998) for constructing and validating a sound measure, after splitting the data of both the samples 2 and 3, an EFA analysis was first performed on one half of the data (N = 435, N= 202 India (Sample 2a), N=233 USA (Sample 3a)). This was followed by CFA analysis on the other half (N=552, N= 202 India (Sample 2a), N=350 USA (Sample 3b)). The same procedure was followed in both the samples.

EFA is the most widely used technique in scale development for refining the construct (MacCallum et al., 1999). The sample size was more than 200 from each sample, which exceeded the minimum of 150 samples required to perform an EFA (Hinkin, 1995). First, to determine if the data is fit for a factor analysis each and every item was analysed for a inter-item correlation of greater than 0.30 (Hair et al., 2006). This is followed by Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) where a value of greater than 0.50 is considered suitable for the analysis and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity should be significant ($p < .05$) to proceed with factor analysis.

An EFA analysis consists of two main stages: 1) Factor Extraction and 2) Factor Rotation. Factor extraction determines the number of factors to extract from a matrix of items and factor rotation is used to provide optimal differentiation among factors extracted (Hair et al., 2006). EFA involves repeating these two stages several times, re-evaluating and possibly discarding items each time the analysis is run so that the items are related to a single distinct factor.

The factor rotation can either implement an orthogonal or oblique rotation. The orthogonal rotation does not allow the factors to be correlated, whereas the opposite is true for oblique rotation. As, in an exploratory factor analysis, the number of emergent factors cannot be known prior to the analysis by the researcher, an oblique rotation was chosen. Within the oblique rotation, direct oblimin rotation was used in this study as the new measure is expected to have some correlations among factors since behaviour is rarely partitioned as independent units (Field, 2005).

Thus, the EFA analysis followed a factor reduction and oblimin rotation procedure. The Kaiser's eigenvalues were used to determine the number of factors to be retained after extraction. The rule of eigenvalues greater than 1 was used (Hinkin et al., 2006) as the factors with values greater than one are considered to be significant compared to those factors less than one (Osborne & Costella, 2005). Cattell's (1966) scree plot was also assessed along with Kaiser's eigenvalues as it provides a visual representation of the eigenvalues. This plot helps in identifying the break point that determines the number of factors to be retained as the points on the curve after that flattens out due to small eigenvalues (Costella & Osborne, 2005). Hair et al., (2006) suggested that though scree plot provides an alternative way of deciding the number

of factors, it should not be used solely as it provides at least one factor more to retain than the eigenvalues greater than one rule. Thus, the recommended number of factors to be extracted is one factor less than the break point (Cattell, 1966).

The variables extracted should have communalities of greater than 0.40 and the factors extracted should explain a total variance of greater than 60% (Hair et al., 2006). Thus, all these rules were used as a guideline to decide on the number of factors to be retained.

Once the EFA was carried out, the resulting model was tested using CFA analysis. It was done using the most common method of estimation, the maximum likelihood (ML) as the variables are normally distributed (Bollen, 1989) both in sample 2b and 3b. AMOS 22.0 software was used for CFA analyses (Arbuckle, 2013). Various fit indices were used to test the model fit for the data used in both the samples. The results from this analysis would provide evidence of the final factor structure that can be used in further analysis. For a good model fit the Chi-square ratio (χ^2/df) below 3.0 and as high as 5.0 were suggested as acceptable (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985). Various goodness-of-fit indices were also used to determine the model fit, as the hypothesised model was compared with the baseline model. Popular indices are Comparative Fit Index (CFI; Bentler, 1990) a modified index of the Normed Fit Index (NFI; Bentler & Bonnett, 1980) which tends to provide inadequate fit in smaller samples. The Incremental Fit Index (IFI) developed by Bollen, (1989) and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) also referred to as the Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) was used to address issues related to sample size in the NFI. The fit indices of CFI, IFI and TLI vary from 0 to 1 and the acceptable level of fit is above 0.9 or close to unity (Marsh et al., 1988) though values above 0.95 are preferred. The root mean square of error approximation (RMSEA; Steiger & Lind, 1980) was used to determine the overall fit of the model. A good fit has an RMSEA value of 0.05 or less though a value between 0.05-0.10 is considered an acceptable fit and anything larger than 0.10 should not be accepted (refer to Hu & Bentler, 1999). Finally, the Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC; Akaike, 1987) can be used to test various models that are not nested. When the models that are compared are not nested and it is a simple model, then the value of AIC should be minimum, which is preferred. Thus, for CFA, the CFI, IFI, TLI, RMSEA and AIC were

considered to evaluate the fit of the newly developed Witness behaviour workplace deviance scale.

4.6. Results

4.6.1. Data Preparation

Prior to any statistical analysis, the datasets from the samples were checked for missing data and data normality. Missing data can be an issue in data analysis. Using missing values analysis (MVA) in SPSS, both the level and the pattern of missing data for various samples can be analysed. For all samples, results indicated that there were no items with 5% or more missing values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Further, Little's MCAR test (1988) indicates whether the data is missing completely at random. For samples 2 and 3, the statistically non-significant results (sample 2, $p = .22$; sample 3, $p = .13$) indicate the probability that the pattern of missing data diverges from randomness as it is greater than .05 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Thus, it can be inferred that the data point is missing completely at random (MCAR). Overall, given that less than 5% of data was missing in a random pattern in two datasets, it was not deemed a serious problem, which would compromise the research findings. The data was also visually examined using histograms to identify any outliers.

4.6.2. Common Method Bias

In organisational research, common method bias has been a major concern, as it is one of the major sources of measurement error (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The extensive study by Podsakoff et al., (2003) has identified four sources of common method variance – common rater effects, item characteristic effects, item context effects and measurement context effects. The method bias is known to be particularly powerful in studies where the predictor and the criterion variable are collected from the same respondent (Mishra, 2016) and social desirability is a major source of this bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). It is defined as “the need for social approval and acceptance and the belief that it can be attained by means of culturally acceptable and appropriate behaviours” (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964, p. 109). It tends to hide the respondent's true responses (Ganster et al., 1983). Taking into account the culture

factor used in the study, cultural differences would influence the responses due to social desirability (see Cohen et al., 1995). Lalwani et al., (2006) examined the impact of individualist and collectivistic orientation pertaining to social desirability. It was concluded that respondents belonging to collectivistic cultures engage more in this kind of responding to present themselves in a favourable image; this view has also been supported by Middleton and Jones, (2000) and Tellis and Chandrasekaran, (2010). This error would lead to inconclusive results about the relationship present among the measures used in the study. This bias has been attributed to common rater effect where the respondents feel a need to respond to the questions in a social, desirable manner so as to appear in a positive light to the interviewer/reader. Other sources are item characteristics where the respondents interpret the items because of item properties, item context (grouping of items) and measurement effects, where predictor and the criterion variables are measured simultaneously.

Various methods like Harman's single factor test, partial correlation and common latent factor test using confirmatory factor analysis have been suggested in assessing and controlling for common method variance (CMV)/common method bias (CMB) (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In their review of CMV/CMB, Podsakoff et al., (2003) suggest techniques for controlling CMV/CMB using both procedural and statistical remedies (see Podsakoff et al., (2003)). In this study, measures were taken to address common method variance as its focus is to acquire individual perspective on their own workplace behaviours.

To account for procedural remedy, the questionnaires were designed in a random order to neutralize the effects of item-induced mood states, given the length of the questionnaire. In addition, respondents were assured of their anonymity and that there were no right or wrong answers to reduce their desire to edit their answers (Eichhorn, 2014). Statistical remedy used in this study was Harman's single factor test, where all the variables are loaded on to a single factor and then an examination of the unrotated factor solution would determine the number of factors that accounted for variance in variables (see Anderson & Bateman, 1997; Aulakh & Gencturk, 2000). The variance explained was 40.50% in Sample 2 and 40.27% in Sample 3, which is less than the 50% threshold (Eichhorn, 2014).

However, Harman's single factor method has several disadvantages: the procedure does not account for common method variance statistically as there is no guideline specifying the variance to be extracted by the first factor also increase in the number of variables is known to increase the possibility of obtaining more than a single factor (see Podsakoff et al., 2003). Thus, it was deemed fit to confirm the absence of common method variance using an additional method as the questions are focused on the individual perspective of their own workplace behaviours.

Controlling common method variance by directly measuring a latent factor has become one of the widely used methods to address measurement error or to determine the effects of a specific factor on the construct. One approach in this method involves including a common factor, allowing the indicators of other constructs to load on this latent factor as well as their hypothesized constructs and constraining the factor loading of the common factor to be equal. This technique has been used in a number of studies (e.g., Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Conger et al., 2000; MacKenzie et al., 1991:1993; Podsakoff et al., 1990) despite its disadvantage of not being able to determine the source of bias as it allows the researcher to concentrate on the measure itself rather than focusing on a specific factor that causes the bias. One of the criteria suggested by Hair et al., (2006) to determine the common method variance is the significant difference in chi-square goodness of fit between model 2 (with common latent factor and constraining factor loadings) and model 1 (without the common latent factor) to predict the presence of bias due to method variance. The biased response due to social desirability would be reflected in terms of a higher value of chi-square in model 2. Also from model 2, the percentage of variance could be calculated for the common factor added by squaring the constrained method factor loading (Widaman, 1985). The level of method variance when less than 50% Eichhorn (2014) would prove the absence of common method bias.

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted at item level (using 20 items and 2 latent constructs). For Sample 2 (N=404), model 1 fitted the data well ($\chi^2=304.26$ ($p<.05$), Df= 149, $\chi^2/df= 2.04$, CFI=.95, TLI= .96, RMSEA=.05). However, model 2, also fitted the data well ($\chi^2=291.31$ ($p<.05$), Df= 148, $\chi^2/df= 1.97$, CFI=.96, TLI=.95, RMSEA=.05) and in fact, fitted a little better than model 1 $\Delta \chi^2 (1, N=404) = 12.95$, $p<.05$, but showed only a small difference and decrease in the overall chi-square

value. The calculation of variance revealed that 45.69% was due to method factor. Thus, the difference in chi-square fit and the variance of the common factor added were used to analyse the presence of common method variance.

Now, for Sample 3 (N= 583), model 1 fitted the data well ($\chi^2=640.09$ ($p<.05$), Df= 149, $\chi^2/df= 4.30$, CFI=.92, TLI= .90, RMSEA=.07). However, model 2, also fitted the data well ($\chi^2=594.58$ ($p<.05$), Df= 148, $\chi^2/df= 4.02$, CFI=.93, TLI= .91, RMSEA=.07) and in fact, fitted a little better than model 1 $\Delta \chi^2 (1, N=583)= 45.51$, $p<.05$ but showed only a small difference and decrease in the overall chi-square value. Calculation of variance revealed that 33.17% was due to method factor added. Thus, both Harman's single factor test and difference in chi-square fit along with the variance of the unmeasured common latent factor was used in the present study to confirm the lack of common method bias as the data was collected from the same source. In addition, since the inclusion of the method factor had marginal improvement in the fit of the model and accounted for only little percentage of variance both in Sample 2 and 3, it can be concluded that the method bias had no large effect on the results of the study.

The univariate statistics of the items in both the samples were examined and various recommendations by Hinkin (1995) were followed. Data was checked for data normality using the skewness and kurtosis (Nunnally, 1978). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), a variable is said to be skewed when its mean is not at the centre of the distribution and the kurtosis on the other hand would have a distribution that is either too flat or too peaked. Normality is evident when the skewness and kurtosis value is zero. Table 9 and 10 presents the descriptive statistics of the 20 items.

TABLE 9
Item Mean, Standard Deviation, Kurtosis and Skewness (Sample 2)

Items	Item Code	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Concentrate on my work ignoring other's activities.	TFDB1	3.37	1.33	-.30	-.08
Also involve in those activities just to be part of the organization.	TFDB2	2.92	1.40	.02	-.28
Also involve in those activities if they conform to group norms just to be part of the team.	TFDB3	2.98	1.36	-.00	-.16
Think about my career before I confront anyone about his/her involvement in certain behaviours.	TFDB4	3.36	1.30	-.31	-.02
Wait for someone to confront the person involved in such behaviours.	TFDB5	3.06	1.27	-.18	-.00
Try to understand why someone was involved in a particular behaviour.	TFDPS1	3.69	1.12	-.54	-.51
Try to think of different ways to stop a particular behaviour from happening again.	TFDBS2	3.72	1.12	-.53	-.60
Try to talk to the person involved to stop a particular behaviour.	TFDPS3	3.71	1.08	-.51	-.43
Decide how to deal with the problem and make sure to do it.	TFDPS4	3.89	1.05	-.80	.07
Encourage the people affected to report to their supervisors about it.	TFDI1	3.68	1.12	-.68	-.16
Compare different behaviours with personal ethics before deciding to take action about it.	TFDI2	3.57	1.17	-.50	-.57
Intervene to stop a behaviour when I have more experience and authority.	TFDI3	3.60	1.14	-.44	-.62

**TABLE 9
CONTINUED**

Items	Item Code	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Intervene if the organizational output or my deliverable is impacted.	TFDI4	3.46	1.21	-.45	-.67
Confront the supervisor regarding his behaviour as he should be a role model.	TFDI5	3.38	1.12	-.26	-.66
Confront anyone involved in such activities.	TFDI6	3.29	1.17	-.15	-.87
Leave the organization if such activities become part of the organization culture.	TFDI7	2.96	1.40	.05	-.25
Talk to supervisor or peer about how a particular behaviour made me feel.	TFDS1	3.45	1.17	-.30	-.85
Get help from the management	TFDS2	3.59	1.16	-.42	-.70
Ask a peer for advice.	TFDS3	3.62	1.07	-.36	-.57
Ask support from someone who has come across similar behaviours; what you should do about it.	TFDS4	3.58	1.11	-.41	.24

**TABLE 10
Item Mean, Standard Deviation, Kurtosis and Skewness (Sample 3)**

Items	Item Code	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Concentrate on my work ignoring other's activities.	TFDB1	3.15	1.08	-.24	-.42
Also involve in those activities just to be part of the organization.	TFDB2	2.13	1.15	.72	-.43
Also involve in those activities if they conform to group norms just to be part of the team.	TFDB3	2.14	1.15	.72	-.40
Think about my career before I confront anyone about his/her involvement in certain behaviours.	TFDB4	3.03	1.22	-.08	-.83
Wait for someone to confront the person involved in such behaviours.	TFDB5	2.77	1.12	.00	-.66

**TABLE 10
CONTINUED**

Items	Item Code	Mean	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Try to understand why someone was involved in a particular behaviour.	TFDPS1	3.20	1.04	-.27	-.16
Try to think of different ways to stop a particular behaviour from happening again.	TFDBS2	3.18	1.04	-.34	-.12
Try to talk to the person involved to stop a particular behaviour.	TFDPS3	2.97	1.09	-.08	-.50
Decide how to deal with the problem and make sure to do it.	TFDPS4	3.14	1.02	-.26	-.23
Encourage the people affected to report to their supervisors about it.	TFDI1	3.12	1.11	-.20	-.54
Compare different behaviours with personal ethics before deciding to take action about it.	TFDI2	3.03	1.08	-.18	-.42
Intervene to stop a behaviour when I have more experience and authority.	TFDI3	3.03	1.15	-.14	-.61
Intervene if the organizational output or my deliverable is impacted.	TFDI4	3.01	1.15	-.12	-.64
Confront the supervisor regarding his behaviour as he should be a role model.	TFDI5	2.64	1.17	.24	-.72
Confront anyone involved in such activities.	TFDI6	2.75	1.12	.15	-.60
Leave the organization if such activities become part of the organization culture.	TFDI7	2.48	1.30	.43	-.91
Talk to supervisor or peer about how a particular behaviour made me feel.	TFDS1	2.89	1.07	.02	-.29
Get help from the management.	TFDS2	3.05	1.09	-.06	-.42
Ask a peer for advice.	TFDS3	3.19	1.05	-.23	-.30
Ask support from someone who has come across similar behaviours; what you should do about it.	TFDS4	3.01	1.09	-.12	-.41

4.6.3. EFA Analyses

First, the inter-item correlations were examined to determine the use of factor analysis and evaluate scale items; the items with correlations of more than 0.30 were retained (De Vellis, 1991; Hair et al., 2006). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value with a minimum value of 0.5 and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Field, 2009) for significance was also checked in sample 2a and 3a. In Sample 2a, the KMO value is .85 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2 = 641.91$, $df = 36$, $p \leq .001$) and in sample 3a, the KMO value is .83 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2 = 731.53$, $df = 36$, $p \leq .001$), thus supporting the use of factor analysis. Only those items that satisfied the initial test were retained for further analysis.

A single factor loading of more than 0.40 is required as per Hair et al., (2006) recommendations. The items were also checked for cross-loadings. The items that cross-loaded were checked to determine whether a gap of .20 existed between the primary and cross loaded factor (Anderson et al., 2004) to be retained in the final scale. As the aim of the research is to develop a generalized scale, the EFA analysis was conducted simultaneously in both India and US samples so that the factor structure was same and met all the above-mentioned requirements. After several extraction attempts using principal component analysis with direct oblimin rotation, a two-factor solution with 9 items appeared. All the factors that were retained in the final scale met the minimum requirement of .40 and most of the factor loadings were over .60, which is considered high factor loadings (Hair et al., 2006). The final factor solution explained 60.17% variance, with the first factor: Self-serving behaviour explaining 45.06% of variance and factor two: Intervening behaviour explaining 15.11% of variance in the Indian Sample 2a. Whereas, 61.80% variance was obtained with the first factor: Self-serving behaviour explaining 38.48% of variance and factor two: Intervening behaviour explaining 23.32% of variance in the USA Sample 3a. This factor structure was further validated using the scree plot analysis for both the samples as presented in Figure 4 and 5 and the slope showed a sharp decrease at point 3 suggesting 2 initial factors accounted for the major part of the variance.

FIGURE 5
Scree Plot for Sample 2a

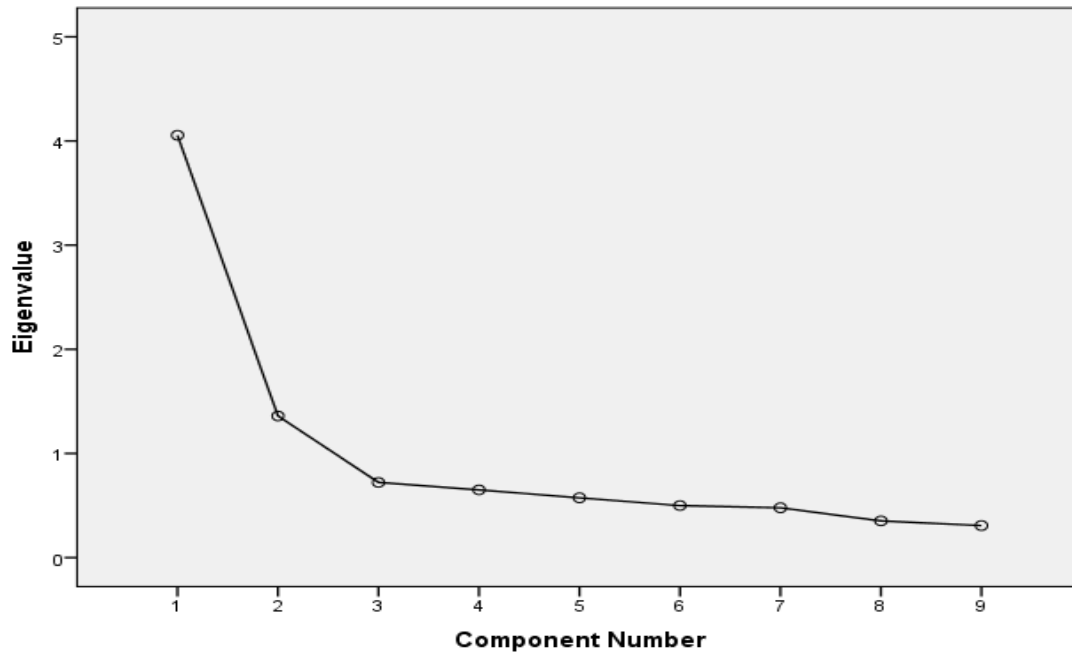
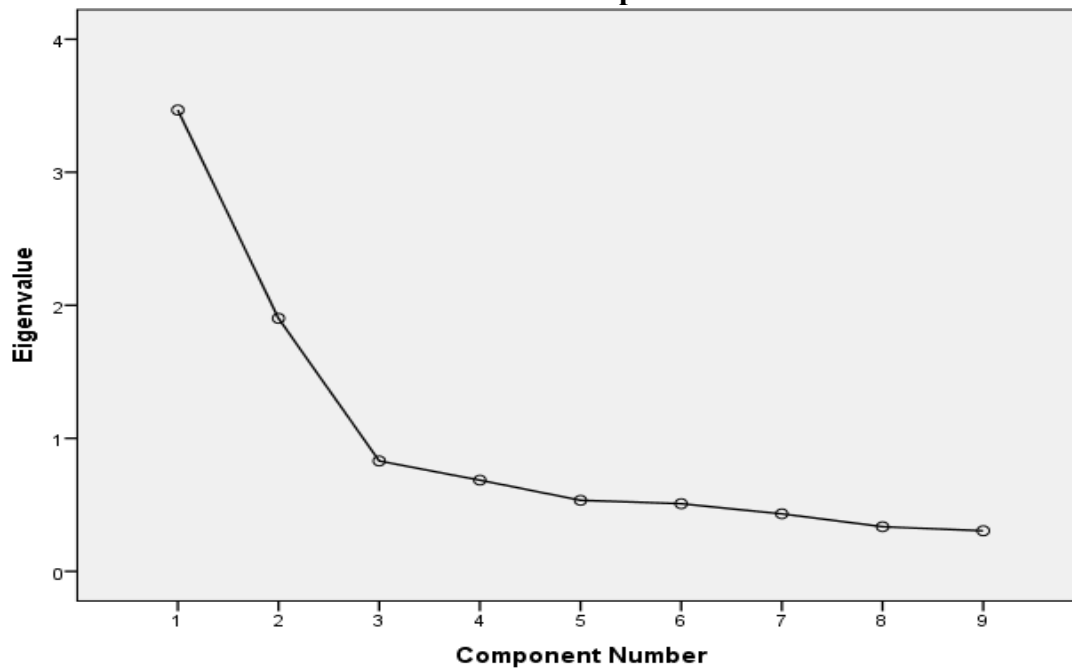


FIGURE 6
Scree Plot for Sample 3a



After finalising the factor structure of the newly developed scale, the next task was to demonstrate the internal consistency of each of these factors in both the samples through reliability analysis. In order to calculate the reliability using Cronbach's

Alpha, value of each factor should have at least 2 items per factor (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The reliability of the first factor is .77 and the second factor is .83 in the Indian sample whereas the first factor is .73 and the second factor is .86 in the US sample. Results of the factor loading along with the reliability are displayed for both Sample 2a and 3a are shown in Table 11 and 12.

Based on the previous item sorting task, the factors were labelled accordingly. Thus, consistent with the content analysis of the interview, the scale demonstrated two factors matching two dimensions formed earlier (see Chapter 4 for more details).

TABLE 11
Factor Loadings of 2 Factor Witness Behaviour Towards Workplace
Deviance Scale (9 items) Sample 2a

Items	Item Code	Factors		Communalities
		1	2	
Concentrate on my work ignoring other's activities.	TFDB1	.67		.50
Also involve in those activities if they conform to group norms just to be part of the team.	TFDB3	.70		.60
Think about my career before I confront anyone about his/her involvement in certain behaviours.	TFDB4	.87		.66
Wait for someone to confront the person involved in such behaviours.	TFDB5	.80		.66
Decide how to deal with the problem and make sure to do it.	TFDPS4		.82	.65
Encourage the people affected to report to their supervisors about it.	TFDI1		.78	.58
Intervene if the organizational output or my deliverable is impacted.	TFDI4		.71	.59
Confront anyone involved in such activities.	TFDI6		.86	.72
Get help from the management.	TFDS2		.64	.46
Reliabilities	.84	.77	.83	
Variiances	60.17%	45.06%	15.11%	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

TABLE 12
Factor Loadings of 2 Factor Witness Behaviour Workplace Deviance Scale
(9 items) Sample 3a

Items	Item Code	Factors		Communalities
		1	2	
Concentrate on my work ignoring other's activities.	TFDB1	.75		.60
Also involve in those activities if they conform to group norms just to be part of the team.	TFDB3	.62		.46
Think about my career before I confront anyone about his/her involvement in certain behaviours.	TFDB4	.78		.62
Wait for someone to confront the person involved in such behaviours.	TFDB5	.82		.67
Decide how to deal with the problem and make sure to do it.	TFDPS4		.79	.63
Encourage the people affected to report to their supervisors about it.	TFDI1		.81	.66
Intervene if the organizational output or my deliverable is impacted.	TFDI4		.74	.58
Confront anyone involved in such activities.	TFDI6		.85	.73
Get help from the management.	TFDS2		.78	.61
Reliabilities	.78	.73	.86	
Variances	61.80%	38.48%	23.32%	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

4.6.4. CFA Analyses

The two factors that were retained from the EFA analysis in the newly developed Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance were tested using CFA to provide

support to the obtained factor structure and its fit to the data collected using Sample 2b and 3b. The sample characteristics of these samples are provided in Table 13.

TABLE 13
Sample characteristics for CFA

Sample Characteristics	India	USA
1. Gender		
Male	51.00%	46.90%
Female	49.00%	53.10%
2. Age		
<25 yrs or younger	32.70%	23.70%
26-35	45.50%	24.60%
36-45	12.90%	22.00%
46-55	4.00%	21.40%
>56 yrs or above	5.00%	8.30%
3. Job level		
Non-supervisor position	22.30%	53.70%
First line supervisor or manager or team leader	22.80%	16.90%
Mid-level manager	26.20%	15.40%
Senior manger	23.30%	8.60%
Above senior manager	5.40%	5.40%
4. Work Experience		
Upto 5 years	60.90%	55.40%
6-10 years	24.30%	24.60%
11 years or more	14.90%	20.00%
5. Employment status		
Permanent	73.30%	91.70%
Temporary	26.70%	8.30%
Full-Time	73.80%	77.70%
Part-Time	26.20%	22.30%
6. Education Qualification		
High School	8.90%	34.60%
Bachelor's degree	47.50%	44.30%
Master's degree	42.00%	16.90%
PhD or MD	1.50%	4.30%

The models were examined using AMOS software version 22.0 (Arbuckle, 2013). In a CFA analyses multiple models can be used to fit the same dataset to test for the model that fits the data well and to provide support to the factor structure obtained

from EFA analysis. Thus, the best practice is to test a number of models than just one single hypothesised model (Thompson, 2004). The models were estimated using maximum likelihood and by fixing the last factor loading to 1. Therefore, the hypothesised two-factor model was tested against a two factor uncorrelated model, a one-factor model (assuming that the sub-dimensions were not differentiated by the respondents) and a null factor model where the data does not yield even a single factor. Table 14 and 15 display the results of confirmatory factor analyses of the 9-item scale on Sample 2b and 3b.

The results show that a two-factor model (model) fitted the data satisfactorily with a good RMSEA value. It fitted the data better than the one-factor model and two-factor-uncorrelated model in Sample 2b and one-factor model, and two-factor-uncorrelated model in Sample 3b. The chi-square index to the degree of freedom (χ^2/df) of the model was 1.20 (Sample 2b) and 2.28 (Sample 3b) indicating good model fit. The difference between model 3 and model 4 in Sample 2b ($\Delta^2 = 49.12$, $df=1$, $p \leq .001$) and Sample 3b ($\Delta^2 = 11.64$, $df=1$, $p \leq .001$) were also highly significant implying that the two factor model captured the covariation among the 9 items better than the two factor uncorrelated factor. The two-factor structure was consistent with the EFA analysis. Further, correlations among the factors were also calculated to support the factor structure of the newly developed scale. The results show that high correlations were found between the self-serving and intervening behaviour factors (Sample 2b, $r=.46$, $p<.01$ and Sample 3b, $r=.20$, $p<.01$), thus supporting the use of a higher order witness behaviour scale. Therefore, the two-factor model was deemed as the optimal model of choice.

Thus both samples 2b and 3b resulted in the initial structural and construct validity of the newly developed scale. This can now be further validated for convergent and discriminant validity within the nomological network of the construct.

TABLE 14
Fit Indices of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for 9-item Scale Sampe 2b

Model	χ^2	Df	χ^2/df	CFI	IFI	TLI	GFI	RMSEA	AIC
1. Null model	412.176	36	11.458	.564	.00	.00	.00	.23	430.48
2. One factor model	80.68	27	3.0	.86	.86	.81	.91	.09	116.68
3. Two factor (uncorrelated)	80.24	27	3.0	.86	.86	.81	.93	.09	116.24
4. Two factor (correlated)	31.12	26	1.20	.98	.98	.98	.96	.03	69.11

N=202, **p<=.001; CFI=Comparative Fit Index; IFI=Incremental Fit Index; TLI= Tucker-Lewis Index; GFI= Goodness of Fit Index; RMSEA= Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation; AIC= Akaike's Information Criterion

TABLE 15
Fit Indices of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for 9-Item Scale Sampe 3b

Model	χ^2	Df	χ^2/df	CFI	IFI	TLI	GFI	RMSEA	AIC
1. Null model	850.34	36	23.62	.00	.00	.00	.57	.26	868.34
2. One factor model	241.18	27	8.93	.74	.74	.65	.85	.15	277.18
3. Two factor (uncorrelated)	70.87	27	2.63	.95	.95	.93	.96	.07	106.87
4. Two factor (correlated)	59.23	26	2.28	.96	.96	.94	.97	.06	97.23

N=350, **p<=.001; CFI=Comparative Fit Index; IFI=Incremental Fit Index; TLI= Tucker-Lewis Index; GFI= Goodness of Fit Index; RMSEA= Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation; AIC= Akaike's Information Criterion

4.7. Conclusion

The aim of the chapter was to test the structural validity of the developed witness behaviour towards the workplace deviance scale. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were carried out and both the analyses revealed a two-factor solution in line with the initial face validity as seen in Chapter 4. Thus consistent with the theoretical and semi-structured interviews findings, the Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance consists of self-serving and intervening behaviours. Thus, it can be defined as “The behavioural response of an individual after witnessing workplace deviance behaviour”.

CHAPTER 5

STUDY 4

Construct and Criterion-Related Validities

Overview

The aim of this chapter is to further validate the newly developed scale to determine how the Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance scale behaves within the nomological network. Following the structural and construct validity of the scale in the previous chapter, convergent and discriminant validity along with the criterion-related validity will be done in this chapter.

5.1. Introduction

To validate the newly developed scale, a new sample of data was used as per the recommendations of Hinkin (1998). Eight constructs were used from the extant literature to determine the nomological network validity of Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance scale. The eight constructs were affective commitment, job satisfaction, constructive deviance, organization citizenship behaviour, destructive deviance, work engagement and exit, voice, loyalty and neglect

5.2. Method

Construct validity is used to determine the relationship between the newly developed scale and the theoretical outcome it is designed to assess. Nomological validity, a form of construct validity, determines the extent to which a construct behaves with other related constructs (Hinkin, 1995; 1998). This is an important criterion in developing a scale that is valid (Cronbach & Meehl, 1995). The convergent, discriminant and predictive validity was tested for the newly developed scale.

A measure depicts convergent validity when it has high correlation with other theoretically related constructs whereas discriminant validity is present when there is low or no correlation between the new construct and theoretically unrelated or distinct constructs (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Hinkin, 1995).

Thus, to explore the convergent validity, the constructs of exit, voice, loyalty and neglect, and organization citizenship behaviour were used. The exit, voice, loyalty and neglect framework (Hirschman, 1970) suggests that an employee may react in different ways to work dissatisfaction. Exit implies leaving the organization, voice is appeal to the management in an effort to improve the situation, loyalty means remains loyal to the organization with a hope that the situations would improve or neglect, being a display of disregardful behaviour (Farrell, 1983). Voice describes behaviours that are similar to that of the intervening behaviour as individuals while being a witness focus on the behaviour and decides to act upon it by getting help from the management or confronting the individual involved in such behaviours. Whereas, loyalty and neglect has behaviours that are similar to self-serving behaviours where individuals tend to ignore other's activities or wait for someone to take actions against an individual. Thus, this is expected to have a positive relationship with the newly developed scale.

The organization citizenship behaviour represents the behaviours that are not part of their job description but is known to promote the effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988). The behaviours like civic virtue, sportsmanship and helping behaviour are expected to have a positive relationship with the newly developed scale. Civic virtue involves making suggestions to improve the workplace, sportsmanship involves behaviours that are required to go along with the necessary changes that happens in the work environment and helping behaviour involves helping other less-experienced employees with work related problems. Civic virtue and helping behaviour describes behaviours that are similar to intervening behaviours where an individual come up with a solution for a problem to improve working conditions or encourage people affected by deviance behaviour to report to their supervisors. Whereas, sportsmanship has behaviour similar to self-serving behaviours where an individual also involve in deviance to be part of the organization. Thus, this is expected to have a positive relationship with the newly developed scale.

