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What's Justice Got To Do With It? The Relationship Between Injustice at Work and Counterproductive Work Behaviour.

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COMPULSORY DECLARATION:

This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work, or works of other people has been attributed, and has been cited and referenced.

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ABSTRACT

This research study investigated the relationship between injustice at work and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB). Participants consisted of 152 blue-collar workers from a national retail group consisting of six chain stores. The research was conducted in the Western Cape in two of these chain stores and comprised of an exploratory survey with Likert-type scales. Justice was measured using instruments representative of three constructs: procedural, distributive, interpersonal/interactional justice. CWB was measured through both self and peer-reported judgements of the behaviour and found to be a unidimensional scale with interrelated behaviours. Data was analysed by means of inferential statistics and a discussion of the results emphasised the importance of procedural and distributive justice in explaining the relationship between justice and CWB. Managers who wish to minimise counterproductive behaviours at work should be aware that these behaviours are more likely when employees perceive injustice in inequitable outcomes and procedures.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

A major drive in organisational research has been directed toward understanding the causes of employee job performance, which consists of assigned task-related activities (Spector & Fox, 2002). In recent years, there has been a shift in emphasis to include voluntary behaviour that goes beyond task performance resulting in two independent streams of research. One concerns voluntary altruistic or helpful acts that have the potential to enhance organisations commonly called organisational citizenship behaviour (Organ, 1988). The other concerns voluntary, potentially destructive or detrimental acts that hurt colleagues or organisations, termed counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) (Spector & Fox, 2002; Martinko, Gundlach & Douglas, 2002; Miles, Boreman, Spector & Fox, 2002; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Jones, 2004).

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has been researched so extensively that its literature is large enough to yield a comprehensive meta-analysis (Organ & Ryan, 1995 as cited in Lee & Allen, 2002) whilst, the current understanding of counterproductive behaviour remains limited and it is recognised that much empirical research has yet to be done (Bennett & Robinson,2000). Furthermore, most studies on CWB have been limited to the Western contexts, specifically the United States. Conducting CWB research in an African context presents two major advantages. First, it adds to the growing body of knowledge on CWB and assesses the cross-cultural portability of the construct. Second, a contextualised perspective on the causes of CWB may serve as a guideline for managers in Africa to create working environments that inhibit these counterproductive behaviours.

The recognition of the prevalence and costs of counterproductive behaviour in the workplace has led to an increase in research interest in this type of behaviour (e.g. Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fox & Spector, 1999; Giaclone & Greenberg, 1997; Greenberg, 1990, 1993; Murphy, 1993; Robinson & Bennett, 1995, 1997; Scarlicki & Folger, 1997). In South Africa (SA), only the topic of workplace violence has received attention in recent years (Doherty, 2000). Physical violence, however, is only one component of the larger problem of aggression. Workplace hostilities are reported to be *abnormally high* for South Africans, in a survey that found that 77-78% of respondents

had been bullied during their working career (Hoel, Sparks & Cooper, 2001). In another survey, four out of five workers have experienced hostile behaviours at the workplace during their working life (International Labour Organisation, 1998). The information from selected countries in the 1996 (International Labour Organisation, 1998) survey, indicated that in South Africa, .7 percent of males and females reported assaults in the previous year; and 1.3 percent of females reported sexual incidents. In what has been described as one of the most extensive lawsuits about sexual harassment in the South African workplace, a former employee of Naspers has sued the company for R11,8 million (The Star, 04 April, 2002).

The more subtle forms of counterproductive behaviour have also shown to be prevalent and costly to South African organisations. For example, Shoprite Checkers in 1999 reported that they lost R100 million to theft and fraud and that part of the theft was committed by employees (Shoprite Holdings Limited 1999 Annual Report). And more recent, a survey by Deloitte & Touche's Human Capital Corporation, drew on information from 35 major SA companies which employ a combined 110 068 people and revealed that absenteeism remains a problem; and that on average, an organisation notches up 2 percent of lost time due to absent employees, translating into a national average cost of R2627 per employee (Sunday Times, 16 March 2003).

A wide range of reasons for why employees engage in counterproductive behaviours are found in research (e.g., Folger & Skarlicki, 1997; Robinson & Bennett, 1997; Bennett, 1998; Neuman & Baron, 1998; Lau, Au & Ho, 2003; Spector & Fox, 2002; Fox, Spector & Miles, 2001;). These range from perceptions of injustice, dissatisfaction, role-modelling, thrill-seeking and personality-type. A significant amount of this research relates perceptions of unfair treatement to workplace aggression (Hoad, 1993; Baron, Neuman & Geddes, 1997; Neuman & Baron, 1997 as cited in Neuman & Baron, 1998) and employee theft (e.g. Greenberg, 1990, 1993, 1994). The research indicates that people want to "get even" for perceived injustices and punish their employer, which raises questions that are relevant to both researchers and practitioners (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

Furthermore, researchers argue that if organisational decisions and managerial actions are deemed unfair or unjust, the affected employees experience feelings of anger

and resentment (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). This suggests an aspect of emotions in the act of counterproductive work behaviours. Spector and Fox (2002) proposed that environmental and personal factors lead to behaviour through mediating processes of perception and emotion.

The purpose of this research is to integrate the various theoretical perspectives concerned with counterproductive work behaviour and to assess injustice as an antecedent of CWB, with emotion as a mediator of the relationship.

Dissertation Outline

The dissertation is divided into five distinct chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the research. Chapter 2 reviews the available literature concerning the perception of organisational justice and its impact on counterproductive work behaviour. This also includes a central role of emotion into a theoretical framework. Chapter 3 details the methods used to collect data and conduct the research design and analysis. Chapter 4 presents the interpretation of the exploratory survey results with the use of inferential statistics. Finally, chapter 5 discusses the interpretation and offers recommendations for future research and in practice for managers wishing to minimise counter-productive behaviours.

The following chapter reviews the literature that explored counterproductive work behaviour in relation to employee's perceptions of injustice at work.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a review of the literature concerning counterproductive behaviour in the workplace. First the nature and scope of CWB will be discussed, looking at definitional and dimensionality issues. Secondly, the various causes of CWB will be reviewed followed by a focus on organisational justice and the central role of emotion in explaining CWB. Finally, a theoretical framework for understanding counterproductive work behaviour will be presented.

Literature Search

Before focusing on the literature used within this research, it is important to explore the extent of the literature search for this dissertation. A search was made of the PscyhLIT, PsychINFO, Emerald Full Text, Ebsco Host Full Text and Sciencedirect databases. These include information on books, chapters, journal articles, Masters/PhD and conference papers. The search revealed eleven papers that were related to the research topic and, of these, only five were directly related. Many of these published works were not available in South Africa and therefore, where possible, authors were contacted and a few papers were obtained from them. No South African academics researching the topic on CWB were found. The following keywords were used in database searches: "fairness", "in/justice" (including and excluding "organis/zational"), "counterproductive work behavio/ur", "deviance" and "anticitizenship behavio/ur".

Counterproductive Work Behaviour

Defining Counterproductive Work Behaviour

Spector & Fox (in press) defined CWB as 'volitional acts that harm or intend to harm organisations and their stakeholders (e.g., clients, coworkers, customers and supervisors)' (p. 1).

The key characteristic of CWB in this definition is that the action itself must be purposeful and not accidental, that is, the employee makes a choice or decision to behave in such a way that is either intended specifically to harm, or harms by purposeful action even if unintentionally (Fox & Spector, in press). This definition by Fox & Spector (in

press) is similar to Sackett's (2003) definition: 'any intentional behaviour on the part of an organization member viewed by the organisation as contrary to its legitimate interests' (p. 1). However, the difference between the definitions is that Sackett's (2003) definition is purely from the perspective of the organisation as the entity that is harmed but, Fox & Spector (in press) extends their definition to include harm to employees, customers and other stakeholders.

The current study integrates the above two definitions and defines CWB as any intentional behaviour, targeted towards the organisation or its stakeholders, on the part of an organisation member viewed by the organisation as contrary to its legitimate interest. Consistent with Sackett (2003), this definition of CWB focuses on the behaviour itself rather than on the results or consequence of the behaviour (e.g. the harm which is done), but also includes stakeholders as per Spector and Fox's definition. The organisation's 'legitimate interests' in the above definition refers to organisational norms which consist of basic moral standards as well as other traditional community standards, including those prescribed by formal and informal organisational policies, rules and procedures (Feldman, 1984 as cited in Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

Nature of CWB and Related Concepts

Constructs

The surge of interest in counterproductive behaviour has resulted in a number of conceptualisations of CWB (See Table 1), with the common theme that the behaviour is intended to have a detrimental effect on organisations and their stakeholders (Spector & Fox, in press).

Table 1.

CWB Concepts

Term	Source
Organisational Aggression	Neuman & Baron (1998); Fox & Spector (1999); Jawahar (2002)
Antisocial Behaviour	Giacalone & Greenberg (1997)
Delinquency	Hogan & Hogan (1989), cited in Fox, Spector & Miles (2001)
Deviance	Hollinger, (1986), cited in Fox, Spector & Miles (2001); Bennett & Robinson (2000)
Retaliation	Scarlicki & Folger (1997); Bidder, Chang & Tyler (2001)
Revenge	Tripp, Bies & Aquino (1997)
Mobbying/Bullying	Knorz & Zapf (1996), cited in Fox, Spector & Miles (2001)
Counterproductive	Fox & Spector (1999); Sackett (2002)

These concepts have resulted in a number of categories and definitions that both overlap and differ from CWB. Appendix A (See Table 2) illustrates a tabular format of Spector & Fox's (in press) review of these similarities and differences.