Constructs like extra-role behaviour (Katz, 1964) or pro-social rule breaking (Brief & Motowildo, 1968) were not considered to prove the convergent validity of the scale. Though these behaviours are voluntary, the main rationale for selection was to consider those behaviours that would have some similarity with the newly developed scale. Although pro-social organizational behaviour includes assisting co-

workers that could be similar to intervening behaviour it also includes putting extra effort on the job and corporate social responsibility that might not represent either self-serving or intervening behaviours which could affect convergent validity. On the other hand, extra-role behaviour includes whistleblowing, which is deemed as a severe deviant behaviour that might not represent either self-serving or intervening behaviour potentially affecting convergent validity.

Conversely, to test for discriminant validity, the constructs of destructive and constructive deviance behaviour were taken. Destructive deviance behaviour was chosen to be one of the construct because, first, the scale was developed with destructive deviance as the base and individuals were asked to provide response while being a witness to destructive deviance at workplace. Second, an individual by involving in organizational norm breaking behaviour demerits the organization and the individuals working in it, the newly developed scale is expected to be distinct than this construct as being involved in self-serving and intervening behaviours is not to cause harm to the organization or individuals directly working in it. Thus, it was important to prove that the newly developed scale is distinct from it.

In addition, constructive deviance that represents those behaviours that break organizational norms but in doing so benefits the organization and its employees (Galperin, 2002) was chosen. First, self-serving or intervening behaviour may lead to individuals involving in behaviours that would benefit themselves, as it would make them part of the organization or stress-free from dealing with deviant activities. Second, the newly developed scale though distinct from negative deviance does not reflect positive deviance as intervening behaviour does not involve breaking organizational norm and through self-serving behaviours individuals do involve in some deviance to be part of the group. Thus, destructive and constructive deviance are expected to be distinct from the newly developed scale.

Predictive validity on the other hand, is a subset of criteria-related validity where the new scale predicts future events (Hair et al., 2006). Based on the extant literature on helping behaviour, social control and workplace deviance, the constructs of affective commitment, work engagement and job satisfaction are expected to be predicted by the newly developed scale. These constructs were chosen because the

main aim of the present construct was to determine the behaviour of the individual towards workplace negative deviance. The affective commitment towards the organization (Appelbaum et al., 2006; Brooks, 2002; Yildiz & Alpan, 2015), work engagement (Ariani, 2013; Shantz et al., 2013; Sulea et al., 2012) and job satisfaction (Moorman, 1993; Mount et al., 2006; Omar et al., 2011) were factors that were researched previously in relation to deviance, both positive and negative. These were found to be effective in minimising the negative effects of deviance and enhance positive behavioural outcomes.

5.2.1. Summary of Hypotheses

1. Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance will be positively related to organizational citizenship behaviour
2. Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance will be positively related to exit, voice, loyalty and neglect
3. Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance will be distinct from constructive deviance
1. Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance will be distinct from destructive deviance
2. Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance will be positively related to affective commitment
3. Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance will be positively related to work engagement
4. Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance will be positively related to job satisfaction

Table 16 illustrates the study design.

TABLE 16
Study 4- Study Design

Study	Analysis	Validity Established	Data/Sample
Study 4	Correlational and CFA analysis using self-validation items on cross-cultural data	Construct validity (Convergent; Discriminant Validity) and Criterion- related Validity (predictive)	N=233 India (Sample 4) N=222 USA (Sample 5) Total N= 455

5.3. Research Design

A cross-sectional design was adopted to collect questionnaire data from India and the USA from December 2016 to February 2017. Although a longitudinal design would have been preferable, time restrictions and access difficulty to organizations did not allow for a second wave of data collection from this sample. The objective of this sample was to test the convergent, discriminant and predictive validity of the developed measure by testing it with a theoretically related and unrelated concept. A survey design was used to collect data through online questionnaires. Typical limitations of a cross-sectional design such as common method variance were addressed through both procedure and empirical assessments. From a procedural standpoint, the surveys were anonymous, the respondents were assured that there are no right or wrong answers and that they should answer as honestly as possible. The scale items within the measure were also randomly ordered to avoid response sets. This procedure would reduce the respondents' evaluation hesitation and make them less likely to edit their responses. From the empirical standpoint, confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to test for the discriminant validity of all the scales (more discussion can be found in Chapter 6).

Sample 4 and Sample 5 consisted of scales on a) Affective Commitment; b) Job Satisfaction; c) Constructive Deviance ; d) Organization Citizenship Behaviour e) Destructive Deviance; f) Work Engagement; g) Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect along with the newly developed measure. (See Appendix II)

The HR managers or managers in 6 organizations were contacted through personal contacts in India and the USA. They were requested to help in sharing the link with their employees and were requested for contacts in other organizations. Through this approach, two more organizations were contacted and sent the online link explaining the need for the research. The link was also sent personally to 3 Facebook contacts who were HR managers and requested the questionnaire to be distributed among their employees. Due to the requirements of at least 200 participants each from India and the USA, the HR managers were requested to send the links to at least 100 participants in their organization. They were also assured that all they needed to do was to circulate the link and that the responses would be saved automatically once the participants had completed the survey, and of the 9 HRs contacted, 7 agreed to share the questionnaire

link. The HR managers in India distributed the link to 393 participants (A: 100; B: 175; C: 118) and in the USA the link was distributed to 315 participants (A: 90; B: 85; C: 70; D: 70). Using online survey was beneficial in this case as a direct paper and pen method would have taken more time and access to organizations will have been rejected; the employee response rate would also have been affected, as respondents would have doubts regarding anonymity. Another advantage of using an online survey, is that it provides respondents enough time to complete the survey as they can leave the survey and come back to complete it as per their preference. An automatic email reminder would be sent to them to enable them complete the survey. The data collection took about two to three months in total to achieve the required responses.

5.4. Access and Ethics

Questionnaires were administered through online survey due to the sensitivity of the research. The University of Edinburgh Research Ethics committee granted ethical approval to carry out the research. During the data collection procedure of Sample 4 and 5, access to companies were again sought, with a questionnaire that would take a minimum of 7 minutes and a maximum of 12 minutes. In addition, since a maximum of 200 participants were sought, access to organizations were given and participants were mailed an anonymous link through which they could participate in the study. Since the survey link is sent through the researcher or company mail, the respondents were assured of anonymity and confidentiality as no one other than the researcher would be able to view the response, thus reducing the need for social desirability, which is always an issue in studies related to attitude and behaviour.

A cover letter stating the objective of the survey, its benefits to organizations, confidentiality that their responses would be analysed, together with other participants in the survey was mentioned to reduce any concerns. Their choice to withdraw from the research at any time during the process was also made clear. The consent of the respondents to participate in the study was sought by providing them with a yes or no option. Further information about the nature of the study as well as about the ethical aspects of the research was assured to be produced upon request.

5.5. Sample

Out of the 708 total questionnaire links sent, a total of 488 questionnaires were returned and the response rate was 68.92% and 455 usable questionnaires formed Sample 4 and Sample 5. Overall, it consisted of 51.2% Indian and 48.4% US participants, 50.8% males and 49.2% females with ages ranging from 25 or younger (16.9%), 26-35 yrs (28.1%), 36-45 yrs (22.6%), 46-55 yrs (16.0%) and 56 yrs or older (16.3%). Most of them described their job level as non-supervisory position (18.0%), first line supervisor or manager or team leader (22.3%), mid-level manager (26.6%), senior manager (5.4%) or above senior manager (10.7%) working as permanent (76.3%), temporary (23.7%), full-time (71.4%) or part-time (28.6%) with an experience of up to 5 years (35.4%), 6-10 years (25.5%) and 11 years or more (39.1%). They also reported their educational qualifications as high school (24.2%), Bachelor's degree (45.5%), Master's degree (27.3%) or PhD/MD (3.1%). Table 17 consists of Sample 4 and Sample 5 characteristics.

TABLE 17
Characteristics for Sample 4 and Sample 5

Sample Characteristics	India	USA
7. Gender		
Male	51.1%	50.5%
Female	48.9%	49.5%
8. Age		
<25 yrs or younger	18.5%	15.3%
26-35	40.8%	14.9%
36-45	16.3%	29.3%
46-55	10.3%	22.1%
>56 yrs or above	14.2%	18.5%
9. Job level		
Non-supervisor position	18.0%	49.1%
First line supervisor or manager or team leader	22.3%	17.1%
Mid-level manager	26.6%	16.7%
Senior manger	22.3%	13.5%
Above senior manager	10.7%	3.6%
10. Work Experience		
Upto 5 years	42.9%	51.8%
6-10 years	28.3%	22.5%
11 years or more	28.8%	25.7%
11. Employment status		
Permanent	77.3%	75.2%
Temporary	22.7%	24.8%
Full-Time	76.0%	66.7%
Part-Time	24.0%	33.3%
12. Education Qualification		
High School	8.2%	41.0%
Bachelor's degree	52.8%	37.8%
Master's degree	35.6%	18.5%
PhD or MD	3.4%	2.7%

5.6. Procedure

Validating a scale is an important aspect of scale development (Hinkin, 1995, 1998). Correlation, regression or structural equation modelling (CFA) can be used to demonstrate validity (Hinkin, 1995; DeVellis, 2003). Correlation analysis and Confirmatory factor analysis were used to validate the newly developed scale. Convergent and predictive validity were tested using correlation analysis. A high correlation between constructs indicate convergent and concurrent validity but what is considered high or low had been debatable (DeVellis, 2003). Hair et al., (2006) suggested that a correlation of <0.10 as very small; 0.10-0.25 as fairly small; 0.25-0.40

as moderate; 0.40-0.60 as large and any value greater than 0.60 as very large. Thus, a moderate to large correlation is a rule of thumb for convergent validity.

A confirmatory factor analysis was used to test for discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) to determine whether the new construct was empirically distinct from other related measures. First, a one-factor model where all the constructs to be tested are loaded onto a single factor followed by the two factor correlated model where the constructs are loaded onto their respective higher order measures are analysed. The model fit and various indices as specified in Chapter 4 will provide evidence as to the discriminant validity of the scale with other constructs. If they are distinct then the two factor model would have a good fit whereas a poor fit would not indicate distinctiveness. Therefore, AMOS was used to conduct CFA to test the distinctness between witness behaviour towards the workplace deviance scale and constructive deviance measure. The models will be estimated using maximum likelihood and identified by fixing the variance of the two constructs to 1. It is also important to consider the factor loading of each observed variable i.e. the first order factors. Therefore, an average variance extracted (AVE) analysis was conducted where the AVE from two dimensions of the new scale was compared to the squared correlation between the higher order latent variables involved in discriminant validity analysis. If AVE is less than .05 then the constructs would not be distinct as the measurement due to error would be larger than variance depicted by the construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The results from these analyses prove the convergent, discriminant and predictive validity. The limitations of cross-sectional data were not taken into consideration as the test was performed with two different samples in two different countries.

5.7. Measures

Affective Commitment

Affective commitment to organization was assessed using the 6-item scale developed by Vandenberghe, Stinglhamber, Bentein and Delhaise (2001). Respondents were asked to rate their level of commitment on a 5-point scale (1= Strongly disagree, 5= Strongly agree; e.g., I am proud to belong to this organization, I

really feel that I belong in my work group etc.,). The alpha coefficient $\alpha=.89$ in Sample 4 and $\alpha=.95$ in Sample 5.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was assessed using a 3-item scale developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh's (1983). Respondents were asked to rate their level of satisfaction with the organization on a 5-point scale (1= Strongly disagree, 5= Strongly agree; e.g., I am satisfied with my job, I like working in this organization etc.,). The alpha coefficient $\alpha=.89$ in Sample 4 and $\alpha=.92$ in Sample 5.

Work Engagement

Work engagement was assessed using the 9-item scale developed by Schaufeli et al., (2006). Respondents were asked to rate their feeling about their job on a 5-point scale (1= Never, 5= Always; e.g., I am enthusiastic about my job, I feel happy when I am working intensely etc.,). The alpha coefficient $\alpha=.88$ in Sample 4 and $\alpha=.94$ in Sample 5.

Organization Citizenship Behaviour

Organization Citizenship Behaviour was assessed using a 9-item scale developed by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994). It consisted of 3 subscales: Helping (3-items), Civic Virtue (3-items) and Sportsmanship (3-items). Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they have engaged in certain behaviour on a 5-point scale (1= Never, 5= Always; e.g., I take steps to try to prevent problems with other personnel in the agency, I attend and actively participate in agency meetings, I always find fault with what the agency is doing etc.,). The alpha coefficient $\alpha=.82$ in Sample 4 and $\alpha=.83$ in Sample 5.

Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect

Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect (EVLN) were assessed using the 12-item scale developed by Farrels, (1983). It consisted of 4 subscales: Exit (3-items), Voice (3-items) Loyalty (3-items) and Neglect (3-items). Respondents were asked to rate how often they have thought about the stated behaviours in the past year on a 5-point scale (1= Never, 5= Always; e.g., Deciding to quit the company, Talking to a supervisor to

try and make things better, Waiting patiently and hoping any problems will solve themselves, Coming in late to avoid problems etc.,). The alpha coefficient $\alpha=.92$ in Sample 4 and $\alpha=.93$ in Sample 5.

Workplace Deviance

Workplace deviance was assessed using the 19-item scale developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000). The items are grouped into organizational (12 items) and interpersonal deviance (7 items) subscales. Respondents are asked to rate their own deviance behaviour on a 5-point scale (1= never, 5= always; e.g., Taken property from work without permission, Neglected to follow boss's instruction, Cursed someone at work etc.,). The alpha coefficient $\alpha=.96$ in Sample 4 and $\alpha=.97$ in Sample 5.

Constructive Deviance Behaviour

Constructive deviance behaviour will be assessed by Galperin's (2002) 16-item measure of organizational, innovative and interpersonal deviance that uses a 5-point scale, on which respondents rate their agreement (1= never, 5=always; e.g., Developed creative solution to problems, Bent a rule to satisfy a customer's need, Disagreed with others in your work group in order to improve the current work procedures etc.,). The alpha coefficient $\alpha=.92$ in Sample 4 and $\alpha=.93$ in Sample 5.

Witness Behaviour towards Workplace Deviance

Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance was measured using the newly developed scale. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they engaged in each of the behaviours during the past year since our focus is on the self-report of the individual. Participants answered the all the item using the 5-point Likert scale (1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=Always; e.g., Wait for someone to confront the person involved in such behaviours, Confront anyone involved in such activities etc.,). The alpha coefficient $\alpha=.79$ in Sample 4 and $\alpha=.77$ in Sample 5.

5.8. Results

5.8.1. Data Preparation

Prior to any statistical analysis, the datasets from the samples were checked for missing data and data normality. Missing data can be an issue in data analysis. Using missing values analysis (MVA) in SPSS, both the level and the pattern of missing data for various samples were analysed. For all samples, results indicated that there were no items with 5% or more missing values. Further, Little's MCAR test (1988) indicates whether the data is missing completely at random. For samples 4 and 5, the statistically non-significant results (sample 4, $p = .10$; sample 5, $p = .11$) indicate the probability that the pattern of missing data diverges from randomness as it is greater than .05 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Thus, it can be inferred that the data point is missing completely at random (MCAR). Overall, given that less than 5% of data was missing in a random pattern in two large datasets, it was not deemed as a serious problem, which would compromise the research findings. The data was also visually examined using histograms to identify any outliers.

5.8.2. Common Method Bias

As discussed in Chapter 4, in this study, measures were taken to address common method variance using both procedural and statistical remedies. Using Harman's single factor test, the variance explained was 20.56% in Sample 4 and 19.87% in Sample 5, which is less than 50% threshold (Eichhorn, 2014). In addition, As in Study 3 latent factor method to control for common method variance was used. For Sample 4 ($N=233$), model 1 fitted the data well ($\chi^2=3293.91$ ($p<.05$), $Df= 2223$, $\chi^2/df= 1.49$, $CFI=.90$, $TLI= .90$, $RMSEA=.05$). However, model 2, also fitted the data well ($\chi^2=3290.25$ ($p<.05$), $Df= 2222$, $\chi^2/df= 1.48$, $CFI=.90$, $TLI= .90$, $RMSEA=.04$) and in fact, fitted a little better than model 1 $\Delta \chi^2 (1, N=233) = 3.66$, $p<.05$ but showed only a small difference and decrease in the overall chi-square value. Calculation of variance revealed that 3.61% was due to the method factor added. In Sample 5 ($N=222$), model 1 fitted the data well ($\chi^2=3578.00$ ($p<.05$), $Df= 2223$, $\chi^2/df= 1.61$, $CFI=.90$, $TLI= .90$, $RMSEA=.05$). However, model 2, also fitted the data well ($\chi^2=3570.20$ ($p<.05$), $Df= 2222$, $\chi^2/df= 1.60$, $CFI=.91$, $TLI= .90$, $RMSEA=.05$) and

in fact, fitted a little better than model 1 $\Delta \chi^2 (1, N=222)= 7.8, p<.05$ but showed only a small difference and decrease in the overall chi-square value. In addition, calculation of variance revealed that 4.0% was due to method factor added less than the 50% threshold. Since inclusion of the method factor had marginal improvement in the fit of the model and accounted for only little variance, thus it is concluded that the method bias had no large effect on the results of the study both in Sample 4 and 5. Therefore, we proceeded on with the next step of analysis.

Discussion regarding various validities is presented below.

5.8.3. Convergent Validity

Table 18 represents the means, standard deviation and correlations between Witness behaviour workplace deviance with organizational citizenship behaviour and exit, voice, loyalty and neglect

TABLE 18
Mean, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Reliability Estimates of
Sample 4

Scales	Mean	SD	1	2	3
1. Overall Witness Behaviour scale	3.43	.72	(.79)		
2. Organizational citizenship behaviour	3.30	.75	.65**	(.82)	
3. EVLN scale	2.65	.98	.57**	.58**	(.91)

Reliability estimates are indicated in parenthesis; ** $p \leq .01$

As can be seen from Table 18, correlations were significant in sample 4. There was a positive correlation between Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance scale and organizational citizenship behaviour ($r = .65, p \leq .01$), the constructs were also taken as a higher order construct to determine the convergent validity with the entire scale rather than just its sub-dimensions. As expected self-serving behaviour had a high correlation with sportsmanship ($r = .55, p \leq .01$) and intervening behaviour had a high correlation with helping ($r = .51, p \leq .01$) and civic virtue ($r = .51, p \leq .01$). In addition, a significant positive high correlation was found between Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance and EVLN measure ($r = .57, p < .01$) as expected self-

serving behaviour had a high correlation with exit ($r=.47$, $p\leq .01$), neglect ($r= .53$, $p\leq .01$) and loyalty ($r=.56$, $p\leq .01$) and intervening behaviour had a high correlation with voice ($r=.43$, $p\leq .01$).

TABLE 19
Mean, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Reliability Estimates of
Sample 5

Scales	Mean	SD	1	2	3
1.Overall witness behaviour scale	3.12	.68	(.77)		
2.Organizational citizenship behaviour	3.14	.69	.58**	(.83)	
3.EVLN scale	2.15	.90	.60**	.55**	(.93)

Reliability estimates are indicated in parenthesis; ** $p\leq .01$

As can be seen from Table 19, correlations were significant in sample 5. There was a positive correlation between Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance scale and organizational citizenship behaviour ($r= .58$, $p\leq .01$) as expected self-serving behaviour had a moderate correlation with sportsmanship ($r=.30$, $p\leq .01$) and intervening behaviour had a high correlation with helping ($r=.55$, $p\leq .01$) and civic virtue ($r=.46$, $p\leq .01$). In addition, a significant positive high correlation was found between Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance and EVLN measure ($r=.60$, $p\leq .01$) as expected self-serving behaviour had moderate to high correlation with exit ($r=.39$, $p\leq .01$), neglect ($r= .41$, $p\leq .01$) and loyalty ($r=.59$, $p\leq .01$) and intervening behaviour had a high correlation with voice ($r=.56$, $p\leq .01$).

Thus proving the convergent validity of the newly developed scale.

5.8.4. Discriminant Validity

CFA analyses were conducted to test for discriminant validity. Table 20 shows the witness behaviour towards workplace deviance and constructive deviance to be distinct.

TABLE 20
Fit Indices of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Testing Discriminant
Validity of the New Scale in Sample 4.

Model	χ^2	Df	χ 2/df	CFI	IFI	TLI	RMSEA
1. Model 1 Witness behaviour Vs. Constructive deviance							
One factor model	1233.80**	230	5.36	.61	.61	.57	.14
Two factor model	461.51**	226	2.04	.91	.91	.90	.06
2. Model 2 Witness behaviour Vs. destructive deviance							
One factor model	1142.53**	299	3.82	.78	.78	.76	.11
Two factor model	496.11**	295	1.68	.95	.95	.94	.05

N=233, **p<=.001; CFI=Comparative Fit Index; IFI=Incremental Fit Index; TLI=Tucker-Lewis Index;; RMSEA= Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation.

From table 20, it can be seen that the two factor model of Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance and constructive deviance behaviour taken separately but as a correlated model fitted the data much better than a one factor model both the factors were taken together. Similarly, the second order model of Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance and destructive deviance behaviour taken separately but as a correlated model fitted the data much better than a one-factor model where both the factors were taken together. Thus proving the discriminant validity of the new scale in Indian Sample.

TABLE 21
Fit Indices of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Testing Discriminant
Validity of the New Scale in Sample 5.

Model	χ^2	Df	χ^2/df	CFI	IFI	TLI	RMSEA
1. Model 1 Witness behaviour Vs. Constructive deviance							
One factor model	1660.53**	230	7.22	.53	.54	.49	.17
Two factor model	523.06**	226	2.32	.90	.90	.90	.07
2. Model 2 Witness behaviour Vs. destructive deviance							
One factor model	1823.42**	299	6.10	.64	.65	.61	.15
Two factor model	660.97**	295	2.24	.91	.92	.91	.07

N=222, **p<=.001; CFI=Comparative Fit Index; IFI=Incremental Fit Index; TLI=Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA= Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation.

From table 21, it can be seen that the two-factor model of Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance and constructive deviance behaviour taken separately but as a correlated model fitted the data much better than a one-factor model where both the factors were taken together. Similarly, the second order model of Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance and destructive deviance behaviour taken separately but as a correlated model fitted the data much better than a one-factor model where both the factors were taken together. Thus proving the discriminant validity of the new scale in US Sample.

Further, the factor loadings for each of the observed variables or in this case first order factors should also be considered along with the fit indices (Farrell & Rudd, 2009). Thus, the new measure was also tested for Fornell and Larcker's (1981) test using the average variance extracted (AVE) where a value of more than 0.5 is considered as acceptable. For both the constructs, the two dimensions exceeded the recommended level and greater than the squared correlation of the related latent constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In sample 4, the data for model 1 met this criteria where p=.05 was exceeded by the AVE (p=.89; p=1.15) and the data for model 2 also met this criteria where p=.05 was exceeded the AVE (p=.89; p=1.16). In sample 5, the data for model 1 met this criteria where p=.10 was exceeded by the AVE (p=.96;

p=1.09) and the data for model 2 also met this criteria where p=.03 was exceeded by the AVE (p=.95, p=1.09).

Thus, both the confirmatory factor analysis with the test of average variance extracted established the discriminant validity between Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance, destructive and constructive deviance behaviour.

5.8.5. Predictive Validity

Table 22 and 23 present the means, standard deviation and correlations between Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance, affective commitment, work engagement and job satisfaction in sample 4 and 5.

TABLE 22
Mean, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Reliability Estimates of Sample 4

Scales	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Overall Witness behaviour scale	3.43	.72	(.79)			
2. Affective commitment	4.04	.69	.34**	(.90)		
3. Work engagement	3.82	.81	.42**	.54**	(.88)	
4. Job satisfaction	4.00	.80	.28**	.78**	.48**	(.89)

TABLE 23
Mean, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Reliability Estimates of Sample 5

Scales	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Overall Witness behaviour scale	3.13	.68	(.77)			
2. Affective commitment	3.88	.93	.36**	(.95)		
3. Work engagement	3.36	.97	.52**	.60**	(.94)	
4. Job satisfaction	3.83	.97	.36**	.89**	.63**	(.91)

As expected, the correlation between Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance revealed a positive relationship with affective commitment to organization and toward colleagues, work engagement and job satisfaction. This was because the self-serving behaviour would lead to an individual's acceptance in his team and more

focused on his own performance irrespective of others while the intervening behaviour would make him more committed towards his organization as he is engaging in activities that would reduce deviance. Thus, the intervening behaviour was more positively related ($p=.40$, $p= .45$, $p= .34$; $p\leq .01$) than self-serving behaviour ($p=.16$, $p= .28$, $p= .12$; $p\leq .01$) in sample 4 and intervening behaviour was more positively related ($p=.39$, $p= .51$, $p= .36$; $p\leq .01$) than self-serving behaviour ($p=.14$, $p= .26$, $p= .18$; $p\leq .01$) in sample 5.

5.8.6. Generalisability

A multigroup confirmatory factor analysis (MGCFA) was used to explore the generalisability of the measurement model (more discussion on MGCFA in Chapter 8). It is an extension of confirmatory factor analysis where invariance of estimated parameters of a model is tested across two groups (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002) and in this case, India and the USA. First, a two-factor second order model was estimated in which all parameters were set free across two samples (Sample 4 and 5). Second, in model 1 all the parameters were set free, followed by model 2 in which all the factor loadings were constrained across the two groups. In model 3, the variances of the factors were fixed to be the same and in model 4, the covariance and variance of the error terms were constrained to be the same. Thus, these tests provide a test for measurement equivalence across two groups.

TABLE 24
Fit Indices for Multigroup Analysis

Model	χ^2	Df	χ^2/df	CFI	IFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1	82.65**	36	2.30	.96	.97	.93	.05
Model 2	94.22**	43	2.24	.96	.96	.93	.05
Model 3	111.28**	54	2.21	.95	.95	.94	.05
Model 4	125.35**	63	2.59	.95	.95	.94	.06

As depicted in table 24, fit indices, for each model suggested that second order measurement model for Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance had acceptable fit in both the groups. To establish measurement invariance across two groups, the difference in RMSEA values should have a change of $\leq .010$ or $.015$

(Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). The change in the RMSEA between model 1 and each of the competing models (model 2; model 3 and model 4) were all 0.01 or less thus suggesting that all models are practically equal in terms of empirical fit, thus providing some evidence for generalizability of the newly developed scale.

5.9. Conclusion

Thus, the aim of this chapter was to explore and determine the construct and criteria-related validity of the newly developed Witness behaviour towards deviance scale. Chapter 4 established initial face validity followed by structural validity in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 further established the convergent, discriminant and predictive validity of the newly developed scale. The generalisability of the scale through multi-group confirmatory factor analysis proved the second order structure of Witness behaviour towards the workplace deviance scale. Thus, this concludes the development and validity of the scale, which can be used in further analysis.

The next chapter will discuss the conceptual framework developed from a review of previous studies and the theoretical grounding of that model.

Chapter 6

Development of a model to Test the Individual Perception of Organizational and Individual Determinants of Workplace Destructive and Constructive Deviance with Culture as a Moderator.

Overview

This chapter aims to provide rationale for the development of a theoretical framework. One of the aims of the present research is to develop a model to address the gaps found in the extant literature. It consists of three parts: first described is the importance of organizational climate and the developed scale to determine individual behaviour. Then the need to test for the cultural orientation of an individual and its inclusion in the model is explained. Finally, the theoretical lens used in the study is explained.

6.1. Introduction

Individuals derive their identities from their workplace and express different behaviours as a consequence of individuals, organizations and society (Hulin, 2002). According to Case (2000), activities such as fraud and theft were common in organizations and Diefendorff and Mehta (2007) estimated that workplace deviance results in 20% of business failure and annual loss of \$6-\$200 billion in US organizations. Coffin (2003) also stated that 33% to 75% employees engage in deviant activities like withdrawal, theft, production deviance, abusing co-workers etc., thus leading to more and more studies concentrated on Western countries. However, the economic recession and its related financial impacts on many Western countries have resulted in an increase in American jobs being outsourced to Asian countries. The main reasons are to obtain experts at low cost, which is a common practice among MNC's to improve their profit (Prasso, 2007). But according to 2014's report to the nations report and Kroll's global fraud survey, 2014 Asian countries also have a high percentage of loss amounting to \$20 billion next to the USA and Africa. Most of the cases examined in the reports included theft of physical assets, asset misappropriation and financial statement fraud, which can be used to measure deviance behaviour. In Asia, Japan, China, Hong Kong and Malaysia have been researched in workplace

deviance literature but studies in India are very scarce though the 14th global fraud survey of misconduct and integrity results show a high number of Indian employees reporting misconduct in their organizations. Also according to Pradhan and Pradhan (2014) theft, fraud, sabotage, information theft, rude behaviours were suspected to be growing in Indian workplaces. It has been reported that 69% of Indian companies have been affected by damage to physical assets, insider fraud, information fraud, money laundering, corruption and bribery. Among these, it has been reported that 33% of the companies suffer theft of physical assets and 41% of US companies are affected by employee fraudulent acts according to the global economic crime survey by PWC in 2014 (www.pwc.com/CRIMESURVEY).

On the other hand, the success of organizations in Asia has led to many Western countries adopting their work practice, which has increased their dependence on work groups (Ilgen et al., 1993). Though deviant behaviours were likely to be discouraged in collectivistic cultures since there is pressure to conform to the group norms (Triandis et al., 1988), the above surveys show evidence that Asian countries are also equally involved in deviance behaviours leading to economic loss. Thus proving that the behaviour of the people involved plays an important role in business's effectiveness as individual's behaviour belonging to the same culture varies (Migliore, 2011). Thus comes into play the diversity of Indian culture where individual personality varies with the influence of work values.

So the present study aims to measure cultural orientation (individualism and collectivism) by assessing both US and Indian employees rather than just assuming individuals from these two countries to be individualistic (US) and collectivistic (India) thus considering within-group difference also at individual level. Previous research on workplace deviance has concentrated on the impact of organizational (justice, trust, culture, ethical climate, organizational stressors, task structure), work (powerlessness, stress) and individual determinants (negative affectivity, impulsivity, frustration) on destructive deviant behaviours (Chirasha & Mahappa, 2012; Cullen & Sacket, 2003; Appelbaum et al., 2005; Fagbohunge et al., 2012; Henle, 2005). It is defined as, "a voluntary behaviour that violates organizational norms and in doing so threatens the well-being of the organization and its employees" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556). But, very few studies have concentrated on factors (personality,

Machiavellianism, culture, role, breath, self-efficacy) that determine constructive deviance behaviours (Bodankin & Tziner, 2009; Galperin, 2002) which is a “voluntary behaviour that violates organizational norms and in doing so contributes towards organizational and individual well-being” (Galperin, 2002, p. 9). Though the importance in studying destructive deviance to prevent economic loss is well known, studies have not found the effect of the same factor on both destructive and constructive deviance. Thus, the present study focuses on the determinants that have not been researched yet and would result in both negative and positive behaviour, thus contributing to deviance literature. And, as explained in Chapter 1, very few studies have concentrated on the effects of the climate and no studies so far have focused on the effects of Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance on destructive and constructive deviance behaviour.

6.2. Framework and Theoretical Perspective

The present research uses social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977a) as the theoretical lens. Social cognitive theory describes the interactions between a person and their situation (Mischel, 1973). This theory focuses on how individuals interpret and respond to various situations. According to Davis and Powell (1992), individuals and their environment are said to influence each other. SCT explains a triadic relationship where the individual psychological factor, their environment and the behaviour they engage in, are determinants that influence each other, but not simultaneously (Bandura, 1977a). It was also determined that employees might behave based on their observation of others which then leads to self-corrective judgements and improvement in self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977b). The past research on deviance literature has separately examined deviance behaviour with respect to the environment of the individuals (Peterson, 2002; Applebaum, Deguire & Lay, 2005) or their personality within the organizational culture (Judge & Cable, 1997) but all of these three variables were not examined together (Bodankin & Tziner, 2009). Thus, the present study aims to fill in this gap by making use of the social cognitive theoretical lens in analysing the theoretical framework.

The cognitive social theory enhances the interaction between the organizational factors and the individual factors (Henle, 2005). This theory indicates how the personality of an individual influences the way in which he or she infers and reacts to the diverse organizational situations. The interaction between the situation and the individual relies on the interpretation of the person. A previous study by Jacobson (2009) stressed that organizational context cannot be ignored by the individual difference and thus, this theory determines the need to understand that individual related factors influence workplace deviance. This theory distinguishes three different agencies: direct personal, proxy and collective agency. In personal agency, individuals “bring their influence to bear directly on themselves and their environment in managing their lives” (Bandura, 2002: 270). In other modes, situations where individuals do not have control over conditions that affect their everyday life they seek expertise to secure the outcomes they desire. The contribution of all these three modes will vary according to the individual. Thus, the organizational climate is taken as an environmental factor that an individual has no control over and individual cultural orientation is taken as a personality factor that would influence his behavioural outcome. This perspective stems from focusing on the forethought capability of an individual where “employees plan their actions, anticipate the contingent consequences and determine the level of desired performance” (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003, p. 129). The self-serving and intervening behaviour of an individual is taken as a personality variable that when influenced by individualistic or collectivistic orientation of the self would result in deviance outcomes. This makes use of the self-reflective capability of an individual where employees “reflect back on their actions and perceptually determine how strongly they believe they can successfully accomplish the task in the future given the context” (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003, p. 129).

Based on the social cognitive theory we propose that an individual’s capability to involve in deviance behaviour would be increased, based on the reflective capability of the individual. Thus, it is conceptualised that an increase in organizational climate can reduce destructive deviance on one hand and increase constructive deviance on the other. Engaging in self-serving behaviours would increase destructive deviance and constructive deviance. In addition, engaging in intervening behaviours would increase

constructive deviance and decrease destructive deviance. These relationships are also hypothesised to be moderated by individualistic and collectivistic orientation of the individual.

6.3. Antecedents of Workplace Deviance Behaviour

The next section would describe the framework and hypothesis suggesting the organization climate and Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance with destructive and constructive deviance behaviour given individual cultural orientation.

6.3.1. Organizational Climate

Organizational climate was defined as properties of an individual's work environment that is directly or indirectly perceived by employees working in that environment influencing their behaviour (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). Climate is a wide array of organizational and perceptual variables that reflect individual-organizational interactions (Howe, 1977). According to Peterson (2002), climate is a factor that has the most significant effect on the behaviour of the employees as it influences their attitude and behaviour. Employee perceptions of climate prevailing in the organization have also paved way to understand employees and their behaviours (Holloway, 2012; Riggle, 2007). This work environment would have significant consequences on both the organization and individual as the climate is expected to affect the employee motivation, behaviour and attitudes, which in turn predict organization's productivity (Adenike, 2011). Due to its effect on the organization, it has been a topic of increased research both theoretically and empirically over the last few decades (Dawson et al., 2008). Workplace negative and positive deviance is a violation of organizational norms and it has been found that an organization would define behaviours that it believes to be improper; what is wrong in one organization might not be wrong in another organization. According to Mars (1983), the organizations should expect to have at least minor forms of deviant behaviour.

An individual employee's perception of their work environment can lead to an assessment of the organizational well-being (Kanten & Ulker, 2013). The individual observations taken together would serve as aggregate data that would describe the

performance of the organization and how it treats its employees (Giles, 2010). It is believed to be the functional link that relates employees and their work environment (Scheuer, 2010) as it defines their shared perception about work environment (Jones & James, 1979; Schneider, 1975). Organizational climate includes perceptions of reward systems, support, warm working conditions, autonomy, structure and risk, and conflict dimensions (Giles, 2010) which would influence the employee to behave either positively or negatively (Kanter, 1988). Previous research has been carried out in organizational climate literature linking it with positive behaviours like innovative behaviour, organizational citizenship behaviour and negative behaviour like counterproductive work behaviour (Fagbohunge et al., 2012; Scheuer, 2010; Wolf et al., 2012). However, more studies were focused on ethical climate rather than the work climate.

Previous studies in theft and other counterproductive behaviours have suggested the effective role of organizational climate in reducing deviant behaviour (Hollinger et al., 1992; Jones & Boye, 1995). Kamp and Brooks (1991) suggested that when the climate of the organization is strict towards deviant employee behaviour, then employees restrain themselves from becoming involved in such behaviour. In addition, the perceived severity of sanctions for an individual's behaviour from the management and co-worker were found to be strongly related to an individual's involvement in counterproductive behaviour (Hollinger & Clark, 1982).

When climate is focused on achieving organizational goals, ignoring employee well-being, then employees are more prone to indulge in negative behaviour (Vardi, 2001). And, studies so far have concentrated on the relationship between organizational climate and negative and positive behaviours from exchange and justice perception i.e. when employees perceive the support of the organization and feel as part of the company then they tend to become involved in less negative behaviours to enhance organizational well-being so in turn they are benefited (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Kanten & Ulker, 2013). Their feeling of satisfaction with their organization would curb behaviours like lateness, sabotaging, taking excessive breaks and refraining from becoming involved in behaviours that would cause damage to fellow employees (Kanten & Ulker, 2013).

Considering all the previous studies, the present study proposes to determine the effect of organizational climate on individual and organizational destructive deviant behaviours with the perspective that an organizational climate being supportive, warm and structured, would result in less destructive deviance on the part of the individual. This perspective stems from the view that a supportive environment would lead to a decrease in an individual's involvement in deviance (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Biron, 2010). This study is concentrating on only the individual experience in his organization and his involvement in deviance, taking into account his own cognitive process as a base for deciding to become involved or not in deviance with his self-interest and well-being in mind.

Therefore, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H1: Organizational climate is negatively related to a) organizational and b) interpersonal destructive deviance behaviour.

As the nature of organizations have become flexible, decentralised, global and more oriented towards individual performance (Parker & Collins, 2010) it has become important for employees to be innovative in how they could perform their work (Madjar et al., 2011). In addition, this would sometimes lead to employees deviating from norms of the organizations thus contributing to organizational effectiveness (Galperin, 2003; Warren, 2003). When the climate is perceived to be more supportive socially and emotionally, the level of positive deviance activities is said to be high (Kidwell & Valentine, 2009) and employees are more likely to become involved in innovative behaviour when they are faced with unforeseen problems (Wolf et al., 2012). An organizational climate where individuals feel comfortable would result in innovative behaviours (Boschma & ter Wal, 2007; Wang et al., 2010). Vandewalle et al., (1995) has also suggested that when an individual experiences a greater sense of autonomy then the intention to engage in extra-role behaviours like constructive deviance is more. Also, the control provided in one's work would be a strong predictor of an individual's initiative-taking behaviour of constructive deviance (Frese et al., 2007). In a similar way, supervisor support has also been found to be related to constructive deviance in such a way that when supervisors give fair considerations

towards the ideas of employees, they tend to behave in a positively deviant manner (Detert & Burris, 2007). Therefore, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H2: Organizational climate is positively related to a) innovative b) challenging and c) interpersonal constructive deviance behaviour.

6.3.2. Witness Behaviour Towards Workplace Deviance Behaviour

Direct observation of an event will lead to an individual making his own interpretation of the activity. Porath and Erez (2009) suggested that witnessing interpersonal deviance might prime the interpretation of that individual which may affect peers. Direct observation of an activity provides cues about acceptable behaviour in a work environment (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Over time, individuals may perceive that deviance as appropriate and even commendable, thus leading to less resistance against activities that are against the norms of the organization (Bandura, 1973; Wheeler & Caggiula, 1966). Members look up to their colleagues to determine which behaviours are acceptable in order to advance in the organization (Festinger, 1954). Also, witnessing activities that are against the norms of the organization might result in an individual refraining from becoming involved in such activities as they have witnessed the emotions of the target of such negative behaviour (Kelly & Barsade, 2001). Several studies have concentrated on bystander intervention focusing on the severity of the behaviour on the victim (Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005; Salmivalli et al., 2011) and the present study focuses on the witness's behavioural response to organizational and interpersonal deviance. The following section would describe the hypothesised relationship between self-serving and intervening behaviour with workplace destructive and constructive deviance. The effect of deviance on witness or observers is important, as it would result in individuals having a diverse response to such behaviour based on his evaluation of such deviant activities. Thus, the study proposes to determine the relationship between Witness behaviour of individuals with workplace deviance. The aim is to determine the self-serving and intervening behavioural effect on workplace destructive and constructive deviance instead of witness behaviour being taken as a whole as, understanding the individual

relationship of each factor within the construct would enhance the knowledge of the newly developed scale and its relationship with deviance.

6.3.2.1. Self-Serving Behaviour

From previous research, it is well known that interpersonal deviance harms the target individual or the organization but it is also important to determine how these actions would affect the people who witness these behaviours (Cortina et al., 2001). It may result in acceptance of deviance behaviour or it may become a culture among the members of work groups (Ferguson & Barry, 2011) where the behaviour of the particular group is such that deviance is accepted. Group cohesion creates a culture where deviance behaviour is accepted and seen as part of the group (Ferguson & Barry, 2011). Peer affiliations are known to have different effects on group members as these groups are based on the perception that members of the group have similar beliefs (Bukowski, Sippola, & Newcomb, 2000). Individual members are often known to change their behaviours to be close to their peer group's norms and attitudes (Ojala & Nesdale, 2004). Over time, this may result in members becoming similar to one another (Brown, 1988).

Deviance behaviour of a group has been positively related to the behaviour of an individual member (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998), as individual members who witness deviance behaviour may feel pressured to behave in a similar manner to become part of their group (Festinger, 1954, Warren, 2003). Witnessing interpersonal deviance in the organization would result in work withdrawal, decreased self-esteem, dissatisfaction with job, co-workers and supervisors (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004; Low et al., 2007), that would increase workplace deviance (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Alias et al., 2012) ultimately affecting the organizational well-being. Multiple witnesses to behaviour can typically result in a bystander effect where none of them feel personally responsible, thus expecting actions to be taken by someone else (Darley & Latane, 1968) resulting in more negative deviance in an organizational setting.

Being a witness to any act of incivility may result in an individual experiencing negative affectivity as his main concern is his own self (Truss, 2005). In addition, when observing hostility being directed to others, that might have an impact on the behavioural outcomes of the individual itself as he does not want to become another

victim (Porath & Erez, 2009), resulting in frustration, stress and job dissatisfaction (Johan Hauge et al., 2007; Vartia, 2001). Previous studies were concentrated on rudeness and mistreatment of others from a fairness perspective (Harris et al., 2007; Pearson & Porath, 2005). The present study focuses on the relationship between self-serving behaviours and involvement in destructive deviance directed towards the organization and individuals from an individual cognitive perspective. Therefore, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H3: Self-serving behaviour is positively related to a) organizational destructive and b) interpersonal deviance behaviour.

Porath and Erez (2007, 2009) suggested that while witnessing interpersonal deviance, an individual would engage in fewer organizational citizenship behaviours. This was focused on rudeness observed between a superior and a subordinate and was attributed to a reduction in helping behaviour, as it would benefit the supervisors. Just as witnessing negative behaviours lead to increase of an individual's involvement in negative deviance it may also result in him involving in deviance that may benefit the organization (Warren, 2003). However, as we propose self-serving individuals to be more concerned about the self than others (Frijda, 1993), it would be possible that these individuals would involve themselves in constructive deviance too. This could be because these individuals would have friends in that organization and would like to help out their friends (Bowler & Brass, 2006) and as being a team player is important to these individuals (Hollinger, 1986) they might get involved in challenging constructive behaviour to help their team which in turn would benefit the organization. Also, giving more importance to their own career, being involved in constructive deviance would benefit them through high innovative performance resulting in career advancement (see Seibert et al., 2001). We propose all this from the assessment that self-serving individuals become involved in deviance with their own self-interest in mind, which could also have an effect on constructive deviance, as he is lenient towards accepting behaviours that deviate from organizational norms. Therefore, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H4: Self-serving behaviour is positively related to a) innovative b) challenging and c) interpersonal constructive deviance behaviour.

6.3.2.2. *Intervening Behaviour*

According to Darley and Latane's (1968) the key steps for an individual to decide to act against a behaviour would involve noticing the behaviour and labelling it to be a problem where help is needed, taking responsibility in deciding what actions to take and feeling that one has the skills necessary for taking actions and to do it safely. This bystander intervention is not a new concept and has been used in different contexts and situations from classroom bullying to social control behaviours. And an important factor to weigh in are the positives and negatives across these steps (Dozier & Miceli, 1985) which would be further supported by the role of peer and wider social context factor towards intervener behaviour (Wyatt & Carlo, 2002). Also, it has been found that during an event of deviance, the witness first determines how the behaviour is discrepant from his personal norms so as to label the behaviour as inappropriate and report it (Kidd, 1979).

Research has determined that individuals in a group are less tolerant to deviant behaviours of individuals within their group than those who are out-group, as it affects the social identity of members (Marques & Yzerbyt, 1988, Chekroun & Nugier, 2005). The group norm is an important aspect that is to be considered while deciding to take actions against a particular behaviour. Some groups may oppose behaviours like whistle blowing as it may disrupt the group and violate the obligation and loyalty of the member towards that group whereas some may even oppose reporting or taking actions against a particular behaviour as they are benefited from engaging in or overlooking such behaviours (Graham, 1984; Near & Miceli, 1984). Thus, the factors that are known to affect an individual's intent to react or report particular behaviour are group characteristics, the member's characteristics and various situational characteristics (Greenberg et al., 1987). The direct knowledge of deviance by observers can also determine the effect it has on them. Salmivalli and colleagues (1996) studied a similar phenomenon where they used the term 'defenders' for those individuals who take the side of the victim to comfort and support them while being a witness to school level bullying. According to Ferguson and Barry (2011), direct observation of deviance resulted in a decrease in interpersonal deviance indulgence by observers and this was believed to be the experience of target's emotions by the observer (Kelly & Barsade, 2001). This may result in an individual trying to help the

victim (Banyard, 2008). We believe that the individuals would restrain themselves from engaging in negative deviance as they are trying to curb such behaviours. Therefore, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H5: Intervening behaviour is negatively related to a) organizational and b) interpersonal destructive deviance behaviour.

According to Porath & Erez (2007, 2009), an individual who witnesses interpersonal deviance would engage in less organizational citizenship behaviour due to the fear of them being the next target. But several studies have suggested that individuals are also concerned with others' well-being (see Kollock, 1998) as they have an innate concern for others (Ostrom, 1998). Witnessing unfair treatment of others also resulted in an increase in anger and irritation (De Cremer & Van Hiel, 2006) as they believe that all individuals deserve respect from others (Vidmar, 2000). Interveners are individuals who decide to take actions against a norm, breaking negative behaviours and such individuals would be more prone to become involved in positive deviance to bring about a change in the organization and individuals working in it. This stems from the suggestions of Settoon and Mossholder (2002) regarding interpersonal citizenship behaviour where an individual would come up with innovative suggestions to resolve an issue or become involved in behaviour that is voluntary keeping in mind the benefit of the target. The involvement in positive behaviours would help an individual's friend working within the organization and overall the organization's performance (Bowler & Brass, 2006). Therefore, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H6: Intervening behaviour is positively related to a) innovative b) challenging and c) interpersonal constructive deviance behaviour.

6.3.3. Individualism and Collectivism

Culture is defined as “the integrated, complex set of interrelated and potentially interactive patterns characteristic of a group of people” (Lytle et al., 1995: 170). Individualism and collectivism are considered the major dimensions of culture that would explain similarities and differences in behaviour of individuals (Hofstede, 1980;

Triandis, 1988, 1995). Markus and Kitayama (1991) distinguished the independent and interdependent self, based on the relationship between the individual and the group (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1995). Triandis et al., (1988, p. 324) noted that “an essential attribute of collectivist cultures is that individuals may be induced to subordinate their personal goals to the goals of some collective...and much of the behaviour of individuals may concern goals that are consistent with the goals of this in-group...in individualist cultures demands by in-groups on individual contributions are highly segmented”. Individualism and collectivism are some of the complex concepts both theoretically and empirically. This dimension is often used to describe and predict differences in attitudes, values, behaviours, socialization and individual self-concept (see Oyserman et al., 2002). Hofstede (1980) described only individualism and suggested that the opposite of individualism is collectivism, treating them as opposite poles of a continuum scale. This is a widely preferred approach for extensive international comparisons (Taras et al., 2010). Previous research on individualism and collectivism discriminates cultural and national groups (Fiske et al., 1998; Hofstede, 2001; Triandis, 1995). Additionally, several scholars have used individualistic traits/ idiocentrism to characterise individuals from Western Context (Australia, North America) and collectivist traits/ allocentrism to describe non-Western (Asian, African) personalities. Individualism is attributed to independence, autonomy, achievement orientation and uniqueness whereas collectivism is associated with interdependence with others in the group and conformity of group norms. In cross-cultural psychology, several studies have used the nation or ethnic groups as an entity of culture, neglecting the within cultural variation treating culture as a homogeneous unit (Morales et al., 2000; Smith & Bond, 1998).

However, a meta-analysis done by Oyserman et al., (2002) showed individualism and collectivism should be tested separately given that they are loosely correlated dimensions, suggesting that both individualism and collectivism exists in every society. This would in turn be expected to influence the psychological process of an individual. Green et al., (2005) suggested that individualism and collectivism should also be studied at an individual level and not only at cross-cultural or inter-individual level. This is because individualist and collectivist attitudes are not mutually exclusive (Kim, 1994; Kim et al., 1994; Triandis 1995; Triandis et al., 1986). This was further

supported by Singelis (1994) where the individuals were known to have both independent and interdependent self-constructs i.e. individual personality was characterised by both high or low individualism and collectivism at the same time (Taras et al., 2009) and were known to show this variation in different types of relationships (see Matsumoto et al., 1997).

Culture is often referred as a group level construct that would differentiate one group from another. Kozlowski and Klien (2000) discussed that a group construct is said to possess any of the three types of properties: Global, shared and configural. Global property is objective and represents characteristics that are not from the individual group member perception e.g., GDP. Shared property represents behaviours of the individual within the group and their common experiences or perceptions and the literature on culture has widely assumed the shared property when studying about a nation. Finally, the configural property is the same as shared but does not have a consensual element where individuals within a group may have different values. Thus, suggesting that individual's characteristics play an important role in determining the cultural aspects of an organization (Earley, 1993; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Researchers have also found considerable within nation differences on cultural dimensions (Strauss & Quinn, 1997) suggesting the configural nature of culture. In a cross-cultural study (United States Vs Peru) by Marshall and Boush (2001) it was found that overtime manager's cooperative behaviours were influenced by the relationship and peer personal characteristics than by his country. Tsui et al., (2007) pointed out that future research is required to develop the role of culture for individuals, thus supporting the configural nature of culture in cross-cultural studies. Thus, when studying cross-national convergence, it is suggested that individualism and collectivism can also be assessed at an individual level (Oyserman et al., 2002). Taking into account the various approaches suggested in extant literature, the present study will take individualism and collectivism as separate dimensions to determine the behavioural outcome within the cultures and across cultures. Thus, the focus of the present study is to analyse the moderating role of culture at the individual level by measuring cultural orientation in both India and the USA and its influence of organizational climate and Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance behaviours.

Individualism

Individualism emphasizes individual identity over group identity, thus individuals have an “I” identity over “We” (Triandis, 1995). The roots of these are found in the different perceptions of the self, considering personal interest more important than the groups, looking out for himself and focusing on personal goal attainment. The independent self’s identity is derived only from the individual’s inner attributes, which are considered to reflect the individual’s essence, and is found to be stable across the context and time and is unique to an individual (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Research focusing on ethics has shown that an individualist would be more likely to become involved in unethical behaviour (Robertson & Fadil, 1999). However, given the self-importance of an individualist and their career (Noordin et al., 2002) they would refrain from become involved in negative deviance when they feel the organizational climate to be supportive, fair and rewarding, as this would affect their own identity within the organization and personal outcomes. In addition, an individualist would become involved in constructive deviance to stand out among others in their work when they feel the support of the organization and rewards for achievement.

H7a: Individualism will moderate the relationship between organization climate and destructive organizational and interpersonal deviance behaviour as high individualistic orientation will strengthen the relationship while low individualistic orientation will weaken the relationship.

H7b: Individualism will moderate the relationship between organization climate and constructive deviance behaviours as high individualistic orientation will strengthen the relationship while low individualistic orientation will weaken the relationship.

An individual who gives more importance to himself would have a strong need to belong to the group and focus more on his own career than others. Being an individualist would lead him to become involved in less destructive deviance as his own performance is important to him and would make decision regarding a behaviour based on their own achievement without a moral consideration (Khatri et al., 2006). He would also be expected to become involved in more constructive deviance as

becoming involved in high innovative performance would result in career advancement (see Seibert et al., 2001). In addition, an individual would become involved in intervening behaviour, as the direct observation of deviance would result in decrease in interpersonal deviance indulgence by observers as they observe the experience of target's emotions (Ferguson & Barry, 2011; Kelly & Barsade, 2001). An individualist would resist peer pressures to conform to group norms and take a stance for their own views when they face opposition (Nemeth, 1985), thus engaging in less destructive deviance and more constructive deviance. Thus, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H8a: Individualism will moderate the relationship between i. Self-serving and ii. Intervening behaviour and destructive organizational and interpersonal deviance behaviour as high individualistic orientation will weaken the relationship for self-serving behaviour and strengthen the relationship for intervening behaviour.

H8b: Individualism will moderate the relationship between i. Self-serving and ii. Intervening behaviour and constructive deviance behaviours as high individualistic orientation will strengthen the relationship while low individualistic orientation will weaken the relationship.

Collectivism

According to Triandis (1995) the conceptualization of collectivism is from an individual level. It is characterized by belongingness, interdependence, and serving to in-group wishes (Triandis, Leung, Villareal, & Clark, 1985). There are four attributes of collectivism: individual perception of themselves, their relation with others, the structure of their goals, and determinants of social behaviour. Interdependence is the core of collectivism (Fischer et al., 2009), thus resulting in an individual giving up his own preferences to cater to the needs of the group (Triandis, 1995).

Previous studies have focused on the effects of collectivism on workgroup atmospheres, job characteristics, job satisfaction, job commitment and turnover

intentions (Huang & Van de Vilert, 2003; Parker et al., 2003; Ramamoorthy et al., 2007; Wasti, 2003). Huang and Van deVilert (2003) found that job characteristics and job satisfaction are significantly related in less collectivistic countries, while examining the moderating role of collectivism in 49 nations. Various cultures are known to have various levels of collectivism (Realo, Allik & Vadi, 1997; Rhee et al., 1996), suggesting that organizational members should, to a certain degree, have “We” identities to achieve organizational tasks. The effects of collectivism on commitment, effort and tenure was examined by Ramamoorthy, Kulkarni, Gupta and Flood (2007) which showed Indians (Collectivists) were more committed and demonstrated extra effort on the job than Irish employees (non-collectivists) at the individual level and their findings demonstrate the important role of collectivism in influencing work outcomes. As behaviour plays an important role in determining the effectiveness of the business, collectivism is predicted to influence climate perceptions, thus influencing employee work outcome (Migliore, 2011; Presbitero & Langford, 2013).

The individual cultural value is said to influence expectations of an individual towards his job (Hui, 1990). Collectivists are known to pay more attention to the organizational treatment of co-workers to decide how much they care about and value their contribution (Eisenberger et al., 2002) and they base their opinion on the others close to them. Collectivistic individuals give higher priority to team interest than their personal interest (Earley, 1994). In the study conducted by Tan et al., (2003) to determine cultural effect on reporting bad news regarding a project, it was found that even when the climate of the organization is favourable in reporting bad news, an individual may refrain from reporting unless it is beneficial to the team. Thus, people with high collectivistic orientation pay more attention to the needs of others than those with high individualistic orientation. Collectivists are known to engage in more self-regulation leading to a decrease in workplace deviance (Liu et al., 2009). When determining the individual views on climate perceptions, it has been found that the emphasis placed on fairness varies across cultures and the cultural value of the individual (Erdogan & Liden, 2006; Mueller & Wynn, 2000). When they experience more support from the organization, they may become involved in less destructive deviance taking into account the group well-being i.e. if individuals in the group or the organization would be affected by their involvement in deviance, then they would not

become involved in such activities. Conversely, when they experience less support or no reward from the organization, collectivists may still involve in less destructive behaviour, as it is not in congruence with the organizational norms. As collectivist values the strong interpersonal relationship within the in-group (Kim et al., 1994); their involvement in innovative and challenging behaviours would also be less as they do not want to stand out as “deviant”, giving importance to self-achievements and personal interest.

To date, no study has determined the effect of collectivism on the relationship between climate and deviance and the present study proposes to do this. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed.

H9a: Collectivism will moderate the relationship between organizational climate and destructive organizational and interpersonal deviance behaviour as high collectivistic orientation will strengthen the relationship while low collectivistic orientation will weaken the relationship.

H9b: Collectivism will moderate the relationship between organization climate and constructive deviance behaviours, as high collectivistic orientation will weaken the relationship while low collectivistic orientation will strengthen the relationship.

An individual focused on himself would feel a strong need to conform to group norms and accept the violation of organizational norms. His collectivistic orientation would lead him to become involved in destructive deviance where being part of the group or organization is important to him. An individual would also become involved in constructive deviance as their involvement in constructive deviance would benefit the team and hence their position with the team by being a team player (Hollinger, 1986). In addition, an individual who becomes involved in intervening behaviour would place an emphasis on other’s well-being and being a collectivist might lead him to become involved in less destructive deviance as being involved in negative deviance would bring harm to the group they belong. They are also expected to become involved in less constructive deviance as being an intervener they might deem being involved

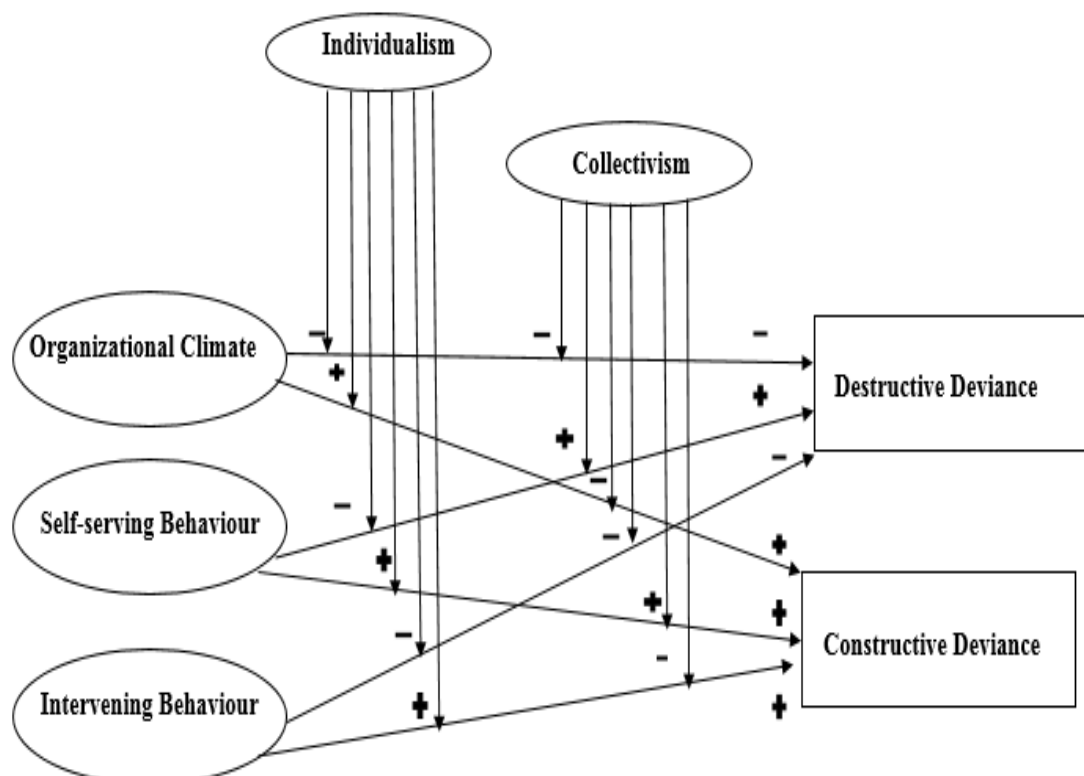
in any form of deviance as not acceptable by the team they belong (Banyard, 2008), thus the following hypothesis is suggested:

H10a: Collectivism will moderate the relationship between i. Self-serving and ii. Intervening behaviour and destructive organizational and interpersonal deviance behaviour as high collectivistic orientation will strengthen the relationship for self-serving and intervener behaviour.

H10b: Collectivism will moderate the relationship between i. Self-serving and ii. Intervening behaviour and constructive deviance behaviours as high collectivistic orientation will strengthen the relationship for self-serving behaviour and weaken the relationship for intervening behaviour.

The hypothesised model is depicted in Figure 7.

**FIGURE 7
Hypothesised Model**



6.4. Gaps Addressed

The research addresses the gaps in deviance and cross-cultural literature. First, this study adds to the literature by adopting a multi-group cross-country perspective such that it addresses the integrated nature of environment, individual personality and culture in influencing behavioural outcomes (Chiu, Ng, & Au, 2013). The purpose of the multi-group analysis is to determine the between group differences at an individual level (see Tsui et al., 2007). The effect of individual cultural orientation as a moderator would help to determine the within and across individual culture differences, thus contributing to deviance literature. To examine cultural differences, psychological meaningful situations within and across cultures are important (Hong et al., 2000; Oyserman et al., 2009) and in this study it is the relationship between the climate and witness behaviours with deviance behaviour, with individualism and collectivism as the cognitive content.

Second, the study also addresses the call for research using social cognitive theory by testing the relationship between environment, personality and behavioural outcomes through empirical analysis in deviance literature (Kanten & Ulker, 2013).

Finally, it adds to the extant workplace deviance literature by testing a theoretical model by implementing destructive and constructive deviance in the same study so that the organizations would benefit from the research by concentrating on the research outcomes to reduce negative deviance and enhance positive deviance.

6.5. Conclusion

Thus, the aim of this chapter was to introduce the conceptual model developed based on past literature, justifying the theoretical basis of the model. The next chapter explains the research design, procedure, measures and data analysis involving multi-group structural equation modelling to explain the fit of the model.

Chapter 7

STUDY 5

Testing the Theoretical Model Developed

Overview

The previous chapter discussed the conceptual framework that is hypothesised to be tested. The purpose of the present chapter is to describe the rationale of methods used in the research. It starts with describing the research paradigm and the strategy used in the study. The research design and context of the study is described along with the measures used to test the model. Finally, the SEM analysis is described.

7.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to provide a detailed overview of the research context, samples, methodology chosen and the analysis involved in testing the theoretical model developed for Study 5. It aims to test the various hypotheses based on the theoretical grounding described in chapter one taking a positivist quantitative approach.

7.2. Research Context

A research context proposes a framework to study the attitude and behaviour of employees. Previous studies have concentrated on determining the relationship of justice, leadership, job characteristics, situational factors and job satisfaction on workplace deviance either negative or positive. Yet no study till date has focused on the effect of individual cultural orientation on these behaviours, despite few studies emphasising the importance of culture on workplace deviance (Rogojan, 2009). Researchers have also focused on analysing the effect of organizational factors on deviance behaviour negative/positive or individual factors on deviance behaviour rather than examining them together in a single framework (Bodankin & Tziner, 2009). Though Appelbaum (2007) and Alias et al., (2013) stress the importance of a single framework through literature review, empirical study is required to support this framework.

When comparing and contrasting different research strategies in a multi-cultural study, Hofstede (1984) states that “If we want to prove universality of micro-level laws, it is more meaningful to test them in Sweden, Japan, and Zambia than in Sweden, Denmark, and Norway” (p.35). In order to test an invariant structure of the model developed, it would be more appropriate to compare USA with a culture that demonstrates different traditions and economic systems contributing towards the reason to research in India.

For a cross-cultural study to be effective priming techniques are used extensively in cross-cultural research (see Oyserman & Lee, 2007). Words relating to individualism and collectivism when primed would bring to an individual’s mind relevant values of being a self and engaging with others and participants completed IND-COL scale prior to responding to dependent variables (Oyserman et al., 2002). Thus in the study, the cultural orientation measure was placed before the dependent variable.

7.3. Research Design

Table 25 illustrates the study design. The research design plays an important role within the hypothesis testing methods, as it connects theory to the empirical data (Lee & Lings, 2007). Survey designs were used in Study 5 to answer the theoretically driven research question and to test the proposed hypothesis by making use of statistical methods.

The overall aim of the thesis was two-fold: a) to develop a valid and universal measure of individual Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance that could then be incorporated into a theoretical framework to test various hypotheses. It was important that the measure 1) captured the construct definition fully 2) was precise enough to be incorporated into a wider questionnaire across organizations 3) was clear and understandable to employees. b) To determine the relationship of the new scale and workplace climate with constructive and destructive deviance within a theoretical framework through statistical analysis in two countries. This would enable researchers to understand the influence of an individual cultural orientation on behavioural outcomes. In addition, testing this in two countries would render more support to the

views of cultural researchers that individuals within the same country are both individualistic and collectivistic using a social cognitive approach.

TABLE 25
Study Design

Studies	Analysis	Validity Established	Data/Sample
Study 5	Multigroup Structural Equation Modelling through invariance analysis	Model fit	N= 404 India (Sample 6) N=583 USA (Sample 7) Total N= 987

7.3.1. Data Collection Overview

Sample 6 and 7 (Total N=987) consisted of employees working part-time or full-time and working in any sector from both India and the USA, as the focus of the study was on the scale's validity across culture without setting an industry or organizational context. These samples were collected through Qualtrics online Panel Survey. Qualtrics recruits participants for survey panels through invitation-only to avoid professional survey takers and self-selection of respondents. They tap into qualified panels of survey participants through various other companies. The data collection procedure is outlined in the following sections.

7.3.2. Study Design

The data for Study 3 and Study 5 were collected simultaneously as the new measure developed from Study 1 and 2 was implemented in Study 5 to determine its relationship with deviance behaviour in a theoretical model. Also, since a panel survey was purchased for the study, it was practical to have the survey done as a whole rather than being collected at different time which would save time and money involved. A survey design was used to collect data through online questionnaires. An online panel survey was used for the study using Qualtrics from September 2016 to November 2016. The objective of this sample was to test the theoretical model by testing the various hypotheses. Typical limitations of a cross-sectional design such as common

method variance were addressed through both procedural and empirical assessments. The assurance of anonymity and confidentiality of the response, along with the guarantee that there are no right or wrong answers that they should answer as honestly as possible, would reduce the respondents' hesitation to edit their responses. Also, a confirmatory factor analyses was conducted to test for the discriminant validity of all the scales.