Spector et al. (Chen & Spector, 1992; Spector, 1975; Storms & Spector, 1987) as cited in Spector & Fox (2002) factor analysed behaviours into categories of aggression, hostility, sabotage, theft and withdrawal. Neuman and Baron (1998) incorporated three categories into one scheme consisting of: hostility, obstruction and overt aggression. Fox, Spector and Miles (2001) generated five dimensions: abuse of others (e.g. insults), threats, work avoidance, work sabotage and overt acts (e.g. theft), from their factor analysis of participant's reports of behaviour frequencies from 64 CWBs compiled from previous research.

Researchers have also used an overall measure of CWB (Miles et al., 2002; Penney & Spector, 2002; 2003 as cited in Fox & Spector, in press) or classified interrelated behaviours of CWB according to the two Robinson and Bennett (1995) categories of organisation vs. person targets (Fox & Spector, 1999; Fox, et al., 2001; Jones, 2004).

Empirically, Gruys identified 87 separate counterproductive behaviours appearing in literature and used a rational sort and factor analysis to generate 11 categories (Table

3). The table (Sackett, 2002) also gives a sense of the behaviour links within each of these subcategories.

Table 3.

The 11 CWB Constructs

CWB Constructs	Range of Behaviours
1. Theft and related behaviour	Theft of cash or property; giving away of goods or services; misuse of employee discount.
2. Destruction of property	Deface, damage or destroy property; sabotage production.
3. Misuse of information	Reveal confidential information; falsify records.
4. Misuse of time and resources	Waste time, alter time card, conduct personal business during work time.
5. Unsafe behaviour	Failure to follow safety procedures; failure to learn safety procedures.
6. Poor attendance	Unexcused absence or tardiness; misuse sick leave.
7. Poor quality work	Intentionally slow or sloppy work.
8. Alcohol use	Alcohol use on the job; coming to work under the influence of alcohol.
9. Drug use	Possess, use or sell drugs at work.
10. Inappropriate verbal actions	Argue with customers; verbally harass co-workers.
11. Inappropriate physical actions	Physically attack co-workers; physical sexual advances toward co-worker.

More recently, Gruys and Sackett (2003) examined the relationship between these categories using a sample of university alumni (N=343). Data was collected through self-report and direct judgments of the likelihood of co-occurrence. In addition, a multidimensional scale analysis revealed a variance of CWB categories on two dimensions: an Interpersonal-Organisational dimension and a Task Relevance dimension.

Dimensions

Hollinger and Clark (1983) proposed that counterproductive work behaviours could be grouped into two broad categories: 'property deviance', involving misuse of employer assets e.g. theft, property damage and misuse of discount privileges; and 'production deviance', involving violating norms about how work is to be accomplished

i.e. not being on the job as scheduled (absence, long breaks) and behaviour that detract from production when on the job (intentional or slow or sloppy work).

Robinson and Bennett (1995) expanded this framework by noting that the set of behaviours examined by Hollinger and Clark (1983) did not include interpersonal counterproductive behaviours, such as verbal abuse. A multidimensional scaling study of CWB derived a two-dimensional solution that was used to classify CWB into four types (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). One dimension distinguishes the *target* of the CWB as towards the organisation or the individual. A second distinguishes the *severity* or magnitude of the harm from minor to serious.

The resulting four quadrants were labelled as property deviance (organisational – serious), production deviance (organisational – minor), personal aggression (interpersonal – serious, e.g. harassment and theft) and political deviance (interpersonal – minor, e.g. gossiping and blaming others) (Sackett, 2003).

Bennett and Robinson (2000) supported the Robinson and Bennett (1995) distinction by presenting construct validity evidence with a measurement of workplace deviance. The authors, however, suggested dropping the serious to minor dimension, as the dimension represented more of a qualitative than a quantitative distinction.

In addition to these dimensions, CWB acts can also be classified as active versus passive (Spector & Fox, 2002). Active behaviour is directed immediately at the target e.g. yelling at a coworker. However, such acts are likely to be punished, so quite often a person will resort to a passive approach, such as withholding valuable information or withdrawal from work (e.g. absence).

Sackett (2002) further supported this with a propositioned hierarchical model, placing a general counterproductivity factor at the top, a serious of group factors, such as Bennett and Robinson's (1995) organizational and interpersonal deviance factors below this general factor, and specific behaviour domains, such as theft, absence and tardiness below these group factors.

The perspective taken here is that researchers and practitioners may focus at different levels of this hierarchy, focusing one's intervention and/or measurement efforts on this continuum from general factor to specific behaviours depending on the research goals/aims. For example, research might be investigating a range of CWBs in a specific

context (as in this research) and thus may focus on broad counterproductivity construct. The current study looks at a broad range of CWBs within the retail sector and its relationship with injustice. In terms of practice, many personnel selection organisations are interested in identify prospective employees who will not engage in the broad range of counterproductive behaviours, hence, Sackett (2002) suggests they focus on the broad counterproductivity construct. In contrast, an intervention may be sought that will deal effectively within a single specific problem behaviour, for example, sexual harassment (Sackett, 2002).

Antecedents of CWB

There appears to be a theoretical divergence in the literature with regards to the antecedents of CWB. On one hand, one group of organisational theorists appears to prefer to explain the incidence and frequency of counterproductive behaviour in terms of an 'organisational level' perspective describing various organisational factors in the work environment that stimulate the counterproductive behaviour/s (Martinko et al., 2002; Lau, Au & Ho, 2003; Spector & Fox, 2002; Fox et al., 2001; Neuman & Baron, 1998; Folger & Scarlicki, 1997). On the other hand, a second group, which primarily focuses on integrity testing (e.g. Hogan & Hogan, 1989; Ones, 2002) emphasises the roles of individual differences in counterproductive behaviour (Martinko et al., (2002).

In agreement with Martinko et al (2002), it is also believed that both of the perspectives make an important contribution to understanding CWB. The current study, however, takes an 'organisational – level' theory perspective with the research focus on employee's perceptions of organisational injustice variables in the work environment that stimulate CWB.

A review of the literature (e.g. Fox et al., 2001; Ambrose, Seabright & Schminke, 2002; Martinko et al, 2002) has concluded a common grouping of situational variables ranging from: inflexible policies, organisational environment, leadership styles, economic conditions, organisational culture, boredom/fun and task difficulty to injustice and job stressors.

More recent, Lau et al (2003) conducted a qualitative review of situational and also personal variables as antecedents of counterproductive behaviour. They subdivided

the situation variables further into three categories (Table 4): organisational, work and contextual factors (Lau et al, 2003).

Table 4.

Description of Situational Variables

Situational Variables
Organisational Factors
Organisational Physical Conditions
Organisational Climate (e.g. technological readiness, human resource primacy)
Employment Condition
Work Factors
Job Characteristics (e.g. policy-related)
Supervisory (e.g. support, communication)
Peer (e.g. support)
Contextual Factors
Population (Employment Rates)
Economic Prosperity
Opportunity to Steal

The organisational factor category includes shared or summary of perceptions that people attach to particular features of the work setting (Ostroff, 1993 as cited in Lau et al, 2003). The second category, work factor, includes antecedents that are related to the job nature. Finally, the contextual factor category refers to a diverse mix of variables in the environment that is potentially relevant to the individual's decision to engage or refrain from committing specific dishonest acts (Murphy, 1993 as cited in Lau et al, 2003).

Spector (1998 as cited in Spector & Fox, 2001; 2002) used the stress literature to explain a number of these workplace factors as *job stressors*, which make jobs stressful. A job stressor is defined as 'an environmental condition that induces a negative emotional reaction (Spector & Fox, in press). These emotions can lead to strains, either: psychological (e.g. job dissatisfaction or turnover intention), physiological (e.g. increased blood pressure) or behavioural (e.g. counterproductive behaviours such as withdrawal from work) (Fox et al, 2001).

Empirically, research has found correlations between organisational constraints (as stressors) and CWB (Storms & Spector 1987 as cited in Fox & Spector, in press; Fox & Spector 1999 as cited in Fox & Spector, in press; Fox & Spector, 2003). The study

conducted by Storms and Spector (1987 as cited in Spector & Fox) on self-reported measures of constraints and CWB developed by the authors, resulted in significant correlations, including: aggression (.36), hostility and complaining (.47), sabotage (.29) and withdrawal (.36), as well as with feelings of frustration (.55), which has similar relations to CWB.

Another important element in response to the environmental stressor is the perception made by the employee of the intent of the agent of the stressor (Spector & Fox, in press). The perception of the intent can be more important than the objective nature of the situation itself (Greenwell and Dengerink, 1973 as cited in Fox & Spector, in press). Folger and Baron (1996, as cited in Spector & Fox, in press) linked this idea to responses to injustice. They found that situations that are perceived of as intentionally unfair induce high levels of negative emotions and therefore are more likely to lead to aggressive responses (Fox & Spector, in press). Similarly, Jawahar (2002) proposed a model of organisational justice and workplace aggression and described the antecedent as aversive events and/or actions in the work environment which shape justice perceptions. Fox et al (2001) also found that job stressors were related to CWB. Job stressors were related to a composite measure of negative emotion, this emotion measure also related to perceptions of injustice, which they also considered a type of job stressor.