Sample 6 and 7 consisted of scales on a) Climate; b) Individualistic and collectivistic orientation c) Destructive deviance behaviour; d) Constructive deviance behaviour; along with the newly developed measure. The requirements of the sample size were discussed with qualtrics along with the study demographic details, that the respondents should belong to India or the USA; they should be working full-time or part-time but not self-employed; distribution of gender should be more or less equal as it is a controlling factor in attitude and behaviour studies.

7.4. Access and Ethics

The University of Edinburgh Research Ethics committee granted ethical approval to carry forward the research. During the data collection for Sample 6 and 7, the participants were selected from Qualtrics panel survey. Due to its proved response rates and quick turn-around time the panel survey was the best alternate option for this research. Since the assurance of anonymity is an important aspect of behavioural research, survey links were sent from qualtrics rather the through the researcher or company mail as it is expected to provide better response.

At the beginning of the questionnaire, a cover letter stating the objective of the survey, its benefits to participating organizations, assurance that the analysis of the response would be as a whole and would not be for a single response was provided. The participants were also given a choice to withdraw from the research at any time during the process. The consent of the respondents to participate in the study was sought by providing them with a yes or no option. The contact details of the researcher and the supervisor were also given to the participants to contact them at any point for further information regarding the research objective.

7.5. Sample

Out of 987 questionnaires, 404 were Indian participants (Sample 6) and 583 US participants (Sample 7). The sample characteristics are provided in Table 26.

TABLE 26
Sample Characteristics of Sample 6 and Sample 7

Sample Characteristics	India	USA
Gender		
Male	51.0%	48.7%
Female	49.0%	51.3%
Age		
<25 yrs or younger	37.1%	23.5%
26-35	40.3%	25.7%
36-45	14.1%	19.7%
46-55	4.0%	23.5%
>56 yrs or above	4.0%	7.5%
Job level		
Non-supervisor position	26.5%	51.1%
First line supervisor or manager or team leader	23.0%	18.0%
Mid-level manager	24.3%	16.8%
Senior manger	20.8%	9.6%
Above senior manager	5.4%	4.5%
Work Experience		
Upto 5 years	59.7%	57.5%
6-10 years	24.8%	24.0%
11 years or more	15.6%	18.5%
Employment status		
Permanent	69.1%	92.1%
Temporary	30.9%	7.9%
Full-Time	69.8%	78.9%
Part-Time	30.2%	21.1%
Education Qualification		
High School	11.4%	35.5%
Bachelor's degree	50.0%	44.8%
Master's degree	37.4%	16.0%
PhD or MD	1.2%	3.8%

7.6. Procedure

Out of the 1250 questionnaires sent, 1038 questionnaires were received yielding an 83.04% response rate. A total of 987 usable questionnaires formed sample 6 and 7. The entire sample 6 and sample 7 consisted of 40.9% Indian and 59.1% US respondents. Of the 987 responses, 59.2% were males and 40.8% were females. Their

employment status were either full-time (75.2%) or part-time (24.8%), permanent (82.7%) or temporary (17.3%). The participants were 25 yrs or younger (20.0%), 26-35 yrs (31.0%), 36-45 yrs (21.1%), 46-55 yrs (13.3%) and 56 yrs or older (14.7%). They reported their job level in the organizations as non-supervisory position (41.0%), first line supervisor or manager or team leader (20.1%), mid-level manager (19.9%), senior manager (14.2%) and above senior manager (4.9%) and their work experience were up to 5 years (35.4%), 6 years to 10 years (24.3%) and 11 years or more (40.3%). The participants were from different industrial sectors: financial services (9.6%), aerospace and defence (1.7%), transportation and logistics (4.5%), technology and communication (16.4%), engineering, energy and construction (9.8%), entertainment and media (2.6%), Government or state owned enterprise (3.5%), hospitality and leisure (12.4%), manufacturing (5.6%), pharmaceuticals and life sciences (1.6%), professional services (13.8%) and retail and consumer (6.9%).

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used for analyses of Sample 6 and 7. SEM is a statistical technique for testing and estimating causal relations i.e. hypothesis testing, analysing a structural theory bearing on some phenomenon (Byrne, 2001). SEM is used 1) to determine the causal processes under study using a series of structural (Regression) equations and 2) to model pictorially these structural relations to enable a clear conceptualisation of the theory under study. If there is an adequate goodness of fit, then the model could be argued for the relations among variables and rejected if inadequate. I tested multigroup SEM using AMOS. SEM allows the estimation of relationships among different constructs specifying latent variable models that provide estimates of relations among latent constructs and their manifest indicators (Tomarken & Waller, 2005). It also allows the estimation of all the relationships at one time opposed to testing the one model at a time. When testing a model across groups, SEM enables testing the constructs using invariance.

7.7. Measures

Detailed explanations for each of the measures used for Sample 6 and Sample 7 are described below. The questionnaire is presented in Appendix III.

Following the suggestions of Bennett and Robinson (2003) and Marcus and Schuler (2004), the broader terminology of deviance behaviour is used in the present research as it provides a leeway to theorise the factors that influence these behaviours.

Organizational Climate

Organizational climate will be assessed by using Giles (2010) and Heyart's (2011) 22-item scale. It was designed to measure reward, warmth, support and commitment, structure, risk and conflict and standards reflecting on employee perception of the organization using a 5-point scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree; e.g., In this organization we set very high standards for performance, It is sometimes unclear who has the formal authority to make a decision etc.,). The alpha coefficient was $\alpha=.88$ in Sample 6 and $\alpha=.90$ in Sample 7.

Witness Behaviour Towards Workplace Deviance

Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance (WBTWD) was measured using a scale that was newly developed and tested for reliability and validity by the author. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they engaged in each of the behaviours during the past year since our focus is on the self-report of the individual. Participants answered all the items using the 5-point Likert scale (1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=Always; e.g., Wait for someone to confront the person involved in such behaviours, Confront anyone involved in such activities etc.,). For self-serving behaviour the alpha coefficient was $\alpha=.75$ in Sample 6 and $\alpha=.79$ in Sample 7 whereas for intervening behaviour it was $\alpha=.70$ in Sample 6 and $\alpha=.84$ in Sample 7.

Culture

Culture was measured using the 16-item scale developed by Triandis and Gelfand (1998) to measure individualism and collectivism. The respondents were asked to rate their agreement on a 5-point scale (1= strongly disagree; 5= strongly agree. E.g., I'd rather depend on myself than others, If a co-worker gets a prize I would feel proud etc.,). The collectivism scale consisted of 8 items and had an internal consistency of $\alpha=.84$ in the entire sample, $\alpha=.86$ in Sample 6 and $\alpha=.81$ in Sample 7. The

individualism scale consisted of 5 items and had an internal consistency of $\alpha=.80$ in Sample 6 and $\alpha=.76$ in Sample 7.

Workplace Deviance

Workplace Deviance was assessed using the 17-item scale developed by Robinson and Bennett (2000). The items are grouped into organizational (10 items) and interpersonal deviance (7 items) subscales. Respondents are asked to rate their own deviance behaviour on a 5-point scale (1= never, 5= always; e.g., Taken property from work without permission, Neglected to follow boss's instruction, Cursed someone at work etc.). The alpha coefficient was $\alpha=.93$ in Sample 6 and $\alpha=.95$ in Sample 7 for organizational deviance whereas interpersonal deviance had $\alpha=.94$ in entire sample, $\alpha=.93$ in Sample 6 and $\alpha=.95$ in Sample 7.

Constructive Deviance Behaviour

The scale developed by Galperin (2002) was used to assess constructive deviance behaviour. The 14-item measure consists of organizational, innovative and interpersonal deviance that uses a 5-point scale, on which respondents rate their agreement (1= never, 5=always; e.g., Developed creative solution to problems, Bent a rule to satisfy a customer's need, Disagreed with others in your work group in order to improve the current work procedures etc.). For innovative deviance the alpha coefficient was $\alpha=.86$ in Sample 6 and $\alpha=.90$ in Sample 7, challenging deviance had $\alpha=.91$ in Sample 6 and $\alpha=.93$ in Sample 7 whereas interpersonal deviance had $\alpha=.79$ in Sample 6 and $\alpha=.82$ in Sample 7

Employee age, tenure, status, industry and gender are used as control variables as these are known to be related to deviance workplace behaviour (Hollinger, 1986; Stamper & Masterson, 2002).

7.8. Summary of Hypothesis

Hypothesis 1: Organizational climate is negatively related to a) organizational destructive and b) interpersonal deviance behaviour.

Hypothesis 2: Organizational climate is positively related to a) innovative b) challenging and c) interpersonal constructive deviance behaviour.

Hypothesis 3: Self-serving behaviour towards workplace deviance is positively related to a) organizational and b) interpersonal destructive deviance behaviour.

Hypothesis 4: Self-serving behaviour towards workplace deviance is positively related to a) innovative b) challenging and c) interpersonal constructive deviance behaviour.

Hypothesis 5: Intervening behaviour towards workplace deviance is negatively related to a) organizational and b) interpersonal destructive deviance behaviour.

Hypothesis 6: Intervening behaviour towards workplace deviance is positively related to a) innovative b) challenging and c) interpersonal constructive deviance behaviour.

Hypothesis 7a: Individualism will moderate the relationship between organization climate and destructive organizational and interpersonal deviance behaviour as high individualistic orientation will strengthen the relationship while low individualistic orientation will weaken the relationship.

Hypothesis 7b: Individualism will moderate the relationship between organization climate and constructive deviance behaviours as high individualistic orientation will strengthen the relationship while low individualistic orientation will weaken the relationship.

Hypothesis 8a: Individualism will moderate the relationship between i. Self-serving and ii. Intervening behaviour and destructive organizational and interpersonal deviance behaviour as high individualistic orientation will weaken the relationship for self-serving behaviour and strengthen the relationship for intervening behaviour.

Hypothesis 8b: Individualism will moderate the relationship between i. Self-serving behaviour and ii. Intervening and constructive deviance behaviours as high individualistic orientation will strengthen the relationship while low individualistic orientation will weaken the relationship.

Hypothesis 9a: Collectivism will moderate the relationship between organization climate and destructive organizational and interpersonal deviance behaviour, as high collectivistic orientation will strengthen the relationship while low collectivistic orientation will weaken the relationship.

Hypothesis 9b: Collectivism will moderate the relationship between organization climate and constructive deviance behaviours as high collectivistic orientation will weaken the relationship while low collectivistic orientation will strengthen the relationship.

Hypothesis 10a: Collectivism will moderate the relationship between i. Self-serving and ii. Intervening behaviour and destructive organizational and interpersonal deviance behaviour as high collectivistic orientation will strengthen the relationship for self-serving and intervener behaviour.

Hypothesis 10b: Collectivism will moderate the relationship between i. Self-serving and ii. Intervening behaviour and constructive deviance behaviours as high collectivistic orientation will strengthen the relationship for self-serving behaviour and weaken the relationship for intervening behaviour.

7.9. Multigroup Structural Equation Modelling

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to analyse sample 6 and 7. SEM is a statistical technique that can be used to test and estimate various causal relationships (Byrne, 1991). There are two important aspects of SEM: a) A series of regression equations are used to represent the causal process and b) these relationships can be pictorially modelled to enable a clear conceptualisation of theory under study. Thus, the hypothesised model can be statistically analysed with the entire system of variables to determine its fit with the data. An adequate goodness of fit of the model would argue for acceptability of hypothesised relations among variables and inadequate fit would reject such relationships (Byrne, 2001). The constructs used in a SEM are corrected for biases that are attributable to random error and construct variance by making use of latent models. These latent models would provide separate estimates regarding the relationship among the constructs and their underlying variables (Tomarken & Waller, 2005). These latent constructs can be used in a path analysis to test for relationships as per theoretical model. Using SEM, all the relationships can be estimated at one time and measurement errors can be tested as opposed to testing various models for each relationship (Hair et al., 2006; Mackinnon et al., 2002). Many authors have described various techniques to represent latent

interactions within SEM approach (Algina & Moulder, 2001; Joreskog & Yang, 1996; Klein and Moosbrugger, 2000; Little et al., 2007; Marsh et al., 2004; Wall & Amemiya, 2001). Since, the conceptual model developed is complex with 3 independent variables, 2 moderators and 5 dependent variables, SEM was used in the present research. In addition, given the sample size is more than 200 for the present study; SEM method is suitable (Snoj et al., 2004)

While using SEM, a two-step approach is preferred compared to a one-step approach (Hair et al., 2006). In this approach, first a measurement model is assessed by analysing dimensionality, reliability and validity of the constructs used in the model followed by a structural model using the factor scores. The factor scores of latent variables were used in this study as the tested conceptual model had many interactions, which would have been complicated to test using the measurement model. In the path model, the relationships are verified using significance of the path among proposed latent constructs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The construct validity was assessed using confirmatory factor analysis for the measurement model of each construct followed by evaluation of the structural model.

Since the important aspect of the model is to test for the relationships in two cultures of India and the USA, a multi-group structural equation modelling was selected as appropriate analyses. A multi-group structural equation modelling (MSEM) was conducted using AMOS version 22.0 (Arbuckle, 2013) to test the theoretically developed model. In this study, a between-group difference to determine the cross-cultural effect (Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994) is analysed using SEM. This multi-group analysis is preferred when the number of groups is lower which is in this case 2. According to cross-cultural research, measure of equivalence (measurement invariance) across groups is important and four levels of equivalence have been suggested (Van de Vijver & Leung, 1997).

Multidimensional scaling, factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis are the methods used in assessing measurement invariance (Fischer & Fontaine, 2010). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is the most widely used method, which is becoming increasingly popular. Using CFA, the theoretical model can be compared with the observed structure. In a multigroup CFA, which is the method used in the

present research, the observed structure and the theoretical model are compared using two samples. Following the strategy set forth by Joreskog (1971; 1993) measurement invariance is tested by estimating a series of nested models in a hierarchical order. These models systematically constrain measurement parameters to be equal across groups. These models are then compared based on model fit difference tests for nested models with degrees of freedom equal to the number of constrained parameters, and suggested differences in global fit indices (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). This approach of MGCFA is widely accepted method for testing measurement invariance (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998) which would result in the construct being assessed to be same across cultures. The factor scores from this stage will be used in the final SEM analysis as one of the main purpose of the research was to provide support that the same model could be implemented in India and the USA and there is a statistical need for the factors used to be same irrespective of nationality.

7.9.1. Measurement invariance.

Measurement invariance is one in which a set of models are tested (Milfont & Fischer, 2010). First, a configural invariance is tested as it implies that the participants from different groups conceptualise the constructs in the same way. Here, the constructs are tested in both the groups by running individual CFA's. The same model is then run through a multi-group confirmatory factor analysis and it acts as a baseline model. Thus, the factor structure is constrained to be the same across the groups. Second is a metric invariance, which is tested by constraining the factor loadings to be equal across groups. This helps to determine if the respondents in both the groups attribute a same meaning to the latent construct that is used in the study. It is important to obtain at least partial invariance before proceeding to the next step (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000).

Byrne et al., (1989) introduced partial invariance as it is impractical for full measurement invariance to hold across groups where restricting all parameters to be the same across two groups would establish invariance that the constructs are similar to draw comparisons (Milfont & Fischer, 2010; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Partial invariance is one in which only a subset of parameters in a construct model is constrained to be invariant while others are allowed to vary across the group still

supporting group comparison (Byrne et al., 1989). The parameters that are allowed to vary should be only a minority of them (Vijver & Poortinga, 1982). Each construct should have at least 2 parameters constrained while others are free to vary across groups (Byrne, Shavelson & Muthén, 1989).

Third, a scalar invariance is performed where the intercepts are constrained to be the same across the two groups, imposing that the individuals having the same score on the latent constructs would also obtain the same score on the observed variables irrespective of their groups. These three models are necessary to perform across group analysis (Milfont & Fischer, 2010). After the measurement invariance, a structural invariance model is to be tested which involves constraining the factor variance, factor covariance and factor mean invariance. The structural invariance is used to assess whether the indicators are related to the constructs in a non-trivial manner (Fontain, 2006). The factor's mean invariance can be tested directly after scalar invariance instead of testing for factor variance and factor covariance. (Milfont & Fischer, 2010).

The goodness of fit indices is used to determine the theoretical model fit with the empirical data. The Chi-square test is an objective fit index used extensively in structural equation modelling. However, given its sensitivity to sample size and an assumption that it fits the data perfectly, other fit indices are also considered following the recommendation that multiple fit indices should be reported in a SEM study (Thompson, 2000). Thus, the absolute fit indices used in the present research were Chi-square degree of freedom ratio (χ^2/df), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker Lewis fit index (TLI). The Chi-square to degree of freedom ratio (χ^2/df) with a value of 3:1 or less indicates good fit (Carmines & McIver, 1981; Wheaton et al., 1977). The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) with values close to .06 or less indicate acceptable fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999) whereas the values that range from .08 to .10 indicates mediocre fit and those above .10 indicates poor fit (MacCallum et al., 1996; Steiger & Lind, 1980). Comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker Lewis fit index (TLI) with a value of above .95 to indicate excellent fit and .90 an acceptable fit (Campos et al., 2011; Hu & Bentler, 1999). As suggested earlier, the comparison between the configural and metric, metric and scalar and finally scalar and structural invariance models should be such that the model fit should not significantly increase, resulting in non-invariance of

the construct. Despite its limitations, the significant difference in Chi-square between the two models that are nested (i.e. χ^2 difference test) indicate that the model with smaller (χ^2) fits the data better. Furthermore, Cheung & Rensvold (2002) have suggested that if there is a difference in CFI ($\geq -.005$ or $-.010$) or RMSEA ($\geq .010$ or $.015$) values between the two nested models the most restrictive model can be rejected. The model is then re-estimated by referring to the modification indices and allowing some parameters to vary across the group and tested again for $\Delta\chi^2$ to obtain at least partial invariance (Chen, 2007; Cheung & Rensvold, 2000). Thus, testing each construct would make the comparison between two groups meaningful (Milfont & Fischer, 2010).

7.10. Results

7.10.1. Data Preparation

Prior to any statistical analysis, the datasets from the sample 6 and 7 were checked for missing data and data normality. Missing data can be an issue in data analysis. Using missing values analysis (MVA) in SPSS, both the level and the pattern of missing data for various samples can be analysed. For all samples, results indicated that there were no items with 5% or more missing values. Further, Little's MCAR test (1988) can be used to check whether the data is missing completely at random. For samples 6 and 7 the statistically non-significant results (sample 6, $p = .39$; sample 7, $p = .23$) indicate the probability that the pattern of missing data diverges from randomness as it is greater than $.05$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Thus, it can be inferred that the data point is missing completely at random (MCAR). Overall, given that less than 5% of data was missing in a random pattern in 2 large datasets it was not deemed as a serious problem which would compromise the research findings. The data was also visually examined using histograms to identify any outliers.

7.10.2. Common Method Bias

In this study, measures were taken to address common method variance and the same procedures were repeated as mentioned in Chapter 4. The variance explained by Harman's single factor test was 24.85% in Sample 6, 26.51% in Sample 7, which is

less than 50% threshold (Eichhorn, 2014). Similar to Studies 2 and 3, common latent factor method was used to control common method variance by directly measuring a latent factor. For Sample 6 (N=404), model 1 fitted the data well ($\chi^2=3220.64$ ($p<.05$), Df= 1922, $\chi^2/df= 1.68$, CFI=.91, TLI= .91, RMSEA=.04). However, model 2, also fitted the data well ($\chi^2=3202.81$ ($p<.05$), Df= 1921, $\chi^2/df= 1.67$, CFI=.92, TLI= .91, RMSEA=.04) and in fact, fitted a little better than model 1 $\Delta \chi^2 = (1, N=404) = 17.83$, $p<.05$ but showed only a small difference and decrease in the overall chi-square value. Also from model 2, the percentage of variance revealed that 12.96% was due to method factor. Now, for Sample 7 (N= 583), model 1 fitted the data well ($\chi^2=3782.69$ ($p<.05$), Df= 1922, $\chi^2/df= 1.97$, CFI=.92, TLI= .92, RMSEA=.04). However, model 2, also fitted the data well ($\chi^2=3695.68$ ($p<.05$), Df= 1921, $\chi^2/df= 1.92$, CFI=.93, TLI= .92, RMSEA=.04) and in fact, fitted a little better than model 1 $\Delta \chi^2 = (1, N=583) = 87.01$, $p<.05$ but showed only a small difference and decrease in the overall chi-square value. Calculation of variance revealed that 9.61% was due to method factor. Since inclusion of the method factor had marginal improvement in the fit of the model and accounted for only little variance, thus it is concluded that the method bias had no large effect on the results of the study both in Sample 6 and 7.

7.10.3. Factorial Equivalence of Measures

A multi-group CFA using AMOS 20.0 was conducted to check the equivalence of measures used in the study across cultures (Bentler, 1990). These were conducted in two stages. First, to facilitate group comparisons, it was necessary to establish a baseline model for each group. The baseline model is one where the factor structure of the constructs used in the study is equal in two groups. The factor model structure was tested separately in Indian and US samples. And those factors that affected the model fit were dropped, 9 items were deleted from the organizational climate scale (#4,8,11,12,13,15,16,19,20), 2 items from the organizational deviance scale (#10,12), 2 items from the constructive deviance scale (#13,16) and 3 items from the culture scale (#6,7,8). The remaining items were used in further analysis.

As suggested by Byrne and Campbell (1999), the χ^2 statistic, CFI (Comparative fit index) and RMSEA were used to test the fit for the samples. The final results showed that except for organizational climate, the factor analyses were consistent with

the expected dimensionality for other measures. The organizational climate was taken as a unidimensional factor instead of a second order multi-dimensional factor as the unidimensional factor fit the samples much better. Schneider (1975, 1990, 2000) and Davidson (2000) suggested that the dimensions of organizational climate would differ depending on the purpose and criterion of the study. The destructive, culture and Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance, all supported a two-factor solution and constructive deviance supported a three-factor solution.

For the Indian Sample, the results of the factor analysis were in line with the proposed dimensionality of measures used in the study. Climate ($\chi^2=82.63$ ($p<.05$), $Df= 38$, $\chi^2/df= 2.17$, $CFI=.97$, $RMSEA=.05$); Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance ($\chi^2=23.51$ ($p<.05$), $Df= 18$, $\chi^2/df= 1.31$, $CFI=.99$, $RMSEA=.03$), destructive deviance ($\chi^2=256.18$ ($p<.05$), $Df= 102$, $\chi^2/df= 2.51$, $CFI=.97$, $RMSEA=.06$), constructive deviance ($\chi^2=143.21$ ($p<.05$), $Df= 61$, $\chi^2/df= 2.35$, $CFI=.98$, $RMSEA=.06$) and culture ($\chi^2=101.074$ ($p<.05$), $Df= 53$, $\chi^2/df= 1.91$, $CFI=.98$, $RMSEA=.05$).

For the US Sample, the results of the factor analysis were also in line with the proposed dimensionality of measures used in the study. Climate ($\chi^2=95.65$ ($p<.05$), $Df= 38$, $\chi^2/df= 2.52$, $CFI=.98$, $RMSEA=.05$); Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance ($\chi^2=57.63$ ($p<.05$), $Df= 18$, $\chi^2/df= 3.20$, $CFI=.97$, $RMSEA=.06$), destructive deviance ($\chi^2=329.06$ ($p<.05$), $Df= 102$, $\chi^2/df= 3.27$, $CFI=.98$, $RMSEA=.06$), constructive deviance ($\chi^2=148.54$ ($p<.05$), $Df= 61$, $\chi^2/df= 2.44$, $CFI=.99$, $RMSEA=.05$) and culture ($\chi^2=178.86$ ($p<.05$), $Df= 53$, $\chi^2/df= 3.38$, $CFI=.94$, $RMSEA=.06$).

Before proceeding with the invariance analysis it was necessary to determine the fit of the data to the model specified using the baseline model, the discriminant validity of all the scales used in the study were analysed in a confirmatory factor analysis. The summaries of the fit indices are depicted in Table 27 and 28. The first model is the null model in which all the scales are unrelated. The second model tests the model fit for all the scales by loading onto one single factor suggesting the participants did not differentiate the scale items. Then the third model includes all scales as separate factors without correlating them, whereas the fourth model includes all scales as separate

factors but correlated. Models that are low in χ^2 values and high in CFI and TLI values indicate good model fit. The recommended level of fit is above .90 and the values for the ratio of χ^2 indices to degrees of freedom (χ^2/df) range between 2 and 5 (Arbuckle, 2013). The improvement of the model fit was tested by calculating the difference of χ^2 values in relation to degrees of freedom ($\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$) for each model. This test indicated a significant model improvement when comparing the 10 factor uncorrelated model with the correlated model. Thus, the 10 factor correlated model showed a good model fit and retained for the analyses. Thus supporting the baseline model of the constructs and its implementation in further analysis.

TABLE 27
Fit Indices of CFA for all Study Scales in Sample 6

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Null model	16964.709	2080	8.156	.000	.000	.133
One factor model ^a	9435.740	2015	4.623	.485	.501	.096
10-factor model (Uncorrelated model) ^b	5337.969	1959	2.725	.759	.773	.065
10-factor model (Correlated model) ^c	3204.263	1912	1.676	.906	.913	.041

N= 404; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index

^aDifference null-model and one-factor model: $\Delta\chi^2(df) = 7528.969 (65); p < .001$

^bDifference one-factor model and 10-factor model (uncorrelated): $\Delta\chi^2(df) = 4097.771 (56); p < .001$

^cDifference 10-factor model (uncorrelated) and 10-factor model (correlated): $\Delta\chi^2(df) = 2133.706 (47); p < .001$

TABLE 28
Fit Indices of CFA for all Study Scales in Sample 7

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Null model	26509.967	2080	12.745	.000	.000	.142
One factor model	14412.622	2015	7.153	.476	.493	.103
10-factor model (Uncorrelated model)	6215.824	1959	3.173	.815	.826	.061
10-factor model (Correlated model)	3718.515	1912	1.945	.920	.926	.040

N= 583; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index

^aDifference null-model and one-factor model: $\Delta\chi^2(df) = 12094.345 (65); p < .001$

^bDifference one-factor model and 10-factor model (uncorrelated): $\Delta\chi^2(df) = 8196.798 (56); p < .001$

^cDifference 10-factor model (uncorrelated) and 10-factor model (correlated): $\Delta\chi^2(df) = 2497.309 (47); p < .001$

Second, based on the baseline model for each country, the equivalence of the measures across cultures were analysed. Invariance was tested for organizational climate, witness behaviour towards workplace deviance, organizational culture, destructive deviance and constructive deviance. Sample 6 (Indian=404) and Sample 7 (the USA=583) are used for this analysis. The Sample characteristics can be referred in Table 28 and the mean, standard deviation and correlations in Tables 36 and 37. The first step was to test whether each of the proposed constructs fits the empirical data from each group (India and the USA) called configural invariance. This was followed by analyses to test invariance across groups, a baseline model of each construct was analysed to be the same across the two groups. Next, the constructs were tested for metric invariance in which their factor loadings were constrained to be the same, then scalar invariance in which the intercepts were constrained to be the same and finally structural invariance, constraining the factor means were conducted supporting at least partial invariance (refer 7.9.1). The factor scores from the resulting invariance model were used in the final SEM analysis.

Results from Table 29, 30, 31, 32 and 33 show that the factor structure was the same in India and the USA for organizational climate, witness behaviour towards workplace deviance, constructive and destructive deviance behaviour. The invariance between the two groups was tested simultaneously across India and the USA for the number of factors and invariance in factor loadings present in the factor structure. For this analysis, the factor loadings were constrained to be equal across cultures. The resulting probability values were examined; those that were greater than .05 in each model were held, and those that did not were re-estimated with constrained factors being released one-by-one. Smith, Hanges and Dickson (2001) suggested that relaxing constraints is a function of Chi square dependence on sample size and not evidence of non-equivalent factor loadings. Byrne (1989) suggested that the significance of $\Delta \chi^2$ between the two models must be examined to determine invariance across the groups. The results in Table 29, 30, 31, 32 and 33 provided strong support for invariance in factor loadings between the Indian and US samples for climate, Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance, Destructive deviance, Constructive deviance and cultural orientation. After analysing that the factor structure is equal between the groups, the hypotheses were tested.

7.10.3.1. Organizational Climate

The configural invariance (M3) was supported across the two groups with adequate fit then the factor pattern coefficients were constrained to be equal (M4). The Chi-square difference test would indicate that the imposition of constraints decreases the fit of the model 4 compared to Model 3. However, as suggested earlier other comparative fit indices ΔCFI would indicate the viability of the results. Since the difference in the value is $\leq .01$, the modification indices were analysed to determine the parameter to be free across the two groups. After releasing for Warmth2, the model was re-estimated again and the results showed excellent fit. The scalar invariance (M6) was tested and there was a significant decrease in the fit of the model when compared to M4. After allowing 4 parameters to be free across groups, the fit of the model was excellent. As seen from the table 29, the overall goodness of fit indices and test of difference in fit between nested model (M3 vs M5, M7 vs M5) supported measurement invariance. The structural invariance was then tested and the results showed an adequate fit of the data. Thus, these tests proved the invariance of organizational climate across India and the USA.

7.10.3.2. Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance

The configural invariance (M3) was supported across the two groups with adequate fit then the factor pattern coefficients were constrained to be equal (M4). As seen from the table, the Chi-square fit indices increased significantly, thus the modification indices were analysed to determine the parameter to be free across the two groups. After releasing for 2 parameters, the model was re-estimated again and the results showed an excellent fit. The scalar invariance (M6) was tested and there was a significant increase in the fit of the model when compared to M4. After allowing 5 parameters to be free across groups the fit of the model was adequate. As seen from Table 30, the overall goodness of fit indices and test of difference in fit between nested models (M3 vs M5, M7 vs M5) which supported measurement invariance. The structural invariance was then tested and the results showed an adequate fit of the data. Thus, these tests proved the invariance of the witness behaviour construct across India and the USA.

7.10.3.3. Organizational Culture

The configural invariance (M3) was supported across the two groups with adequate fit, and then factor pattern coefficients were constrained to be equal (M4). As seen from the table, the Chi-square fit indices increased significantly and there was an increase in the RMSEA value and decrease in TLI and CFI, thus the modification indices were analysed to determine the parameter to be free across the two groups. After releasing for 4 parameters, the model was re-estimated again and the results showed adequate fit. The scalar invariance (M6) was tested and there was a significant increase in the fit of the model when compared to M4. After allowing 8 parameters to be free across groups, the fit of the model was excellent. As seen from the Table 31, the overall goodness of fit indices and test of difference in fit between nested model (M3 vs M5, M7 vs M5) supported measurement invariance. The structural invariance was then tested and the results showed an adequate fit of the data. Thus, these tests proved the invariance of the construct across India and the USA.

7.10.3.4. Destructive Deviance

The configural invariance (M3) was supported across the two groups with adequate fit and then factor pattern coefficients were constrained to be equal (M4). As seen from the table, the Chi-square fit indices increased significantly and there was an increase in the RMSEA value and decrease in TLI and CFI, thus the modification indices were analysed to determine the parameter to be free across the two groups. After releasing for 3 parameters, the model was re-estimated again and the results showed adequate fit with no significant increase in the fit indices. The scalar invariance (M5) was tested and there was a significant increase in the fit of the model when compared to M4 ($\Delta CFI \leq .01$). After allowing 7 parameters to be free across groups, the fit of the model was excellent. As seen from the Table 32, the overall goodness of fit indices and test of difference in fit between nested model (M3 vs M5, M7 vs M5) supported measurement invariance. The structural invariance was then tested and the results showed an adequate fit of the data. Thus, these tested proved the invariance of the construct across India and the USA.

7.10.3.5. Constructive Deviance

The configural invariance (M3) was supported across the two groups with adequate fit. The factor pattern coefficients were then constrained to be equal (M4). As seen from the table, the Chi-square fit indices increased significantly and there was an increase in the RMSEA value and decrease in TLI and CFI, thus the modification indices were analysed to determine the parameter to be free across the two groups. After releasing for 5 parameters the model was re-estimated again and the results showed adequate fit with no significant increase in the fit indices. The scalar invariance (M6) was tested and there was a significant increase in the fit of the model when compared to M5 ($\Delta CFI \leq .01$). After allowing 6 parameters to be free across groups, the fit of the model was excellent with no difference in TLI, CFI and RMSEA values. As seen from the table 33, the overall goodness of fit indices and test of difference in fit between nested model (M3 vs M5, M7 vs M5) supported measurement invariance. The structural invariance was then tested and the results showed an adequate fit of the data. Thus, these tested proved the invariance of the constructive deviance across India and the USA.

TABLE 29
Model fit for organizational climate measurement model and invariance testing.

Model	χ^2	df	p-value	χ^2/df	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
M1: Modified measurement model India	82.63	38		2.17	.95	.97	.05
M2: Modified measurement model USA	95.65	38		2.52	.97	.98	.05
M3: Configural invariance model	178.28	76		2.35	.96	.98	.04
M4: Metric invariance model	218.36	88		2.48	.96	.97	.04
<i>ΔM4 versus M3</i>	40.08	12	.00		.00	-.01	.00
M5: Modified metric – released param = warmth2	200.28	87		2.30	.96	.98	.04
<i>ΔM5 versus M3</i>	22	11	.02		.00	.00	.00
M6: scalar invariance model	374.45	99		3.78	.93	.94	.05
<i>ΔM6 versus M5</i>	174.17	12	.00		-.03	-.04	.01
M7: Modified scalar – released param = OCR3, OCRIS3, OCRIS4, OCR2	256.54	95		2.70	.96	.98	.04
<i>ΔM7 versus M5</i>	56.26	8	.00		.00	.00	.00
M8: Structural invariance	256.37	94		2.73	.95	.97	.04
<i>ΔM8 versus M7</i>	.17	1	.68		-.01	-.01	.00

χ^2 -chi square goodness of fit ratio, df-degree of freedom, χ^2/df = chi-square/degree of freedom, TLI-Tucker-Lewis Fit Index, CFI-Comparative Fit index, RMSEA-Root mean square error approximation. OCR=organizational climate reward, OCRIS=organizational climate risk and conflict

TABLE 30
Model fit for witness behaviour construct measurement model and invariance testing.

Model	χ^2	df	p-value	χ^2/df	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
M1: Modified measurement model India	23.51	18		1.31	.99	.99	.03
M2: Modified measurement model USA	57.63	18		3.20	.95	.97	.06
M3: Configural invariance model	81.14	36		2.25	.96	.98	.03
M4: Metric invariance model	125.49	45		2.79	.95	.97	.04
<i>ΔM4 versus M3</i>	44.35	9	.00		-.01	-.01	.01
M5: Modified metric – released param = SB1, SB3	88.37	43		2.06	.96	.98	.03
<i>ΔM5 versus M3</i>	7.23	7	.41		.00	.00	.00
M6: scalar invariance model	276.22	52		5.31	.87	.91	.07
<i>ΔM6 versus M5</i>	187.85	9	.00		-.09	-.07	.04
M7: Modified scalar – released param = IB4,SB3,IB1,IB2, IB6	132.62	47		2.82	.95	.97	.04
<i>ΔM7 versus M5</i>	44.25	4	.00		-.01	-.01	.01
M8: Structural invariance	132.21	46		2.87	.95	.97	.04
<i>ΔM8 versus M7</i>	.41	1	.52		.00	.00	.00

χ^2 -chi square goodness of fit ratio, df-degree of freedom, χ^2/df = chi-square/degree of freedom, TLI-Tucker-Lewis Fit Index, CFI-Comparative Fit index, RMSEA-Root mean square error approximation. SB=Self-serving behaviour, IB=Intervening behaviour

TABLE 31
Model fit for culture construct measurement model and invariance testing.

Model	χ^2	df	p-value	χ^2/df	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
M1: Modified measurement model India	101.07	53		1.91	.96	.98	.05
M2: Modified measurement model USA	178.86	53		3.38	.91	.94	.06
M3: Configural invariance model	279.92	106		2.64	.94	.96	.04
M4: Metric invariance model	329.85	119		2.77	.93	.95	.05
$\Delta M4$ versus $M3$	49.93	13	.00		-.01	-.01	.01
M5: Modified metric – released param = CC3,CC4, CI2,CI5	307.64	115		2.68	.94	.96	.04
$\Delta M5$ versus $M3$	27.72	9	.00		.00	.00	.00
M6: scalar invariance model	523.09	128		4.09	.88	.91	.06
$\Delta M6$ versus $M5$	215.45	128	.00		-.06	-.05	.02
M7: Modified scalar – released param = CC1,CC3,CC5,CC6,CC8,CI1,CI4, CI5	322.44	120		2.69	.94	.96	.04
$\Delta M7$ versus $M5$	14.80	5	.01		.00	.00	.00
M8: Structural invariance	451.59	127		3.56	.92	.90	.05
$\Delta M8$ versus $M7$	129.15	7	.00		-.02	-.06	.01

χ^2 -chi square goodness of fit ratio, df-degree of freedom, χ^2/df = chi-square/degree of freedom, TLI-Tucker-Lewis Fit Index, CFI-Comparative Fit index, RMSEA-Root mean square error approximation.CC= culture collectivism, CI=culture individualism

TABLE 32
Model fit for destructive deviance construct measurement model and invariance testing.

Model	χ^2	df	p-value	χ^2/df	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
M1: Modified measurement model India	256.18	102		2.51	.96	.97	.06
M2: Modified measurement model USA	329.06	102		3.23	.97	.98	.06
M3: Configural invariance model	585.25	204		2.87	.97	.97	.04
M4: Metric invariance model	654.19	221		2.96	.96	.97	.05
$\Delta M4$ versus $M3$	68.94	17	.00		-.01	.00	.01
M5: Modified metric – released param = DDID1,DDID4,DDOD9	634.52	218		2.91	.97	.97	.04
$\Delta M5$ versus $M3$	49.27	14	.00		.00	.00	.00
M6: scalar invariance model	818.85	235		3.48	.95	.96	.05
$\Delta M6$ versus $M5$	184.33	17	.00		-.02	-.01	.01
M7: Modified scalar – released param = DDID1,DDID4,DDID5,DDOD2,D DOD3,DDOD6,DDOD11	675.18	228		2.96	.97	.97	.04
$\Delta M7$ versus $M5$	40.66	10	.00		.00	.00	.00
M8: Structural invariance	675.06	227		2.97	.96	.97	.05
$\Delta M8$ versus $M7$.12	1	.73		-.01	.00	.01

χ^2 -chi square goodness of fit ratio, df-degree of freedom, χ^2/df = chi-square/degree of freedom, TLI-Tucker-Lewis Fit Index, CFI-Comparative Fit index, RMSEA-Root mean square error approximation. DDOD= destructive organizational deviance, DDID= destructive interpersonal deviance

TABLE 33
Model fit for constructive deviance construct measurement model and invariance testing.

Model	χ^2	df	p-value	χ^2 /df	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
M1: Modified measurement model India	143.21	61		2.35	.97	.98	.06
M2: Modified measurement model USA	148.54	61		2.44	.98	.98	.05
M3: Configural invariance model	291.76	122		2.39	.97	.98	.04
M4: Metric invariance model	353.89	136		2.60	.96	.97	.05
<i>ΔM4 versus M3</i>	<i>62.13</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>.00</i>		<i>-.01</i>	<i>-.01</i>	<i>.01</i>
M5: Modified metric – released param = CHA1,CHA2, CHA6,CDINN2,CDINN1	322.76	131		2.46	.97	.98	.04
<i>ΔM5 versus M3</i>	<i>31.00</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>.00</i>		<i>.00</i>	<i>.00</i>	<i>.00</i>
M6: scalar invariance model	467.99	145		3.23	.97	.97	.05
<i>ΔM6 versus M5</i>	<i>145.23</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>.00</i>		<i>.00</i>	<i>-.01</i>	<i>.01</i>
M7: Modified scalar – released param = CDID5,CDCHAL5,CDCHAL6,CDINN2, CDINN3,CDINN5	389.69	139		2.80	.97	.98	.04
<i>ΔM7 versus M5</i>	<i>66.93</i>	<i>8</i>			<i>.00</i>	<i>.00</i>	<i>.00</i>
<i>M8: Structural invariance</i>	<i>386.64</i>	<i>138</i>		<i>2.80</i>	<i>.97</i>	<i>.97</i>	<i>.04</i>
<i>ΔM8 versus M7</i>	<i>3.05</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>.08</i>		<i>.00</i>	<i>.00</i>	<i>.00</i>

χ^2 - chi square goodness of fit ratio, df-degree of freedom, χ^2 /df= chi-square/degree of freedom, TLI-Tucker Lewis Fit Index, CFI-Comparative Fit index, RMSEA-Root mean square error approximation. CDINN= constructive deviance innovative, CDCHA=constructive deviance challenging, CDID=constructive deviance interpersonal

7.10.4. Results of Hypothesis

The detailed process of data collection was explained earlier. The data was collected through qualtrics online panel survey from both India and the USA across different organizations. After checking for missing values and common method variance within the datasets, the next step of the analysis was to test the hypothesised model. The scale characteristics and inter-correlations of variables for the Indian sample and USA sample are shown in Table 34 and Table 35. A total of 987 usable questionnaires were used in the analysis. Both forms of destructive deviance: organizational destructive deviance was significantly correlated to organizational climate ($r=.17$, $p\leq .01$), self-serving ($r=.41$, $p\leq .01$) and intervening ($r=.26$, $p\leq .01$) behaviour variables; interpersonal destructive deviance was also significantly correlated to organizational climate ($r=.10$, $p\leq .01$), self-serving ($r=.35$, $p\leq .01$) and intervening ($r=.24$, $p\leq .01$) behaviour. Similarly, innovative constructive deviance was significantly correlated to organizational climate ($r=.26$, $p\leq .01$), self-serving ($r=.27$, $p\leq .01$) and intervening ($r=.38$, $p\leq .01$) behaviour, challenging constructive

deviance was significantly correlated to organizational climate ($r=.15$, $p\leq .01$), self-serving ($r=.37$, $p\leq .01$) and intervening ($r=.32$, $p\leq .01$) behaviour and interpersonal constructive deviance was significantly correlated to organizational climate ($r=.17$, $p\leq .01$), self-serving ($r=.31$, $p\leq .01$) and intervening ($r=.38$, $p\leq .01$) behaviour in the entire sample.

The mean differences were examined between the Indian and US samples for destructive and constructive deviance. The results depicted in Table 36 was interesting as contrary to the expectation the Indian sample engaged more in organizational ($M=1.88$, $SD=.93$ versus $M=1.49$, $SD=.72$), $t(985)=7.18$, $p<.01$, and interpersonal deviance ($M=1.75$, $SD=.97$ versus $M=1.40$, $SD=.76$), $t(985)=6.26$, $p<.01$, compared to the USA sample. Thus, the difference between the two samples for organizational ($t=7.18$, $p\leq .01$) and interpersonal ($t=6.26$, $p\leq .01$) destructive deviance were significant. In addition, innovative ($M=3.04$, $SD=1.04$ versus $M=2.66$, $SD=.97$), $t(985)=5.75$, $p<.01$, challenging ($M=2.18$, $SD=1.06$ versus $M=1.70$, $SD=.84$), $t(985)=7.81$, $p<.01$ and interpersonal constructive ($M=2.21$, $SD=1.05$ versus $M=1.74$, $SD=.82$), $t(985)=7.89$, $p<.01$, deviance were significantly more in Indian sample than in the US sample. Thus, the difference between the two samples for innovative ($t=5.75$, $p\leq .01$), challenging ($t=7.81$, $p\leq .01$) and interpersonal ($t=7.89$, $p\leq .01$) constructive deviance were significant. From these results, it can be concluded that the nationality of an individual does have an effect on their deviance behaviours.

In addition, the samples were analysed for individualistic and collectivistic orientation. Contrary to expectation the Indian sample were more individualistic than the US sample ($M=4.10$, $SD=.69$ versus $M=3.98$, $SD=.61$), $t(985)=2.94$, $p<.05$. Moreover, as expected the Indian samples were more collectivistic than the US sample ($M=4.19$, $SD=.60$ versus $M=3.95$, $SD=.51$), $t(985)=6.56$, $p<.05$. Furthermore, the individualistic and collectivistic orientation showed loose to moderate correlation in both Indian (.54) and US (.18) samples. Thus, the results of these analyses support the use of both individualism and collectivism in the study, addressing the possibility of individuals being individualistic and collectivistic within the same culture (Triandis et al., 1998).

TABLE 36
Independent Sample T-test for India and the USA.

Variable	Nationality		t	df
	Indian	USA		
Organizational deviance	1.88 (.93)	1.50 (.72)	7.18***	985
Interpersonal deviance	1.75 (.97)	1.41 (.76)	6.26***	985
Innovative deviance	3.04 (1.04)	2.66 (.97)	5.75***	827.71
Challenging deviance	2.18 (1.06)	1.71 (.84)	7.81***	985
Interpersonal deviance	2.21 (1.05)	1.74 (.82)	7.89***	985
Individualism	4.10 (.69)	3.98 (.61)	2.94**	985
Collectivism	4.19 (.60)	3.95 (.51)	6.56***	985

p < .05, *p < .001. Standard Deviations appear in parentheses below means.

TABLE 34
Means, Standard Deviation and Correlation among Variables in Sample 6 (India=404)

	Mean	S.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Industry	6.09	3.51																		
2. Employment Status1	1.30	.46	.12*																	
3. Employment Status2	1.31	.46	.12*	.61**																
4. Gender	1.49	.50	.04	-.18**	-.21**															
5. Age	1.99	1.04	.01	-.21**	-.31**	.09														
6. Education	2.28	.68	-.06	-.43**	-.39**	.28**	.29**													
7. Job level	2.56	1.23	-.14**	-.39**	-.51**	.18**	.30**	.45**												
8. Work Experience	1.56	.75	-.03	-.27**	-.29**	.12*	.55**	.26**	.41**											
9. Self-serving	3.19	.99	-.04	-.05	-.11**	-.09	-.00	.02	.07	-.07	(.75)									
10. Intervening	3.58	.84	-.10*	-.11*	-.20**	-.05	.09	.11*	.24**	.15**	.48**	(.79)								
11. Climate	3.94	.57	-.18*	-.23**	-.25**	.14**	.10*	.18**	.29**	.14**	.21**	.39**	(.88)							
12. Innovative Deviance (C)	3.04	1.04	-.10	-.11*	-.15**	-.02	.05	.07	.20**	.05	.27**	.33**	.25**	(.86)						
13. Challenging Deviance (C)	2.18	1.06	-.01	.03	-.02	-.10	-.10*	-.08	.03	-.12*	.35**	.22**	.07	.56**	(.91)					
14. Interpersonal Deviance (C)	2.21	1.05	-.01	.04	-.03	-.08	.07	-.07	.03	-.08	.27**	.23**	.08	.53**	.73**	(.79)				
15. Organizational Deviance (D)	1.88	.93	-.08	.03	-.06	-.10*	-.14**	-.10*	-.01	-.13**	.39**	-.18**	-.06	.38**	.75**	.69**	(.93)			
16. Interpersonal Deviance (D)	1.75	.97	-.05	.04	-.04	-.13**	-.09	-.07	-.04	-.13*	.32**	-.14**	-.01	.40**	.76**	.67**	.85**	(.93)		
17. Individualistic Culture	4.10	.69	-.06	-.13**	-.25**	.15**	.18**	.16**	.24**	.12*	.23**	.28**	.29**	.17**	-.02*	-.09*	-.03**	-.08*	(.80)	
18. Collectivistic Culture	4.19	.60	-.01	-.07	-.15**	.08	.17**	.11*	.25**	.20**	.18**	.40**	.47**	.25**	-.02*	-.02*	-.10*	-.11*	.54**	(.86)

Reliability coefficients are shown in parentheses on the diagonal; * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; Pearson correlation, two-tailed

TABLE 35
Means, Standard Deviation and Correlation among Variables in Sample 7 (USA=583)

	Mean	S.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Industry	8.16	3.89																		
2. Employment Status1	1.21	.41	.25**																	
3. Employment Status2	1.08	.27	.12**	.46**																
4. Gender	1.51	.50	.17*	.11**	.03															
5. Age	2.66	1.27	-.09*	-.05	-.04	-.02														
6. Educational Qualification	1.88	.80	-.06	-.06	-.03	-.08	.01													
7. Job level	1.98	1.21	-.15**	-.20**	-.10*	-.23**	.09*	.27**												
8. Work Experience	1.61	.78	.01	.11**	.05	.06	.55**	-.03	-.10*											
9. Self-serving Deviance (C)	2.77	.83	-.03	.02	.03	-.03	.12**	.09*	.00	.12**	(.70)									
10. Intervening Deviance (C)	3.01	.86	-.07	-.01	.03	-.05	.08*	.17**	.36**	-.00	.19**	(.84)								
11. Climate Deviance (C)	3.57	.68	-.11*	.02	-.03	-.04**	.17**	.05	.22**	.11**	.13**	.32**	(.90)							
12. Innovative Deviance (C)	2.66	.97	-.17**	-.10*	-.07	-.04	.05	.16**	.22**	-.00	.20**	.36**	.21**	(.89)						
13. Challenging Deviance (C)	1.70	.84	-.16**	-.06	-.01	-.18**	.06	.17**	.29**	.03	.33**	.31**	.11**	.56**	(.93)					
14. Interpersonal Deviance (C)	1.74	.82	-.17**	-.07	.00	-.07	.10*	.14**	.23**	.05	.26**	.42**	.14**	.50**	.70**	(.82)				
15. Organizational Deviance (D)	1.49	.72	-.15**	-.04	-.02	-.19**	.18**	.11**	.24**	.16**	.38**	-.24**	-.16**	.31**	.68**	.62**	(.95)			
16. Interpersonal Deviance (D)	1.40	.76	-.16**	-.04	.01	-.20**	.11**	.08	.19**	.10*	.32**	-.25**	-.08*	.34**	.72**	.67**	.83**	(.95)		
17. Individualistic Culture	3.97	.61	-.07	-.03	-.10*	-.02	.01	-.06	-.03	-.01	.20**	.03	-.07	.14**	-.13**	-.06**	-.07*	-.07*	(.76)	
18. Collectivistic Culture	3.95	.51	-.06	.01	-.02	.07	-.02	-.03	.06	-.04	.06	.34**	.38**	.21**	-.03*	-.12**	-.02*	-.02*	.18**	(.81)

Reliability coefficients are shown in parentheses on the diagonal; * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; Pearson correlation, two-tailed

7.10.4.1. Hypothesised Model Testing

The standardised scores from the resulting structural invariant models were used to test the hypothesised model. The purpose of this Multi-group SEM is to fulfil the three-fold objective of the study: 1) to determine if the proposed model is acceptable in India and the USA 2) to determine if individualism and collectivism has a moderating effect on the relationship of climate and witness behaviour towards deviance with destructive and constructive deviance and 3) to determine that irrespective of the nationality of the individual, the behavioural outcome would be the same for Indians and Americans.

The tested model would consist of independent constructs of organizational climate, witness behaviour towards workplace deviance, interaction terms: organizational climate \times individualism, organizational climate \times collectivism, Self-serving behaviour \times individualism, Self-serving behaviour \times collectivism, Intervening behaviour \times individualism and Intervening \times collectivism and dependent constructs of destructive (Model 1) and constructive deviance (Model 2) (Refer to the illustrative figures 8 and 11), to determine the fit of the model across the two groups. First, the main effects were constrained and tested with the baseline model where all the parameters were free and if the fit of the model was good, the moderation parameters were constrained to be equal. Following the recommendations of Rigdon et al., (1998), a model in which the hypothesis parameters (interactions) are fixed to be the same across groups is tested against a model in which the parameters are free. Then a Chi-square difference test can be used along with other fit indices to determine the effects of moderation and the final model that fits the two groups. The results of the constrained and unconstrained models are present in Table 37. The results of the path co-efficient and SE-values of the model in which all the parameters are constrained to be the same across India and the USA along with the unconstrained model results to determine the individual country effect are present in Table 38 and 39. Figure 7 provides the hypothesised model and for ease and purpose of the analyses this model was split into two one with destructive and the other with constructive deviance behaviour. The revised models after the analyses are depicted in Figure 8 and 9.

With respect to Model 1, all parameters were unconstrained across the two groups and this formed the baseline model ($\chi^2 = 349.73$; $\chi^2/df = 1.99$; TLI = .94; CFI = .98 and RMSEA = .03). Next, the main effects were constrained to be the same across India and USA. The results showed a good model fit ($\chi^2 = 362.23$; $\chi^2/df = 1.99$; TLI = .94; CFI = .98 and RMSEA = .034). Then the moderation effects were all constrained to be the same across India and the USA. The results show that there was no substantial increase in the fit of the constrained model when compared to the unconstrained model fit ($\chi^2 = 380.40$; $\chi^2/df = 1.92$; TLI = .95; CFI = .98 and RMSEA = .03). Thus, it can be inferred that the same model with the same path co-efficients was accepted as adequate for the two groups.

With regard to climate, the Indian sample showed no significant relationship of organizational climate with organizational deviance ($\beta = -.09$, $p = n.s$) and interpersonal ($\beta = -.09$, $p = n.s$) deviance. Whereas, in the US sample, it was significant with organizational deviance ($\beta = .21$, $p < .001$) and interpersonal deviance ($\beta = .19$, $p < .001$) but in the opposite pattern thus not supporting Hypothesis 1. Self-serving behaviour showed a significant relationship with organizational ($\beta_{India} = .46$, $p < .001$; $\beta_{USA} = .28$, $p < .001$) and interpersonal ($\beta_{India} = .43$, $p < .001$; $\beta_{USA} = .22$, $p < .001$) deviance in both the samples supporting Hypothesis 3a and b. Intervening behaviour was significant with only organizational deviance ($\beta = -.10$, $p < .5$) in the Indian sample and showed no relationship with interpersonal ($\beta = -.07$, $p = n.s$) deviance. The USA sample showed no significance with both forms of deviance, thus providing partial support for hypothesis 5a and no support to 5b.

To determine the moderation effect of individualism and collectivism the paths from organizational climate \times individualism, organizational climate \times collectivism, Self-serving behaviour \times individualism, Self-serving behaviour \times collectivism, Intervening behaviour \times individualism and Intervening \times collectivism to both forms of destructive deviance were all constrained to be the same across India and the USA. The results, when compared with the baseline model, showed that there was a significant difference in the overall model fit when restricting the factor loadings of the interaction paths to be same across the groups ($\Delta \chi^2 = 30.67$, $df = 22$, $p > .05$), thus predicting the moderating effect of cultural orientation across the two groups.

In the Indian sample, there was no significant moderation of individualism between climate and destructive organizational deviance ($\beta=.13$, $p=n.s.$) and interpersonal deviance ($\beta=.14$, $p=n.s.$) showing no support for hypothesis 7a. In addition, collectivism also showed no significant moderation with climate and destructive organizational ($\beta=-.05$, $p=n.s.$) and interpersonal ($\beta=-.12$, $p=n.s.$) deviance showing no support for hypothesis 9a. The self-serving behaviour showed no significant moderation of individualism and collectivism with both organizational ($\beta_{\text{Individualism}}=-.00$, $p=n.s.$; $\beta_{\text{Collectivism}}=.02$, $p=n.s.$) and interpersonal ($\beta_{\text{Individualism}}=-.03$, $p=n.s.$; $\beta_{\text{Collectivism}}=.06$, $p=n.s.$) destructive deviance, thus not supporting Hypothesis 8a.i. and 10a.i. The intervening behaviour showed no significant moderation of individualism with organizational ($\beta=.12$, $p=n.s.$) and interpersonal ($\beta=.13$, $p=n.s.$) destructive deviance, thus not supporting hypothesis 8a.ii. Collectivism moderated this relationship with organizational ($\beta=-.18$, $p<.05$) and interpersonal ($\beta=-.17$, $p<.05$) deviance thus, supporting hypothesis 10a.ii.

In the American sample, individualism showed a moderation of climate with organizational ($\beta=.13$, $p<.05$) and interpersonal ($\beta=.12$, $p<.01$) deviance but in the opposite direction, thus not supporting hypothesis 7a. Collectivism showed no moderation of organizational climate with organizational ($\beta=-.02$, $p=n.s.$) and interpersonal ($\beta=-.06$, $p=n.s.$) deviance, thus not supporting hypothesis 9a. In addition, individualism and collectivism showed no moderating effect between self-serving behaviour and workplace organizational ($\beta_{\text{Individualism}}=.01$, $p=n.s.$; $\beta_{\text{Collectivism}}=.01$, $p=n.s.$) and interpersonal ($\beta_{\text{Individualism}}=-.02$, $p=n.s.$; $\beta_{\text{Collectivism}}=.02$, $p=n.s.$) deviance thus not supporting hypothesis 8a.i. and 10a.i. Moreover, Intervening behaviour showed no significant moderation of individualism and collectivism with organizational ($\beta_{\text{Individualism}}=-.05$, $p=n.s.$; $\beta_{\text{Collectivism}}=-.02$, $p=n.s.$) and interpersonal ($\beta_{\text{Individualism}}=-.06$, $p=n.s.$; $\beta_{\text{Collectivism}}=-.01$, $p=n.s.$) destructive deviance thus, not supporting hypothesis 8a.ii. and 10a.ii.

In Model 2, all parameters were unconstrained to be free across the two groups and this formed the baseline model ($\chi^2=351.45$; $\chi^2/df=1.97$; TLI=.94; CFI=.98 and RMSEA=.03). Next, the main effects were constrained to be the same across India and the USA. The results showed a good model fit ($\chi^2=360.39$; $\chi^2/df=1.93$; TLI=.94; CFI=.98 and RMSEA=.03). Then the moderation effects were all constrained to be

the same across India and the USA. The results show that there was no substantial increase in the fit of the constrained model when compared to the unconstrained model ($\chi^2 = 404.64$; $\chi^2/df = 1.92$; TLI = .94; CFI = .97 and RMSEA = .03). Thus, it can be inferred that the same model with the same path co-efficient was accepted as adequate for the two groups.

With regard to climate, the Indian sample showed no significant relationship between organizational climate and any form of constructive deviance ($\beta_{\text{Innovative}} = .08$, $p = n.s.$; $\beta_{\text{Challenging}} = .04$, $p = n.s.$; $\beta_{\text{Interpersonal}} = .07$, $p = n.s.$). Whereas the USA sample showed a significant relationship with all forms of constructive deviance ($\beta_{\text{Innovative}} = .19$, $p < .001$; $\beta_{\text{Challenging}} = .24$, $p < .001$; $\beta_{\text{Interpersonal}} = .32$, $p < .001$) thus, partially supporting Hypothesis 2a, b and c. Self-serving behaviour showed a significant relationship with innovative ($\beta_{\text{India}} = .24$, $p < .001$; $\beta_{\text{USA}} = .12$, $p < .001$), challenging ($\beta_{\text{India}} = .39$, $p < .001$; $\beta_{\text{USA}} = .20$, $p < .001$) and interpersonal ($\beta_{\text{India}} = .33$, $p < .001$; $\beta_{\text{USA}} = .16$, $p < .001$) deviance in both the samples supporting Hypothesis 4a, b and c. Intervening behaviour showed no significant relationship with any form of constructive deviance in the Indian Sample ($\beta_{\text{Innovative}} = .01$, $p = n.s.$; $\beta_{\text{Challenging}} = -.05$, $p = n.s.$; $\beta_{\text{Interpersonal}} = -.06$, $p = n.s.$). However it showed a significant relationship with only interpersonal ($\beta = -.06$, $p < .05$) deviance but in the opposite pattern and not with innovative ($\beta = .03$, $p = n.s.$), challenging ($\beta = -.01$, $p = n.s.$) deviance in US sample, thus not supporting hypothesis 6a, b and c.

To determine the moderation effect of individualism and collectivism, the paths from organizational climate \times individualism, organizational climate \times collectivism, Self-serving behaviour \times individualism, Self-serving behaviour \times collectivism, Intervening behaviour \times individualism and Intervening \times collectivism to all forms of deviance behaviour were all constrained to be the same across India and the USA. The results show that there was a significant difference in the overall model fit when restricting the factor loadings of the interaction paths to be same across the groups ($\Delta \chi^2 = 53.19$, $df = 33$, $p < .05$) though the difference was only small the difference in fit indices can be considered to prove the invariance of the model. Thus predicting the moderating effect of individualism and collectivism orientation across the two groups.

With regard to climate, the Indian sample showed no significant moderation effect of individualism and collectivism with any form of constructive deviance, thus not

supporting Hypothesis 7b and 9b. The self-serving behaviour showed a significant moderation with only innovate deviance ($\beta=.01$, $p=n.s$) but not with challenging ($\beta=.00$, $p=n.s$) and interpersonal ($\beta=-.01$, $p=n.s$) deviance. Collectivism showed no moderation with innovative ($\beta =.01$, $p=n.s$), challenging ($\beta=-.15$, $p=n.s$) and interpersonal ($\beta=-.07$, $p=n.s$) constructive deviance, thus partially supporting hypothesis 8b.i and not 10b.i. The intervening behaviour showed no significant moderation of individualism with any forms of constructive deviance but collectivism showed a significant moderation with only challenging ($\beta =-.15$, $p<.05$) and interpersonal ($\beta =-.16$, $p<.05$) and not with innovative constructive deviance ($\beta_{individualism}=-.05$, $p=n.s$). The results thus do not support hypothesis 8b.ii and partially support 10b.ii.

In the American sample, there was a significant moderation of individualism with climate and only challenging constructive deviance ($\beta=.07$, $p<.05$) thus partially supporting not hypothesis 7b. Collectivism significantly moderated the relationship of climate with challenging ($\beta=-.06$, $p<.05$), innovative ($\beta=-.07$, $p<.05$) and interpersonal ($\beta=.07$, $p<.05$) constructive deviance, hence providing support for hypothesis 9b. The self-serving behaviour showed a significant moderation of individualism with only challenging ($\beta =-.09$, $p<.05$) and interpersonal ($\beta=-.08$, $p<.05$) deviance but in the opposite pattern and not with innovative ($\beta =-.03$, $p=n.s$) constructive deviance thus not supporting hypothesis 8b.i.. Whereas, collectivism moderated the relationship of self-serving behaviour with challenging ($\beta=.06$, $p<.05$) and interpersonal ($\beta= .06$, $p<.05$) deviance and not with innovative deviance ($\beta= .03$, $p=n.s$), thus providing a partial support for Hypothesis 10b.i. The Intervening behaviour showed no significant moderation of individualism with any form of constructive deviance ($\beta_{Innovative}=-.01$, $p=n.s$; $\beta_{Challenging}=-.03$, $p=n.s$; $\beta_{Interpersonal}=-.03$, $p=n.s$) thus providing no support for hypothesis 8b.ii.. Collectivism moderated the relationship with only innovative ($\beta=-.07$, $p<.05$) deviance and not with challenging ($\beta=-.04$, $p=n.s$) and interpersonal ($\beta=-.05$, $p=n.s$) constructive deviance, thus partially supporting Hypothesis 10b.ii.

TABLE 37.
Model Testing

Model		χ^2	df	p-value	χ^2/df	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
1	M1: OC, S, I, DDOD, DDID with interactions	349.731	176	.00	1.99	.97	.94	.98	.03
	M2: Constraining for climate, S, I	362.23	182	.00	1.99	.97	.94	.98	.03
	$\Delta M2$ versus M1	12.50	6	.05		.00	.00	.00	.00
	M3: Constraining for climate, S, I, individualism and collectivism moderators	380.40	198	.00	1.92	.97	.95	.98	.03
	$\Delta M3$ versus M1	30.67	22	.10		.00	-.01	.00	.00
2	M4: OC, S, I, CDINN, CDCHA, CDID with interactions	351.45	178	.00	1.97	.97	.94	.98	.03
	M5: Constraining for climate, S, I	360.39	187	.00	1.93	.97	.94	.98	.03
	$\Delta M5$ versus M4	8.94	9	.44		.00	.00	.00	.00
	M6: Constraining for climate, S, I, individualism and collectivism moderators	404.64	211	.00	1.92	.97	.94	.97	.03
	$\Delta M6$ versus M4	53.19	33	.01		.00	.00	-.01	.00

OC-organizational climate, S-Self-serving behaviour, I-Intervener behaviour, DDOD- organizational destructive deviance, DDID-interpersonal destructive deviance, CDINN-innovative constructive deviance, CDCHA-challenging constructive deviance, CDID- interpersonal constructive deviance. χ^2 -chi square goodness of fit ratio, df-degree of freedom, χ^2/df = chi-square/degree of freedom, TLI-Tucker Lewis Fit Index, CFI-Comparative Fit index, RMSEA-Root mean square error approximation.

TABLE 38
Path Coefficients for India and the USA with Destructive Deviance

Path	Constrained model		India		USA	
	B (S.E)	β	B (S.E)	β	B (S.E)	β
Individualism → DDOD	-.01 (.03)	-.01	-.13* (.08)	-.12	.05 (.04)	.05
Individualism → DDID	-.01 (.03)	-.01	-.14* (.08)	-.13	.05 (.04)	.05
Collectivism → DDOD	-.13*** (.03)	-.13	-.12* (.08)	-.12	-.09* (.04)	-.10
Collectivism → DDID	-.14*** (.03)	-.14	-.11* (.08)	-.11	-.12** (.04)	-.12
OC → DDOD	.12*** (.03)	.10	-.12 (.09)	.09	.20*** (.04)	.21
OC → DDID	.14*** (.04)	.12	-.09 (.09)	.09	.17*** (.04)	.19
OC × Individualism → DDOD	.08* (.03)	.09	.12 (.11)	.13	.12* (.04)	.13
OC × Individualism → DDID	.08* (.04)	.08	.13 (.11)	.14	.12** (.04)	.12
OC × Collectivism → DDOD	-.03 (.03)	-.03	-.05 (.10)	-.05	-.02 (.04)	-.02
OC × Collectivism → DDID	-.08* (.03)	-.07	-.12 (.1)	-.12	-.05 (.04)	-.06
S → DDOD	.33*** (.04)	.28	.56*** (.09)	.46	.29*** (.04)	.28
S → DDID	.29*** (.04)	.24	.52*** (.09)	.43	.24*** (.04)	.22
S × Individualism → DDOD	.02 (.03)	.02	-.00 (.10)	-.00	.01 (.04)	.01
S × Individualism → DDID	.00 (.03)	.00	-.03 (.10)	-.03	-.02 (.04)	-.02
S × Collectivism → DDOD	.02 (.03)	.02	.02 (.10)	.02	.01 (.04)	.01
S × Collectivism → DDID	.01 (.03)	.01	.05 (.10)	.06	.02 (.04)	.02
I → DDOD	-.06* (.04)	-.05	-.13* (.07)	-.10	-.04 (.04)	-.03
I → DDID	-.04 (.04)	-.03	-.10 (.07)	-.07	-.03 (.05)	-.03
I × Individualism → DDOD	-.02 (.03)	-.02	.11 (.07)	.12	-.05 (.04)	-.05
I × Individualism → DDID	-.01 (.03)	-.02	.12 (.07)	.13	-.06 (.04)	-.06
I × Collectivism → DDOD	-.03 (.03)	-.03	-.16* (.07)	-.18	-.01 (.04)	-.02
I × Collectivism → DDID	-.03 (.03)	-.03	-.16* (.07)	-.17	-.01 (.04)	-.01

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

OC-organizational climate, S-Self-serving behaviour, I-Intervener behaviour, DDOD- organizational destructive deviance, DDID-interpersonal destructive deviance.