Furthermore, researchers, such as Bennett and Robinson (2000) and Jones (2004) have shown how different types of fairness predict various forms of CWB (discussed in the next section).

Organisational Justice

The organisational justice literature aims to explain the role of fairness in the workplace with reference to employee's perceptions of fairness (Cropanzo, 1987). Few would object with the proposition that organisation members intuitively evaluate their circumstances according to some rule of justice (Schneider & Brief, 1988). Similar to the discussion of job stressors, fairness depends very much on the situation and the frame of reference of the person who is making the fairness judgment (Adam, 1963 as cited in Spector & Fox, 2002).

Three dimensions of justice has been identified by organisational justice scholars which can be used to define fairness: distributive, referring to perceptions of outcomes (Beugré, 2002), particularly the distribution of goods, such as money and opportunities (Schneider & Brief, 1988); procedural, 'the effects of the perceived justice of the process/es that leads to these outcomes' (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996, p. 83); and interaction/interpersonal, meaning interpersonal treatment and communication by management to employees (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Distributive Justice

The study of fairness in psychology started with Adam's work on equity emphasising the perception of outcomes (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001). In equity theory, a person compares his/her input/output to that of another person. A balance between the two would lead to a feeling of equity, with perception of inequity resulting in tension and thereby motivating individuals to restore equity using a number of mechanisms, such as a reduction of task behaviours (Adam, 1963 as cited in Spector & Fox, 2002).

Similarly, distributive injustice occurs when a person does not get the amount of reward he/she expects compared to someone else (Deutsch, 1985 as cited in Beugré, 2002). Perceived unfairness of outcomes distribution leads to resentment and other forms of negative behaviours, for example, theft (Greenberg, 1993), retaliation (Scarlicki & Folger, 1997) and Jawahar (2002), which fits this paper's concept of CWB.

Distributive justice was for a long time perceived as the only type of justice worthy of studying within the organisation, however, the inability of equity theory and other distributive justice models to completely explain and predict people's reactions to perceived injustice, led to a shift in the focus of research to procedural justice (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001)

Procedural Justice

Procedures within organisations are perceived as stable (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996), and because of this, once employees have made perceptions about the procedures in organisations as being unfair, in other words, if they think that 'their esteem and identity need are not likely to be fulfilled – now or in the future' (p. 200), could result in

employees not being supportive of decisions, decision makers and the organisation (Spector & Fox, 2002).

Leventhal (1976) as cited in Beugré (2002), identified six procedural justice rules that a procedurally fair decision should include: consistency (procedures must be consisted to ensure fairness, bias suppression (procedures must be developed and implemented without considering the self-interests of those who elaborated them), rule of accuracy (procedures must be based on accurate information), rule of correctability (procedures must allow room for correction), rule of representativeness (procedures must integrate the interests of all parties) and rule of ethicality (procedures must follow moral and ethical standards).

While some researchers (e.g. Jawahar, 2002; Jones, 2004) have separated the effects of procedural and distributive factors, others (e.g. Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996,) have designed their studies to provide an integrative analysis of their effects. The integrative analysis argues that the effects of procedural justice on individual's reactions to outcome favourability depend on the degree of procedural fairness with which the decision is planned and implemented – "outcomes and procedures work together to create a sense of injustice" (Folger & Cropanzo, 1998, p. 136).

Interpersonal Justice

Interactional justice refers to the quality of interpersonal treatment people received during the implementation of a procedure (Bies and Moag, 1996), with treatment defined as the courtesy and respect the decision maker shows by informing the decision recipient of how the decision is made (Greenberg, 1992).

Although Greenberg (1992) considered interpersonal justice as representing the social aspects of procedural justice, recent research has treated interpersonal justice as a separate dimension (e.g. Beugré, 2002; Jones, 2004). Furthermore, a meta-analytic study by Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) using 190 studied samples, found the distinction between the three justice types to be merited. Thus, interpersonal justice is treated as a separate dimension in this study.

Organisational Justice and CWB

When an employee perceives distributive injustice, they might hurt the organisation to make the outcome/input ratio less negative with counterproductive behaviours(Greenberg & Scott as cited in Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001), such as absenteeism. Perceptions of unfair procedures for resource allocation results in negative attitudes towards the organisation, for example, lower trust and commitment (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001) and counterproductive behaviours, such as spreading rumours about the organisation. Interactional injustice may result in counterproductive behaviour at the individual/local level, such as conflict with one's supervisor (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Ambrose et al, 2002 & Jawahar, 2002).

Empirically, a number of studies have linked CWB to injustice (e.g. Greenberg, 1993; Sckarlicki & Folger, 1997; Scarlicki, Folger & Tesluk, 1999; Bidder, Chang & Tyler, 2001; Fox et al, 2001; Ambrose et al., 2002; Jawahar, 2002; Jones, 2004 and Spector & Fox, in press), with some variations.

Researchers have either included all three forms of justice to explain CWB (Sckarlicki & Folger, 1997; Ambrose et al., 2002; Jawahar, 2002; Jones 2004) or haven not, such as Fox et al (2001), who excluded interactional justice in their research and Bidder et al (2001), who looked specifically at procedural justice, while some have related CWB to a general injustice variable (e.g.Greenberg, 1993).

Furthermore, Scarlicki & Folger (1997) studied the interactions between the three injustice types to predict which type would be more significant in explaining counterproductive behaviours, while Jawahar (2002) had a more fine-grained approach, looking at how the different forms of perceived injustice were likely to elicit different forms of aggressive behaviours that vary in target of aggression and manner delivered (target). They also went further to assess how the status of the offender would influence the use of direct or indirect expressions of hostility by the victim. Ambrose et al (2002) also looked at target and severity; in contrast, they looked at the *additive* effect of the three types of injustice to determine severity and target of sabotage. In addition to *target* and *severity*, they looked at the *goal* of the specific counterproductive behaviour used. For example, sabotage behaviour is aimed at restoring equity. Their results confirmed their hypothesis.

Researcher's results have been somewhat inconsistent. Scarlicki and Folger (1997) found a significant correlation between personal CWB and distributive justice, however, Fox et al (2001) did not. Results with procedural justice were somewhat more consistent. Fox et al (2001) did not find a significant correlation with personal CWB, as opposed to Scarlicki and Folger (1997), but both did find significant correlations with procedural justice and organisational CWB; this was also consistent with Ambrose et al (2002) and Jawahar (2002). Although Fox et al (2001) did not include interactional justice; other studies have illustrated significant correlations with CWB (Greenberg, 1993; Scarlicki & Folger, 1997; Ambrose et al, 2002; Jawahar, 2002, Jones, 2004).

Emotions

Emotions play a central role in the job stress process because emotions represent the immediate response to situations that are perceived as stressful (Spector, 2002), and because they energise and motivate subsequent behaviour and physiological change (Spector, 1998 as cited in Fox et al, 2001). As discussed, the same inference is made with perceptions of injustice and therefore emotion can serve as a mediator role for injustice (Fox et al, 2001; Spector and Fox, 2002). Spector and Fox (2002) found relations between procedural and distributive justice, emotions and CWB; and Frone (1998) as cited in Miles et al (2002), has shown interpersonal justice (defined as poor treatment by co-workers) to be related to negative emotions and CWB.

Five subcomponents are involved in the experience of emotion: evaluation of the situation, physiological changes, motor expression, motivation for action, and subjective feeling states (Wallbott and Scherer, 1989 as cited in Spector & Fox, 2002). If an individual appraises a situation as enhancing well-being, a positive emotion will be experience, whereas a threat to well-being will induce a negative emotion (Lazarus, 1982 as cited in Spector & Fox, 2002). Negative emotions include feelings of anger, anxiety and depression, whereas positive emotion includes cheerfulness, contentment, enthusiasm and happiness (Spector & Fox, 2002).

In a practical sense, the workplace is an environment that can induce strong emotion as it is the source of both psychological (e.g. esteem) and physical (e.g. money) need fulfilment (Spector & Fox, 2002). Individuals will monitor situations in the

workplace, those deemed as particularly relevant for hurting well-being will tend to induce emotion that will produce action tendencies and intentions that might enhance negative states (Spector & Fox, 2002). A situation that induces a negative emotion will increase the likelihood that CWB will occur, either to actively and directly attack the agent of the situation (e.g. verbal abuse) or to passively and indirectly cope with the emotion (e.g. by staying away from work) (Spector & Fox, 2002).

In two studies (Fox et al, 2001; Miles et al, 2002), CWB was related to more general measures of both positive and negative emotions at work using the Job-related Affective Well Being Scale (VanKatwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000), an instrument that assesses the experience of a variety of emotions at work. Correlations were significant in both cases relating positively for negative emotions; and negatively with positive emotional experience (Fox et al, 2001; Miles et al, 2002).

In many cases, action directly against the target may be inhibited because of the fear of reprisal for example; hitting a supervisor can get one fired (Spector & Fox, 2002). In such cases, behaviour is likely to be indirect, perhaps secretly attacking someone's property at work instead of them, or acting in a passive aggressive manner, such as doing a task incorrectly on purpose (Spector & Fox, 2002).