TABLE 39
Path Coefficients for India and the USA with Constructive Deviance

Path	Constrained model		India		USA	
	B (S.E)	β	B (S.E)	β	B (S.E)	β
Individualism → CDINN	.05 (.04)	.04	-.03 (.09)	-.03	.10* (.04)	.09
Individualism → CDCHA	.02 (.03)	.02	-.07 (.08)	-.06	.09 (.04)	.09
Individualism → CDID	.02 (.03)	.02	.04 (.08)	.04	.02 (.04)	.02
Collectivism → CDINN	.03 (.04)	.03	.07 (.08)	.07	.03 (.05)	.03
Collectivism → CDCHA	-.09** (.03)	-.09	-.09 (.08)	-.09	-.08* (.04)	-.08
Collectivism → CDID	-.06 (.03)	-.06	-.15* (.08)	-.15	-.02 (.04)	-.02
OC → CDINN	.18*** (.04)	.16	.09 (.09)	.08	.19*** (.04)	.19
OC → CDCHA	.20*** (.03)	.17	.05 (.09)	.04	.23*** (.04)	.24
OC → CDID	.26*** (.03)	.23	.08 (.09)	.07	.29*** (.04)	.32
OC × Individualism → CDINN	-.04 (.04)	-.04	-.13 (.11)	-.14	-.02 (.04)	-.02
OC × Individualism → CDCHA	.04 (.03)	.04	-.01 (.11)	-.01	.07* (.04)	.08
OC × Individualism → CDID	.05* (.03)	.05	.02 (.11)	.02	.05 (.04)	.05
OC × Collectivism → CDINN	-.04 (.04)	-.04	.10 (.10)	.10	-.06* (.04)	-.06
OC × collectivism → CDCHA	-.07* (.03)	-.07	.01 (.10)	.01	-.07* (.04)	-.07
OC × collectivism → CDID	-.06* (.03)	-.06	.07 (.10)	.07	-.06* (.04)	-.07
S → CDINN	.18*** (.04)	.15	.28* (.09)	.24	.14* (.05)	.12
S → CDCHA	.27*** (.04)	.23	.46*** (.09)	.39	.21*** (.04)	.20
S → CDID	.20*** (.04)	.17	.39*** (.09)	.33	.17*** (.04)	.16
S × Individualism → CDINN	.01 (.03)	.01	.15* (.11)	.18	-.01 (.04)	-.01
S × Individualism → CDCHA	-.05* (.03)	-.06	.00 (.10)	.00	-.08* (.04)	-.09
S × Individualism → CDID	-.05* (.03)	-.06	-.01 (.10)	-.01	-.07* (.04)	-.08
S × Collectivism → CDINN	.02 (.03)	.02	.01 (.10)	.01	.02 (.04)	.03

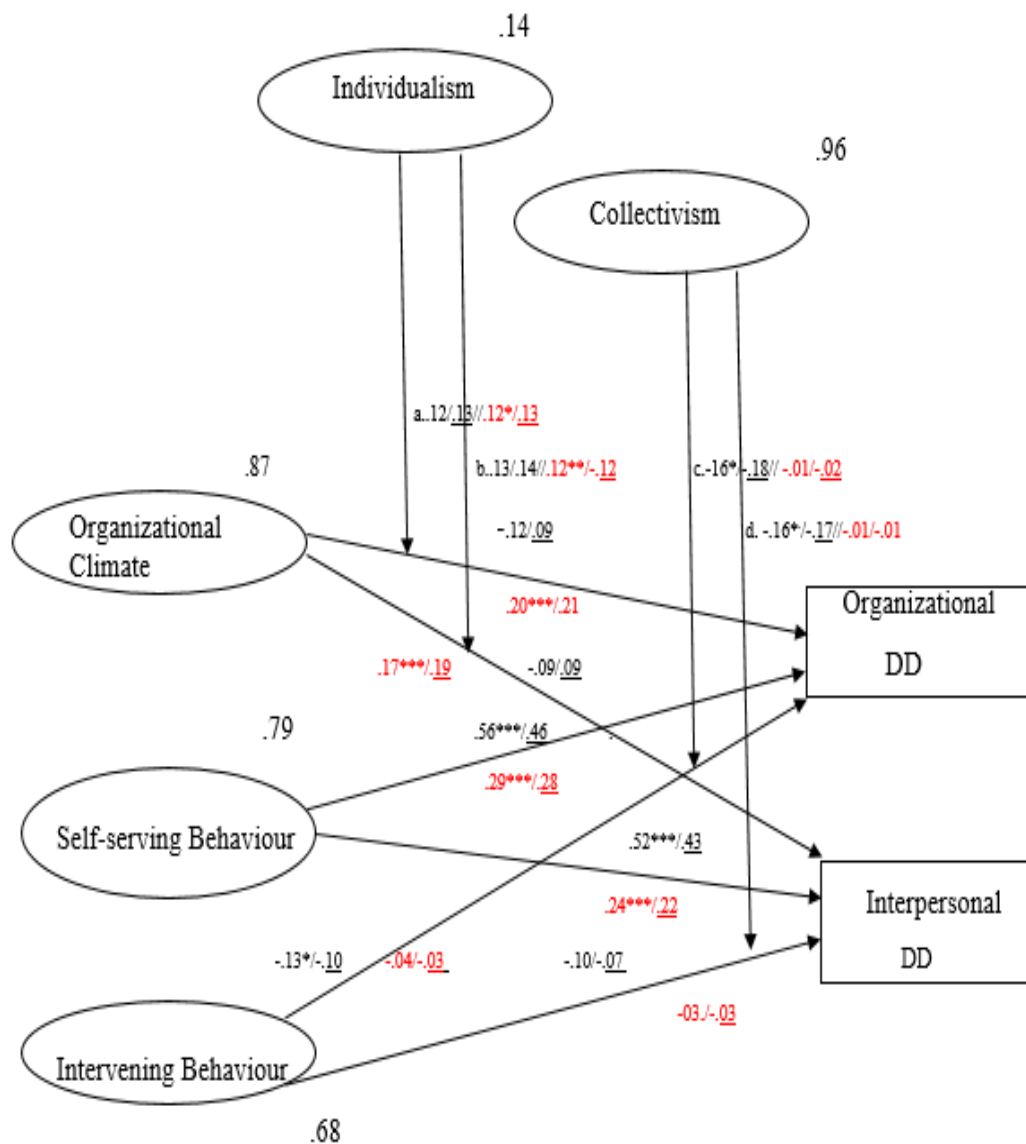
TABLE 39
CONTINUED

Path	Constrained model		India		USA	
	B (S.E)	β	B (S.E)	β	B (S.E)	β
S × Collectivism→CDCHA	.06* (.03)	.07	-.13 (.10)	-.15	.05* (.04)	.06
S × Collectivism→CDID	.03 (.03)	.04	-.06 (.10)	-.07	.05* (.04)	.06
I→CDINN	.03 (.04)	.02	.02 (.07)	.01	.04 (.05)	.03
I→CDCHA	-.03 (.04)	-.03	-.06 (.07)	-.05	-.01 (.05)	-.01
I→CDID	-.06* (.03)	-.05	-.07 (.07)	-.06	-.07* (.05)	-.06
I× Individualism→CDINN	.02 (.03)	.02	.04 (.07)	.04	-.01 (.05)	-.01
I× Individualism→CDCHA	-.01 (.03)	-.01	.06 (.07)	.07	-.03 (.04)	-.03
I× Individualism→CDID	-.01 (.03)	-.01	.06 (.07)	.07	-.03 (.04)	-.03
I× Collectivism→CDINN	-.05* (.03)	-.06	-.04 (.07)	-.05	-.07* (.04)	-.07
I× Collectivism→CDCHA	-.05* (.03)	-.06	-.14* (.07)	-.15	-.04 (.04)	-.04
I× Collectivism→CDID	-.05* (.03)	-.05	-.14* (.07)	-.16	-.04 (.04)	-.05

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

I-Intervener, CDINN-innovative constructive deviance, CDCHA-challenging constructive deviance, CDID- interpersonal constructive deviance.

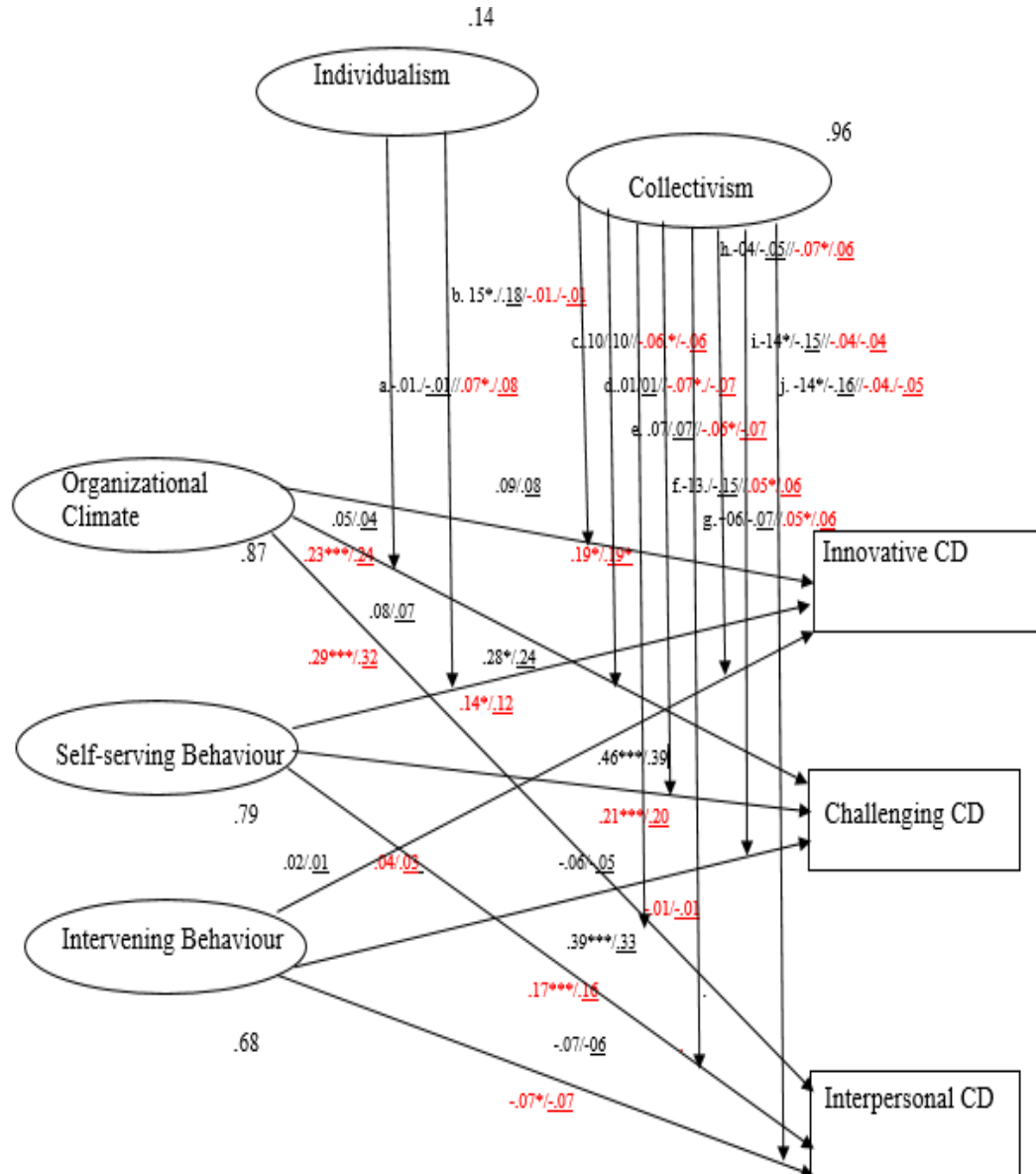
FIGURE 8
Revised Structural Model 1



a-organizational climate × individualism→ organizational destructive deviance, b- organizational climate × individualism→ interpersonal destructive deviance c- Intervening behaviour × collectivism→ organizational destructive deviance, d- Intervening behaviour × collectivism→ interpersonal deviance. The unstandardized and standardized output (underlined) are shown in the figure and the results of the USA Samples are highlighted in red.
***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05.

FIGURE 9

Revised Structural Model 2



a- organizational climate × individualism→ challenging constructive deviance, b- self-serving behaviour × individualism→ innovative constructive deviance, c- organizational climate × collectivism→ innovative constructive deviance, d- organizational climate × collectivism→ challenging constructive deviance. e- organizational climate × collectivism→ interpersonal constructive deviance, f- self-serving × collectivism → challenging constructive deviance, g- Self-serving behaviour × collectivism → interpersonal constructive deviance, h- Intervening behaviour × collectivism → innovative constructive deviance, i- intervening behaviour × collectivism → challenging constructive deviance, j- intervening behaviour × collectivism → interpersonal constructive deviance.

The unstandardized and standardized output (underlined) are shown in the figure and the results of the USA samples are highlighted in red.

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

7.10.4.2. Summary of Results

Table 40 provides a summary table outlining the support for various hypotheses.

TABLE 40
Summary of Results

	List of Hypothesis	Indian Sample	USA Sample
H1a	OC → DDOD	Not Supported	Not supported
H1b	OC → DDID	Not supported	Not supported
H7a	OC × Individualism → DDOD	Not supported	Not supported
	OC × Individualism → DDID	Not supported	Not supported
H9a	OC × Collectivism → DDOD	Not supported	Not supported
	OC × Collectivism → DDID	Not supported	Not supported
H3a	S → DDOD	Supported	Supported
H3b	S → DDID	Supported	Supported
H8a.i.	S × Individualism → DDOD	Not supported	Not supported
	S × Individualism → DDID	Not supported	Not supported
H10a.i.	S × Collectivism → DDOD	Not supported	Not supported
	S × Collectivism → DDID	Not supported	Not supported
H5a	I → DDOD	Supported	Not Supported
H5b	I → DDID	Not Supported	Not Supported
H8a.ii	I × Individualism → DDOD	Not supported	Not supported
	I × Individualism → DDID	Not supported	Not supported
H10a.ii.	I × Collectivism → DDOD	Supported	Not supported
	I × Collectivism → DDID	Supported	Not supported
H2a	OC → CDINN	Not Supported	Supported
H2b	OC → CDCHA	Not supported	Supported
H2c	OC → CDID	Not supported	Supported
H7b	OC × Individualism → CDINN	Not supported	Not supported
	OC × Individualism → CDCHA	Not supported	Supported
	OC × Individualism → CDID	Not supported	Not supported
H9b	OC × Collectivism → CDINN	Not supported	Supported
	OC × collectivism → CDCHA	Not supported	Supported
	OC × collectivism → CDID	Not supported	Supported
H4a	S → CDINN	Supported	Supported
H4b	S → CDCHA	Supported	Supported
H4c	S → CDID	Supported	Supported
H8b.i.	S × Individualism → CDINN	Supported	Not supported
	S × Individualism → CDCHA	Not supported	Not supported
	S × Individualism → CDID	Not supported	Not supported
H10b.i.	S × Collectivism → CDINN	Not supported	Not supported
	S × Collectivism → CDCHA	Not supported	Supported
	S × Collectivism → CDID	Not supported	Supported
H6a	I → CDINN	Not supported	Not supported
H6b	I → CDCHA	Not supported	Not supported
H6c	I → CDID	Not supported	Not supported
H8b.ii.	I × Individualism → CDINN	Not Supported	Not Supported
	I × Individualism → CDCHA	Not Supported	Not Supported
	I × Individualism → CDID	Not Supported	Not Supported
H10b.ii.	I × Collectivism → CDINN	Not supported	Supported
	I × Collectivism → CDCHA	Supported	Not supported
	I × Collectivism → CDID	Supported	Not supported

One of the aims of this study was to determine that irrespective of the nationality of the individual, the behavioural outcome would be similar for Indians and Americans as cultural orientation acts as a moderator. Analysis using Multigroup Structural equation modelling proved that the model was acceptable in India and the USA. For destructive deviance, climate had a positive effect on organizational and interpersonal destructive deviance and individualism moderated this relationship in the USA sample whereas no direct or moderation effect was found on interpersonal deviance in the Indian sample. The self-serving behaviour though having had a direct positive effect on organizational and interpersonal deviance, showed no moderation effect of individualism and collectivism on the outcomes of both the samples. The intervening behaviour resulted in a suggested direct effect with only organizational destructive deviance and not with interpersonal deviance. Individualism showed no moderation effect but collectivism showed a moderation effect with both organizational and interpersonal deviance in the Indian Sample. In the US sample, intervener behaviour showed no direct or moderation effect with organizational and interpersonal deviance.

For constructive deviance, climate showed no direct or moderating effect with any forms of constructive deviance in the Indian sample. However, the USA sample showed a direct effect with all forms of deviance and individualism moderated this relationship with only challenging deviance and collectivism moderated this relationship with all forms of deviance. The self-serving behaviour showed a direct positive relationship with all forms of constructive deviance in both Indian and US sample. In the Indian sample, individualism moderated this relationship with only innovative deviance and collectivism showed no moderation. In the US sample, individualism moderated this relationship with challenging and interpersonal deviance but in the opposite pattern, whereas collectivism moderated this relationship with only challenging and interpersonal deviance. Intervening behaviour showed a direct but opposite effect on only interpersonal constructive deviance in the US sample but showed no effect in the Indian sample. Individualism did not moderate the relationship in both the samples. Whereas, collectivism showed a moderation effect for challenging and interpersonal constructive deviance in the Indian sample and it moderated the relationship for only innovative deviance in the US sample.

Thus from the results, it can be inferred that, individuals with individualistic orientation when taken together with organizational climate was involved in more destructive and challenging constructive behaviours, whereas collectivistic orientation when taken together with climate was involved in less constructive deviance. Self-serving behaviour along with individualism resulted in an individual's involvement in more innovative behaviours and less challenging and interpersonal constructive deviance whereas collectivists were involved in more challenging and interpersonal deviance. Intervening behaviour along with collectivistic orientation resulted in less destructive along with innovative, challenging and interpersonal constructive deviance.

7.11. Discussion

The aim of the study was first, to determine the implementation of the conceptual model across India and the USA. The results provided support that the same model could be implemented across the countries, proving the generalisability of the model and proposing that a similar outcome could be expected from individuals irrespective of their nationality/culture. Secondly, it was to examine the main effects of organizational climate and witness behaviour towards workplace deviance with destructive and constructive deviance behaviour and to determine the moderation effect of individualistic and collectivistic orientation of an individual on the outcomes. Contrary to previous research (e.g. Kanten & Ulker, 2013; Vardi, 2001; Warren, 2003), climate was found to have a significant positive relationship with destructive and constructive deviance. This can be attributed to the fact that when individuals experience the climate of the organization to be supportive, structured, rewarding and just, then they would engage in destructive deviance thinking that their close relationship with their team manager and others within the team would help them get away with negative behaviours. Thus, more research is required to analyse the extensive relationship between climate and destructive deviance. Individuals would also engage more in constructive deviance as it would get them promotion for being innovative and supporting these behaviours within the organization would lead to many others following positive behaviours that would benefit the organization. In addition, the newly developed construct also showed a significant relationship with

both destructive and constructive deviant behaviours. An individual high on self-serving behaviours would engage in more destructive and constructive deviance as his own career progression is important to him and if becoming involved in deviance, negative or positive would promote his relationship with others in the team then he would be involved in it. Whereas an individual high on intervening behaviour would engage in less interpersonal constructive contrary to our expectation and destructive behaviour this can be attributed to his main aim which is to do something about the norm breaking behaviour and being involved in interpersonal constructive deviance though promote working efficiently it still involve disobeying and reporting a wrong doing.

Consistent with literature (Markus & Kityama, 1991; Noordin et al., 2002; Seibert et al., 2001), a significant moderation effect was found with climate, self-serving and intervening behaviour across India and the USA. Contrary to our expectation, an individual high in individualism when taken together with climate were engaged in more organizational destructive and challenging constructive deviance despite its direct effect. This can be attributed to the nature of the climate where those organizations that do not differentiate between negative and positive behaviours would inadvertently encourage individualists to make their own rules, as they are socially independent. In addition, when taken together with self-serving behaviour, individualist involved in more innovative behaviours but in less challenging and interpersonal behaviours as individuals care about themselves more than others, being involved in innovative behaviours would benefit their performance appraisal and their career. Whereas, the challenging and interpersonal behaviours are those that would improve the given job and well-being of colleagues.

In addition, individuals high in collectivism would engage in less destructive and constructive deviance as their acceptance of norms can be attributed to the group's behaviour and perception where they do not want to be deemed as deviants. When taken together with climate, collectivist were involved in less constructive deviance as becoming involved in any form of deviance in a supportive, conflict free and autonomous climate would bring tension within the team given their importance of belongingness towards a team. Taken together with self-serving behaviour would result in an individual becoming involved in challenging and interpersonal deviance

as it would benefit the friends within the organization. Whereas with intervening behaviour, individuals involved in less destructive and constructive deviance as interveners focus on reducing negative deviance and being a collectivist would hinder individuals from becoming a “deviant”. Thus the results supports the view that an individual’s individualistic and collectivistic orientation would have an effect on his experience of organizational climate and his reaction towards workplace deviant behaviours resulting in his involvement in destructive and constructive behaviours.

And finally, the study also set out to empirically support the view that individualistic individuals are in collectivistic societies and collectivistic individuals in individualistic societies i.e. both the independent and interdependent self are present within the same culture (Singelis, 1994). The results from the constrained moderation analysis provide support that irrespective of the nationality of the individual, the outcomes were consistent in the suggested pattern across India and the USA.

Overall, the study findings revealed that individualistic and collectivistic orientation of an individual would influence the involvement of individuals in destructive and constructive deviant activities. The theoretical and practical contributions of these findings are discussed in subsequent sections.

7.12. Conclusion

Thus, the aim of this chapter was to test the different hypotheses of the conceptual model developed using a multigroup SEM in both India and the USA. First, a multigroup SEM was tested to determine the fit of the model across two countries and the moderation effect of individualistic and collectivistic orientation of the individual on destructive and constructive deviance. Second, unlike previous research, the relationships were checked with both constructive and destructive deviance simultaneously in India and the USA, thus contributing to the strength of the present study. The results were discussed and the final revised model was depicted. The next chapter would provide the overall discussion along with the contributions: both practical and theoretical, limitations and future research of the entire thesis.

Chapter 8

Overall Discussion and Conclusion

Overview

This final chapter integrates all the findings of this research. The Chapter starts with the summary of findings followed by the theoretical and practical implications. The limitations and the direction of the future research are described.

8.1. Introduction

This research has followed three separate but inter-related objectives that focus on the nature of workplace destructive and constructive deviance in India and the USA. Study 1 examined the importance of acknowledging the behaviour of individuals who witness the workplace deviance in organizations. Study 2 involved developing a scale to measure Witness behaviour of workplace deviance. Study 3, conducted a content validity of the newly developed measure with two different samples from India and the USA. Study 4 tested for convergent, discriminant and predictive validity of the scale across India and the USA. Study 5 aimed at testing different hypotheses in support of the developed conceptual framework through multi-group SEM analysis. This chapter summarises the findings of the entire study, discussing the various implications and highlighting the limitations and future research directions.

8.2. Summary of Finding

The findings from Study 2 revealed that the construct of Witness behaviour towards Workplace deviance (WBTWD) consisted of self-serving and intervening behaviour consistent with the literature on helping behaviour and deviance (Chakrabarti, 2013; Chekroun & Brauer, 2002; Ferguson and Barry, 2011; Porath & Pearson, 2010). It also revealed that the behaviour of their supervisors and co-workers influenced to some extent the witness behaviour also, consistent with previous studies on group norms and leaders as role models (Greenberger et al., 1987; Mawritz et al., 2012). Based on the descriptions of the one-to-one interviews analysis, which was coded by two separate coders including myself, items were

written to measure WBTWD. The items were then subjected to item sorting task thus establishing the initial face validity for the newly developed scale.

Study 3 went on to test the validity of the developed measure in India and the USA. Sample 2 and 3 were split randomly into two halves. Sample 2a and 3a, tested the structural validity of the newly developed measure. EFA and CFA analyses were carried out on Sample 2a, 3a and Sample 2b, 3b respectively. The analysis revealed a 9-item measure of WBTWD with reliability of over the minimum .70 criteria with two sub-dimensions of self-serving behaviour and intervening behaviour factors. The CFA analysis further revealed a second order factor structure for the two sub-dimensions. Thus, both, EFA and CFA established the initial structural validity of the developed scale.

Study 4, consisted of Sample 4 and 5, which established the construct and criterion-related validities of the newly developed scale. These two samples consisted of measures of similar and dissimilar constructs to test the nomological network of the newly developed measure. The result from the analysis further revealed a consistent 2-factor structure loading on to an overriding factor of Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance. The study revealed that the new scale was distinct from constructive and destructive deviance and similar to organizational citizenship behaviour and Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect. The study further showed that WBTWD scale was positively related to affective commitment, work engagement and job satisfaction. Therefore, study 4 established the construct and criterion-related validities of the newly developed scale.

Study 5, went on to analyse the hypothesised model in two groups of India (Sample 6) and the USA (Sample 7) using multi-group structural equation modelling. This model was conceptualised to test the moderation effect of individualistic and collectivistic orientation of individuals on the main effects of climate, self-serving and intervening behaviour with both destructive and constructive deviance. The results empirically provided support that both the independent and interdependent self are present within the same culture (Singelis, 1994). The results also revealed that individual's cultural orientation did have a

moderating effect on the relationship of climate, self-serving, intervening with destructive and constructive deviance behaviour.

Thus, both the studies fulfilled the aims of this research, which was to a) to develop a valid and universal measure of individual Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance that could then be incorporated into a theoretical framework to test various hypothesis. It was important that the measure 1) captured the construct definition fully 2) was precise enough to be incorporated into a wider questionnaire across organizations 3) was clear and understandable to employees. b) To determine that same relationship exists when testing the new scale and organizational climate with constructive and destructive deviance with individuals' individualistic and collectivistic orientation as a moderator to support the effect of difference in individual cultural orientation irrespective of their nationality/culture.

8.3. Contributions

The research revealed a number of theoretical and practical contributions, which are discussed below.

8.3.1. Theoretical

The use of theory of planned behaviour along with self and social identity as a theoretical lens in developing the measure has contributed to the theory of planned behaviour by supporting the views of Terry et al., (1999) highlighting the effect of self and social identity on the attitude-behaviour relations.

The study is also the first to test the moderation effect of individual cultural orientation with respect to both destructive and constructive deviance behaviour, thus contributing to the workplace deviance literature. The past research on deviance literature has separately examined deviance behaviour with respect to the environment of the individuals (Peterson, 2002; Applebaum, Deguire & Lay, 2005) or their personality within the organizational culture (Judge & Cable, 1997) but all these three variables were not examined together (Bodankin & Tziner, 2009). The present study has made use of the social cognitive theory and has empirically contributed towards its implementation in deviance literature. The social cognitive theory main theme

describes the interactions between person and their situation (Mischel, 1973). In addition, this theory focuses on the individual's interpretation and response to different situations assessing the self-efficacy concept in an individual (Bandura, 1977a). Accordingly, the response of the experience of organizational climate is taken as an organizational variable that is the result of an individual's assessment of a situation/environment at work. The individualistic and collectivistic orientation of an individual is the personality variable taken as a self-construal concept as it would have varying effects on the behavioural outcomes (Matsumoto et al., 1997; Taras et al., 2009).

In addition, the witness behaviour towards workplace deviance was also included in the model addressing the self-efficacy and self-reflective rationale of the theory. The witness behaviour towards workplace deviance along with the individualistic and collectivistic orientation would result in an individual involvement in destructive and constructive deviance behaviour, as individuals would determine their behavioural outcome based on their observation of others and how it would affect their capability to engage in certain behaviours (Bandura, 1977b). The present study thus proved this interaction empirically, thus contributing towards the social cognitive theory from deviance perspective.

8.3.2. *Methodological*

The findings of the study 5 revealed the generalisability of the model irrespective of the nationality, thus contributing to cross-cultural literature as the study tested for individualistic and collectivistic orientation of an individual within the same culture contributing to the call for research by Tsui et al., (2007). To our knowledge, this study has been the first to examine a multigroup SEM and implementing measurement invariance across two countries from deviance perspective thus contributing to the existing knowledge of SEM literature (see Van de Vijver & Leung, 1997)

8.3.3. *Scale Development*

The present research proposed to test a conceptual framework by conducting a multigroup analysis in India and the USA, which was developed from previous research done on deviance. This led to the development of the WBTWD scale, which

aimed to empirically examine the construct. Despite the interest in the concept of witness perspective towards deviance, there was a lack of measurement in determining individual behaviour towards deviance, its definition along with the causal factors for such behaviours. Thus, Study 1 of this research has empirically extended the deviance literature to include the witness perspective towards deviance. By doing so, the study has brought the witness behaviour closer to organizational behaviour as previous empirical studies have looked at Witness behaviour from a classroom perspective (Salmivalli, 2005). By extending the witness perspective into deviance literature, this research has opened more opportunities for further theoretical exploration.

By providing a valid and reliable measure of Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance, this research has added to workplace deviance literature by providing the behavioural outcome of individuals who witness deviance activities as previous research has focused on the moral wrongness an individual felt regarding a certain behaviour (Jessor et al., 1980). By establishing different validities using Samples 2, 3, 4 and 5 studies 1, 2, 3 and 4 extended the literature on deviance by classifying the newly developed scale within the nomological network. It was found to be closer to OCB and EVLN constructs by establishing convergent validity, proving that the present scale sits closer to voluntary behaviours.

Furthermore, this research has shown links between WBTWD and individual behavioural outcomes such as affective commitment, work engagement and job satisfaction. Study 4 showed a positive relationship between self-serving and intervening behaviour with affective commitment, work engagement and job satisfaction supporting the extension of deviance literature into individual behavioural outcome. In addition, Studies 1, 2, 3 and 4 of this thesis are the first in developing and testing a scale in two different cultures, India and the USA, thus adding to the literature on scale development practices.

8.3.4. General Contribution

The main aim of Study 5 was to test the hypothesised model. Apart from adding to the deviance literature, the findings also contributed to cross-cultural, SEM and social cognitive theory literature by simultaneously examining the moderation effect of individualistic and collectivistic orientation of an individual between climate and

witness behaviour towards workplace deviance with both constructive and destructive deviance behaviours.

8.3.5. Practical

First, the research and results from Studies 1, 2, 3 and 4 of this research suggested that individuals who witness workplace deviance behaviours are indeed affected and would in turn engage in behaviours that are directed either towards themselves or towards the behaviour. Therefore, organizations would benefit from implementing this scale to determine the existence of these behaviours among their employees or new hires as different individuals are proved to have different reactions based on supervisor and peer influence as can be seen from the study.

Second, the results show that the newly developed scale positively affects individual work-related behavioural outcomes. The organizations may benefit from assigning employees who are self-serving as part of a group as these individuals assess their own behaviour with that of others. Whereas, individuals with high intervening behaviours would make good leaders who put the needs of others before theirs and try to resolve a behaviour thus contributing to the commitment, engagement and satisfaction of the individual.

Third, Diefendorff and Mehta (2007) estimated that workplace deviance results in 20% of business failure and annual loss of \$6-\$200 billion in US organizations. Coffin (2003) also stated that 33% to 75% employees engage in deviant activities like withdrawal, theft, production deviance, abusing co-workers etc., thus leading to more and more studies concentrated on Western countries. The findings of this study suggest that Indian employees are equally involved in destructive deviance like westerners. Thus, encouraging more studies in the Indian context and raising the awareness of Indian Managers that destructive behaviours and loss, as a consequence, are growing in India too, supporting the views of Pradhan and Pradhan (2014). In addition, since the outcome was to test for both destructive and constructive deviance, the results of the study suggest that a positive organizational climate would lead to more constructive deviance. This would provide managers across the two countries proof that improving their organizational climate would bring about a change in the behavioural outcome of their employees. They would benefit from getting feedback

from their employees regarding the work environment focusing on rewards, structure and support system in the organization/groups that could increase constructive forms of deviance.

Fourth, the results also provide support that destructive and constructive deviance is present within the organizations despite many organizations having a grievance department. This could be attributed to the nature of the destructive deviance behaviour that is not formally known to be harmful in different organizations. Thus, organizations could come up with interventions addressing this type of behaviour to make their employees aware of their involvement in deviance.

Fifth, being a witness to workplace deviance would result in an employee responding to it in a way that would benefit him or others in the management depending on whether he focused his response on himself or the deviant behaviour or sometimes both. The results suggests that an individual who is high in self-serving behaviour would engage in both destructive and constructive deviance, thus suggesting that these individuals are best suited to be team members as they would benefit from following orders. Whereas individuals high in intervening behaviour would engage in less destructive and challenging constructive deviance making them the eligible candidate with leadership qualities as they tend to think about other's well-being. Thus, organizations would benefit from the study in determining how individual response to various deviant behaviours would affect their involvement in destructive and constructive deviance.

Sixth, the study provided support that individuals high in individualism would engage less in destructive and more in constructive deviance contrary to some previous findings of unethical behaviour (Galperin, 2002; Robertson & Fadil, 1999). Thus, organizations would benefit from individuals with high individualism in leadership positions as they would curb destructive deviance in their teams as it would affect their own image and their constructive behaviours would be followed by their teams. Those high in collectivism would be best as their sub-ordinates as their acceptance and involvement in a particular behaviour depends on the team as proved from the study.

Seventh, the study suggests and provides support that the same individual, high in self-serving behaviour and experience a positive organizational climate would become

involved in both destructive and constructive deviance behaviour. Organizations or Managers should make their employees aware of acceptable and unacceptable behaviour within the organization. This is because these destructive behaviours are voluntary behaviours that are against the organizational norms but these norms vary across industries and so many of these behaviours are not found on most company policies. However, a huge number of surveys and research have determined the loss caused due to these behaviours (Case, 2000; Kroll's global fraud survey, 2014), thus organizations and managers should explicitly define for their employees, the line between being constructive: benefiting the organization and being a deviant: harming the organization.

Lastly, the presence of individualist and collectivist within the same culture provides proof of individual difference, thus suggesting that while hiring, assessment of this aspect would provide more information about an individual's expected behavioural outcome and his/her fit for the role.

8.4. Limitations

This research also has a number of limitations.

Study Design: Both the studies followed a cross-sectional design that suggested the findings do not provide a causal inference (Holland, 1985). However, the triangulation method was used with different samples from India and the USA that were collected to determine the various relationships in the research such as determining the antecedents of workplace deviance and the predictive validity of the newly developed scale. The validity of Studies 2, 3 and 4 was strengthened through the results from qualitative study that helped with the understanding of the concept of witness behaviour towards deviance. This was further verified by using two quantitative studies that determined the reliability and validity of the newly developed scale. The hypothesised relationships of Study 5 were also verified by using a multi-group analysis in two different samples. Though the methodological features do not establish a causal status of the relationships reported in the research, they do contribute exceptionally towards the research findings.

In addition, although study 5 was grounded in the social cognitive perspective and the relationships reported were consistent with predictions and theory, future research with longitudinal design will be better suited to address directionality of the relationships examined. Moreover, due to time constraint, the data was obtained from employees at a single time but the model would benefit from examining these relationships in a longitudinal study from employees who have just started their career (Time 1) and after 6 months or 1 year (Time 2) so that they understand the organization. This is because workplace experience of an individual is said to influence behavioural outcomes (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Hollinger, 1986; Shahzad & Mahmood, 2012).

Source of Information: The data for Study 2 was collected through one-to-one interview and the quantitative data for both the studies were collected from employees to determine their own behavioural outcomes thus leading to the presence of common method bias. This was acknowledged in the research by taking into account both procedure (Podsakoff et al. 2003) and empirical assessments (Malhotra, Kim, & Patil 2006). Procedurally, respondents were assured of their anonymity, they were also informed that there are no right or wrong answers and that they should answer as honestly as possible; the scale items within a measure were also randomly ordered to avoid response sets and a pilot was conducted to assess the clarity and ambiguity (Podsakoff et al. 2003). The CMB was also tested analytically by including a common factor that allowed the indicators of other constructs to load on this latent factor as well as their hypothesized constructs (refer to chapter 3). However, this method is not without its limitations, where it would not be possible to identify the specific cause of variance in the data.

Scale Generalisability: The newly developed scale was tested and validated to support the generalisability of the scale in India and the USA. However, the scale was tested in both the countries in English and the translation approach has not been tested in the present study where it is validated in different cultures by translating the scale so that the etic and emic (refer to chapter 3) issues if at all present in the scale could be identified (Farh et al., 2006).

SEM analysis: As the focus of the study was to test the implementation of the conceptual model in India and the USA, a multigroup CFA was analysed. However, future research would also benefit from a multilevel study that examines these relationships and determines if they vary across different levels within the organization, as leader behaviours would reflect on their subordinates (Appelbaum et al., 2005; Treviño & Brown, 2005) and this relationship could be tested using the model across two level.

Industry Specific: The theoretical relationships predicted and analysed are based on organization context-free models, as the focus was to test the model and the relationships across two countries that are known to have different cultures. Future research would benefit from testing the relationships in various industries as different industries have different norms (Pennings & Gresov, 1986).

However all these limitations were compensated in the present research through methodological strengths. First, the design of the research consisted of two separate but inter-related studies that may counterbalance these limitations. The use of triangulation with different samples would strengthen the confidence of relationships tested in research. Also, both studies have been tested in two different cultures and analysed for measurement invariance. Thus contributing to substantive findings that are not limited by methodological issues.

8.5. Future Research

The present research is the first to develop a 2-factor scale to assess the witness behaviour towards workplace deviance and also in testing a conceptual framework to determine the effect of climate and WBTWD in India and the USA but future research would benefit from the following suggestions:

Causes and Consequences: This research examined the predictive validity of the newly developed scale, but more research is required in determining the causes of self-serving and intervening behaviour to understand the construct better. Study 5 consisted of a multi-group analysis of organizational (Climate) and Individual (Witness behaviour towards workplace deviance) factors on employee destructive and constructive deviance behaviour in their workplace. Future research should examine

the organizational factors that contribute to employee deviance like organizational culture, organizational trust (Alias et al., 2012; Galperin, 2002) and individual factors like personality, and individual ethical orientation (Bodankin, 2009; Galperin, 2002) in the same study to determine both destructive and constructive deviance with individual moral belief as a moderator. This would further the present research findings to support that different individuals accept different behaviours as deviant.

More Research on Climate: Interestingly the study 5 also found a positive relationship between climate and destructive deviance, future research is required to analyse this relationship further to determine if individuals take the support, autonomy and the just environment provided by the organization for granted and become involved in deviance thinking they can get away with such behaviours.

Different Level of Analysis: The analysis of workplace deviance requires multiple levels of analysis. This has to be considered from theoretical, conceptual and statistical viewpoints. This could lead to interesting results that would contribute towards the understanding of deviance from an organizational employer and employee viewpoint. A comparative analysis would determine the differences in the level of acceptance towards deviance behaviour by the organization and the individual, thus contributing more towards deviance literature.

Methodological Approaches: While the model proposed in the present study was developed by reviewing previous research, alternative research methodologies could also be used to complement and extend the findings of the present study. Qualitative methods could also be implemented to determine other factors that would result in a similar relationship with both destructive and constructive deviance behaviour. This would result in triangulating the findings of the present research (see Ayoko et al., 2003 for such approaches in counterproductive workplace behaviours).

Witness Behaviour Literature: Though not a new concept in classroom context, the witness perspective towards workplace deviance behaviour is new within the organizational context and in deviance literature (Porath & Erez, 2009). Future research is required to extend the present construct in other areas of organization behaviour like leadership where leader behaviour while witnessing employee deviance could be measured. In addition, other theoretical lenses should be used to determine

the effect of deviance on witnesses. These perceptions could also be extended to extra role and other voluntary behaviours that would contribute to organizational well-being, thus opening a new area of witness behaviour in deviance literature.

Norms and Deviance: Since deviance is the voluntary violation of organizational norms and as previous studies have found that group norms have a varying effect on individual and if conformity to group norms occurs then that individual is not said to be a deviant (Greenberger et al., 1987; Kura et al., 2013). Future research should focus on comparing the group norms with the organizational norms through qualitative and quantitative analysis that would contribute to organizations engaging in various practices to determine and establish the acceptable norms within the organization.

8.6. Conclusion

In recent years, employee workplace destructive deviance has become a major concern for organizations, not only in Western countries but also in Asian countries. Diefendorff and Mehta (2007) estimated that workplace deviance results in 20% of business failure and annual loss of \$6-\$200 billion in US organizations and \$20 loss in Asian countries (Kroll, 2014). Coffin (2003) also stated that 33% to 75% employees engage in deviant activities like withdrawal, theft, production deviance, abusing co-workers etc., thus affecting the employee well-being in the organization. However, constructive deviance has also been given importance over the past decade where employees voluntarily engage in behaviours that are against the organizational norms but in turn benefit the organization and employees working in it. Previous research on workplace deviance has concentrated on the USA and predominantly on either destructive or constructive deviance. This research has paved the way for future research by implementing both destructive and constructive deviance behaviour in the same study and determining its effects in India and the USA. By extending, developing and validating the construct of witness behaviour towards workplace deviance in India and the USA, this study has facilitated the inclusion of witness behaviour into the field of organizational behaviour where the involvement in destructive and constructive deviance would depend upon the witness behaviour towards deviance. It has also

addressed the importance of Witness behaviour towards deviance and its implications on individual behavioural outcomes like commitment, engagement and satisfaction.

The research finding highlights the effect of individualistic and collectivistic orientation on the relationship of climate and witness behaviour towards workplace deviance with destructive and constructive deviance, thus suggesting that irrespective of the nationality, individual difference in cultural orientation does exist and that Individualists and collectivists coexist in India and the USA. Beyond its organizational implications, this research contributes to the growing awareness of workplace deviance as focusing on the identified factors would reduce destructive and increase constructive deviance.

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Appendices

TABLE 3

Studies on Workplace Deviance

STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Abdul (2008)	Malaysia	Social information processing theory, social exchange theory and equity theory.	Hierarchical regression	Trust in organization (Med) Locus of Control (Mod)	Psychological contract, transactional leadership, work stressor, job characteristics	1. Significant negative relationship was found between TiO and WDB 2. Positive relationship between TiO and WDBI 3. LOc moderates the relationship
Alias, Rasdi and Said, (2012)	Malaysia		Pearson Correlation Coefficient, and Multiple Stepwise Regression analysis		Individual (NA and Interpersonal justice), situational factors and Job satisfaction	1. Negative affectivity and interpersonal justice were positively and significantly correlated with both types of workplace deviance 2. Job satisfaction was not correlated with organizational deviance and interpersonal deviance.
Alias, Rasdi, Ismail and Samah, (2013)	Malaysia	Social Exchange theory and General Strain theory	A review	Job satisfaction (Med)	individual-related factors (Conscientiousness, NA, Agreeableness and EI), organizational-related factors (Org climate, justice, POS and Trust in org), and work-related factors (Work stress, Job Autonomy).	A conceptual model was suggested.

**TABLE 3
CONTINUED**

STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Ambrose, Schminke and Mayer, (2013)	US	Social learning theory, Structural Contingency theory, Justice theory and Uncertainty Management Theory (UMT)	Regression analysis	Justice Climate (Med) Workgroup Structure (Mod)	Supervisors' perceptions of how fairly they are treated by their own supervisors can influence their subordinates' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviour (Interactional Justice, Group OCB, group deviance, Interactional justice climate and workgroup structure)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Significant main effect of supervisors' perceptions of their own interactional justice experiences on interactional justice climate, 2. Significant interaction between supervisor's perceptions of interactional justice and workgroup structure 3. Effect of the mediator on the outcome variable is significant in all three cases 4. Interactional justice climate was positively related to group OCB and negatively related to both interpersonal and organizational group deviance.
Appelbaum, Deguire and Lay, (2005)		Social learning theory	A literature review		Ethical climate	Reasons for unethical and deviant behaviour- operational environment, group behaviours, organizational commitment, org frustration and change

**TABLE 3
CONTINUED**

STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Appelbaum, Shapiro and Molson, (2006)		Social learning theory, Social bonding theory, Equity theory	A literature review		Leadership, Justice, personality, Satisfaction, commitment, bonding and normlessness	Strong relationship between the factors and workplace deviance
Appelbaum, Iaconi and Matousek, 2007		Social learning, Social bonding, Equity and Cognitive social theory	A literature review		Deviant role models, operational environment, individual personality, Justice and Psychological empowerment	Toxic organizations, organizational justice influence of deviant role models, operational environment, personality of the individual, frustration, Machiavellianism And outcomes are intent to quit, dissatisfaction
Bagchi and Bandyopadhyay, (2012)		Becker's framework			Recession	Decrease in the severity of the recession will still have an ambiguous effect on the incentive to commit crime.
Bahri et al., (2013)	West Mazandaran		Pearson Correlation and Multivariate Regression Analysis were used to analyse data.		Environment (organizational justice, interpersonal conflict and organizational constraints) and job satisfaction	1. Relationship between CWB of the employees and the environmental variables (organizational justice, interpersonal conflict and organizational constraints)

**TABLE 3
CONTINUED**

STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
						<p>2. No relationship between job satisfaction and CWB</p> <p>3. Those with an external locus of control tend to respond to frustration through theft and other forms of destructive behaviour because they do not believe that frustrating organizational conditions can be changed through more constructive means.</p>
Bodankin and Tziner, (2009)	Israel	Ones & Viswesvaran (1996) theory	Correlation and regression analysis		Personality five factors	<p>1. Constructive deviance: organizational constructive deviance can be predicted by neuroticism and openness to experience according to our hypotheses, while it cannot be predicted by extraversion, agreeableness would be a valid predictor of organizational constructive deviance,</p> <p>2. Agreeableness was also found to be a valid predictor of interpersonal constructive deviance on destructive deviance, neuroticism was not found a valid predictor of either form of destructive deviant behaviours.</p> <p>3. Negative affectivity is significantly correlated with destructive deviance neuroticism is not. extraversion was not found to be a valid predictor of interpersonal destructive deviance</p>

**TABLE 3
CONTINUED**

STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Bolin and Heartherly, (2001)	US		Analysis of two archival data sets Regression analysis		4 attitude variables: theft approval, company contempt, intent to quit and dissatisfaction	Theft approval, intent to quit, dissatisfaction and company contempt predicted atleast one type of employee deviance (substance use, absenteeism, privilege abuse and theft)
Bowling and Eschleman, (2010)		Transactional theory of stress and Coping	Regression analysis	Employee personality (Mod)	Work stressor (role stressors, organizational constraints and interpersonal conflict), Personality (conscientiousness, agreeableness, negative affectivity)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Organizational constraints and Interpersonal conflict were each positively related to CWB. 2. Negative relationship between role stressors and CWB 3. Conscientiousness and agreeableness negatively related to CWB and NA positively related to CWB. 4. Conscientiousness moderate the relationship between work stressor and CWB.
Chen et al., (2013)	Taiwan	trait-activation theory	OLS hierarchical linear modelling	Ethical climate (Mod)	Negative affectivity	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. NA was positively related to workplace deviance. 2. Climate weakened the relationship between NA and workplace deviance 3. Instrumental climate and the caring climate strengthened the relationship between NA and workplace deviance.

**TABLE 3
CONTINUED**

STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Chirasha and Mahappa, (2012)	Zimbabwe		Qualitative research case study ²		Organizational climate, organizational justice, perceived organizational support, trust, work stress and powerlessness	1. The effect of interpersonal deviance like willingly disobeying supervisors, taken company property without authorization, co-workers 2. Gossiping and spreading of wrong and false information on deviance behaviour. And various recommendations were made
Chullen et al., (2010)	South-Eastern U.S.	Leader member exchange theory, Social exchange theory, Org support Theory, self-determination theory and Conservation Of Resource theory	co-variance (ANCOVA)		Supportive leadership: Leader member exchange, perceived organizational support. Job Design: Intrinsic motivation and depersonalization	1. Significant differences existed between employee deviant behaviour directed at the individual for LMX and depersonalization, and that significant differences existed between employee deviant behaviour directed at the organization for POS and Intrinsic motivation. 2. POS and intrinsic motivation were related to DB-O while LMX and depersonalization were related to DB-I. 3. cross-foci effects for LMX on DB-O and for intrinsic motivation on DB-I.
Chung and Moon, (2011)	Korea	Regulatory focus theory, social identity theory and Stewardship theory	Hierarchical multiple regression analysis	Collectivistic orientation (Mod)	Psychological ownership	1. Psychological ownership to be significantly related to innovative constructive deviant behaviour and interpersonal constructive deviant behaviour. 2. Collectivistic orientation moderated the relationships between psychological ownership and organizational constructive deviant behaviour and interpersonal constructive deviant behaviour.

**TABLE 3
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STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Colbert et al., (2004)	US	social exchange theory, norm of reciprocity and organizational support theory	moderated hierarchical regression	conscientiousness, emotional stability, and agreeableness (Mod)	Personality (conscientiousness, Extraversion, emotional stability, Openness to Experience and agreeableness) and work situations (perceptions of developmental environment)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Positive perceptions of the work situation are negatively related to workplace deviance. 2. The relationship between perceptions of the developmental environment and organizational deviance was stronger for employees low in conscientiousness or emotional stability, and the relationship between perceived organizational support and 3. Interpersonal deviance was stronger for employees low in agreeableness.
Dagher and Junaid, (2011)	US		Regression Analysis		Employee engagement (Vigor, dedication and absorption)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The variables were significantly related and specifically the three Dimensions of employee engagement and the two dimensions of constructive deviant behaviour were negatively related. 2. Vigor was negatively related to organizational constructive deviant behaviour thus the higher the individual scores on vigor the lower the organizational deviant behaviour
De Lara, Verano, Jyh and Ding, (2007)	Spain	Equity theory	Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)	Perceived normative conflict (PNC) (Med)	Procedural justice (PJ)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. support for an association between PJ and PNC and between PNC and organizational and interpersonal deviance (OD/ID)

**TABLE 3
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STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
						2. it mediates the perceived normative conflict, the results show stronger support for a fully mediated model of the effects of PJ on (OD/ID)
Demir, (2011)	south-west part of Turkey.		structural Equation Modelling (SEM)		Organizational justice (OJ), organizational trust (OT), affective commitment (AC), continuance commitment (CC) and normative commitment (NC).	1. OJ and OT have a significant and positive influence on (AC), (CC) and (NC). 2. OJ, OT and dimensions of deviance have a significant and negative influence on organizational deviance.
Diefendorff and Mehta, (2007)	US	Achievement motivation theory	SEM		Avoidance motivation, personal mastery, competitive excellence, general approach motivation, avoidance motivation	1. Negative relations of personal mastery with both workplace deviance dimensions, was fully supported. 2. Competitive excellence was not significantly related to either dimension of workplace deviance. 3. BAS sensitivity was positively related to both dimensions of workplace deviance. 4. Avoidance motivation did not support interpersonal deviance but supported a positive path to organizational deviance. 5. Proposed interactive effect between avoidance motivation and organizational constraints, was supported for interpersonal deviance but not for organizational deviance

**TABLE 3
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STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Fagbohunge et al., (2012)	Nigeria	Affective Events Theory, Agency Theory	Multiple regression analysis		Employees organizational reaction	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Male participants were significantly different from their female counterparts on production deviance, personal aggression, political deviance and property deviance respectively. 2. Production deviance, personal aggression and political deviance were higher among females than males. 3. Organisational reaction variables (supervision, company identification, kinds of work, amount of work, co-workers, physical work conditions and financial rewards) are significant predictors of different facets of workplace deviant behaviours among workers. 4. Mean deviant behaviours of males at both controlled work environment and less controlled work environment was higher and significantly different from that of their female counterparts 5. Gender and work environment control was not significant as expected.
Farasat and Ziaaddini, (2013)		Social exchange theory	A review		Fairness of treatment, supervisor support, organizational rewards and job condition	increased understanding of organizational support by employees will improve employees' performance and their willingness to remain in the organization, on one hand, and on the other this support reduces work pressures and feedback behaviours.
Ferris, Brown and Heller, (2009)	US north-eastern university	Belongingness theory	Structural equation modelling (SEM)	Organization based self-esteem (OBSE) (Med)	Organizational support	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. OBSE fully mediated the relation between organizational supports and organizational deviance. 2. A negative relationship between OBSE and organizational deviance emerged. 3. Controlling for pre-existing predictors of deviance, including personality traits (agreeableness, neuroticism and conscientiousness) and role stressors (role conflict, ambiguity, and overload), did not eliminate the relation between OBSE and organizational deviance.

**TABLE 3
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STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Ferris, Brown, Lian and Keeping, (2009)	US	Self-consistency/ behavioural plasticity theory	hierarchical multiple regression	Contingent self-esteem (Mod)	Level (high/low) and type (contingent/non-contingent) of self-esteem	Results support the hypothesized moderating effects of contingent self-esteem;
Ferris, Spense, Brown and Heller, (2012)	US	behavioural plasticity theory, conservation of resources theory	hierarchical multivariate linear modelling	Daily self esteem (Med) Trait self Esteem (Mod)	Within person relation of interpersonal justice	Interpersonal injustice would lower daily self-esteem; daily self-esteem would in turn mediate the effect of daily interpersonal injustice and interact with trait self-esteem in predicting daily workplace deviance even when the effects of previously established mediators (i.e., affect and job satisfaction) were controlled for job satisfaction and positive and negative affect in our analyses.
Flaherty and Moss, (2007)	Australia	Social exchange theory and equity theory	multiple regression analysis	Personality, co-worker satisfaction, team commitment	Personality, Workplace Injustice and Team Context	1. Procedural, distributive, and interactional injustice all provoked counterproductive behaviours 2. The effect of justice on these destructive acts diminished when team commitment was elevated, co-worker satisfaction was limited, agreeableness was pronounced, and neuroticism was reduced

**TABLE 3
CONTINUED**

STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Galperin (2002)	Canada and Mexico		Hierarchical regression, Chow test	Role breadth self efficacy (Mod and Med)	Machiavellianism, ethical orientation. Job autonomy, socio-political support, access to information, leader supportiveness and cultural factors with deviance. Moderating and mediating effects of role breadth self efficacy between job autonomy and deviance behaviour	1. The extent to which people feel confident in performing their roles would have an impact on the relationship between job factors and workplace deviance. 2. The role breadth self-efficacy both moderates and mediates the relationship between job autonomy and deviant Behaviour.
Galperin and Burke, 2006	Brazil	Social exchange theory, need for achievement theory, locus of control theory and social bonding theory	Hierarchical regressions		Workaholism	1. Exploratory study examined the relationship of three workaholism components with measures of workplace destructive and constructive deviance. 2. The results suggest that the workaholism components were significantly related to two measures of deviance. This provides partial support for the hypothesized relationship.
Henle, (2005)	US	Equity theory	Hierarchical multiple regression	Socialization, impulsive (Mod)	Justice	1. the relationship between organizational justice and workplace deviance would be greater for individuals who score lower in socialization. That is, employees lower in

**TABLE 3
CONTINUED**

STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
						<p>socialization who perceived low interactional justice had a higher occurrence of deviant behaviour at work while perceptions of high interactional justice were associated with a lower occurrence of deviance behaviour.</p> <p>2. Interactions between socialization and distributive and procedural justice were not significant.</p> <p>3. The interaction between interactional justice and impulsivity was significant. Suggesting that interactional justice was only related to workplace deviance when impulsivity was higher. Employees higher in impulsivity had higher frequencies of deviance when they perceived low interactional justice, while those who perceived high levels had lower frequencies of deviance. The interactions between the justice and personality variables added 7% in unique variance explained over the main effects</p>
Holtz and Harold, (2013)	US Syracuse University	Social exchange, social learning, theory, influential theory	Regression,	Interpersonal justice values and justice orientation (Mod)	Interpersonal justice	Results suggest that employees with strong interpersonal justice values, or justice orientations are unlikely to engage in workplace deviance, regardless of their interpersonal justice perceptions. Results were consistent across two operationalisations of justice values and consistent across self-reported and co-worker-reported workplace deviance.

**TABLE 3
CONTINUED**

STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Hussain, (2013)	Pakistan		Regression Analysis		Psychological contract	The study shows that if there is a breach of psychological contract on part of employer then the employee tends to show negative behaviours and attitudes.
Javed et al., (2014)	Pakistan		Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) AHP test was used to find the critical factors associated with this study		Personality factors (conscientiousness, trait anger and agreeableness), job factors (Skill variety, feed back and job autonomy), organizational factors (Justice, climate, org support and org constraints),job burnout and work	1. Personality factors like conscientiousness, trait anger and agreeableness were found to have a significant effect on job burnout. 2. Personality factors like high level of conscientiousness and low level of trait anger enhance the level of work engagement, which ultimately lowers the employee workplace deviant behaviour. 3. Organizational factors have significant impact on work engagement while job burnout has significant effect on employee work place deviant behaviour. Work engagement impacts employee workplace deviant behaviour
Judge, Scott and Ilies, (2006)	South-eastern United States	Affective Events theory	hierarchical linear modelling	Trait hostility (Mod) Job satisfaction (Med)	Emotions at work, work attitudes	1. Trait hostility moderated the interpersonal justice – state hostility relationship such that perceived injustice was more strongly related to state hostility for individuals high in trait hostility. 2. There is a positive association between interpersonal justice and workplace deviance that disappears once state hostility and job satisfaction were controlled (suggesting mediation)

**TABLE 3
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STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Kanten and Ulker, (2013)	Turkey		regression		organizational climate	Significant and negative relationships have been observed between counterproductive behaviours and dimensions of organizational climate such as reward, warmth, support and commitment, organizational structure and organizational standards. Moreover, warmth relationship environment, support/commitment and organizational standards dimensions are found out to have effect on counterproductive behaviours.
Kura et al., (2013)		stimulus response theory and social cognitive theory	Review with proposition	self-regulatory efficacy (Mod)	organizational formal controls	This paper has presented a model on the potential moderating effect of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between formal controls system and workplace deviance
Kura et al., (2013)	Nigeria	Social learning and social efficacy theory	Partial Least Squares (PLS) path modelling	self-regulatory efficacy (Mod)	perceived injunctive, descriptive norms and self-regulatory efficacy	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Results supported the direct influence of perceived injunctive norms and self-regulatory efficacy on organisational deviance. 2. Perceived injunctive norm and self-regulatory efficacy were found to be significant predictors of interpersonal deviance, perceived descriptive norms were not significant predictors of both organisational deviance and interpersonal deviance. 3. Self-regulatory efficacy does not moderate the relationship between perceived descriptive norms and organisational deviance. 4. The moderating role of self-regulatory efficacy on the relationship between perceived descriptive norms and interpersonal deviance was also supported.

**TABLE 3
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STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Lee and Allen, (2002)	Canada		Multiple hierarchical regression analyses		Affect (positive and negative affect) and cognitions	Job affect was associated more strongly than were job cognitions with OCB directed at individuals, whereas job cognitions correlated more strongly than did job affect with OCB directed at the organization.
Mayer et al., (2012)	US Zoomerang	Social Exchange, uncertainty management theory	Four field studies and one experiment	competence uncertainty (Mod) Hostility (Med)	Leader mistreatment	The first two studies provide evidence for the predicted interaction between leader mistreatment and competence uncertainty, and the next three studies demonstrate that hostility mediates this interactive effect.
Mount, Ilies and Johnson, (2006)	US	Social Exchange Theory	Path analysis	Job satisfaction (Med)	personality traits	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Agreeableness had a direct relationship with interpersonal counterproductive work behaviours (CPB-I); 2. Conscientiousness had a direct relationship with organizational counterproductive work behaviours (CPB-O); 3. Job satisfaction had a direct relationship to both CPB-I and CPB-O. 4. Job satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between Agreeableness and both CPB-O and CPB-I.

**TABLE 3
CONTINUED**

STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Muafi, (2011)	Indonesia	Attribution theory, accountability theory and social distance theory			Intent to quit, dissatisfaction and company contempt	Intent to quit, dissatisfaction and company contempt have positive effect on deviant workplace behaviour, dissatisfaction have positive effect on intent to quit, and deviant workplace behaviour have negative effect on individual performance.
Nasir and Bashir, (2012)	Pakistan		Correlations, Regression analysis		Job satisfaction and Organizational Injustice	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The correlation indicates a relatively significant positive relationship between deviant workplace behaviour and organizational injustice 2. Job satisfaction was more strongly correlated with deviant workplace behaviour. 3. Regression analysis suggests that organizational injustice and job satisfaction has a fundamental contribution towards deviant workplace behaviour.
Onuoha and Ezeribe, (2011)	Nigeria	Agency theory	Literature review		Reward/Compensation Structure, social pressure to conform, job performance ambiguity, lack of trust and unfair treatment, Abusive Supervision.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Examines the attitudes of management and managers that trigger off and foster Workplace deviance among employees of various organizations. 2. Strategies for reducing workplace deviance: creating ethical climate, trust building, rules, compensations and punishments were suggested.

**TABLE 3
CONTINUED**

STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR R /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Peterson, (2002)	US	Ethical theory	CFA, logistic regression analyses		Ethical climates	The results provided evidence that certain types of ethical climates were related to specific types of deviant behaviour, suggesting that the causes for deviant behaviour might depend on the specific type of deviant behaviour.
Pradhan, (2013)			A framework is proposed.		leadership (transformational and transactional)	A conceptual model is offered and few propositions are stated to clear our understanding of the relationship maintained by the two types of leadership with deviant workplace behaviours.
Rahim and Nasurdin, (2008)	Malaysia		A multiple hierarchical regression analysis	Locus of Control (Mod)	Trust in organization	1. Trust in organization (TiO) demonstrates a negative relationship with production deviance and property deviance. 2. In contrast, trust in organization (TiO) is positively related to interpersonal deviance. 3. Locus of control (LOC) is found to moderate the relationship between trust in organization (TiO) and deviant behaviours.

**TABLE 3
CONTINUED**

STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Rogojan, (2009)			A literature review		Individual factors (Personal characteristics, value orientation, LOC, Machiavellianism and love of money, Personality flaw) Situational factors (Social, interpersonal factors: Influence of work group, supervisor, opportunity, need, indebtedness, dissimilarity) Org Factors (operational environment, org culture, job characteristics, company test structure and involvement, counter norms, job satisfaction, ethical work climate, org commitment	<p>1. Factor contributing to workplace deviance are individual and organizational factors(environment, culture) including demographics (gender, tenure, education, age, status and numerous reference groups, religion, marginality position).</p> <p>2. Situational factors (social and interpersonal factors, influence of work groups, influence of supervisors, opportunity, need, indebtedness, dissimilarity), job characteristics (Company task structure and involvement, counter norms, job satisfaction, ethical work climate, organizational commitment, organizational frustration, organizational justice, sanctions, intention to quit, code of ethics, ethical distance, perceived organizational support, technology, stress), social and interpersonal factors. Personality Characteristics, Philosophy/ Value Orientation, Locus of Control, Machiavellianism and Love of Money, Personality Flaw.</p> <p>3. Preventing deviant behaviour: promoting an ethical organizational culture, ethical leadership, Installing “Toxic Handlers”, Training Programs, Personnel Selection, Background Checks, Polygraph Test, Employment Interview, Honesty Tests, Psychometric Tests, Control, Promoting Pro-Social Behaviour, and ethics courses.</p>

**TABLE 3
CONTINUED**

STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Shahzad and Mahmood, (2012)	Pakistan	Social Exchange theory, Effort reward imbalance theory and	Bivariate and Partial Correlation, Mediated, Moderating Regression Approach	Burnout (Med) Negative Affectivity (Mod)	Organizational Cynicism	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Results from the survey showed that there is a significant positive relationship between organizational cynicism and workplace deviant behaviour. 2. The relationship between organizational cynicism and workplace deviant behaviour was partially mediated by burnout. 3. negative affectivity moderates the relationship between burnout and workplace deviant behaviour.
Sunday, (2014)	Nigeria		2 Case study, primary sources of data face to face structured interviews and secondary sources like HR records were used in this study		Organizational climate, Organizational justice, Perceived organizational support, Trust in organizations Work stress and Powerlessness	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Findings revealed that indeed workplace deviance through its various forms was overt in the Universities. 2. The two most common are production and property deviance through leaving early or coming to work, misuse of company property ,use of stationery on personal matters and verbal abuse were common judging from the response. 3. Females tend to gossip a lot compared to their male counterparts. Several recommendations were suggested.
Sudha and Khan, (2013)	India				Personality and Motivational Traits	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The results showed that public sector employees' significantly differed from the employees of private sector on workplace deviance and openness trait of big five personality traits. 2. Motivational traits (BIS, BAS) were correlated significantly to different dimensions of workplace deviance in private sector and not in public sector.