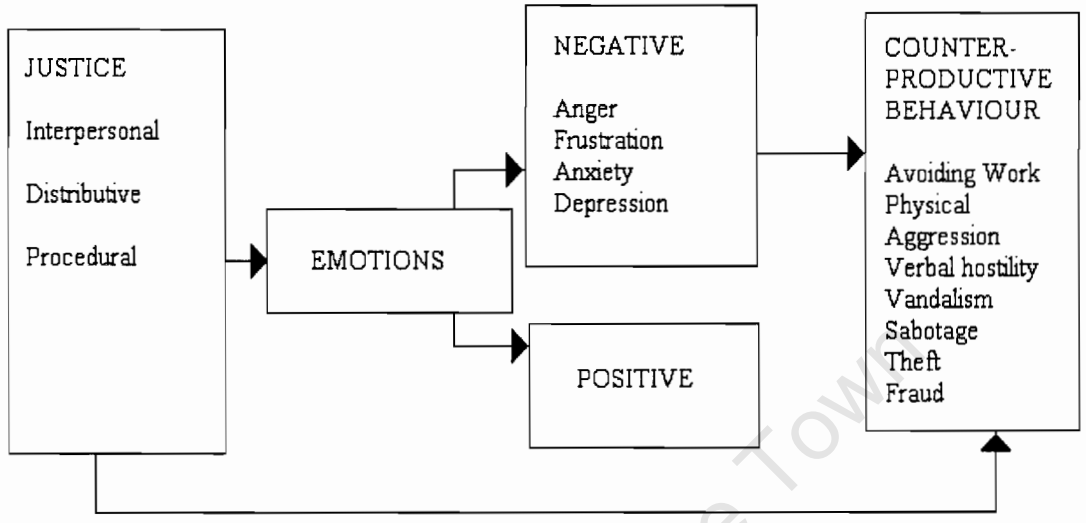
Spector and Fox (2002) further notes in their study, that emotion does not necessarily invokes behaviour, or behaviour that occurs immediately, rather, that emotion increases the likelihood of behaviour, under certain conditions. Responses can be immediate in some cases, but most CWB is not of this variety (Spector & Fox, 2002). Fox, Spector and Miles (1999) as cited in Spector and Fox (2002), found that direct assaults were far rarer in organisations than less direct forms of CWB.

A Model of Organisational Injustice and CWB

Figure 1 illustrates the Justice-CWB model. It shows a causal flow from the perception of justice to emotion to behaviour. For example, the perception of distributive injustice (for example, not being promoted), may heighten a negative emotional state (for example, anger) and result in the likelihood of committing counterproductive behaviour/s (for example, vandalism). The direct link between justice and CWB (without being mediated by emotion) illustrates how the flow may run in more than one direction.

Figure 1.

The Justice – CWB Model



Research Objectives

Having examined all the major constructs that form part of the research, it remains only to state explicitly that the research objectives are:

- to define and conceptualise the dimensionality and nature of CWB
- to develop a model of CWB which incorporates all relevant theoretical links relating to CWB, justice and emotion
- to assess the relationship between perceptions of injustice and CWB
- to explore which justice constructs are most predictive of CWB
- to investigate whether negative emotion mediates the relationships between injustice and CWB.

Final Notes

A review of previous CWB research illustrates inconsistencies between theorists and their findings as it is a relatively new construct. This research provides a definition for CWB and positions it within a comprehensive model so that a clearer understanding

can be created. A theoretical framework with justice as antecedent and emotion as mediator is presented. The relationships between CWB, the dimensions of justice (distributive, procedural and interpersonal) and emotion (positive and negative) within this model is explored.

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

This chapter begins by examining the organisational context of the participants in this study. This is followed by a consideration of sample and research design issues. The use of the survey method to investigate a sensitive topic is also discussed. Finally, the measuring instruments used in the survey and the techniques used to analyse the results, are detailed.

Research Context

The 'site' of this research study is two retail chains of a retail group that incorporates six retail chains nationally (Annual Report, 2004). These six retail chains consist of 800 stores, with the two sample retail chains comprising of 427 stores (Annual Report, 2004). These two retail chains focus on clothing, footwear, accessories and homeware. According to their 2004 Annual Report, the organisation increased their unit sales by 23%, with profits up by 20% from 2003, and an increase in turnover of 14% (R4 million). The stores are unionised and the representative union is SACTWU (The South African Clothing and Textiles Worker Union) which is affiliated to COSATU (Congress of South African Trade Unions).

The organisation works on a value retailing strategy (Annual Report, 2004). The report explains value retailing as a combination of price and fashion value (Annual Report, 2004). Price value is achieved by lower operating costs, lower merchandise costs and "everyday low prices" (Annual Report, 2004). Fashion value derives from strong branding (Annual Report, 2004). Labour costs are kept low by high per person sales activity through self-service and high unit flows through stores (Annual Report, 2004).

The organisation forms part of the advanced and diverse South African retail industry that has maintained its market strength despite tough economic times (South African Business Guidebook, 2001/2002). The sector is relatively concentrated, with the top ten companies accounting for about 50% of retail sales (South African Business Guidebook, 2001/2002) and contributing over R50 billion a year to the South African economy (http://www.mnet.co.za/CarteBlanche/Display/Display.asp?Id=1451).

Sample

A total of 160 surveys were administered to shop floor employees in 27 retail stores in the Western Cape Region. Of these, 152 were returned, indicating a high response rate of 95%. Most of the participants were female (81%), ranging from till workers to sales assistants. The gender imbalance in this sample is consistent with the population of employees from which participants were sampled. Participants were predominantly in their late twenties (*M = 27.44, SD = 7.11 years*), with ages ranging from 19 to 44. On average, participants had been employed in the organisation for almost 4 years (*M = 3.87, SD = 3.15*), with tenure ranging from 1 to 15 years. Most had matric as their highest qualification (57%), a further 30% had schooling to the Std 8 level.

Research Design

Quantitative

Data was collected using the survey method. This follows the tradition of survey research method within this area of study (e.g. Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Spector & Fox, 2002; Martinko et al., 2002; Miles et al., 2002; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Jones, 2004), and is appropriate given the research question for the following reasons:

1. Survey research as a quantitative method allows for comparison and generalisation between the USA (United States of America) and South African context with statistical operations (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). As very little research has been conducted outside of the USA, this study had to investigate the similarities or differences of the topic to the South African context as well as to develop a valid and reliable questionnaire for the South African context, due to cultural and language differences. An uncritical replication of the American studies could lead to results that have little relevance for South Africa, and in this context, little relevance for the development of CWB theory.
2. CWB as a sensitive topic, where participants are reluctant to answer certain questions about their negative behaviours at work, could pose a potential threat to

the validity of this study (Tourangeau & Smith, 1996). Studies have shown that self-report questionnaires containing sensitive questions yield greater responses compared to alternative methods of collecting data on sensitive topics (Tourengeau & Smith, 1996).

The primary threat to the validity of this study was response error (Tourangeau & Smith, 1996). Meaning the discrepancy between reported CWB and actual CWB at work (Barnett, 1998).

It was important to ensure that employees did not misreport their behaviours and were honest so that confidence could be placed in the survey results as a basis for making decisions and as a means of contributing to theory. The following strategies were used to reduce response error:

1. Participants were instructed not to write their names or personal details on the questionnaires as a guarantee of anonymity in order to increases response rates and improve the quality of responses (Barnett, 1998). Assurances of confidentiality were also made to legitimate the research process and convince the respondents that the researcher could be trusted (Lee, 1993). This was also important as reported behaviours could not be identified by supervisors or the organisation and thereby ensured no potential threat to employees.

2. The questionnaires were designed by wording questions in a way that assumed the behaviour had already taken place and therefore asked about its frequency rather than about whether it had already occurred at all. Additionally, the survey used Sirken's (1974 as cited in Lee, 1993) "nominative technique" by asking employees to report on the counterproductive behaviours of co-workers. Information supplied by nominating others is useful in the exploration of sensitive topics and has been suggested as an alternative method (e.g., Fox et al., 2001). Furthermore, threatening questions (such as those on the CWB scale) were placed last in the questionnaire as recommended by Lee, (1993) and Barnett (1998).

3. It was important to gain physical access into the stores where employees were easy to locate and administer surveys on a one-to-one basis in order to establish rapport and hence, ensure valid responses and high return rates. The general manager was targeted as the appropriate gatekeeper (Lee, 1993). In order to establish trust, details of the research, such as purpose and dissemination of results, were discussed; and confidentiality was assured. Managers and employees were notified of the research with a signed letter authorizing access to stores and permitting staff to participate in the survey during company time. In addition to *physical* access, *social* access (Lee, 1993) was gained by meeting with employees face-to-face in the stores and discussing the research with each employee, in this way ensuring accurate response and reducing the chance of token co-operation with management's consent, as argued by Lee (1993). This was particularly important in this study, where employees would prefer to keep information regarding counterproductive work behaviours, from their employers.
4. To further strengthen the perceptions of confidentiality, completed questionnaires were returned and placed in a "drop box" provided by the researcher, which resembled a voting box.

Measures

This section gives details of the measuring instruments used in the research. The survey consisted of CWB (self and peer-reported), Justice (procedural, interactional and distributive) and Emotion measures. All responses of these measures were developed using five-point Likert scales. Answers ranged from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly agree) for the Justice scales and from 1 (never) to 5 (all the time) for the Emotion and CWB scales. A justification for the inclusion of each of the Justice and CWB measures in the present study was presented in Chapter 2. Cronbach alpha reliabilities for each scale used in this study are in Chapter 4.

CWB

As recommended in research (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Fox et al., 2001; Fox & Spector, In press), both self and peer-report methods were used to measure the CWB scale.

Self-reported. In order to develop CWB research and validate it for the South African context; a combination of Bennett and Robinson's (2000) and Gruys and Sackett's (2003) CWB scale was used. Both Bennett and Robinson (2000) and Gruys and Sackett's (2003) studies were based entirely on self-report measures. Bennett and Robinson's (2000) scale consists of 18 items scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Gruys and Sackett's (2003) scale is also scored on a 7-point Likert scale with 66 items. The correlations between Gruys and Sackett's (2003) CWB categories were all positive and ranged from .17 to .71 and the average correlation was .43. This is similar to the correlation of .46 in Bennett and Robinson's (2000) deviance scale. This suggests that the categories are related. Some of the items were adapted for use in this study as it was important for the current sample to understand the questionnaire and therefore complete it correctly (i.e. in order for the results to be reliable).

Peer-reported. CWB was also assessed through peer-report, termed Observed Counterproductive Work Behaviour (OCWB) in this study. The peer-report was based mainly on Bennett and Robinson's (2000) deviance scales in order to be comparative. A few of Gruys and Sackett's (2003) were included for explorative reasons.

Justice

Procedural and Interactional justice. These scales consisted of items that were adapted from Jardine (2001) and Bagraim (2002), as their items were validated for the South African context. Jardine (2001) and Bagraim (2002) based their scales on Moorman (1991) 12-item scale. This scale included interactional justice items that Moorman (1991) suggests should be included. Five response choices ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Moorman (1991) reported a coefficient alpha of .94.

Distributive justice. The Distributive Justice Index, developed by Price and Meuler (1986), was used as it was found to be reliable (McFarlin and Sweeney 1992) and

validated for the South African context (Jardine, 2001). Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they felt they had been fairly rewarded considering their (1) responsibility and status, (2) education and training, (3) amount of experience, (4) amount of effort, (5) amount of performance, and (6) stress and strain. Moorman (1991) reported a coefficient alpha of .94 for the 6-item scale.

Emotion

Watson, Clark and Tellegen's (1988) Positive and Negative Affect Schedules (PANAS) was used. The two 10-item scales of positive and negative affect are scored on a 5-point scale that asks the subject to respond to given words describing emotions and feelings and indicate to what degree the subject feels this way (1=very slightly, not at all; 2=a little; 3=moderately; 4=quite a bit; 5=extremely) for a given time period (At the Moment, Today, Past few days, Past week, Past few weeks, Year, General). Watson et al. (1988) reported an alpha reliability of .88 for the positive affect (PA) scale and .87 for the negative affect (NA) scale.

Analysis

The following techniques were used to assess the scales and investigate the relationship between injustice and counterproductive work behaviour:

Descriptive statistics was used to describe the basic features of the data i.e. gender, average age, tenure and educational level (Trochim, 1998).

The study performed Chronbach's alpha on the self and peer-reported CWB, justice and emotion scales to test for reliability in order for the questionnaire to be interpretable (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The higher the level of reliability, the closer the Chronbach's alpha score would be to 1 (Statsoft, 1996).

Exploratory factor analysis was used to assess the dimensionality of the CWB (self and peer-reported) scales. Scales were analysed to confirm Bennett and Robinson's (2000) and Gruys and Sackett's (2003) established categories; and to assess whether patterns of new categories could be created by grouping items that correlated (Babbie, 1997).

Correlation analysis was used to assess the relationship between injustice and CWB (self and peer-reported).

In order to assess the deterministic relationship between the injustice (PJ, IJ and DJ) and CWB constructs, Hierarchical Multiple Regression was applied (Kerlinger, 1986). The descriptive (age, tenure, educational level) and emotion variables were included as control variables (Kerlinger, 1986).

Conclusion

The chapter emphasised the importance of the research design process taking the sensitive nature and context of the research topic into consideration. Survey research design was shown to offer a distinct set of strengths with a focus on the design and administration process of the surveys (seen as crucial to elicit valid and reliable responses). Measures included in the survey (CWB, Justice and Emotions) were then discussed followed by an explanation of analytic techniques of the data to ensure the quality of the interpretations and conclusions drawn. The next chapter records the results of this study.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

This chapter is divided into six sections. The first section examines the dimensionality of all the instruments used in the study. The second section shows the descriptive statistics of the demographic, CWB, Justice and Emotion variables. The third section concerns the reliability of the different scales used in the research. The fourth section presents the Correlation analysis and assesses the relationship between the research variables. The fifth section examines the differences between the demographic variables and CWB (OCWB and SCWB). Finally, Hierarchical Regression will show how much of the variance in CWB is explained by Justice, with the inclusion of Emotions and Age as control variables. SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 12.0.1 was used to analyse the data.

Factor Analyses

To assess the dimensionality of the scales, Principal axis factor analysis, with varimax rotation, was performed on the OCWB, SCWB, Justice and Emotion items on the questionnaire that were completed by employees (N = 152).

OCWB Scale

Before the factor analysis was conducted, the adequacy of the sample was determined by means of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA). The value was r = 0,890 and the sample was therefore considered adequate. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity had a result of χ^2 (120) = 1404.80, p<.001 meaning that the variables were sufficiently mutually correlated to continue with the factor analysis. The OCWB items included Bennett and Robinson's (2000) full scale; and some items from Gruys and Sackett's (2003) scales. A five factor solution emerged but the factors were not clear as many had a loading below <.50 and several items cross-loaded onto multiple factors. After these items were removed, a one factor solution emerged, which mirrored Bennett and Robinson's (2000) scale. One item was further removed from this one factor solution,

as it had a loading of .13. The result was a one factor solution consisting of 16 items (Table 5).

Table 5.

Factor Analysis of OCWB

Items	I have seen a co-worker:	Factor 1
OCWB43	…play a mean prank on someone at work	**0.54**
OCWB44	…come to work late without permission	**0.67**
OCWB45	…take an additional or longer break than is acceptable	**0.67**
OCWB46	…litter the work environment	**0.52**
OCWB47	…discuss confidential matters	**0.73**
OCWB48	…publicly embarrass someone at work	**0.63**
OCWB49	…act rudely towards someone at work	**0.74**
OCWB50	…intentionally do slow or sloppy work	**0.74**
OCWB51	…put little effort into their work	**0.58**
OCWB52	…neglect to follow their supervisor's instructions	**0.77**
OCWB53	…swear at someone at work	**0.81**
OCWB54	…say something hurtful to someone at work	**0.81**
OCWB55	…make fun of someone at work	**0.73**
OCWB56	…make ethnic, religious or racial remarks or jokes at work	**0.57**
OCWB57	…spend too much time fantasizing or daydreaming	**0.52**
OCWB58	…spend too much time fantasizing or daydreaming	**0.44**
Eigenvalue		7.05
% of variance explained		44.05

SCWB Scale

Gruys and Sackett's (2003) items were not included in the factor analysis as variances were too low. Only Bennett and Robinson's (2000) scale, consisting of eighteen items in the current study, was included. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) had a value of r = 0.758 and the sample was therefore

considered adequate. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was χ^2 (45) = 380.71; p<.001 and it was sufficiently mutually correlated to continue with the factor analysis. A one factor solution with 9 items emerged (See Table 6).

Table 6.
Factor Analysis of SCWB

Items	I have seen a coworker:	Factor 1
SCWB104	Spend too much time fantasizing or daydreaming	**0.47**
SCWB107	Came to work late without permission	**0.40**
SCWB110	Dragged out work in order to get overtime	**0.52**
SCWB111	Intentionally did slow or sloppy work	**0.54**
SCWB113	Neglected to follow your supervisor's instructions	**0.56**
SCWB121	Swore at someone at work	**0.37**
SCWB125	Played a mean prank on someone at work	**0.70**
SCWB126	Publicly embarrass someone at work	**0.70**
SCWB127	Acted rudely towards someone at work	**0.55**
Eigenvalue		4.16
% of variance explained		46.23

Justice Scale

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) had a value of r = 0.847 and was therefore considered adequate. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was χ^2 (136) = 1450.958; p<.001 and it was therefore sufficient to proceed with the factor analysis. Factor analysis conducted on the Justice scale revealed a three factor solution, which is consistent with the three factors (DJ, IJ and PJ) used in this study to explain Justice. The results (See Table 7) shows that organisational justice consists of three different constructs, namely: distributive, procedural and interactional justice.

Table 7.

Factor Analysis of Organisational Justice Items

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
PJ22	**0.82**		
PJ24	**0.80**		
PJ21	**0.72**		
PJ23	**0.70**		
PJ19	**0.66**		
PJ20	**0.62**		
DJ9		**0.83**	
DJ8		**0.78**	
DJ11		**0.77**	
DJ12		**0.71**	
DJ10		**0.70**	
DJ13		**0.55**	
IJ17			**0.87**
IJ18			**0.75**
IJ16			**0.75**
IJ15			**0.69**
IJ14			**0.65**
Eigenvalue	6.97	2.07	1.54
% of variance explained	41.01	12.16	9.04

Note: PJ = Procedural Justice. DJ = Distributive Justice. IJ = Interactional Justice.

Emotion Scale

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) had a value of r = 0.842 and was therefore considered adequate. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was χ^2 (10) = 304.01; p<.001 and therefore sufficient to continue with the factor analysis. The emotion scale consisted of positive and negative emotion factors. An initial factor analysis performed on the emotion scale revealed a one factor solution with items loading below (<.20). Once these items were removed, a second factor analysis resulted in a one factor solution consisting of the positive emotion items (Table 8). This is consistent with Watson et al's (1988) positive emotion scale.

Table 8

Factor Analysis of Positive Emotion

Items	Factor 1
E59	**0.67**
E61	**0.51**
E62	**0.57**
E65	**0.42**
E68	**0.52**
Eigenvalue	2.69
% of variance explained	53.84

Note: E = Positive Emotion in this table

Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Analysis

Table 9 reports correlations, means, standard deviations and Cronbach alpha reliability estimates.

Table 9.

Correlations and Descriptive Statistics

		Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	DJ	3.19	0.86	**(-0.87)**					
2	IJ	3.43	0.83	0.43**	**(-0.84)**				
3	PJ	3.3	0.88	0.58**	0.48**	**(-0.87)**			
4	OCWB	1.81	0.72	-0.03	-0.14	0.22**	**(-0.89)**		
5	Positive Emotion	3.6	1.1	0.15	0.1	-0.18*	0.32**	**(-0.85)**	
6	SCWB	1.29	0.48	-0.03	-0.14	-0.12	0.54**	0.23**	**-0.88**

Note: Cronbach alpha reliability estimates are shown on the diagonal in brackets

SD = Standard Deviation

** p < .01 * p < .05

N = 152

Mean responses for CWB (Self-Reported and Observed) ranged from 1.28 to 1.8 on the 5 point scale, indicating that participants reported that they rarely engaged in the counterproductive behaviours. This result is not surprising given the nature of the behaviours being rated. Employees had feelings of positive emotions at work between 'sometimes' and 'often' (mean = 3.59). Justice responses were rated between neutral and agreeable with means ranging from 3.19 and 3.43.

Standard deviations for OCWB (.72), SCWB (.48) and Justice (0.83 to 0.87) indicate that there was not much variance in participant's reporting.

Internal correlation reliability coefficients of the scales are OCWB (.89), SCWB (.88), Justice: DJ (.87), IJ (.84) and PJ (.87); and Positive Emotions (.85), using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. These scores indicate that all the scales are highly reliable and valid as the Cronbach's Alpha are very close to one and above .70.

Pearson's product-moment correlation was used to assess the direction and magnitude of relationships between all the research variables. The following findings are worth noting:

1. There was no relationship found between SCWB and Justice constructs. OCWB showed a significant positive relationship with one of the Justice Constructs, Procedural Justice ($r = .22$, $p<.01$).
2. Positive Emotions was also seen to be related to Procedural Justice ($r = .18$, $p<.05$).
3. Both OCWB and SCWB correlated significantly with Positive Emotions ($r = .32$, $r = .23$ respectively, $p<.01$).
4. Distributive Justice correlated significantly to Interpersonal Justice ($r = .43$, $p<.01$) and Procedural Justice ($r = .58$, $p<.01$) respectively. Procedural Justice was also found to be significantly related to Interpersonal Justice ($r = .48$, $p<.01$).
5. There was a significant correlation between SCWB and OCWB ($r = .54$, $p<.01$).

Demographic differences in CWB

T-test analysis was performed to test for Gender and Employment Status differences in OCWB and SCWB. ANOVA was used to test for Marital Status, Race, Number of Years Employed, Age and Qualifications differences in OCWB and SCWB. No differences were found except for Marital Status and SCWB (Table 10). Post Hoc tests revealed a significant difference between single and married employees (mean difference = .24, $p<.05$), indicating that single employees were more inclined to self-report counterproductive work behaviours (Table 11)

Table 10.

ANOVA of Marital Status and OCW & SCWB.

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
OCWB	Between Groups	0.224	2	0.112	0.211	0.81
	Within Groups	79.013	149	0.53		
	Total	79.237	151			
SCWB	Between Groups	2.21	2	1.105	5.042	0.008**
	Within Groups	32.658	149	0.219		
	Total	34.868	151			

Note: Between Groups = differences between married and single groups that self-reported (SCWB).
** The mean difference is significant at the .001 level

Table 11.
Post Hoc Tests (Bonferroni)

Dependent Variable	(I) Marital Status	(J) Marital Status	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
OCWB	Married	Single	0.08	0.13	1	-0.23	0.4
		Other	0.03	0.28	1	-0.65	0.71
	Single	Married	-0.08	0.13	1	-0.4	0.23
		Other	-0.06	0.27	1	-0.7	0.59
	Other	Married	-0.03	0.28	1	-0.71	0.65
		Single	0.06	0.27	1	-0.59	0.7
SCWB	Married	Single	-0.24*	0.08	0.02	-0.44	-0.03
		Other	0.08	0.18	1	-0.35	0.52
	Single	Married	0.24 *	0.08*	0.02	0.03	0.44
		Other	0.32	0.17	0.19	-0.1	0.74
	Other	Married	-0.08	0.18	1	-0.52	0.35
		Single	-0.32	0.17	0.19	-0.74	0.1

Note: Single = (I). Married = (J).
Mean Difference (I-J) = differences between Single and Married groups for SCWB.
* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Hierarchical Multiple Regression

Table 12 illustrates the use of Hierarchical Regression to test which of the independent variables explains the variance in OCWB the most.

Table 12.
Main Results of Regression

Steps	Variables	B	R^2	R^2 change	F	df1	df2	p
1	**DEMOGRAPHICS:**							
	Gender	0.05						
	Marital Status	0.04						
	Race	0.03						
	Employment Status	0.05						
	Qualifications	0.09						
	Age	0.20	0.045	0.005	1.12	6	142	0.05
	EMOTION:							
2	Positive Emotions	0.34	0.161	0.118	3.85	7	141	0.001
3	**JUSTICE:**		0.213	0.156	3.74	10	138	0.05
	Distributive Justice	0.24						
	Procedural Justice	-0.13						
	Interpersonal Justice	-0.2						

In the hierarchical multiple regression, descriptive variables were entered in the first step and explained about 0.05 per cent of the variance in Observed Counter-productive Work Behaviour (OCWB) ($F_{6,142} = 1.12$, $p < 0.05$), however, only Age was significant (B = .20). Positive Emotions was entered second and explained a further 12 per cent ($F_{7,141} = 3.85$, $p < 0.001$) of the variance. All three justice variables (DJ, PJ and IJ) were then entered in step 3, with Distributive Justice the only significant predictor (B = .24) and explaining a further 16 per cent ($F_{10, 138} = 3.74$, $p < 0.05$) of the variance.

Conclusion

Results presented scales that were used to assess the relationship between injustice, emotion and counterproductive work behaviours. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation revealed what these relationships were. Differences between the demographic variables and SCWB emerged with the use of ANOVA. Lastly, Hierarchical Regression gave an indication of which of the independent variables explained the variance in CWB. The next chapter discusses the interpretation of these results in more depth.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This chapter contains a detailed discussion of the results of the study. It begins by summarising and interpreting the results and placing them in context. This is followed by a discussion of recommendations for future research and implications for practice.

Demographic Variables and CWB

Except for Age and Marital Status, relationships between Fairness and CWB were not present for Gender, Employment Status, Tenure and Qualifications. This could be as a result of the imbalances in the sample size across these variables, which does not account for much variance. Also, the results are consistent with Cox's (2002) review of research on how the perceptions of justice affect attitudes and work performance. Results of background characteristics of employees such as age, gender, race, education and tenure were found to have little influence on employee justice perceptions, which suggests that these principles may be universal (Cox, 2002). In the present research, age was shown to explain some variance of OCWB with the relationship that older employees were more inclined to commit counterproductive acts. This contradicts with studies that found younger age groups are most likely to commit counter productive acts (Henle, 2002 as cited in Jones, 2004, Gruys and Sackett, 2003). As age correlated with tenure, older employees could have been exposed to unjust conditions for a longer period and thus more likely to commit counterproductive acts and also able to report on experiences. An interesting finding with regards to marital status was that a difference was found between single and married employees, in that single employees were more inclined to self-report counterproductive work behaviours. One can make the deduction that due to the sensitive nature of reporting these behaviours, as a result of the perception that employment could be jeopardised if management had access to such information, would result in hesitation of reporting; and even more so if family members were dependant on the employment.

Dimensionality of CWB

Findings showed positive correlations between the CWB items (SCWB and OCWB), implying that as the likelihood that an individual will engage in one type of CWB increases, the likelihood of the individual to engage in another type of CWB also increases. This confirms similar findings in research (Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Gruys and Sackett, 2003,) and is also known as "general moral permissiveness" (Jones, 1980 as cited in, Boye and Wasserman, 1996). However, differences in bases rates, also suggests that this might not be the case for all (Gruys and Sackett, 2003).

The use of categories of behaviours that were based on content themes developed by Gruys and Sackett (2003) did not perform as expected. Possible reasons include the sensitive nature of the topic and cross-cultural issues (e.g. language), which resulted in low variance. This suggests further research of the scale. Support was found for Bennett and Robinson's (2000) scale, indicating CWB as a more general phenomenon. Bennett and Robinson (2000) developed their scale according to classical theory and test construction and thus went through a series of empirical development stages, involving samples of diverse compositions (Marcus, Schuler, Quell and Hümpfner, 2002). Hence, it would seem more likely to provide an accurate picture within a sample drawn from this population (Marcus et al., 2002). However, there is still room for refinement in cross-cultural contexts. To date this study is the first to investigate this topic in the South Afrian context.

The Relationship between Fairness and CWB

Although no relationship was found between Self-reported CWB and the justice constructs, Observed Counterproductive Behaviour was significantly related to Procedural Justice. This finding is consistent with research (Scarlicki and Folger, 1997, Ambrose, 2002, Cox, 2002, Jawahar, 2002, Jones, 2004). In the regression analysis, out of the three justice constructs, only Distributive Justice explained some of the variance in CWB. This implies that when employees perceives that they are rewarded equitably and as a result of fair procedures, they are less inclined to engage in acts that are counterproductive and vice versa. Scarlicki and Folger (1997) also found a significant relationship between personal CWB and distributive justice. Furthermore, the justice

constructs have also found be interdependent (Scarlicki & Folger, 1997, Cox, 2002), and therefore capable of functioning as substitutes for each other. This also highlights the need to focus attention on all three justice constructs. Scarlicki and Folger (1997) found that Distributive and Interactional Justice interacted only at low levels of procedural justice, which suggests that unfair procedures can set the stage for an increase in the retaliation for unfair outcomes. Masterson (2001) also found that Distributive and Procedural Justice can compensate for one another. More simply put, "outcomes and procedures work together to create a sense of injustice" (Folger & Cropanzo, 1998, p.136).

Emotion and CWB

The full model in the research could not be investigated, as negative emotions did not load on to one factor. The items of positive emotions loaded onto one factor and were therefore included. Proposed reasons are that the wording of the negative items were not realistic for the current research context, for example, "Scared"; and were not socially desirable, for example, "Guilty". The positive items were more familiar to this cultural context and socially desirable with the sensitive nature of the topic in mind. This suggests the items require further investigation.

Even though the central role of emotion could not be fully investigated in this model as a mediator between Justice and CWB, positive emotions was found to explain the more variance in OCWB than any other variables included. This is consistent with research that emotion increases the likelihood of certain behaviour, which can occur under certain conditions (Spector & Fox, 2002). Also, consistent with research, CWB related negatively with positive emotional experience (Fox et al, 2001, Miles et al, 2002). Positive emotion also had a significant relationship with procedural justice, which implies that perceptions of fair procedures would alter emotions positively and result in a decline in committing counterproductive behaviours. This indicates a possible link between justice, emotion and CWB.

Recommendations for Future Research

Research Method:

Counterproductive work behaviour is very difficult to measure (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). A common concern is the willingness of employees to admit to engaging in these behaviours in self-report measures. Although most researchers believe that it is the best method (Fox & Spector, 1999 as cited in Jones, 2004) and considerable evidence supports the validity of self-reports in general (Spector, 1992 as cited in Bennett & Robinson, 2000), some criticisms of this methodology have been raised. Criticisms centre on social desirability biases and reluctance to admit to CWB out of a fear of reprisal from their employing organisation (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). In the current study, however, any such fear may have been minimised as participants were asked exclude their names on their surveys and thus remained anonymous. One study has also shown that self-reported CWB was largely unrelated to socially desirable responding (Aquino, Lewis & Bradfield, 1999 as cited in Jones, 2004).

Furthermore, as a contribution to research and a way of further minimising response bias, peer-reportings of CWB, termed Observed Counterproductive Behaviour (OCWB) in the current study, was included as a second measurement of CWB. Scarlicki and Folger (1997) in their justice study, had participants report perceptions of distributive, interactive and procedural justice and co-workers were asked to complete a CWB measure on the participants. They found all three measures of justice correlated significantly, ranging from -.44 to -.54, to CWB. These correlations with justice using co-worker reports were the largest of any reported in the studies reviewed. Fox &

Spector (In press) discusses two studies (Goh, Bruursem, Fox & Spector, 2003; Penney & Spector, 2003) that utilized both incumbent and co-worker reports of the incumbent's CWB. Both studies asked a sample of employees to complete an anonymous questionnaire containing measures of CWB and other variables (Fox & Spector, In press) A parallel questionnaire was given to a co-worker to be chosen by the employee (Fox & Spector, In press). The studies found convergence for overall CWB with correlations of .22 (Penney & Spector as cited in Fox & Spector, In press) and .29 (Goh et al. as cited in Fox & Spector, In press). These studies that have relied on methods other than single-source have yielded results that are consistent with single-source studies (Fox & Spector, In press). In fact, as Fox and Spector (In press) further argues, in most cases the correlations were larger in magnitude (although not significantly so) for the co-workers than incumbent reports in Goh et al. (2003 as cited in Fox & Spector, In press). The current research results illustrate slight differences and improvements with the use of OCWB, thus continued work with multiple methods is encouraged to further clarify the structure of CWB. Other creative suggestions are to include the identification of known groups: people, jobs or organisations that historically feature high levels of CWB; and also to include measures to detect individuals responding in a socially desirable manner in self-report scales (Miles et al., 2002).

South African Research: It seems noteworthy that results did not differ by any practically significant margin from results obtained with much larger samples in the USA, as far as comparable data

exist. However, future research would need to build on the current to create an improved scale for the South African context. Improvements such as the wording of items and language would need to be considered when designing the scales, as well as creative processes for ensuring accurate and reliable response rates. Whiles results might not be generalisable, corroborated results might open the door to cross-culturally applicable theories of counterproductive behaviour.

Research in the South African context is particularly interesting. Once scales have been refined, scholars in South Africa may investigate further into employee's reactions to perceptions of justice and counterproductive reactions (Beugré, 2002). For example, do South African employees respond to workplace injustice by turnover in a context where employment is scarce and unemployment nearly endemic (Beugré, 2002)? Furthermore, under these conditions, what behavioural and cognitive mechanisms do these employees use to deal with workplace injustices (Beugré, 2002)?

Dimensionality of CWB: This study also attempts an important step towards clarifying the understanding of the structure and dimensionality of CWB. As mentioned, the intention in this research to develop a survey instrument that could assess a wider range of CWB behaviours, as done by Gruys and Sackett (2003), was not supported. However, it is of the opinion that improved survey designs and processes would lead to the possibility of measuring these behaviours and obtaining positive results. Future research is necessary to lend additional support to this conclusion. Examining the

relationship of these counterproductive behaviours will eventually contribute to more effective prediction and prevention of CWB in the workplace.

Implications for Practice

The findings imply that managers, who wish to see a decrease in counterproductive actions, must be aware that these behaviours are likely when employees believe that procedures and outcomes are fair. Organisations might benefit by enforcing zero-tolerance policies and providing ethical and principles of organisational justice training for line managers (Jones, 2004). Management should carefully consider the fairness of all procedures and how the outcomes of these are distributed. For example, compensation and promotion are two areas where African managers may influence the perception of distributive justice (Beugré, 2002). Employees should see a direct link between their performance and the rewards they get; and the best performers should be promoted (Beugré, 2002). Procedurally, each employee should be informed about how the pay, raise or promotion is given, and by doing so, creating a fair organisational environment (Beugré, 2002). Furthermore, the argument that proves that all three kinds of justice are interdependent means that managers cannot afford to focus on one at the expense of another (Cox, 2001).

Conclusion

This study evaluated the impact that perceptions of injustice at work have on counterproductive work behaviours. It includes emotion as a central role into a theoretical model where perceptions of injustice would heighten negative emotions and result in the likelihood of CWB. Justice was representative of three constructs: procedural, distributive, interpersonal/interactional justice. CWB was measured through both self and peer-reports based on Bennett and Robinson (2000) and Gruys and Sackett's (2003) scales.

Results confirm some findings of previous research, however, differences are also apparent and these are included in the recommendations for future research. Suggestions

for improved scales for the South African context and creative methods for measuring the scales are discussed. The findings also contain practical recommendations for managers who wish to minimise counterproductive behaviours in their organisations with a focus on distributive and procedural justice.

This study sheds further light on the nature and dimensionality of counterproductive work behaviour and adds to the cross-cultural understanding of the topic, specifically for an organisation in South Africa. It also extends literature by focusing on CWB within the blue-collar and retail context. The fact that they could be of use to management within this particular organisation also means that they are worthwhile. The findings were sufficiently interesting to merit considerable more attention by scholars of this topic.

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APPENDIX A – TABULAR REVIEW OF CATEGORIES AND DEFENITIONS

Table 2.

Categories and Definitions of CWB (based on Spector & Fox, in press)

Categories:	Similarity and Differences between Categories in Relation to the Definition of CWB	
	Similarity with CWB:	**Difference from CWB:**
Aggression	• Behaviour intended to harm organisations and/ people in organisations • Consists of behaviours that are classified as CWB: hostility, obstructionism & overt aggression	• CWB does not require specific intention to harm
Violence	• May or not involve intention to harm e.g. in robberies, victims may not be physically harmed, but merely threatened • Can be physical or psychological e.g. verbal abuse • Similar to Aggression if physical harm	• Focuses specifically on harm to people
Retaliation	• Behaviour is intentional to punish parties perceived as the cause	• Similar to Aggression where volitional behaviour is intended to harm. However, different to Aggression where underlying motive is to restore equity or justice.
Revenge	• Purposeful action against perceived agents of harm/violation of social order	• Actions might not be harmful to individuals/ organisations or harmful
Deviance	• Volitional behaviour that violates organisational norms and causes harm to organisations/employees	• Excludes behaviour that may harm, but are normative to the organisation • Different to Aggression, Retaliation and Revenge in that there is no specification of underlying motive for behaviour • i.e. Aggression and Retaliation motive - cause harm Revenge Motive - restore social order

APPENDIX B - SURVEY

The following is a copy of the survey handed out to participants.

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN CONFIDENTIAL SURVEY:

Your responses are confidential; nobody at [redacted] ([redacted]) will ever see this questionnaire.

1. **Your gender:**
   - ❑ Male
   - ❑ Female

2. **Your marital status**
   - ❑ Married
   - ❑ Single
   - ❑ Other: _____

3. **Race**
   - ❑ White
   - ❑ Black
   - ❑ Coloured
   - ❑ Indian
   - ❑ Prefer not to answer the question

4. **Employment status:**
   - ❑ Casual
   - ❑ Permanent

5. **Number of years working at [redacted]: _____**

6. **Your age (In years): _____**

7. **Your highest qualifications:**
   - ❑ Std 6 or less
   - ❑ Std 8 (JC)
   - ❑ Matric
   - ❑ Further studies after Matric
   - ❑ Other: _____

Are you treated fairly at ? *Please show how much you agree with each statement by ticking a number from 1 to 5*		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I am fairly rewarded:						
8	**...considering my responsibilities?**	1	2	3	4	5
9	**...in view of the amount of experience I have?**	1	2	3	4	5
10	**...considering my work effort?**	1	2	3	4	5
11	**...for the work I have done?**	1	2	3	4	5
12	**...considering my level of education and training?**	1	2	3	4	5
13	**...considering the stresses and strains of my job?**	1	2	3	4	5
My Supervisor:						
14	**...considers my views in making decisions**	1	2	3	4	5
15	**...suppresses his/her biases when making decisions**	1	2	3	4	5
16	**...takes steps to deal with me in a truthful manner**	1	2	3	4	5
17	**... is concerned with my rights as an employee**	1	2	3	4	5
18	**...provides me with timely feedback about decisions and their implementation**	1	2	3	4	5
There are formal procedures at [redacted] that:						
19	**...allow for accurate information when making decisions**	1	2	3	4	5
20	**... allow anyone to ask for more information after a decision has been made**	1	2	3	4	5
21	**...provide the opportunities to appeal or challenge decisions**	1	2	3	4	5
22	**...are designed so that all parties affected by the decision are considered**	1	2	3	4	5
23	**...generate standards so that decisions are made with consistency**	1	2	3	4	5
24	**...provide useful feedback regarding decisions and their implementation**	1	2	3	4	5

About your co-workers *Please indicate how often you have observed the following behaviours*		Never	Rarely	Some times	Often	All the time
I have seen a co-worker:						
	...take cash or property belonging to:					
25	▪ **customers**	1	2	3	4	5
26	▪ **co-workers**	1	2	3	4	5
27	▪ **Supervisors**	1	2	3	4	5
28	▪ [redacted]	1	2	3	4	5
	...deface, damage/ destroy property belonging to:					
29	▪ **customers**	1	2	3	4	5
30	▪ **co-workers**	1	2	3	4	5
31	▪ **supervisors**	1	2	3	4	5
	...verbally abuse:					
32	▪ **customers**	1	2	3	4	5
33	▪ **co-workers**	1	2	3	4	5
34	▪ **supervisors**	1	2	3	4	5
	...physically attack (e.g., pushing, hitting):					
35	▪ **customers**	1	2	3	4	5
36	▪ **co-workers**	1	2	3	4	5
37	▪ **supervisors**	1	2	3	4	5
	...make unwanted sexual advances towards:					
38	▪ **customers**	1	2	3	4	5
39	▪ **co-workers**	1	2	3	4	5
40	▪ **supervisors**	1	2	3	4	5
41	**...use an illegal drug or consume alcohol on the job**	1	2	3	4	5
42	**...sell drugs on the job**	1	2	3	4	5
43	**...play a mean prank on someone at work**	1	2	3	4	5
44	**...come to work late without permission**	1	2	3	4	5
45	**...take an additional or longer break than is acceptable at** [redacted]	1	2	3	4	5
46	**...litter the work environment**	1	2	3	4	5
47	**...discuss confidential matters about** [redacted]	1	2	3	4	5
48	**...publicly embarrass someone at work**	1	2	3	4	5
49	**...act rudely towards someone at work**	1	2	3	4	5
50	**...intentionally do slow or sloppy work**	1	2	3	4	5
51	**...put little effort into their work**	1	2	3	4	5
52	**...neglect to follow their supervisor's instructions**	1	2	3	4	5
53	**...swear at someone at work**	1	2	3	4	5
54	**...say something hurtful to someone at work**	1	2	3	4	5
55	**...make fun of someone at work**	1	2	3	4	5
56	**...make ethnic, religious or racial remarks or jokes at work**	1	2	3	4	5
57	**...spend too much time fantasizing or daydreaming**	1	2	3	4	5
58	**...drag out work in order to get overtime**	1	2	3	4	5

How you feel about your job *Please tick <u>one</u> response for each item that best indicates how your job has made you feel during the past year.*		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	All the time
59	**Interested**	1	2	3	4	5
60	**Distressed**	1	2	3	4	5
61	**Excited**	1	2	3	4	5
62	**Strong**	1	2	3	4	5
63	**Guilty**	1	2	3	4	5
64	**Scared**	1	2	3	4	5
65	**Enthusiastic**	1	2	3	4	5
66	**Irritable**	1	2	3	4	5
67	**Nervous**	1	2	3	4	5
68	**Active**	1	2	3	4	5

About you at work Please indicate *how often* you have engaged in the following behaviours		Never	Rarely	Some - times	Quite Often	All the time
	Taken cash or property belonging to:					
69	▪ **customers**	1	2	3	4	5
70	▪ **co-workers**	1	2	3	4	5
71	▪ **supervisors**					
	Defaced, damaged, or destroyed property belonging to:					
72	▪ **customers**	1	2	3	4	5
73	▪ **co-workers**	1	2	3	4	5
	Verbally abused:					
74	▪ **customers**	1	2	3	4	5
75	▪ **co-workers**	1	2	3	4	5
76	▪ **supervisors**	1	2	3	4	5
	Repeated a rumour or gossiped about:					
77	▪ **co-workers**	1	2	3	4	5
78	▪ **supervisors**	1	2	3	4	5
79	▪ [redacted]	1	2	3	4	5
	Physically attacked (e.g., pushing, shoving, hitting):					
80	▪ **customers**	1	2	3	4	5
81	▪ **co-workers**	1	2	3	4	5
82	▪ **supervisors**	1	2	3	4	5
	Make unwanted sexual advances towards:					
83	▪ **customers**	1	2	3	4	5
84	▪ **co-workers**	1	2	3	4	5
85	▪ **supervisors**	1	2	3	4	5
86	**Helped another person take company property or merchandise**	1	2	3	4	5
87	**Taken petty cash from** [redacted]	1	2	3	4	5
88	**Taken property from work without permission**	1	2	3	4	5
89	**Given away goods for free**	1	2	3	4	5
90	**Sold goods at less than the price established by** [redacted]	1	2	3	4	5
91	**Misused employee discount privileges**	1	2	3	4	5
92	**Defaced, damaged, or destroyed property, equipment, or products belonging to** [redacted]	1	2	3	4	5
93	**Littered your work environment**	1	2	3	4	5

About you at work Please indicate *how often* you have engaged in the following behaviours		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Quite Often	All the time
94	**Destroyed or falsified company records**	1	2	3	4	5
95	**Discussed confidential matters about [redacted]**	1	2	3	4	5
96	**Intentionally failed to give a supervisor or co-worker necessary information**	1	2	3	4	5
97	**Provided false information to get your job**	1	2	3	4	5
98	**Lied to your employer or supervisor to cover up a mistake**	1	2	3	4	5
99	**Conducted personal business during work time**	1	2	3	4	5
100	**Taken a long lunch or coffee break without approval**	1	2	3	4	5
101	**Wasted time on the job**	1	2	3	4	5
102	**Wasted company resources**	1	2	3	4	5
103	**Used company resources you aren't authorised to use**	1	2	3	4	5
104	**Spend too much time fantasizing or daydreaming**	1	2	3	4	5
105	**Been absent from work without a valid reason**	1	2	3	4	5
106	**Left work early without permission**	1	2	3	4	5
107	**Came to work late without permission**	1	2	3	4	5
108	**Missed work without calling in**	1	2	3	4	5
109	**Called in sick when you were not**	1	2	3	4	5
110	**Dragged out work in order to get overtime**	1	2	3	4	5
111	**Intentionally did slow or sloppy work**	1	2	3	4	5
112	**Put little effort into your work**	1	2	3	4	5
113	**Neglected to follow your supervisor's instructions**	1	2	3	4	5
114	**Came to work under the influence of alcohol**	1	2	3	4	5
115	**Had your performance affected due to a hangover from alcohol**	1	2	3	4	5
116	**Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job**	1	2	3	4	5
117	**Came to work under the influence of drugs**	1	2	3	4	5
118	**Possessed or sold drugs on company property**	1	2	3	4	5
119	**Had your performance affected due to a hangover from drugs**	1	2	3	4	5
120	**Used sexually explicit language in the workplace**	1	2	3	4	5
121	**Swore at someone at work**	1	2	3	4	5
122	**Said something hurtful to someone at work**	1	2	3	4	5
123	**Made fun of someone at work**	1	2	3	4	5
124	**Made an ethnic, religious or racial remark or joke at work**	1	2	3	4	5
125	**Played a mean prank on someone at work**	1	2	3	4	5
126	**Publicly embarrassed someone at work**	1	2	3	4	5
127	**Acted rudely towards someone at work**	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your participation!