**TABLE 3
CONTINUED**

STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Thau and Mitchell, (2010)	US	Social Exchange theory, self-regulation, self-regulation impairment theory and dissonance theory	multiple regression analysis	Self-regulation impairment(Ego depletion and intrusive thoughts) (Med)	Abusive supervision	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The self-gain view suggests that distributive justice (DJ) will weaken the abusive supervision–employee deviance relationship, as perceptions of fair rewards offset costs of abuse. 2. The self-regulation impairment view suggests that DJ will strengthen the relationship, as experiencing abuse drains self-resources needed to maintain appropriate behaviour, and this effect intensifies when employees receive inconsistent information about their organizational membership (fair outcomes). 3. Two studies found that the Abusive Supervision × DJ interaction was mediated by self-regulation impairment variables (ego depletion and intrusive thoughts).
Tziner et al., (2010)	Israel	Leader member exchange theory	hierarchical regression analysis		Leader-Member-Exchange (LMX) relationships, trust and confidence in performance appraisal processes	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The results support positive connections between the constructs of LMX, confidence in appraisal processes, and constructive deviant behaviours. 2. Constructive deviance was moderately and significantly related to both LMX and confidence of appraisal. 3. LMX was strongly and significantly related to confidence in the appraisal. 4. Despite being significantly related to constructive deviance, LMX did not contribute to constructive deviance

**TABLE 3
CONTINUED**

STUDY	LOCATION	THEORY	METHOD	MODERATOR /MEDIATOR	FACTOR	KEY FINDINGS
Vadera, Pratt and Mishra, (2013)			A review		intrinsic motivation, felt obligation, and psycho- logical empowerment	Provided an emergent model that integrates extant empirical work on the antecedents of constructive deviance.
Yen and Teng, (2013)	Taiwan	Social exchange theory	Descriptive analyses, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and multiple regression analysis.	Procedural justice (Med)	centralization	1. Centralization is positively related to OCB, and negatively related to DWB. 2. Moreover, procedural justice partially mediated the relationship between centralization and OCB/DWB.
Yildiz, Alpan, Ates and Sezen, (2015)		Social exchange theory, equity theory	literature review	Psychological ownership (Med)	psychological ownership, participative decision making, person-organization fit, idealism, justice perception	Provided a theoretical framework on some rarely studied predictors (i.e. psychological ownership, participative decision making, person-organization fit, idealism, justice perception), where psychological ownership is supposed to play a mediator role.
Yunus, Khalid and Nordin, (2012)		Gough's role-taking theory	T-test analysis and ANOVA test were used. Correlation analysis		Personality trait Emotional Intelligence	1. The findings showed a negative but significant relationship between emotional intelligence and workplace deviant behaviours. 2. As for the relationship between emotional intelligence and workplace deviance, the results of this study revealed that the relationship, while negative and weak, was significant. 3. While EI correlates significantly with workplace deviance behaviours however, the inverse relationship between the two variables were weak.

Appendix Ia

Development of Scale for Measuring Employee Behaviour Towards Workplace Deviance

Respected Sir/Madam

In recent years, organizations have been faced with an increase in norm breaking negative behaviours from employees. These behaviours are not only harmful to the organization but as well to the individuals. Thus there is a need to measure the tolerance attitude of individual employee from engaging in such negative behaviour. I am a PhD student from the University of Edinburgh, Business School, in Edinburgh, United Kingdom. As part of my research I am developing a scale to measure employee behaviour towards workplace deviance while being a witness. By making use of this measure, organizations could determine an individual's inclination towards deviance that could prevent individuals from involving in certain behaviours that will affect the organizational well-being through training and setting out clear organizational norms.

In this interview, I would be exploring the individual behaviour with respect to supervisor, co-worker and deviance in general thus facilitating the development of a measure. Your viewpoints are very important to this research and you are free to leave the interview at any time as you please and refuse to answer any question that you are not comfortable with. Any research related questions will be answered directly by me. Furthermore, the interview shall take about 25-30 minutes depending on the discussions.

The information you share during this session will be used solely for academic purposes. Complete anonymity will be assured as you will not be identified personally even during research publications. Discussions will be recorded but will be kept safe as I will be the only one having access to them.

I kindly request you to sign the attached consent form if you are willing and agree to participate. Your interest in participating in an international research will be appreciated. A summary report of the research findings will be provided upon request. I thank you for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely

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(For further information regarding the research please contact me at the above mentioned mail id.)

Consent Form

I,....., declare that I am over 18 years of age and agree to be part of this one to one interview to help develop a scale to measure employee witness behaviour towards deviance from this research. This research is conducted by Mrs. Kanimozhi Narayanan with the guidance from Prof. Susan Murphy of University of Edinburgh Business School, Edinburgh, UK.

I understand that by participating in this interview, I will be asked my views on deviance behaviours. I am aware that I can deny to answer questions that I am not comfortable with and also leave the interview at any time as per my convenience.

I understand that I will be given a copy of this form.

Date

Employee's Signature

Date

Researcher's Signature

Questions for Interview

Deviance behaviour definition:

1. Workplace deviance is a voluntary behaviour that violates organizational norms and in doing so can threaten the well-being of the organization and its employees.

It consists of behaviours like:

- Taking property from work without permission
- Daydreaming
- Falsifying receipt
- Taking long breaks
- Coming late to work
- Littering
- Neglect boss's order
- Working slow
- Discussing confidential company information
- Consumed drug/alcohol at work
- Little effort at work, dragged work
- Make fun of someone
- Said something hurtful
- Made ethnic, religious or racial remark
- Cursed at someone
- Played a mean prank
- Acted rudely
- Publicly embarrassed someone.

Individual's attitude to norm breaking behaviours

2. Let's assume that your supervisor has been involved in one or more of the above-mentioned activities. How would you react to it?

Probing Questions:

- a. What would be the reasons (professional and personal) for you to react in such a way?
- b. Can you give some examples?
- c. Describe behaviours which you will think as an acceptable behaviour and also take part in such behaviours when you see your supervisor was involved in it?
- d. Give reasons as to why you were involved in them.

3. If many employees in your organization were involved in such behaviours what would you do?

Probing Questions:

a. What behaviours would intimidate you to also engage in such behaviours? Why?

4. Let's assume that your co-worker / team member/ friend has been involved in one or more of the above-mentioned activities. What would be your reaction to it?

Probing Questions:

- a. Give reasons as to why you would react in such a way?
- b. When would you think that it as an acceptable behaviour and also take part in such behaviours?
- c. Can you describe a situation when you were involved in deviant behaviours to be part of the team?
- d. Can you describe a situation when you thought that you would not be accepted as a team member if your behaviour is not like that of your group?

To understand individual's decision making in engaging /reporting a deviant behaviour

5. Personally, how do you feel about deviants?

Probing Question:

a. Suggest some behaviours that will make you feel responsible to confront.

6. Under what circumstances would you be involved in deviant behaviours?

7. How will you judge that a particular behaviour is right or wrong?

8. How will you report a deviant to the authority?

Probing Questions:

a. At what point will you make a decision to report?

Appendix Ib: Example of Item Development and Generation

Item Development

After transcription of each interview, initial nodes forming a descriptive story were formed based on the pattern found throughout the interview.

Example Nodes:

Being Silent:

USA 9F: “ Well, (Thinks) I think it’s because you’d feel, not just because it doesn’t affect you, but you would feel that you don’t have the right to say anything about what they’re doing...” (US participant 9; Female; Age 23)

USA 10F: “I don’t feel I have the authority to act, I don’t have the whole information...” (US participant 10; Female; Age 35)

I15F: “I can’t react on this, I’ll, I’ll do my work (pauses). I will concentrate on my work and I will complete my target. So, I will not do anything with this...” (Indian participant 15; Female; Age 26)

Being Influenced by Supervisor:

USA 2M: “I really didn’t want to do it (nods), you know, then, I really wouldn’t, I really wouldn’t do it. I would appear to do it like when I would take that bottle of beer and I will pretend, I will pretend that I was drinking but actually I would not touch it...” (US participant 2; Age Male; 49)

USA 12F: “I think it is not that I feel like I am getting away with that. I think that if higher up there has been no action taken and is not seen as an issue then I wouldn’t see as an issue....” (USA participant 12; Female; Age 29)

Being Influenced by Peers:

I12F: “I don’t want to be the odd man out, so, if it is going to make me, if it is going to eliminate me from the group, make me a single person away from the group, then it is something , to think about...also (when seeing others being deviant)if there are people to back me up then, yeah I can directly go. When there is no one to back me up then I have to form a team so that, it will be more effective” (Indian participant 12; Female; Age 26)

USA 6M: “If you are younger or less sure of yourself, less confident, you might feel the pressure to go and be part of a team and to correspond to the behaviours of that team, then almost by definition you are not deviant or that behaviour is not deviant, it is departing from your norms, but it is joining the team’s norms...” (US participant 6; Male; Age 40)

I8M: “...there is difference. Like (Thinks) when you are, within the group of your same level, you tend to say “no, I am not interested in that”. But, when you move up to the level, say like, within, with your boss level and that category, when you have to be there, if some, something’s, even if you don’t like it you have to do it.” (Indian participant 8; Male; Age 24)

I10F: “So somehow, I have to engage in those activities so I can prove my presence as well as I can tell them confidently that I can also be as a group, I can also follow them as a unit we can do everything.” (Indian participant 10; Female; Age 30).

I1M: “...just to be a part of the group there are a few employees who will go ahead and do something that they usually won’t do.” (Indian participant 1; Male; Age 32)

Thinking about Career:

USA 11F: “Where they are in the same level as me, and yes it does impact you a little bit but not to the extent that I would want to, [Thinking] to act like that as well, because it is your career and your work at stake if you follow suit” (US participant 11; Female; Age 28)

USA 7F: “Your, your internal perception about what people have about you within an organization is also really important because, it affects your career and affects how you get on at work.” (US participant; Female; Age 33)

I2M: “I will think about me, my work life, you know, my work experience is being impacted right and what I am supposed to learn and I am supposed to do if it gets affected...” (Indian participant, Male; Age 34)

All these nodes were then gathered into interpretative clusters forming self-serving behaviour.

Item Generation:

From the above cluster, 64% of respondents stated that they had to think about their career before deciding to taken actions or react against a behaviour. They mentioned that their career was important to them and that they would not want to jeopardise their future by going against the organization or their superiors.

Thus from this the item, Think about my career before I confront anyone about his/her involvement in certain behaviour was formed.

Appendix Ic: Cognitive Interview Schedule

Before the interview began, participants were briefed about the nature of the research and what their participation involves. The researcher assured that confidentiality and anonymity was maintained throughout. Participants were asked if they consent to having the interview tape recorded, so that the researcher can listen back over the interview and ensure that all details are taken down accurately. Participants were given ten minutes to read over the 20 items that aimed to capture the employee's behavioural outcome towards workplace deviance. The interviews then begin which lasted no longer than 10 minutes.

While witnessing supervisors/peers/anyone behave in ways that are against organizational norms I would...

1. Concentrate on my work ignoring other's activities.
2. Also, involve in those activities just to be part of the organization.
3. Also, involve in those activities if they conform to group norms just to be part of the team.
4. Think about my career before I confront anyone about his/her involvement in certain behaviours.
5. Wait for someone to confront the person involved in such behaviours.
6. Try to understand why someone was involved in a particular behaviour.
7. Try to think of different ways to stop a particular behaviour from happening again.
8. Try to talk with the person involved to stop a particular behaviour.
9. Decide how to deal with the problem and make sure to do it.
10. Encourage the people affected to report to their supervisors about it.
11. Compare different behaviours with personal ethics before deciding to take actions about it.
12. Intervene to stop a behaviour when I have more experience and authority.
13. Intervene if the organizational output or my deliverable is impacted.
14. Confront the supervisor regarding his behaviour as he should be a role model.
15. Confront anyone involved in such activities.

16. Leave the organization if such activities become part of the organization culture.
17. Talk to supervisor or peer about how a particular behaviour made me feel
18. Get help from the management
19. Ask a peer for advise
20. Ask support from someone who has come across similar behaviours, what you should do about it

Structured Interview Schedule

- 1) Does the layout of the questionnaire make sense to you?
- 2) Are there any parts that you do not understand?
- 3) Are any of the questions unclear?
- 4) In referring, to question 3 do you think the word “group norms” should be replaced with something else?
- 5) In referring, to question 4, 5, 14 and 15 what do you think is meant by “confront”?
- 6) In referring to question 12 and 13, what do you think is meant by “intervene”?
- 7) In referring, to question 11 what do you think of “when comparing different behaviour to personal ethics”?
- 7) In referring to question 18, what do you think of when getting help from management?
- 8) Do you think any of the questions are unnecessary or should not be included for any reason? (if so, probe for reasons)

Participants were then given the opportunity to ask any questions. They were finally thanked for their participation before the close of the interview.

Appendix Id: Item Sorting Task

Instruction to participants

Please read the 20 statements stated below carefully and sort them into any of the 2 categories depending on their relevance by copying and pasting it. After that, please use the rating sheet below to record how easy or difficult it was to assign the statement to the category you have chosen. Please ask the researcher if you have any questions.

A. SELF-SERVING BEHAVIOUR

(Refers to a person who waits for someone else to take action during a behaviour and not see a problem as his own to involve in corrective measures. Supervisor, peer and group behaviours will also easily influence him.)

B. INTERVENING BEHAVIOUR

(Refers to a person who decides to takes action regarding a behaviour by either reporting it or directly intervening in a particular situation)

While witnessing supervisors/peers/anyone behave in ways that are against organizational norms I would...

1. Also involve in those activities if they conform to group norms just to be part of the team.
2. Ask support from someone who has come across similar behaviours, what you should do about it.
3. Encourage the people affected to report to their supervisors about it
4. Think about my career before I confront anyone about his/her involvement in certain behaviours
5. Intervene if the organizational output or my deliverable is impacted
6. Decide how to deal with the problem and make sure to do it.
7. Wait for someone to confront the person involved in such behaviours.
8. Compare different behaviours with personal ethics before deciding to take actions about it
9. Ask a peer for advice
10. Try to think of different ways to stop a particular behaviour from happening again
11. Also involve in those activities just to be part of the organization
12. Leave the organization if such activities become part of the organization culture
13. Confront the supervisor regarding his behaviour as he should be a role model
14. Get help from management
15. Try to understand why someone was involved in a particular behaviour
16. Intervene to stop a behaviour when I have more experience and authority

17. Talk to supervisor or peer about how a particular behaviour made me feel
18. Concentrate on my work ignoring other's activities
19. Try to talk with the person involved to stop a particular behaviour
20. Confront anyone involved in such activities

How did you find assigning the item to the category you chose? (Please Highlight)	Very Difficult				Very Easy	Item Classification
While witnessing supervisors/peers/anyone behave in ways that are against organizational norms I would...						
1. Also involve in those activities if they conform to group norms just to be part of the team.	1	2	3	4	5	87.50%
2. Ask support from someone who has had come across similar behaviours what you should do about it.	1	2	3	4	5	93.75%
3. Encourage the people affected to report to their supervisors about it	1	2	3	4	5	100.00%
4. Think about my career before I confront anyone about his/her involvement in certain behaviours.	1	2	3	4	5	81.25%
5. Intervene if the organizational output or my deliverable is impacted	1	2	3	4	5	87.50%
6. Decide how to deal with the problem and make sure to do it.	1	2	3	4	5	100.00%
7. Wait for someone to confront the person involved in such behaviours.	1	2	3	4	5	93.75%
8. Compare different behaviours with personal ethics before deciding to take actions about it	1	2	3	4	5	87.50%
9. Ask a peer for advice	1	2	3	4	5	75.00%
10. Try to think of different ways to stop a behaviour from happening again	1	2	3	4	5	93.75%
11. Also involve in those activities just to be part of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	87.50%
12. Leave the organization if such activities become part of the organization culture	1	2	3	4	5	75.00%
13. Confront the supervisor regarding his behaviour as he should be a role model	1	2	3	4	5	87.50%
14. Get help from management	1	2	3	4	5	87.50%
15. Try to understand why someone was involved in a particular behaviour	1	2	3	4	5	87.50%
16. Intervene to stop a behaviour when I have more experience and authority	1	2	3	4	5	75.00%
17. Talk to supervisor or peer about how a particular behaviour made me feel	1	2	3	4	5	87.50%
18. Concentrate on my work ignoring other's activities	1	2	3	4	5	93.75%
19. Try to talk with the person involved to stop a particular behaviour	1	2	3	4	5	93.75%
20. Confront anyone involved in such activities	1	2	3	4	5	87.50%

Appendix II. Sample 4 and 5 Questionnaire

Employee Consent Form

Hello Sir/Madam,

I am a PhD student at the University of Edinburgh Business School, in Edinburgh, United Kingdom and my research objective is to identify the causes of employee workplace behaviours in India and USA. From this research I hope to gain knowledge about the behaviours and attitudes of employees belonging to various cultural backgrounds.

I kindly request your help in collecting this information at your organization. The attached questionnaire will take about 10 minutes to complete. Most questions require only check marks and it is not to check for right or wrong answers. The questions should be answered honestly and independently. The answer should reflect on your experience or not expectations. All questions should be answered for its use in the research.

The responses will remain strictly confidential. It will not be accessed or seen by any one in your organization. Results will be summarized as a general finding and no individuals can be identified from it even during research publications in journals. To keep up anonymity, you need not have to mention your name or the company's.

Your interest in participating in an international research will be appreciated. A summary report of the research findings will be provided upon request. I thank you for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely

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(NOTE: Please note that the participants can withdraw from this Research at any time and their responses will be excluded. It will be assumed that they are over 18 years and have consented to participate in this research when they complete this questionnaire. For further information regarding the research please contact me at the above mentioned mail id.)

I have read and agreed to participate in the above mentioned research out of my own free will. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that i can withdraw from it at any time.

YES NO

SECTION A

I. We would like to know about your perspective on your organization. Please select your level of agreement with the following statements.

1 =Strongly disagree, 2 =Disagree, 3 =Neither agree or disagree 4 =Agree, 5=Strongly agree

I am proud to belong to this organization	1	2	3	4	5
The organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5
I really feel that I belong in this organization	1	2	3	4	5
My work group means a lot to me	1	2	3	4	5
I feel proud to be a member of my work group	1	2	3	4	5
I really feel that I belong in my work group	1	2	3	4	5
I am satisfied with my job	1	2	3	4	5
I like my job	1	2	3	4	5
I like working in this organization	1	2	3	4	5

II. Now we would like to know if you have engaged in any of these following behaviours in the past year. We can assure you that your answers will remain confidential so please answer them honestly.

1= Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=Always

I act as a “peacemaker” when others in the agency have disagreements	1	2	3	4	5
I take steps to try to prevent problems with other personnel in the agency	1	2	3	4	5
I am a stabilizing influence in the agency when dissention occurs	1	2	3	4	5
I attend and actively participate in agency meetings	1	2	3	4	5

I attend information sessions that agents are encouraged but not required to attend	1	2	3	4	5
I attend functions that are not required but help the agency image	1	2	3	4	5
I focus on what is wrong with the agency rather than the positive side of it (R)	1	2	3	4	5
I tend to make problems bigger than they are at work (R)	1	2	3	4	5
I always find fault with what the agency is doing (R)	1	2	3	4	5

III. Now we would like to know how you felt towards your job/organization in the past year in different occasions.

1=Never, 2=Occasionally, 3=Fairly Many Times, 4= Very Often, 5=Always

At my work, I feel bursting with energy	1	2	3	4	5
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	1	2	3	4	5
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	1	2	3	4	5
I am enthusiastic about my job	1	2	3	4	5
My job inspires me	1	2	3	4	5
I am proud on the work that I do	1	2	3	4	5
I am immersed in my work	1	2	3	4	5
I get carried away when I'm working	1	2	3	4	5
I feel happy when I am working intensely	1	2	3	4	5
Getting into action and looking for another job	1	2	3	4	5
Deciding to quit the company	1	2	3	4	5
Getting myself transferred to another job	1	2	3	4	5
Talking to supervisor to try and make things better	1	2	3	4	5
Putting a note in the suggestion box, attempting to correct a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
Writing a letter to a government agency to find out what can be done about a problem	1	2	3	4	5
Waiting patiently and hoping any problems will solve themselves	1	2	3	4	5
Quietly doing my job and letting higher-ups make the decisions	1	2	3	4	5
Saying nothing to others and assuming things will work out	1	2	3	4	5

Calling in sick and not dealing with what is happening	1	2	3	4	5
Coming in late to avoid problems	1	2	3	4	5
Becoming less interested and making more errors	1	2	3	4	5

IV. Now we would like to know how you would react when you are a witness to the below mentioned behaviours. Please circle your level of reaction.

1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=Always

While witnessing supervisors/peers/anyone behave in ways that are against organizational norms I would...					
Concentrate on my work ignoring other's activities.	1	2	3	4	5
Also involve in those activities just to be part of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
Also involve in those activities if they conform to group norms just to be part of the team.	1	2	3	4	5
Think about my career before I confront anyone about his/her involvement in certain behaviours.	1	2	3	4	5
Wait for someone to confront the person involved in such behaviours.	1	2	3	4	5
Try to understand why someone was involved in a particular behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5
Try to think of different ways to stop a particular behaviour from happening again.	1	2	3	4	5
Try to talk with the person involved to stop a particular behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5
Decide how to deal with the problem and make sure to do it.	1	2	3	4	5
Encourage the people affected to report to their supervisors about it.	1	2	3	4	5
Compare different behaviours with personal ethics before deciding to take actions about it.	1	2	3	4	5
Intervene to stop a behaviour when I have more experience and authority.	1	2	3	4	5
Intervene if the organizational output or my deliverable is impacted.	1	2	3	4	5
Confront the supervisor regarding his behaviour, as he should be a role model.	1	2	3	4	5

Confront anyone involved in such activities.	1	2	3	4	5
Leave the organization if such activities become part of the organization culture.	1	2	3	4	5
Talk to supervisor or peer about how a particular behaviour made me feel	1	2	3	4	5
Get help from the management	1	2	3	4	5
Ask a peer for advice	1	2	3	4	5
Ask support from someone who has come across similar behaviours, what you should do about it	1	2	3	4	5

V. Now we would like to know if you have engaged in any of these following behaviours in the past year. We can assure you that your answers will remain confidential so please answer them honestly.

1= Never, 2= Occasionally, 3= Fairly Many Times, 4= Very Often, 5= Always

Taken property from work without permission	1	2	3	4	5
Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working	1	2	3	4	5
Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses	1	2	3	4	5
Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace	1	2	3	4	5
Come in late to work without permission	1	2	3	4	5
Littered your work environment	1	2	3	4	5
Neglected to follow your boss's instructions	1	2	3	4	5
Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked	1	2	3	4	5
Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person	1	2	3	4	5
Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job	1	2	3	4	5
Put little effort into your work	1	2	3	4	5
Dragged out work in order to get overtime	1	2	3	4	5
Made fun of someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
Said something hurtful to someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work	1	2	3	4	5
Cursed at someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
Played a mean prank on someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
Acted rudely towards someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
Publicly embarrassed someone at work	1	2	3	4	5

Developed creative solutions to problems	1	2	3	4	5
Searched for innovative ways to perform day to day procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
Decided on unconventional ways to achieve work goals.	1	2	3	4	5
Departed from accepted tradition to solve problems.	1	2	3	4	5
Introduced a change to improve the performance of your work group	1	2	3	4	5
Sought to bend or break the rules in order to perform your job.	1	2	3	4	5
Violated company procedures in order to solve a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
Departed from organizational procedures to solve a customer's problem.	1	2	3	4	5
Bent a rule to satisfy customer's needs.	1	2	3	4	5
Departed from dysfunctional organizational policies or procedures to solve a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
Departed from organizational requirements in order to increase the quality of services or products.	1	2	3	4	5
Reported a wrong-doing to co-workers to bring about a private organizational change.	1	2	3	4	5
Did not follow the orders of your supervisor in order to improve work procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
Disagreed with others in your work group in order to improve the current work procedure.	1	2	3	4	5
Disobeyed your supervisor's instructions to perform more efficiently.	1	2	3	4	5
Reported a wrong doing to another person in your company to bring about a positive organizational change	1	2	3	4	5

Section B:

This is the final part of the questionnaire and to help categorize and interpret the results some background information is required. So please tick in appropriately and remember that your responses will be kept confidential.

1. Industrial Sector to which you belong: _____
2. Employment Status: Full-time Part-Time Permanent Temporary
3. Gender: Male Female
4. Age: <25 years 26-35 yrs 36-45 yrs 46-55 yrs 56-65 yrs 66-75 yrs >76 yrs
5. Nationality: Indian American
6. Education Qualification: High School Bachelor's Master's Ph. D or M.D
7. Job level: Non-supervisory position first line supervisor, manager, or team leader
 mid-level manager senior manager Above senior manager
8. Job Title: _____
9. Work Experience: up to 5 years 6-10 yrs 11 yrs or more

Thank you for your time and Support towards the research

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix III. Sample 6 and 7 Questionnaire

Employee Consent Form

Hello Sir/Madam,

In recent years, employee retention, turnover and engagement have become more challenging for the organizations due to increase in globalization and changes in the work environment. Thus, research is required to analyse the causes that influence behavioural changes among employees that would affect your organization's well-being. I am a PhD student at the University of Edinburgh Business School, in Edinburgh, United Kingdom and my research objective is to develop and test a model that would identify the causes of employee behaviours in India and UK, which would help in enhancing their engagement towards the job. This research would in turn help your organization to concentrate on the proposed causes and act upon them to reduce turnover and increase employee satisfaction, engagement and retention rate.

I kindly request your help to collect data at your organization. The questionnaire will be collected through an online link that will be sent to you upon your acceptance to take part in the research. I request the participation of both your teams and your Supervisors. The questionnaire will take about 15-18 minutes to complete. Most questions require only check marks and it is not to check for right or wrong answers. The questions should be answered honestly and independently. The answer should reflect on your employee's experience or not expectations. All questions should be answered for its use in the research.

The responses will remain strictly confidential. It will not be accessed or seen by any one in your organization. Results will be summarized as a general finding and no individuals can be identified from it even during research publications in journals. To keep up anonymity, they need not have to mention their names or the company's.

Your interest in participating in an international research will be appreciated. A summary report of the research findings will be provided upon request. I thank you for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely

Kanimozhi Narayanan

PhD Candidate

Organization Studies Group

E- Mail: knaryan@exseed.ed.ac.uk

Research Supervisor

Professor Susan Elaine Murphy

E-Mail: susan.murphy@ed.ac.uk

(NOTE: Please note that the participants can withdraw from this Research at any time and their responses will be excluded. It will be assumed that they are over 18 years and have consented to participate in this research when they complete this questionnaire. For further information regarding the research please contact me at the above mentioned mail id.)

I have read and agreed to participate in the above mentioned research out of my own free will. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from it at any time.

YES NO

I. We would like to know about your perspective on your organization. Please select your level of agreement with the following statements.

1= Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neither Disagree nor Agree, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree.

In this organization there is a fair reward and recognition procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
Employees are rewarded in proportion to the excellence of their job performance.	1	2	3	4	5
There is a promotion system here that helps the best man to rise to the top.	1	2	3	4	5
There is not enough reward and recognition system for doing good work.	1	2	3	4	5
A friendly atmosphere prevails among the people in this organization	1	2	3	4	5
There is a warmth relationship between management and workers in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
This organization is characterized by a relaxed, easy-going working climate.	1	2	3	4	5
Employees in this organization tend to be cool and aloof toward each other.	1	2	3	4	5
I feel that I am a member of a well-functioning team.	1	2	3	4	5
When I am on a difficult assignment I can usually count on getting assistance from my boss and co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5
In this organization people pretty much look out for their own interests.	1	2	3	4	5
People in this organization don't really trust each other enough.	1	2	3	4	5
It is sometimes unclear who has the formal authority to make a decision.	1	2	3	4	5
In some of the projects I've been on, I haven't been sure exactly who my boss was.	1	2	3	4	5
The jobs in this organization are clearly defined and logically structured.	1	2	3	4	5
The attitude of our management is that conflict between competing units and individuals can be very healthy	1	2	3	4	5

The best way to make a good impression around here is to steer clear of open arguments and disagreements	1	2	3	4	5
The philosophy of our management is that in the long run we get ahead fastest by playing it slow, safe, and sure.	1	2	3	4	5
In meetings the goal is to arrive at a decision as smoothly and quickly as possible	1	2	3	4	5
Our management believes that no job is so well done that it couldn't be done better.	1	2	3	4	5
In this organization we set very high standards for performance.	1	2	3	4	5
Around here there is a feeling of pressure to continually improve our personal and group performance.	1	2	3	4	5

II. Now we would like to know how you would react when you are a witness to the below mentioned behaviours. Please circle your level of reaction

**1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often,
5=Always**

While witnessing supervisors/peers/anyone behave in ways that are against organizational norms I would...					
Concentrate on my work ignoring other's activities.	1	2	3	4	5
Also involve in those activities just to be part of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
Also involve in those activities if they conform to group norms just to be part of the team.	1	2	3	4	5
Think about my career before I confront anyone about his/her involvement in certain behaviours.	1	2	3	4	5
Wait for someone to confront the person involved in such behaviours.	1	2	3	4	5
Try to understand why someone was involved in a particular behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5
Try to think of different ways to stop a particular behaviour from happening again.	1	2	3	4	5
Try to talk with the person involved to stop a particular behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5

Decide how to deal with the problem and make sure to do it.	1	2	3	4	5
Encourage the people affected to report to their supervisors about it.	1	2	3	4	5
Compare different behaviours with personal ethics before deciding to take actions about it.	1	2	3	4	5
Intervene to stop a behaviour when I have more experience and authority.	1	2	3	4	5
Intervene if the organizational output or my deliverable is impacted.	1	2	3	4	5
Confront the supervisor regarding his behaviour as he should be a role model.	1	2	3	4	5
Confront anyone involved in such activities.	1	2	3	4	5
Leave the organization if such activities become part of the organization culture.	1	2	3	4	5
Talk to supervisor or peer about how a particular behaviour made me feel	1	2	3	4	5
Get help from the management	1	2	3	4	5
Ask a peer for advice	1	2	3	4	5
Ask support from someone who has come across similar behaviours, what you should do about it	1	2	3	4	5

In not more than 15 words, describe your reaction, when you see someone in your organization engaging in deviant workplace behaviour.

III Now, using the scale below determine your level of agreement towards statements that describe your general interaction with others.

1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neither Disagree nor Agree, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree.

I'd rather depend on myself than others	1	2	3	4	5
I rely on myself most of the time: I rarely rely on others	1	2	3	4	5
I often do my own things	1	2	3	4	5
My personal identity, independent of others is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
It is important that I do my job better than others.	1	2	3	4	5
Winning Is everything	1	2	3	4	5

Competition is the law of nature	1	2	3	4	5
When another person does better than I do, I get tense and aroused.	1	2	3	4	5
If a co-worker gets a prize, I would feel proud	1	2	3	4	5
The well-being of my co-workers is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
To me pleasure is spending time with others.	1	2	3	4	5
I feel good when I cooperate with other	1	2	3	4	5
Parents and children must stay together as much as possible.	1	2	3	4	5
It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.	1	2	3	4	5
Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required.	1	2	3	4	5
It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by my groups	1	2	3	4	5

IV. Now we would like to know if you have engaged in any of these following behaviours in the past year. We can assure you that your answers will remain confidential so please answer them honestly.

1=Never, 2=Occasionally, 3=Fairly many times, 4=Very Often, 5=Always

Taken property from work without permission	1	2	3	4	5
Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working	1	2	3	4	5
Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses	1	2	3	4	5
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Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person	1	2	3	4	5
Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job	1	2	3	4	5

Put little effort into your work	1	2	3	4	5
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Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work	1	2	3	4	5
Cursed at someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
Played a mean prank on someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
Acted rudely toward someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
Publicly embarrassed someone at work	1	2	3	4	5
Developed creative solutions to problems	1	2	3	4	5
Searched for innovative ways to perform day to day procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
Decided on unconventional ways to achieve work goals.	1	2	3	4	5
Departed from accepted tradition to solve problems.	1	2	3	4	5
Introduced a change to improve the performance of your work group	1	2	3	4	5
Sought to bend or break the rules in order to perform your job.	1	2	3	4	5
Violated company procedures in order to solve a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
Departed from organizational procedures to solve a customer's problem.	1	2	3	4	5
Bent a rule to satisfy customer's needs.	1	2	3	4	5
Departed from dysfunctional organizational policies or procedures to solve a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
Departed from organizational requirements in order to increase the quality of services or products.	1	2	3	4	5
Reported a wrong-doing to co-workers to bring about a private organizational change.	1	2	3	4	5
Did not follow the orders of your supervisor in order to improve work procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
Disagreed with others in your work group in order to improve the current work procedure.	1	2	3	4	5
Disobeyed your supervisor's instructions to perform more efficiently.	1	2	3	4	5

Reported a wrong doing to another person in your company to bring about a positive organizational change	1	2	3	4	5
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Mention any other behaviours you have engaged in, that are against your organizational norms? _____

Section B:

This is the final part of the questionnaire and to help categorize and interpret the results some background information is required. So please tick in appropriately and remember that your responses will be kept confidential.

1. Industrial Sector to which you belong: _____
2. Employment Status: Full-time Part-Time Permanent Temporary
3. Gender: Male Female
4. Age: <25 years 26-35 yrs 36-45 yrs 46-55 yrs 56-65 yrs 66-75 yrs
 >76 yrs
5. Nationality: Indian American
6. Education Qualification: High School Bachelor's Master's Ph. D or M.D
7. Job level: Non-supervisory position first line supervisor or manager or team leader mid-level manager senior manager Above senior manager
8. Job Title: _____
9. Work Experience: up to 5 years 6-10 yrs 11 yrs or more

Thank you for your time and Support towards the research

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE