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## An Exploratory Investigation of the Predictors of Counterproductive Work Behaviors Among Major League Baseball Employees

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THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

AN EXPLORATORY INVESTIGATION OF THE PREDICTORS OF  
COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIORS AMONG MAJOR LEAGUE BASEBALL  
EMPLOYEES

By  
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A Dissertation submitted to the  
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This dissertation is dedicated to my family.  
Without your support this would not have been possible.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables	vii
List of Figures	viii
Abstract	ix
Chapter 1 – Introduction	
Introduction	1
Purpose	4
Conceptual Model	5
Situational Variables	5
Individual Variables	6
Team Identification	9
Limitations	9
Dissertation Overview	10
Chapter 2 – Literature Review	
Counterproductive Work Behavior	12
Organizational Variables	21
Individual Variables	27
Team Identification	34
Chapter 3 – Methods	
Research Design	38
Sample	39
Procedures	41

Chapter 4 – Results	
Reliability	46
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations	47
Assumptions of Multiple Regression	50
Hypotheses Testing	53
Additional Findings	57
Conclusions	58
Chapter 5 – Discussion	
Introduction	60
Situational Variables	62
Individual Variables	64
Moderating Effects of Team Identification	66
Practical Implications	70
Limitations & Future Research	71
Conclusions	76
Appendix A	79
Appendix B	91
Appendix C	108
Appendix D	109
References	110
Biological Sketch	129

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1	Different Conceptualizations of Counterproductive Work Behavior	17
Table 2.2	Summary of CWB Antecedent Categories	20
Table 2.3	Judge, Erez, & Bono (1998) Core Self-Evaluation Meta-Analysis Results Summary	33
Table 4.1	Descriptive Statistics for Variables under Investigation	48
Table 4.2	Frequency Counts Team Identification	49
Table 4.3	Correlations for CWB Investigation	50
Table 4.4	Models Tested with Independent Variables and Interaction Effects	53
Table 4.5	Coefficients Table with Independent Variables and Interaction Effects	54
Table 5.1	Hypothesis Testing for Current Investigation	69
Table 5.2	Research Design Issues when Investigating CWB	74



## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1	Conceptual Model for this Research	5
Figure 2.1	Counterproductive Work Behavior Bulls Eye	18
Figure 2.2	The Four Trait Indicators of Core Self-Evaluations	31
Figure 4.1	Interaction Effects of Procedural Justice and Team Identification on CWB	57
Figure B.1	Counterproductive Work Behavior Histogram	91
Figure B.2	Positive Affectivity Histogram	92
Figure B.3	Negative Affectivity Histogram	93
Figure B.4	Core Self-Evaluation Histogram	94
Figure B.5	Distributive Justice Histogram	95
Figure B.6	Interactional Justice Histogram	96
Figure B.7	Procedural Justice Histogram	97
Figure B.8	Team Identification Histogram	98
Figure B.9	Counterproductive Work Behavior P-Plot	99
Figure B.10	Positive Affectivity P-Plot	100
Figure B.11	Negative Affectivity P-Plot	101
Figure B.12	Core Self Evaluation P-Plot	102
Figure B.13	Distributive Justice P-Plot	103
Figure B.14	Interactional Justice P-Plot	104
Figure B.15	Procedural Justice P-Plot	105
Figure B.16	Team Identification P-Plot	106

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to assess predictors of employee counterproductive work behavior (CWB) in six Major League Baseball (MLB) organizations. The effects of two individual variables (negative affectivity and positive affectivity), situational variables (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice), and the moderating effects of team identification on CWB were examined. Full-time employees (N=301) completed questionnaires assessing team identification, individual variables, situational variables, counterproductive behaviors, and demographic questions. The results regarding the relationships with CWB were mixed. Team identification did not play a significant role as a moderator in the analysis. Negative affectivity was found to have a positive relationship with CWB; positive affectivity was found to have a negative relationship. Individuals high in positive affectivity were less engaged in CWB, whereas individuals low in positive affectivity engaged in more CWB. Counter to expectations, distributive justice was positively associated with CWB. Although the hypotheses regarding the effects of six variables on CWB were partially supported; the study of MLB employees warrants further investigations

## CHAPTER 1

### Introduction

With the world's economies struggling, the sport industry must adapt their practices to survive. For instance, According to David Stern, Commissioner of the National Basketball Association (NBA), the NBA lost \$300 million dollars over the 2009-2010 season (Manford, 2011). However, there are a variety of ways any sport organization can 'trim the fat' to become more cost efficient. One such way is to educate sport managers in the potential consequences of counterproductive work behaviors (CWB).

Sport management is a 'hybrid field' of study (Costa, 2005) including finance, management, marketing, and sport performance (among others). Even though sport management is grounded in other fields of study, it has been argued to be a unique field of study (Chalip, 2006; Costa; Fleming & Ferkin, 2005). Yet, with regard to the actual management of sport (i.e., human resource management), there remains a lack of in-depth, empirical evaluation of sport employees and their behaviors within the context of the sport industry. This may be the result of a general perception that studying sport management is nothing more than applying established management theories and empirical evidence to a new context: sport. This may be the cause, however of, "the degree to which our object of study (i.e., sport) makes a difference in the processes we study (i.e., management) is a matter for empirical study" (Chalip, 2006, p. 3). One such topic all businesses should be concerned about is the counterproductive behaviors of their employees. Counterproductive behaviors are a concern for all business organizations (Skarlicki & Folger, 1999) because these negative behaviors may cost time, money and productivity. Sport management researchers needs to explore such negative behaviors in order to understand CWB's antecedents and consequences.

Sport industry employees frequently do not work a "9 to 5" job. There is great stress, often little pay and very little vacation time. The study of counterproductive behaviors of employees has not been prevalent within sport industry research; yet it could be seen as a potential problem. Counterproductive work behaviors require meticulous investigation to enhance the understanding of employee motives and behaviors. By doing so, CWB can be foreseen and prevented.

Most people dedicate large amounts of their lifetime to work, with a job or career becoming an essential piece of their identity (Hulin, 1991). As such, a worker's place of

employment is critical in shaping an assortment of behaviors that consequently affects organizations as well as other individuals. Even though various behaviors (e.g., citizenship behavior) are socially desirable, another set of behaviors are often encountered, including CWB (e.g., Mangione & Quinn, 1975; Robinson & Bennett, 1995), antisocial behavior (e.g., Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), workplace deviance (e.g., Bennett & Robinson, 2003), and organizational corruption (e.g.).

Robinson and Bennett (1995) defined CWB as “voluntary behavior of organizational members that violates significant organizational norms, and in so doing, threatens the well-being of the organization and/or its members” (p.256). The definition has also been employed by various organizational behavior researchers (e.g., Lee & Allen, 2002; Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002; and Sackett, 2002). For instance, Gruys and Sackett (2003) outlined CWB as “any intentional behavior on the part of an organizational member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interests” (p. 33). Similar to Robinson and Bennett (1995), the authors argue the definition “encompasses behavior that is targeted at both individuals and the organization as both types of actions can have severe consequences on the organization” (p. 30).

For the purposes of this research, CWB will be defined along the same lines as Robinson and Bennett (1995) and Gruys and Sackett (2003). Counterproductive work behaviors will be defined as intentions and behaviors that threaten the overall well being of organizational members, the organization itself, and break explicit and implied rules about appropriate behaviors (Baron & Richardson, 1994; Martinko & Zellars, 1998; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). This definition is helpful because it focuses on individual intentions, the organization itself and also the members within it.

Collins and Griffin (1998) indicated that all existing definitions of CWB affirm that counterproductive workplace behaviors portray and describe a lack of attention to explicit and implicit organizational rules, policies, and values. Further, the authors noted CWB can range from less serious offenses (e.g., leaving five minutes early) to serious offenses (e.g., harming an employee). For instance, 25% of organizations surveyed in 2005 admit to firing employees for surfing the internet during office hours (American Management Association, 2005) and almost every single company (95%) has been or is a target of fraudulent behaviors and theft (Case, 2000). Even though sometimes difficult to quantify, counterproductive behaviors can have a

negative psychological impact on overall employee morale, turnover, productivity, and absenteeism (Hoel, Einarsen, & Cooper, 2003; Keashly & Jagatic, 2003).

Over the last decade CWB research has increased substantially among organizational behavior researchers. Research on employee CWB in sport management, however, has not been a widely explored topic. This is fairly surprising given that various researchers recognize CWB is not an incident limited to certain members of organizations (Vardi & Weitz, 2004). It is frequently cited that CWB exists within various organizations and at every level of employment (e.g., salaried nonprofessionals and professionals, non-supervisory employees, and supervisory employees) (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998; Vardi & Weitz, 2004). Once again, this may be because there is the assumption that CWB research can be transferred to a sport context without any specific assessment of the sport setting. Therefore, in order to draw more attention to CWB within sport organizations, the first logical step is to explore the existence of the concept within the sport industry as well as examine if there are factors that may uniquely contribute to our understanding of CWB within a sport context. One such factor is sport team identification.

#### Team Identification

A sport industry employee's team identification can be seen as an influence on their emotions and behaviors, and it is the aim of this researcher to shed light on the need to bring differing perspectives together to create a CWB paradigm within the sport literature. High team identification is often stereotyped as a bad investment when considering employment practices; however, it may benefit the industry to examine whether individuals with high team identification make greater contributions to a sport organization than employees who are less identified with a sport and/or the specific team for which they work.

Suppose a group of full-time employees are relatively equal with respect to education, skill and experience. One fundamental area to consider with a sport organization is whether team identification will make a difference in their work habits. By examining the role individual and situational variables have on CWB with the moderating effects of team identification, sport organizations will be able to create a more cost friendly environment and have a better understanding of human resource practices.

#### Counterproductive Work Behavior

Counterproductive work behaviors are ultimately a consequence of an individual's cognitive processing which is often the result of individual and situational factors within the

work environment. This line of thought does not suggest that CWB is unique to sport; however, what does make this research distinct is its inclusion of an individual's team identification. It is hypothesized that an individual's team identification may moderate his or her participation in CWB. By understanding and appreciating the relationship between team identification and CWB, sport managers will have a helpful assistant in understanding their employee's behaviors, and potentially preventing CWB.

The existent literature concerned with CWB has a great deal to offer researchers. Counterproductive work behavior researchers seek out ways to comprehend the intentions and behaviors of sport industry employees, the individual variables that contribute and predict intentions and behaviors, and how these wrong doers and their behaviors can be integrated into a reputable CWB sport industry paradigm. This dissertation begins with the notion that by studying employee's behaviors, attitudes and intentions in other industries we will gain understanding of sport industry employees. There has been an enormous omission given the significant role employees have on the organization. Therefore, through this study the researcher seeks to explore and expand the literature of CWB in the sport industry.

#### Purpose

The purpose of this quantitative study is to explore, analyze, and assist in the prediction of employee CWB at various levels within Major League Baseball organizations. Additionally, this investigation is designed to explore the moderating effects of team identification effects upon CWB. The proceeding research questions were created to outline this investigation:

- 1) What role do individual variables play in CWB within a Major League Baseball organization?
- 2) What role do situational variables play in CWB within a Major League Baseball organization?
- 3) What moderating role does team identification play on the relationship between individual and situational variables on CWB within a Major League Baseball organization?

Slack (1998) claimed the scope of future sport management research should be expanded by studying different populations. Within the sport management literature sport industry employees have been under represented, and therefore represent a potential population to further

examine. Consequently, an important additional purpose of this research was to investigate employees through the CWB lens.

### Conceptual Model

The conceptual model is presented in Figure 1.1. The propositions suggest the seven independent variables (i.e., negative/positive affectivity, core self-evaluations, procedural justice, distributive justice, and interactional justice) will impact CWB within six Major League Baseball organizations. Additionally, it has been proposed that the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable will be moderated by the psychological variable, team identification. Several hypotheses have been created to test the model presented below.

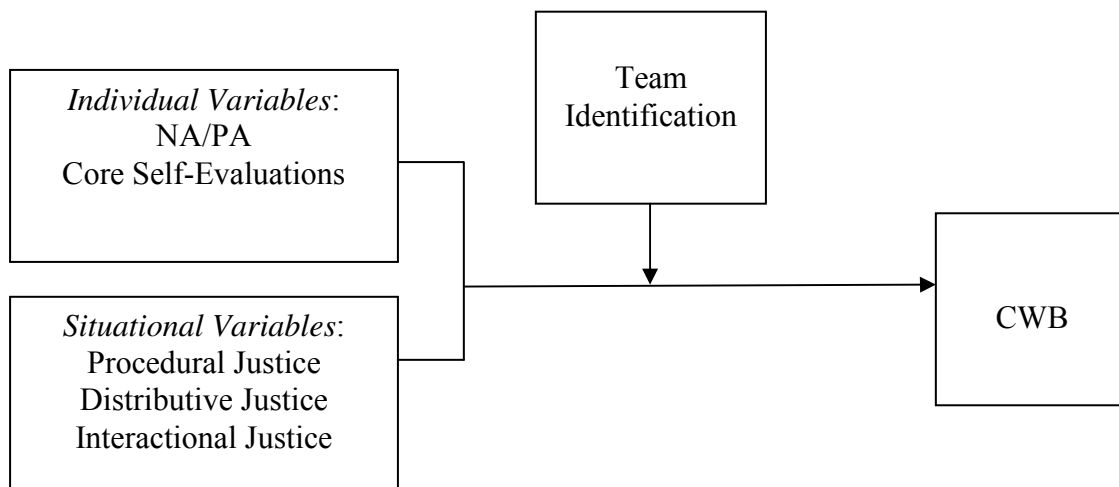


Figure 1.1 - Conceptual Model for this Research

### Situational Variables

The significance of the environment as motivation for behavior has been recognized within previous literature surrounding various counterproductive behavior theories. Within this logic, organizational theorists explain the frequency and incidents of counterproductive behavior caused by the environment at the ‘organization level’ (Baron & Richardson, 1994; Floger & Skarlicki, 1998; Nueman, 1998; O’Leary-Kelley et al., 1996; Robinson & Greenburg, 1998). Additionally, some of the viewpoints within the ‘organizational level’ perspective limit individual factors while vigorously stressing the importance of organizational factors. For instance, O’Leary-Kelley et al. (1996) restricted their research to aggressive behaviors

influenced by organizational constraints while omitting individual difference factors within their discussions. However, limiting a discussion on CWB to only situational factors does not seem plausible. Employees often shape their behaviors, attitudes, and intentions around both their situation at work (which can change) and their own personalities (Pervin, 1989; Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995). As a result, both individual and situational factors need to be included.

Organizational justice has an established relationship with work outcomes within psychology and organizational behavior research (see Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998; and Sackett & DeVore, 2001 for more information) and is a plausible starting point for CWB research in the sport industry. Organizational justice can be viewed by three distinct dimensions: 1) procedural justice, frequently referred to as the perceived fairness of formal decision making procedures within an organization; 2) distributive justice, which is regarded as the perceived fairness of the allocation of resources and the perceived fairness of outcomes; and 3) interactional justice, also known as the perceived justice of the interactions received from a supervisor (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005; Olkkonen & Lipponen, 2006). It has been argued interactional justice can affect individual's reactions to decision outcomes and procedural changes (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Negative reactions to unfairness comprise behaviors of aggression, (Folger & Skarlicki, 1998) counterproductive work behaviors (e.g., Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Lim, 2002), revenge (e.g., Bies & Tripp, 2001), sabotage (e.g., Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002), and theft (Greenberg, 1993).

#### Individual Variables

Negative affectivity and positive affectivity, and core self-evaluations have been selected as the individual variables under investigation. Various individual variables (e.g., need for achievement) have been examined within counterproductive work behavior (CWB) research, but due to the exploratory nature of this study, some precision has been compromised. For instance, emotions, trigger events, and political skills were not included in this model, even though discussion of these types of variables would be relevant. In addition, the model indicates team identification moderates the relationship between the situational and individual variables and CWB; team identification may have a direct effect on CWB.



### *Negative Affectivity/Positive Affectivity*

Negative affectivity (NA) has been characterized as the degree to which individuals have high amounts of stressful emotions (e.g., fear, hostility, anxiety, and anger). Those individuals who are described as being high in NA tend to center on negative elements of a situation and themselves, while being less satisfied with their everyday lives (Martinko et al., 2002; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1984). In addition to focusing on negative aspects, high NA people are more likely to construe an ambiguous or vaguely negative situation as threatening (Shavit & Shouval, 1977). Individuals with high levels of NA experience heightened negative emotions with a focus of negative elements of a situation (e.g., external attributions) and negative elements of themselves (e.g., internal attributions). This leads to the belief that NA could be linked to more incidents of negative attributions (Watson et al., 1984). Therefore, the NA antecedent may possess a heightened impact on the beginning stages of an individual's cognitive process outlined above. Positive affect "reflects the extent to which a person feels enthusiastic, active, and alert. High PA is a state of high energy, full concentration, and pleasurable engagement, whereas low PA is characterized by sadness and lethargy" (Watson et al., 1984, p. 1063).

NA has been linked with elements of CWB such as abusive behavior, overt acts, threats, work avoidance, and work sabotage (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 1999). Similar studies have been used to look at the affective state of NA with CWB. In addition, Lee and Allen (2002) argued discrete emotions of fear, guilt, hostility, and sadness predicted workplace deviance. Previous literature on PA has suggested just the opposite of NA. PA has frequently been associated with organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) or the voluntary behaviors going beyond organizational norms benefiting the overall organization as well as its members (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). For instance, Lindsay (2003) found evidence indicating positive affect was significantly related to OCB while negative affect was significantly related to CWB. In addition, a meta-analysis conducted by Dalal (2005) found that these relationships are quite frequent among CWB and OCB literature. Together, previous literature has supported the positive relationship between negative affectivity and CWB and the potential negative relationship between positive affectivity and CWB.

### *Core Self-Evaluations*

The ways individuals view themselves (e.g., core self-evaluations) plays a significant role in the way individuals see the world around them. Core self-evaluations have been detailed as

“fundamental, subconscious conclusions individuals reach about themselves, other people, and the world” (Judge, Erez, & Bono, 1998; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). The underpinnings of core self-evaluations are tied to individual’s’ attribution styles. For instance, Judge et al. (1998) presented an argument for the integrated relationship between four indicators of core self-image (self-esteem, locus of control, non-neuroticism, and self-efficacy). If this is the case and Judge et al.’s (1998) assumptions are in fact true, and since locus of control is often cited as a key component in an individual’s’ attributions, then an argument can be made suggesting that the other three core self-evaluation variables can be linked to attribution styles. For instance, individuals with higher levels of self-esteem would be characterized as having optimistic attribution styles (Martinko et al., 1998). This assumption would indicate these individuals would show a tendency to attribute undesirable outcomes to unstable or external characteristics (e.g., chance or luck) and desirable outcomes to internal abilities. Alternatively, individuals with lower levels of self-esteem would show a tendency to pessimistic attributions, therefore, attributing desirable outcomes to unstable and external sources such as chance and luck and undesirable outcomes to stable and internal abilities (e.g., blaming oneself). These assumptions have had support from previous investigations. For example, Levy (1993) found evidence supporting the notion that people with higher levels of self-esteem had higher internal locus of control, performed better, and attributed their performance results to internal and stable sources compared to their counterparts.

However, there has been evidence indicating self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1997) would have an impact on an individual’s’ attribution style. Individuals who believe in their own abilities (stable and internal attributions) would expect success in a wide range of tasks. Silver, Mitchell and Gist (1995), in a set of investigations, indicated self-efficacy is linked to individual attribution styles in those individuals who have higher levels of self-efficacy and possessed a self-serving bias. More specifically, they attributed success to internal and stable causes and attributed failures to unstable causes such as bad luck.

Non-neuroticism, the last variable connected with core self-evaluations, can be thought of as a slight optimistic bias as presented by Seligman (1990). With this in mind and the previously mentioned variables (e.g., high levels of locus of control, higher self-esteem levels, and self-efficacy) all of these variables can be linked to positive attribution styles that safeguard a person’s’ self-evaluations and make it unlikely that they would participate in self-critical

attributions. Core self-evaluations generally affect individual evaluations, others around them, the world, and have been found to influence behaviors (Judge & Bono, 2001). Because of this potential impact upon behaviors core self-evaluations was included in this study.

### Team Identification

Team identification has been characterized as a psychological attachment providing an emotional involvement and a personal commitment with a sport organization (Sutton, McDonald, Milne, & Cimperman, 1997), or as a sense of belonging (Wann & Branscombe, 1991). Team identification encompasses the relationship between a fan and a team as “an association from which the individual derives considerable emotional and value significance” (Madrigal, 1995, p. 209).

Individuals frequently search for ‘social capital’ as best described by Putnam (1993, 2000). The core of social capital theory suggests social networks provide value to an individual; however, the value will fluctuate depending on the individual, and sport teams are often seen as a source of community (Bourdieu, 1983; Coleman, 1988, 1990; Putnam, 1993, 2000). Over recent decades research has indicated high levels of team identification are associated with lower levels of alienation and loneliness, higher levels of social well-being, greater self-esteem, extroversion, social life satisfaction, and experiencing positive emotions (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Wann, Dimmock, & Grove, 2003; Wann, 2006).

Based off of the workings of social capital theory and previous literature, team identification could be seen as a great organizational tool because it could provide evidence of why people behave the way they do at work. Specifically, high levels of team identification may assist in strengthening an individual’s relationship with an organization even when adverse situations are present (e.g., low pay, long hours). Within this study, team identification (the presence or absence) is investigated as a potential moderating variable between the individual and situational variables and CWB.

### Limitations

The objective of this dissertation was to explore counterproductive behaviors of full-time employees within six Major League Baseball (MLB) teams. With this objective in mind, there are various limitations that must be addressed, of which the most salient are described in the following paragraphs.

### *Rational Information Processing*

Whenever an investigation is dealing with an individual's emotions, affect or belief systems, there are concerns whether the results are realistic and accurate. Cronshaw and Lord (1987) indicated decisions made on a daily basis may not be accurately depicted within the information process as illustrated by rational decision making models. On another note, Lewin (1951) suggested motivated actions of employees may also be best described as an interaction between both individual characteristics as well as situational variables. The claims established by Cronshaw and Lord (1987) and Lewin (1951) suggest that it may be virtually impossible to include all of the differing factors that contribute to single acts or repeated counterproductive behaviors. Additionally, it is also noted that the process of engaging in counterproductive behaviors is much more interactive and less sequential than the proposed model suggests.

### *Scope*

The second limitation is the attempt to explore and describe a wide range of counterproductive behaviors, which encompasses severe behaviors (e.g., violence) and much more mundane actions such as poor work performance. With this broad spectrum in mind, there needs to be compromises. For instance, various individual variables have been left out of the current model even though they would undoubtedly be applicable to CWB research and possibly increase the descriptive power of a variety of counterproductive behaviors. Additionally, this dissertation has a specific target audience and its generalizability will be limited. However, it is the researcher's desire that this work will be a starting point for future CWB investigations within the sport industry.

### Dissertation Overview

Chapter Two presents pertinent literature based on counterproductive behaviors. Subsequent to the conceptual background the theoretical background is presented. Chapter Three details the research methods used with the results being detailed in Chapter Four; followed by a the discussion sections in Chapter Five.

## CHAPTER 2

### Literature Review

Traditional business corporations in and out of sport have been prepared and structured to chase a profit for various stakeholders; however, the rise and falls of different economies have created new dilemmas. Often these dilemmas come in the form of lay-offs, outsourcing jobs to third world countries, and sky rocketing costs of production. The sport industry is no exception. For example, the Ladies Professional Golf Association (LPGA) applied staffing changes in order to cut payroll by approximately \$1 million dollars (Sports Business Journal, 2009).

For a majority of people, work is something they dedicate a large amount of their life; time in which they develop an essential piece of their identity (Hulin, 2002). As a result, the workplace assists in the shaping of individuals behaviors (such as counterproductive work behaviors). Various behaviors (citizenship behavior) are socially desirable, yet another set of undesirable behaviors under various labels, including counterproductive work behavior (CWB) (Mangione & Quinn, 1975), antisocial behavior (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), workplace deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2003), and organizational corruption are often encountered. For this dissertation, a frequent undesirable behavior, CWB will be under investigation within the sport industry. There are various reasons for the selection of CWB including, (a) organizational corruption is often difficult to uncover within the sport industry, (b) work place deviance is often viewed as violence within the work place which is beyond the scope of this study, and (c) CWB definitions encompass individual intentions and resulting behaviors.

The sport industry has grown in both scope and size in the last few decades. In reaction to this growth sport organizations have incorporated business management concepts to survive and prosper in a competitive market. One way for sport organizations to ensure survival in a very competitive market is to shape the way their employees think and behave while on the clock. This shaping should begin during the interview process and continue throughout an employee's tenure with the organization. It is vital to remember "people make the place" (Scheider, 1987). Therefore, it is important for sport organizations to have the ability to identify and correct counterproductive behaviors.

The next section will present descriptions of specific antecedents, theoretical frameworks, and conceptual framework applicable to this investigation. It will start with a review of previous

CWB literature; which is the foundation of this entire study. Ensuing will be an examination of selected relevant independent variables including procedural justice, distributive justice, interactional justice, negative affectivity, positive affectivity, core self-evaluations, and team identification.

### Counterproductive Work Behavior

Attitudes and behaviors of sport industry employees have been given a fair amount of attention at various times. Among topics of investigation have been job satisfaction (e.g., Koehler, 1988; Smucker & Kent, 2004); member attraction (e.g., Gibson et al., 2000); and organizational citizenship behavior (see Todd & Kent, 2009) yet behaviors detrimental to a sport organization have often been ignored despite the consequences they may have. Theory and research within the sport industry has collectively indicated extra-role behaviors in sport organizations are both prevalent and important to organizational success (e.g., Aoyagi, Cox, & McGuire, 2008; Chang & Chelladurai, 2003; Choi, Martin, & Park, 2008; Kent & Chelladurai, 2001; Kim & Chang, 2007; Kim, Jones, & Rodriguez, 2008; Rocha & Turner, 2008), yet little attention has been given to the undesired activities of sport organization employees: counterproductive work behaviors (CWB). CWB has been characterized as a “voluntary behavior of organizational members that violates significant organizational norms, and in so doing, threatens the well-being of the organization and/or its members” (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p.256). In a similar context, Gruys and Sackett (2003) outlined CWB as “any intentional behavior on the part of an organizational member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interests” (p. 33). Collins and Griffin (1998) also indicate the existing definitions of CWB all affirm counterproductive workplace behaviors portray and describe a lack of attention to explicit and implicit organizational rules, policies, and values. Conversely, Spector and Fox (2007) suggest the definition of CWB does not include ‘intent.’ Even though some previous research (see Spector & Fox, 2007) argues intent is not important to the definition of CWB, others (see Gruys & Sackett, 2003) suggest it is. For the purposes of this dissertation and based off the work of Collins and Griffin (1998), Robinson and Bennett (1995) and Gruys and Sackett (2003) CWB will be seen as intentions and behaviors that threaten or terrorize the overall wellbeing of organizational members, the organization itself, and break explicit and implied rules about appropriate behaviors (Baron & Richardson, 1994; Martinko & Zellars, 1998; Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

A vital characteristic of CWB is the act or action must be intentional and not accidental as the previous definitions outline. Specifically, if an employee performs badly on a task (due to a lack of proper training, but they try) it is not considered CWB because the employee did not purposely try to sabotage their performance. In this instance there was no intention, therefore, there was no counterproductive behavior aimed at the organization. It is important to remember situations like this arise within any given organization and accidents will occur despite training and efforts to thwart them. Even though these situations may cause harm they are not to be considered counterproductive behavior. To be CWB, the employee must purposely act to cause harm.

CWB can range from less serious offenses (e.g., leaving five minutes early or taking a personal phone call at work) to serious offenses (e.g., stealing money from a company and harming a co-worker) (Collins & Griffin, 1998). For instance, 25% of organizations surveyed in 2005 admit to firing employees for surfing the internet during office hours (American Management Association, 2005) and almost every single company (95%) have been or are targets of fraudulent behaviors and theft (Case, 2000). Even though it is sometimes difficult to quantify, counterproductive behaviors can have a negative psychological impact on overall employee morale, turnover, productivity, and absenteeism (Hoel, Einarsen, & Cooper, 2003; Keashly & Jagatic, 2003) within any sport organization.

Acts such as counterproductive behavior can often be explained by the theory of self-control or “the tendency to avoid acts whose long-term costs exceed momentary advantages” (Hirschi & Gottfredson, 1994, p. 4). As counterproductive acts frequently involve intent to act, but when the immediate advantages or gains are outweighed by consequences an individual might think twice about committing those actions. The theory of self-control has frequently been tested against competing theories such as the theory of crime. The theory of crime is a comprehensive theory that suggests almost all types of crime, as well as equivalent behaviors (e.g., CWB), have a tendency to be positively related over long time periods. Within their attempts to define the construct that underlies individual’s behaviors, self-control was at the top of Hirschi and Gottfredson’s (1990) list. The authors posited that self-control captures the crux of counterproductive behaviors and is more adjacent to CWB than any other explanation at the time. Hirschi and Gottfredson (1990) presented empirical evidence suggesting criminal and similar behaviors are stable over time and are frequently related. As mentioned in a previous

section CWB can range from severe to minimal and can also be classified into criminal acts from time to time. Self-control is thought to be at the center of individual's behaviors and that includes their counterproductive behaviors. This theory is often seen as an all-encompassing theory; therefore, it has opened its self-up to controversy and challenges (see Akers, 1991; Geis, 2000; Miller & Burack, 1993). However, despite the challenges and criticisms the self-control theory has created numerous research efforts (see Pratt & Cullen, 2000; Strayhorn, 2002) and is frequently utilized when investigating CWB. One of the first CWB research investigations to utilize the theory was Wanek's (1995) study found in the psychology literature. Collins and Griffin (1998) involved the theory when they were investigating the impact of self-control, dispositional theories, and various situational variables on CWB.

Previous literature has shown CWB research to be confusing and splintered at times. Most of this confusion begins with the driving force of research: theories. The theory of self-control is just one of various theories used to capture CWB (see Hogans & Ones, 1997; Spector, 1997; Trevino, 1986). Despite the vast amount of theory generation most of them are based upon two components: the person and situation. Most counterproductive behaviors are grouped into these two categories that emphasize either the influence of external events or are internal stable traits. Those who believe behaviors are caused by external events and change depending on those events often attempt to then splinter counterproductive behaviors based upon work groups, the organization, how close someone is to the situation, and perceptions (Marcus & Schuler, 2004). On the other hand, those who believe behavior is a manifest of internal beliefs frequently look at motivational theories to explain CWB. These theorists assume "internal propensity forces" and some type of external pressures contribute to behavior (Marcus & Schuler, 2004). The common theme amongst most of the theories used to capture CWB is that some forceful power pushes individuals towards behaviors; whether it be internal or external.

CWB frequently begins with an individual making an unethical decision to act or not act against an organization or another individual. Within organizational setting individuals make unethical decisions (e.g., decisions that go against morals) every day. Whether or not individuals make these choices conscientiously or unconscientiously, Bandura's (1986) argues that people make unethical decisions when their moral self-regulatory processes are diminished. That is, self-regulatory processes usually hindered by unethical activities are disengaged through the use of 'moral disengagement'. Moral disengagement can describe why normal people can



participate in unethical thoughts or behaviors without a visible sign of guilt (Bandura, 1986). Building off of Bandura (1986), Joyner and Payne (2002) classified business ethics as:

“the interaction of ethics and business . . . [encompassing] a moral evaluation of the economic system of the free enterprise system in the United States, the businesses which operate in this system, a moral evaluation of individuals and their actions in conducting business and a review of business behavior in the international arena” (p. 299).

Joyner and Payne (2002) argued organizations participate in ethical business efforts for two major reasons: a) to simply partake in day to day ethical standards and b) Machiavellian reasons. Within any industry there are organizations that practice ethical behavior within their daily routine without the need for external pressures (Joyner & Payne, 2002). Corporations such as these, engage in actions that ‘do the right thing’ and recognize their role in society. The second of the two categories, businesses that engage in business ethics for in Machiavellian reasons do so in order to avoid public scrutiny and possible legal ramifications (Joyner & Payne, 2002). Essentially organizations active in Machiavellian reasoning attempt to satisfy corporate interests, such as maximizing profits, and not the interests of ‘doing the right thing.’ This sense of maximizing profits may hinder the ethical decision making of individuals; in a sense it can create a conflict causing counterproductive behaviors.

There has been an increase in attention to business ethics around the world. This interest in unethical behavior has been linked to an increase in moral disengagement because this reasoning separates the thought process action from the guilt that would otherwise prevent that action. This separates the connection between internal principles and thoroughly thought out behaviors which would, in turn, may ultimately block individuals from participating in unethical decisions and or behaviors (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996; Duffy, Aquino, Tepper, Reed, & O’Leary-Kelly, 2005). Observed evidence provides support to this theoretical connection. For instance, Bandura and colleagues (1996) initiated that moral disengagement increased antisocial behaviors (delinquency, aggression) and lessened pro-social behaviors (cooperativeness, kindness) in children (Bandura et al., 1996, 2001; Bandura, Underwood, & Fromson, 1975). Additionally, Duffy and colleagues (2005) executed a study on the relationship between unethical behavior and decision making and moral disengagement

within a hospital organizational setting. The authors found evidence suggesting that moral justification was positively linked to successive co-worker undermining (e.g., spreading rumors) among the workers. As previous research indicates (e.g., Duffy et al., 2005) and as logic suggests unethical thinking and behavior may lead to counterproductive behaviors. However, how to title and classify this logic has frequently been debated within academics and by practitioners alike.

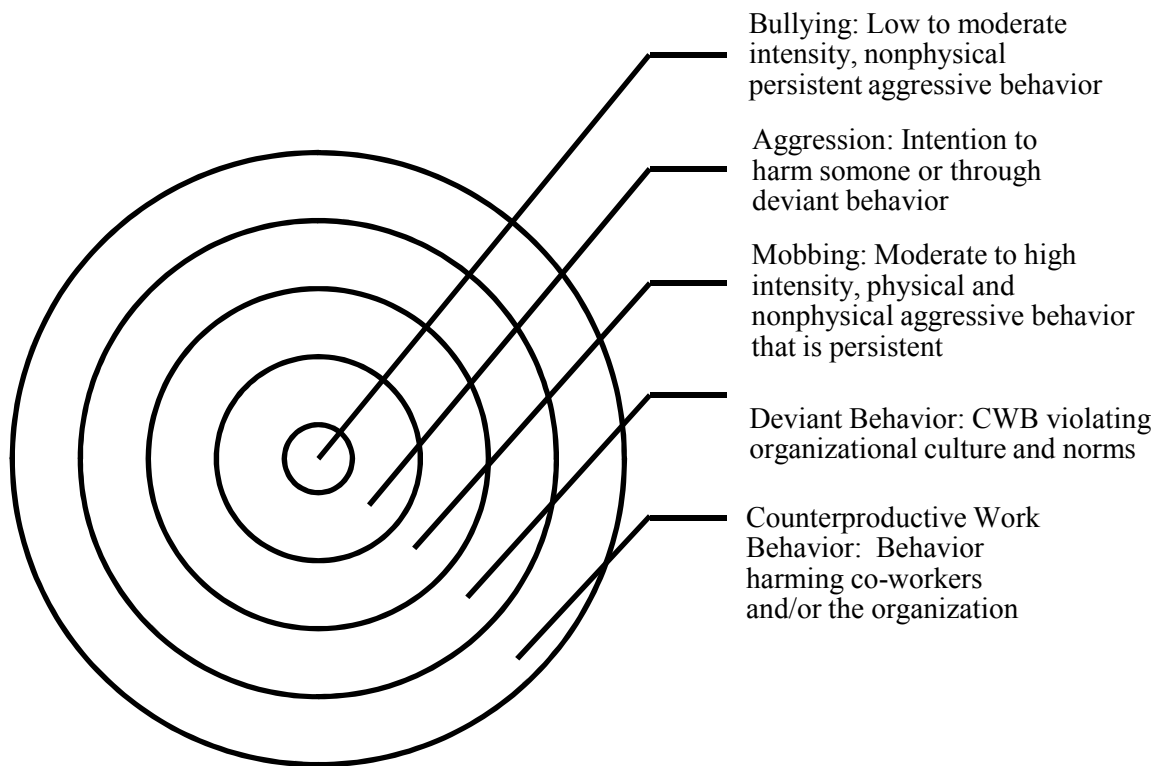
Attempting to distinguish CWB from similar or related ideas such as organizational corruption, business ethics, anti-social work behaviors, and organizational deviance is not an easy task (see Table 2.1). Multiple constructs on CWB have risen throughout the years studying through different theoretical perspectives and different vantage points, but they frequently focus on the same behaviors (see Bennett & Robinson, 2003; Martinko et al., 2002; Penney, Spector, & Fox, 2003). Because of this diversification, Robinson and Bennett (2003) posited upon examination, there is substantial overlap and consistency between the notions cited above (e.g., workplace deviance, business ethics) and the terms are commonly interchanged. For example, focuses shared by these areas are individual employee theft (Greenberg, 2000) or lying (Grover, 1997) as individual indicators or as a sect of indicators.

Antisocial behavior (Giacolone & Greenberg, 1997), deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), and counterproductive behavior (Marcus & Schuler, 2004) are frequently portrayed as sets of negative behavior in employees. Most of the research on unethical behavior in organizations (e.g., Trevino, 1986; Trevino et al., 1998; Trevino & Weaver, 2001) assumes negative behaviors can be bundled together and can be predicted by comparable factors. Bennett and Robinson (2003) and Marcus and Schuler (2004) used a broader approach in investigating the understanding of counterproductive behaviors. They argued that it gives them the chance to examine the common influences among these related behaviors in a broader context (e.g., organizational justice, leadership, support) and this dissertation will follow this shared thought. In addition, previous literature has used the undesirable behaviors classifications interchangeably resulting in further confusion. For simplicity reasons, the term CWB will be the only term used for the remainder of this research as it encompasses intentions and actions unwanted by sport organizations.

*Table 2.1 - Different Conceptualizations of CWB*

Construct	Author(s)	Definition
General Counterproductive Behavior	Marcus & Schuler (2004)	Behaviors violating the legitimate interests of the organization by potentially being harmful to the organization as a whole or its members.
Counterproductive Work Behavior	Gruys & Sackett (2003)	Intentions or behaviors that threaten the overall well-being of an organization and its members.
Counterproductive Work Behavior	Sackett & DeVore (2001)	Intentional behavior by an organizational member viewed by the organization as contrary to its interests.
Organizational Retaliation Behaviors	Skarlicki & Folger (1997)	Perceived unfairness producing adverse reaction towards an employer.
Antisocial Behavior	Giacalone & Greenberg (1997)	Behavior bringing harm or intended to bring harm to stakeholders, the organization, and its employees.
Organization-Motivated Aggression	O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew (1996)	Attempted destructive or injurious behavior started by an employee or an outsider initiated by some factor within the organization.
Workplace Aggression	Baron & Neuman (1996)	Any individual's behavior intended to bring harm to previous or current employer or its individuals.
Workplace Deviance	Robinson & Bennett (1995)	Voluntary behavior that violates organizational norms and threatens its well-being and its members well-being.

With the preceding information in mind, it is sensible to describe CWB research efforts as splintered in nature. As mentioned, research on CWB has treated behaviors as separate factors leading to an increase in isolated literatures (e.g., absenteeism, drug and alcohol use, theft, etc.) (Martinko et al., 2002; Sackett, 2002; Marcus & Schuler, 2004). Although this diverse stream of research is not inherently wrong, it does lead to confusion.



*Figure 2.1 – Counterproductive Work Behavior Bulls Eye*

Figure 2.1 created by the research of Pearson, Anderson, and Porath (2005) above attempts to show how CWB can differ and overlaps with some of the other forms of behavior. This type of behavior, as behavior harming co-workers and the organization, or both, frequently violated organizational cultures and norms. CWB can also be viewed by severity, as it can be physical (violence) or it can be nonphysical (bullying and mobbing). So as the Figure 2.1, the counterproductive work behavior bulls eye depicts, although definitions and investigations may produce confusion around the concept they do possess commonalities to build on.

A meta-analysis conducted by Bennett and Robinson (2003) reviewed three key arguments for advancing this stream of research. First, the authors argued broader conceptualizations of behavior would allow researchers to generalize across situations and patterns of interrelationships which may expose their dimensionality. Secondly, by combining several forms of CWB, researchers may be able to address problems linked with ‘skewed distributions’. Finally, when a researcher is attempting to establish an attitude-behavior correlation within CWB research it is important to include various attitude and behavior measures. The arguments established by Bennett and Robinson (2003) make a clear call of attention to consolidate counterproductive behaviors in order to uncover their underlying dimensions. In following the meta-analysis conducted by Bennett and Robinson (2003) this research will satisfy all three arguments. First, this dissertation is exploratory in nature as research such as this has not been conducted on professional sport teams before and is set to encompass various variables and team identification within the data analysis. Second, employees will be answering questions on various forms of counterproductive behaviors. For instance, they will be answering questions pertaining to their behaviors towards the organization and towards other individuals at work. Finally, employees will be asked to answer questions on both their behaviors and attitudes towards their work.

Another benefit to considering a broader conceptualization of CWB relates to the investigation of antecedents to CWB. It is possible for different counterproductive behaviors to have unique antecedents, it is more likely and consistent with previous literature, that most if not all are interrelated. Basically, as Sackett (2002) and One and Viswesvaran (2003) argue different types of CWB have common individual and/or situational antecedents. It is important to note that the inclusion and/or exclusion of antecedents still remain a major decision point for researchers (see Table 2.2).

*Table 2.2 - Summary of CWB Antecedent Categories*

Antecedent Category	Authors	Examples
Individual Difference	Berry et al. (2006)	Conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability, extraversion, and openness to experience
	Marcus & Schuler (2004)	Internal control, propensity, and triggers
	Sackett & DeVore (2001)	Integrity tests, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and agreeableness
	Robinson & Greenberg (1998)	Demographics
Perceptions of Injustice	Marcus & Schuler (2004)	Payment inequity
	Sackett & DeVore (2001)	Distributive justice, procedural justice
	Robinson & Greenberg (1998)	Unfair interpersonal treatment
Job Characteristics	Marcus & Schuler (2004)	Job autonomy task identity, task significance, skill variety, autonomy, and feedback on the job.
	Sackett & DeVore (2001)	
Organizational Variables	Marcus & Schuler (2004)	Anticipated sanctions
	Sackett & DeVore (2001)	Climate of honesty, sexualization of the workplace
	Robinson & Bennett (1998)	Pay systems

Despite confusion the on CWB, progress into uncovering the underlying dimensions of CWB as grown over the last decade and should be given ample attention in the sport industry as sport organizations posse's similar qualities to other industries. Within sport organizations business strategy matters, they are always attempting to identify and cultivate new revenue streams, products are becoming more innovative, brand management is key, and globalization is always a concern. In addition to these revenue generation streams, human resource management within a sport organization is just as important and it worthy of academic attention. Therefore, for this dissertation common organizational and individual variables identified within management and psychology literature have been selected to shape this exploratory research and they will be discussed in the proceeding sections.

#### Organizational Variables

Perceptions of organizational justice, characterized as the extent to which individuals believe they are treated fairly and their outcomes are warranted, equitable, and consistent with their moral standards (Cropanzano, Bowen, & Gilliland, 2007), have been applied to various organizational behavior investigations on attitudes and behaviors such as CWB (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Latham & Pinder, 2005). Furthermore, there has been an increased spotlight on interactional and social factors predicting CWB. Previous research has indicated the influence of social customs and norms accepting or rewarding deviant behaviors and unfair interactional actions lead to employee CWB (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). Additionally, employees frequently face pressures from colleagues and supervisors encouraging and condoning counterproductive behaviors from minor facets (e.g., social rejection) to serious acts (e.g., harassment, theft). The effects of social norms on CWB have been previously observed in effects on employee sabotage and theft (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997) as well. Overall, considerable evidence indicates injustice perceptions are a vital influence on individual's actions and behaviors within organizations (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000) and are vital to an investigation such as this.

Oppressed group behavior theory is frequently utilized when dealing perceptions of injustice. Oppression is "to keep down by the cruel or unjust use of power or authority; rule harshly; tyrannize over" (Neufeldt & Guralnik, 1988, p. 950). Higher status groups or more powerful groups have the ability to control and/or exploit oppressed groups. As a result, an oppressed group can form attitudes and behaviors that include dislike for others, fear, and self-

hatred (Dunn, 2003). Intergroup and interactional conflict is frequently used to let go of tension fostered by the controlling group (Fanon, 1963). This displaced behavior is often viewed as horizontal hostility (Baltimore, 2006; Farrell, 1997, 2001; Griffen, 2004; Leiper, 2005). Horizontal hostility as defined by Dunn (2003) is “sabotage directed at coworkers who are on the same level within an organization’s hierarchy” (p. 977). This behavior can be direct or indirect and can be expressed in a physical or verbal manner (Dunn, 2003).

Behavior within an oppressed group is developed through processes at work. It starts with the social hierarchy between a dominant and an obedient group. The dominant group possesses power and can shape the organization’s values, norms and characteristics with their behaviors. The obedient group, frequently known as the subordinate group, can feel undervalued as their behaviors have little weight within the organization (Roberts, 1983). To obtain promotions, pay rises, rewards, and status subordinates typically have to adopt the values of their superiors. By adopting the values presented by their superiors subordinates have a desire to separate themselves from their peers (Bartholomew, 2006; Heim & Murphy, 2001).

The corporate system reinforces the idea that the dominant group has greater characteristics compared to their counterparts and the subordinate group is there to preserve status quo (Stevens & Crouch, 1998). Subordinates are rewarded for supporting the system (Roberts, 1983, 2001). Professional sport organizations within America are very difficult to penetrate at the employment level, but could be easily characterized by oppressed group theory. These types of organizations are characterized by: (a) a rank system, (b) a strong culture, (c) discipline codes, (d) traditions, (e) predominately white male, and (f) power based.

Sport organizations can be defined by a hierarchical structure but that does not fully explain why people act the way they do. Because we are interested in employee behavior within six Major League Baseball teams it is to ask; how do people learn how things are done at work? Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) argues accepted behaviors at work are learned from watching others (e.g., coworkers, superiors, etc.). Life scripts and schemes guide people at work (Bushman & Anderson, 2001). Life scripts and schemes assist individuals with a “how to guide” in social settings. In other words, they learn by watching the behaviors of those around them. Three categories of life scripts were developed by Sternberg (2003): event schemas, person schemas, and role schemas.



Event schemes represent expectations about what should take place during various situations (Anderson & Bushman, 2002). Frequently, people are more comfortable in social situations if they can predict what is going to happen. Role schemes illustrate how people should act according to their social role (Anderson & Bushman, 2002). For instance, it would be expected for someone to bring their gun to a sporting event (unless they were a police officer). Thirdly, people can learn conceptually but watching the behaviors and traits displayed by others (Sternberg, 2003). What people remember and how they react is influenced by life scripts and schemes (Anderson & Bushman, 2002). Established trends can escape conscious thought as they become mundane to everyday work life. Therefore, if a culture of distributive, procedural, or interactional injustice is embedded in the norms within an organization a subordinate may only remember the negative aspects about their job compared to the positive ones.

Subordinates react to authority or lack thereof in differing ways depending upon their perceptions of fairness. As Rawls (1971) concluded, by reason of humanity, people have an entitlement to be treated fairly and Folger (2001) suggested individuals are frequently motivated toward fairness as they see it as the right thing to do. Both Rawls (1971) and Folger's (2001) suggestions on fairness evolve around what is often termed equity theory. Equity theory (Adams, 1963) suggests perceptions of unfair distribution of rewards compared to work inputs will result in tension, and the individual will be motivated to end this tension. Furthermore, the literature suggests employees who are dissatisfied with the fairness of decision making by superiors are more likely to participate in counterproductive behavior. Ample research has specified counterproductive behavior as a reaction to perceived unfair treatment or inequity on the job (Greenberg, 1990b; Greenberg & Scott, 1996; Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Sheppard, Lewicki, & Minton, 1992). Moreover, this perceived unwarranted treatment can heighten a desire for retaliation against the organization, supervisor, or co-worker (Sheppard, Lewicki, & Minton, 1992). As established by equity theory, employees view their relationship with their employer as a social exchange. When they perceive undesired outcomes in exchange for their work involvement, they readdress their feelings of inequity by participating in counterproductive behaviors (Greenberg, 1997). Academic researchers have often posited managerial and organizational decisions perceived to be unfair by subordinates raise feelings of resentment and anger (Folger, 1987; Greenberg, 1990). In this sense, employees who feel as if they have been mistreated attempt to punish those whom they feel are responsible for their undesired outcomes.

Justice perceptions are viewed as an important construct affecting individual's behaviors and attitudes, and as a significant factor affecting CWB. Scholars have frequently debated how to classify and characterize different types of justice. For instance, there has been an argument suggesting there are two types of justice (procedural and distributive) (Tyler, DeGoey, & Smith, 1996), three types, (distributive, procedural, and interactional) (Cropanzano et al., 2002; Moorman, 1991), and four types (distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational) (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt & Shaw, 2005). Despite the varying beliefs, most research calls for at least two to three types of justice, therefore, this dissertation will focus on three types of organizational justice: procedural, distributive, and interactional. The decision to use three types of justice is based on past research and the notion of splitting hairs when attempting to divide interactional justice into two categories. Therefore, *procedural justice*, refers to the perceived fairness of formal decision-making procedures within the organization (Lind & Tyler, 1988); *distributive justice*, refers to the perceived fairness of work outcomes and the distribution of resources; and *interactional justice* relates to the perceptions of interactional treatment from a supervisor (Olkkonen & Lipponen, 2006).

Distributive justice has evolved from equity theory (Adams, 1965), and argues "one's evaluation of the ratio of another's' outcome-to-inputs results in the perception of either fairness or unfairness" (Bryne & Miller, 2009, p.52). Decisions of fairness of an outcome will depend on the subjectivity and analyses of organizational norms (e.g., allocation of resources and who is in need of those resources the most: Deutsch, 1975) and how one compares what they get to someone else (Adams, 1965). For example, a cultural norm within any organization is not to discuss salaries or pay raises with other people. When this norm is violated, tensions often rise between people and perceptions of injustice may ensue resulting in unwanted behaviors.

Procedural justice focuses on the fairness of policies and procedures (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Previous literature created by Leventhal and colleagues (Leventhal 1976; Leventhal, Karuza, & Fry, 1980) has suggested six rules for evaluating the fairness within an organizations procedures: 1) consistency across people and time; 2) bias suppression of decision makers; 3) accuracy of information utilized by decision makers; 4) is there correct ability or can people appeal the process; 5) representativeness of the affect people (e.g., values, beliefs, and views); and 6) is the procedure in line with ethical standards. It is also important to note that in addition

to these rules it is important to know whether or not people have a voice in the decision making process (Folger, 1977; Korsgaard & Roberson, 1995; Thibaut & Walker, 1975).

Interactional justice is described as the fairness of treatment one receives during the realization of procedures (Bies & Moag, 1986). Various researchers have suggested interactional justice should be divided into two components: informational and interactional (Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1993). Informational justice has been characterized as when subordinates are given adequate information and explanation concerning decisions. Interactional justice has been described as how honest and respectful the message is relayed to employees when initiating procedures (Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1993). Despite the argument for dividing interactional justice into two components this dissertation will look at interactional justice as one concept to minimize confusion on whether their perceptions are due to the information given to them or the way the information was explained.

Previous literature has indicated employees who feel as if they have been treated in an unjust manner will react by participating in counterproductive work behaviors. For instance, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) established employees within a manufacturing organization who perceived an inequity reacted in an organizational retaliatory behavior. Greenberg (1990b, 1993) also concluded employee theft was in response to a feeling of being underpaid by the organization. Additionally, Ambrose et al. (2002) indicated the most frequent cause of work place sabotage was perceived organizational injustice, and the higher the level of perceived injustice the more severe the act was. Cohen-Charash and Mueller (2007) investigated the interaction between coworker envy and perceived unfairness. With the utilization of two studies with two samples and methods to measure envy, hypotheses were evaluated, contrasted, and compared based on the attribution model of fairness and the social exchange theory. Their results supported both the attribution model of fairness and the social exchange model of fairness, indicating that elevated points of perceived unfairness as well as envy resulted in high levels of counterproductive behavior (study 1), particularly amongst individuals with high levels of self-esteem (study 2).

Social support from supervisors is especially important to individuals; even more so than co-worker support (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). According to a meta-analysis conducted by Lee and Ashforth (1996) supervisor support accounts for approximately 14% of the variance explained in emotional exhaustion, 2% of personal accomplishment, and 6% of

depersonalization. This is in line with Hobfoll and Freddy's (1993) Conservation of Resource theory (COR) arguments that suggest social support is a resource people use to deal with adverse situations at work. In addition, COR suggests people who have a social network at work (supervisors and co-workers) will be more equipped to deal with adversity compared to those who do not have a social support system. In a ten-year longitudinal study on burnout Kalimo, Pahkin, Mutanen, and Toppinen-Tanner (2003) found that participants with low levels of work resources (social support) and low cooperation level had a higher rate of burnout compared to their counterparts. Based on previous literature on COR and levels of support, it is important to consider the implications interactional treatment has on individuals within the workplace.

Giacalone and Greenberg (1997) argued the strongest forms of counterproductive behaviors are a reaction to a combination of an unfair policy or procedure (procedural justice) and uncaring or insensitive delivery (interactional justice) to an employee. Although unfair outcomes may set the stage for a counterproductive reaction, it is the perceived unjust interactional treatment that triggers a heightened reaction (Greenberg & Alge, 1998). Specifically, if an employee is underpaid, the underpayment alone will not result in counterproductive work behavior, but when the underpayment is brought up by another in an insensitive or rude manner it increases the likelihood of counterproductive behavior. Greenberg (1990b, 1993, & 1997) posited interactional justice was a vital element in predicting employee theft at a manufacturing plant after an established pay decrease. The rate of theft at the manufacturing plant where employees were given very little information about the need for the pay decrease, along with only shallow expressions of remorse was twice as high compared to another plant where the news of a pay cut was accompanied by a caring and elaborate explanation for the need of the decrease (Greenberg, 1990b).

In a follow up laboratory study, Greenberg (1993) examined the same effects of a set of students. The students were hired to complete a clerical task in exchange for money. After the completion of the task, Greenberg manipulated the study by telling some of the students that they would be paid less than they originally thought. Results expressed that equitably paid students didn't take more pay than they were originally promised in spite of the amount of information expressed and the level of sensitivity. However, in line with his previous research, students who were underpaid did participate in theft. Students' who were given an incomplete explanation stole more than their counterparts who received a comprehensive explanation. Those individuals

that were treated with concern and sensitivity stole less than those who were not provided any empathy. Therefore, perceptions of inequity can heighten the occurrences of theft and the amount of theft in which individual engage in can depend specifically on the interactional treatment expressed (Greenberg, 1997).

In their study of the relationship between distributive, interactional, and procedural justice, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) had employees self-report their perceptions. Additionally, the authors had the employee's co-workers complete a CWB measure on the employee. The results indicated all three justice measures were significantly correlated to CWB. It is interesting to note the authors found correlations ranging from -.44 to -.54. When investigating an internal state there is always a concern of biases within a self-report measure (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Within this self-reported investigation, a third variable (confounding variable) may have been present. The participants in this particular study were asked about perceived fairness as opposed to actual fairness. Additionally, this study did not actually determine causation therefore the strength and generalizability is limited. Therefore the following hypotheses have been developed around justice perceptions:

*H 1) Perceived procedural justice will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors.*

*H 2) Perceived distributive justice will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors.*

*H 3) Perceived interactional justice will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors.*

#### Individual Variables

“In the past, the workplace was promoted naively as an emotion-free environment with decisions being made on an unemotional rational basis only. The denial of emotional factors in the workplace is not realistic” (Stanley & Burrows, 2001, p.10).

There has been and continues to be an increased amount of attention to the emotions and affectivity of individuals within the workplace (e.g., Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Zerbe, 2000, Barsade, Brief, & Spataro, S.E., 2003; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Previous literature has focused on trait (dispositional) affect (e.g., Staw, Bell, Clausen, 1996), mood (George & Brief, 1992), state affect (e.g., Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), and discrete emotions (Lee & Allen, 2002). The overall

effects of affect and emotion in the workplace are commonplace and researchers have frequently argued that they affect the behaviors of individuals (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

The relationship between affectivity and negative behaviors (counterproductive work behaviors) has been investigated much less than the relationship between affectivity and organizational citizenship behaviors (see Todd & Kent, 2009). The connection between affectivity and CWB should incorporate ‘expressive motivation’ or the “need to vent, release, or express one’s feelings of outrage, anger, or frustration” (Robinson & Bennett, 1997, p. 18) and a combination of both the individual and situational variables.

There are numerous individual differences in which one could focus on as a factor of CWB (see table 1). This dissertation will concentrate on the following factors: negative affectivity and positive affectivity, and core self-evaluations. These variables were chosen due to their presence in CWB literature and they may have a direct effect on CWB tendencies. The proceeding sections will start with a detailed description of these individual variables and other frameworks in the context of the mainstream organizational behavior literature and will attempt to capture its relevance to the sport industry as well.

*Negative Affectivity/Positive Affectivity.* Even though their titles (NA and PA) seem as if they are on different ends of the same dimension; NA and PA have been classified as two orthogonal (uncorrelated) dimensions. Both dimensions can be measured as traits (e.g., stable individual difference) or as a state (e.g., fluctuations in mood). For this investigation NA and PA will be measured as traits in conjunction with Tellegen’s (1982) recommendations. Both NA and PA are frequently measured through the Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS, Watson, Clark, and Tellegen, 1988) which covers various emotions (e.g., distress, proud, hostile, and active).

Negative affectivity reveals an individual’s propensity to experience negative emotional states, feelings of being dissatisfied and distressed across differing times and places (Watson & Clark, 1984). Those that “dwell on the negative” are characterized as having negative affectivity thus they are more likely to be affected by aversive actions than their counterparts who are low in negative affectivity (Jawahar, 2002). Neuman and Baron (1998) posited that CWB can result as negative emotions and affective aggression. The authors posited an incorporated a model of aggression triggered by situational conditions (frustration, insults, injustice) and stressors within their research. These situational conditions along with negative emotions and aggressive

cognitions lead to appraisal of the situation and ultimately a decision on whether to act aggressively.

Individual's levels of NA have been related to aggressive behaviors within the workplace (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Hepworth & Towler, 2004). Additionally, Aquino et al. (1999) provided evidence linking NA with interactional and organizational forms of deviance. NA has also been linked with elements of CWB such as abusive behavior, overt acts, threats, work avoidance, and work sabotage (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 1999). Similar studies have been used to look at the affective state of NA with CWB. Douglas and Martinko (2001) and Penney and Spector (2003) found correlations of .21 and .31 with CWB by employing the NA subscale of the PANAS. Lee and Allen (2002) argued discrete emotions of fear, guilt, hostility, and sadness predicted workplace deviance. In a similar study conducted by Judge, Scott, and Illies (2006) a within-individual relationship between affect and what they deemed work place deviance was examined. Using an 'experience sampling' methodology with university employees, Judge et al. (2006) indicated state hostility had a positive relationship with deviance at work.

Conversely, PA reveals the extent to which people engage in their environment in a positive manner (Watson et al., 1998) while having a tendency to experience positive emotions. Those who possess higher levels of PA view themselves as efficacious and as active and alert (George, 1992). On the other hand, individuals with low levels of PA experience lower efficacy, feel less active, and have a lower sense of well-being (Watson & Clark, 1984). Evidence has indicated PA and NA are frequently independent; as individuals can be high on one and low on the other, high on both, or low on both (Watson & Tellegen, 1985).

Numerous studies have investigated NA and PA through a variety of lens. Generally, the findings from these investigating indicated the two mood factors were linked to different variables. NA (not PA) has been related to stress and poor coping (Clark & Watson, 1986; Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1981; Willis, 1986), and frequency of unsatisfying events (Stone, 1981; Warr, Barter, & Brownbridge, 1983). PA (not NA) has been related to satisfaction, social activity, and the frequency of pleasing events (Deiser, 1974; Bradburn, 1969; Clark & Watson, 1986, 1988; Watson, 1988).

Positive emotions lead people to feel, think, and act in ways promoting both involvement and resource building (Elliot & Thrash, 2002; Lyubomirsky, 2001). A person experiencing a positive emotion or mood has a tendency to interpret a circumstance as desirable despite the

actual situation. Positive emotions or moods frequently indicate an individual is reaching their set goals, their life is going well, and the resources surrounding them are adequate (Carver & Scheier, 1998; Clore, Wyer, Dienes, Gasper, & Isbell, 2001). Therefore, it is logical to hypothesize those individuals high in PA will frequently look at situations in a favorable light no matter what the situation and are less likely to commit counterproductive behaviors.

Consistent with Affective Events Theory, this dissertation assumes affectivity has a significant relationship with behaviors at work. As suggested by AET, a person's disposition may influence if an individual is going to react to an event at work, how they will react, and their overall intensity in reaction. This paper will only concentrate on the affect intensity both positive and negative as these two traits were specifically chosen because of previous literature on CWB, however, it is important to understand that an individual may experience both positive and negative affectivity throughout their lives but it is the intensity that really matters.

Affect intensity refers to the normal strength in which a person experiences emotions throughout their everyday life. Those who are high in affect intensity have a tendency to emotionally react to a situation and frequently experience strong emotions; while those who are low in affect intensity have a tendency to react mildly (Larsen & Diener, 1987; Weiss et al., 1999). Affect intensity is not related to either positive or negative emotions; rather it normally generalizes across both hedonic tones. Specifically, those who have higher levels of affect intensity not only experience their negative emotions strongly, they also experience their positive emotions strongly (Larsen & Diener, 1987). In accordance with AET and previous research on both positive affectivity and negative affectivity the following hypotheses are proposed:

H 4) NA will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) positive relationship with counterproductive work behaviors.

H 5) PA will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors.

*Core Self-Evaluations.* Core self-evaluations received great attention and consideration after Judge, Locke, and Dunham (1997) published an article concerning the relationship between dispositional factors and job satisfaction. The author's arguments were based upon a set of diverse literature (e.g., child development, clinical psychology, clinical psychology practice, job satisfaction, personality theory, philosophy, social psychology, and stress research) in order to introduce 'core evaluations' as an influence upon job satisfaction. According to Judge et al.



(1997) the concept of core self-evaluations is a useful predictor in organizational performance situations. Core self-evaluations

“is a broad, latent, higher-order trait indicated by four well established traits in the personality literature: (a) *self-esteem*, the overall value that one places on oneself as a person (Harter, 1990); (b) *generalized self-efficacy*, an evaluation of how well one can perform across a variety of situations (Locke, McClellan, & Knight, 1996); (c) *neuroticism*, the tendency to have a negativistic cognitive/explanatory style and to focus on negative aspects of the self (Watson, 2000); and *locus of control*, beliefs about the causes of events in one’s life . . .” (Rotter, 1966) (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003, p. 303-304).

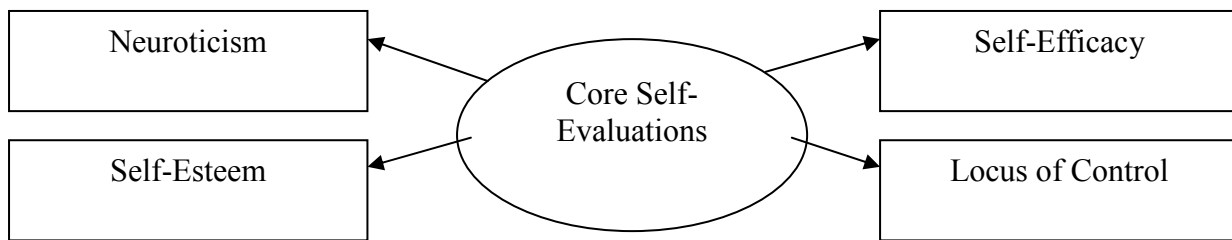


Figure 2.2 – The Four Trait Indicators of Core Self-Evaluations

The four traits appear to be widely utilized within psychology studies (Judge & Bono, 2001a) and together, locus of control, neuroticism (emotional stability), and self-esteem have been included in over 50,000 studies (Judge & Bono, 2001). Theoretically, these traits share similarities. For instance, there is a logical link between self-esteem and self-efficacy. General self-efficacy is determined by how an individual views their own capabilities and if an individual sees themselves as worthy, successful, and capable (self-esteem) then their self-efficacy will be influenced. Additionally, locus of control and self-efficacy also share commonalities. Following the logic of locus of control (e.g., an individual’s belief as to their ability to control their surrounding), if people believe they are capable of performing well and controlling their lives their self-efficacy will be influenced and vice versa. However, Rosenberg (1965) established an adverse relationship between self-esteem and neuroticism. Rosenberg

(1965) is frequently linked with self-esteem research, and argued a sign of low self-esteem was neurosis. Furthermore, Erez and Judge (2001) estimated three confirmatory analysis models with independent samples and established a single-factor model for data fit. Within this model the average loadings for the four traits were: self-esteem = .91 (ave.); self-efficacy = .81 (ave.) locus of control, .74 (ave.); and neuroticism = .73 (ave.). The authors also argued self-esteem displayed the highest loading in most of their factor analyses.

Even though established relationships exist between the four variables, previous literature frequently studied them as separate variables. For instance, Ghorpade, Hattrup, and Lackritz (1999) viewed cross-cultural differences in locus of control and self-esteem and in their investigation the authors did not hint to the two variables being similar or having a relationship. Finn and Rock (1997) reported locus of control and self-esteem were strongly related at  $r = .73$  but they continued to look at the two variables as separate independent variables.

In addition, Perlow and Latham (1993) provided evidence supporting a relationship between locus of control and CWB while ignoring the connection to the three variables (e.g., self-esteem, self-efficacy, and neuroticism). The authors suggested locus of control predicted successive employee termination for assault (on patients) within a residential treatment facility. The relationship between locus of control and CWB has also been replicated in two questionnaire studies (Fox & Spector, 1999; Goh et al. 2003) with both finding significance for organizational CWB ( $r_s = .19$  and  $.32$ ). However, Judge et al. (1998) created a meta-analysis using 12 samples of approximately 15,888 individuals to analyze the relationship between the four traits. Using factor analysis, the authors found evidence suggesting the four traits loaded strongly on one factor (see Table 2.3 for results summary). Additionally, Erez and Judge (2001) confirmed the results of Judge et al. (1998) arguing core self-evaluations is a single higher order factor with relationships with the four lower-level traits.

*Table 2.3 – Judge, Erez, & Bono (1998) Core Self-Evaluation Meta-Analysis Results Summary*

Trait	1	2	3	4
Self-Esteem	1.00	.70	.44	-.51
Self-Efficacy	.86	1.00	.45	-.45
Locus of Control	.58	.59	1.00	-.36
Neuroticism	-.62	-.54	-.47	1.00

\*95% confidence interval for each correlation

Judge et al. (2000) expanded the research of Judge and colleagues when the authors investigated perceived job characteristics and objective job complexity within two studies. The first study provided evidence of a direct relationship between core self-evaluations and perceived job characteristics, job complexity, and job satisfaction. Additionally, it indicated core self-evaluations had an indirect effect on perceived job characteristics through job complexity. Upon their results the authors suggested individuals with high core self-evaluations attempt and seek out complex jobs; they are more likely to display greater effort on job related tasks and goal-setting activities; they are less likely to withdraw after a failure; and they may possess greater coping skills. Within the second study, Judge et al. (2000) investigated the relationship between core self-evaluations and job complexity and satisfaction within a longitudinal setting. The authors assessed the core self-evaluations in childhood and then in adolescence and finally in adulthood to see if it were related to job complexity and satisfaction later in life. Their results suggested core self-evaluations were dispositional.

Durham, Locke, and Judge (2002) extended research on core self-evaluations when they assessed its relationship to job related behaviors. They hypothesized core self-evaluations would significantly influence job behaviors through perceptions of job characteristics. The author's evidence indicated individuals with positive core self-evaluations influenced self-reported job

behaviors (e.g., using independent judgment, seeking promotions and raises by asking supervisors, motivating employees, and seeking greater challenges at work). However, the results also indicated core self-evaluations were not directly related to job behaviors when superiors evaluated behaviors. Durham et al. (2002) argued this finding may be due to superiors not watching their employees at all times; and therefore individuals may alter their behaviors when a supervisor is present. Additionally, the authors suggested this finding may be tainted due to superior's perceptions of standards when it comes to evaluating subordinates; each superior may see things differently. The evidence provided by Durham et al. (2002) and various other studies (see Erez and Judge, 2001) suggest core self-evaluations may have direct and/or indirect influence in job related behaviors, suggesting further exploration in job criteria (CWB) examinations.

Research involving core self-evaluations has provided compelling arguments on its utility to explain motivation, performance, and job satisfaction. Therefore, it may be fruitful to expand core self-evaluation research to CWB within the sport industry. Consequently, the following hypothesis is proposed:

*H 6) Core self-evaluations will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors.*

#### Team Identification

The selection process of sport industry employee is vital to the organizations survival within a very competitive environment, yet this process is often ignored within the sport management literature. However, when this selection process is highlighted the results frequently show the findings are not much different than non-sport organizations (e.g., academic, career work experience, communication skills, and work ethic; Moy 2006). In addition to 'traditional' employee selection criteria sport organizations need to consider an individual's level of team identification. Not only is team identification important in the selection process it is also vital to the retention of productive employee and can also as this dissertation argues alter and possibly thwart counterproductive behaviors.

An individual's identification with a sport team has often been characterized as their level of attachment (Branscombe & Wann, 1993). Trail, Anderson, and Fink (2000) articulated team identification as "an orientation of the self in regard to other objects including a person or group that results in feelings or sentiments of close attachments" (p. 165-166). Additionally, team

identification can vary in levels of attachment; however, Underwood, Bond and Baer (2001) argue sport teams can create extraordinarily high levels of identification compared to other service suppliers. Based upon this argument it is sensible to investigate the effects team identification may have on the relationship between individual and situational variables and CWB within sport organizations as individuals may alter their behaviors due to their team identification levels.

Linking team identification with external group identities was established within the work of Wann, Tucker, and Schrader (1996) when they investigated why people identify with sport teams. The authors' results suggested a sample of students followed a team based upon organizational characteristics (e.g., tradition, success, and star player). However, a relationship between team identification was established based upon the bond students had with the university and its geographic location. These results indicated team identification was associated with local communities along with university identities.

Previous literature on team identification has been centered within consumer behavior and marketing research; therefore, part of this dissertation is to expand the team identification inquires toward human resource and employment practices within Major League Baseball. Foreman and Whetten (2002) described team identification within their discussion of multiple-identity organizations. The authors suggested connecting an organization with multiple group identities would bolster the commitment of its members. Organizations outside the sport industry have used different group identities as a way to expand their member's loyalties. As a result most sport teams carry the name of their local city or state suggesting they understand the association between identification and external group identities. Therefore, it seems logical to assume individuals working for a sport team would have identification with the team and consequently may alter their behavior based upon that loyalty.

Research has indicated team identification has a positive influence on consumer behaviors and attitudes as well. It has been shown that team identity can have a positive impact on media revenue, ticket sales, and merchandise sales; therefore, creating and cultivating team identification among fans ought to be a priority of a sport team (e.g., Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Madrigal, 2000, 2001; Matsuoka, Chelladurai, & Marada, 2003; Sutton et al., 1997). By cultivating team identification with employees of an MLB team, they in turn may adjust their perceptions of organization situations and personal feeling. Therefore, from an organizational

behavioral perspective team identity may positively align with the mission of an organization. However, it is important to remember, this argument is not suggesting team identification should be considered above ‘traditional’ selection criteria’s (e.g., academic, career work experience, ethics), but it should be considered within the hiring and retention processes. For instance, say a baseball team has narrowed its search down to three candidates for a supervisor position within the organization and all three candidates are just about equal on all ‘traditional’ criteria. One question that may sway the selection committee’s decision is the individual’s levels of team identification. Specifically, how will the individual’s levels of team identification affect their behaviors on the job? Therefore, preceding information has resulted in the following proposed hypotheses:

*H 7)* Team identification will moderate the relationship between NA and counterproductive work behaviors such that as team identification increases, there will be a decreasing negative relationship between NA and CWB.

*H 8)* Team identification will moderate the relationship between PA and counterproductive work behaviors such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between PA and CWB.

*H 9)* Team identification will moderate the relationship between high core self-evaluations and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between core self-evaluations and CWB.

*H 10)* Team identification will moderate the relationship between perceived procedural justice and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between procedural justice and CWB.

*H 11)* Team identification will moderate the relationship between perceived distributive justice and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between distributive justice and CWB.

*H 12)* Team identification will moderate the relationship between perceived interactional justice and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between interactional injustice and CWB.

### Conclusion

In this chapter the researcher has reviewed the conceptual and empirical literature conducted on CWB and/or its similar constructs. Through this study the research sought to

examine CWB research in a sport industry context. Specifically, the researcher investigated the moderating role of team identification on CWB within six Major League Baseball organizations. Additionally, the researcher sought to address the call for further empirical data on CWB. The next chapter includes the information about the methods used for this investigation.

## CHAPTER 3

### Methods

The purpose of this study was to analyze individual characteristics and attributions related to the outcome variable counterproductive work behavior. Additionally, this study examined how team identification influenced this relationship. This chapter describes the methods employed to assess these relationships comprised of: (a) research design, (b) sampling, (c) procedures, and (d) data analysis.

#### *Research Design*

Given that a majority of the research conducted on counterproductive work behavior (CWB) has been dedicated to the understanding of individual characteristics and attribution processes, one of the main goals of this research will be to follow the recommendations of Martinko et al. (2002) within the management literature that CWB is “a behavior by an organizational member that results in harming the organization or its members” (p. 37). Specifically, employment patterns are often a function of cultural, personal, and relational factors. As such, there have been various hypotheses within the management literature about how these processes interact in complex ways. Yet, research on CWB is still developing within sport and has not advanced to the position where academicians can say sport employee attitudes are understood.

According to Burns (2000), there are various advantages and disadvantages to non-experimental survey research. First, the participant is able to answer the questions at his or her own pace, adding to the accuracy of the answers. Another advantage is each participant receives a set of consistently phrased questions. This assists in the minimization of possible inaccuracies due to variations. Despite the advantages, a survey research design holds considerable disadvantages. First, the design does not permit additional requirements for clarity of answers which may not fall in line with the perceptions other respondents or they may not be logical (Burns, 2000). Additionally, a survey design creates an opportunity for misinterpretation by participants. Some participants may construe items differently than intended due to contextual factors and personality. Finally, a vast amount of survey research on CWB tends to suffer from social desirability response bias. Specifically, participants may not be truthful about their counterproductive behaviors as they may want to appear in a good light and not admit to unkind



behaviors toward their place of employment or co-workers. While recognizing the abovementioned disadvantages, a survey research design was considered to be the most suitable means to gather complete information from employees of Major League Baseball organizations.

In this study attempts were made to minimize the disadvantages of CWB research. First, the survey questions were examined by organizational behavior academia's to account accuracy. In addition survey questions were examined by other's to verify clarity. In an attempt to control for socially desirable answers this survey was administered by the primary investigator. The primary investigator purposefully handed out the surveys and was there to collect them. In addition, participants were given a consent letter outlining their confidentiality in this study; no names were collected. Finally, participants were given per-paid postage envelopes along with the survey to mail in their responses if they wanted to take them away from the office to complete.

### *Sample*

Full-time employees from six Major League Baseball (MLB) teams were surveyed. The perspective of this sample is distinctive in the study of the sport industry for various reasons. First, full-time employees frequently interact with both superiors and subordinates throughout their organizations. Due to the nature of their job position, full-time employees frequently have business information distributed from the executive level and access to lower level reactions, which would not be obtainable in other work relationships. Second, employees within the MLB organizations are compensated within a vast salary range, providing an incentive for the successful completion of tasks to earn a promotion or raise. Collectively, these factors provide a distinctive context when exploring CWB within MLB organizations.

Therefore, this study contained psychological factors and experiences influencing CWB within sport organizations. Ideally, a study of this matter would employ qualitative inquires, would be longitudinal, and track various behaviors at key points in an individual's career, and collect information from multiple sources (e.g., direct supervisors). Yet, such a study could potentially be very expensive and could take many years to complete. Thus, this study will be considered a starting point in an effort to provide foundational data for future research on CWB within the sport industry.

The population of interest in this investigation was the full-time employees working for six MLB teams. The sampling method employed in this research was non-probability. The

choice to use non-probability sampling was appropriate based on the reliance of individuals working in the sport industry. Non-probability sampling has frequently been termed convenience sampling. As the term suggests, such samples consist of accessible individuals (e.g., sport industry employees). The inclusion or exclusion of participants places some restraints on selection; however, this type of sample is biased because the selection of individuals is influenced by often unknown and/or uncontrollable variables (Polit & Hungler, 1995). In line with the abovementioned assumptions, non-probability sampling will not provide a representation of the entire sport industry employee population. Therefore, generalizability to the entire sport employee population from this project is not possible.

The sample included 352 full time MLB employees. Participants were identified by their job title and profile on their workplace website. Research participants were asked to provide information by answering a survey questionnaire. Respondents were recruited with the assistance of contacts within the six MLB teams. Each contact was visited by the primary investigator to ensure details of the study were clear. Coded surveys (for an indication of response rates only) were distributed to full-time employees at the office by the principle investigator. Each survey packet included a consent form, the survey, and a self-addressed return envelope, for those choosing to complete the survey at a later date or was away from the office when the forms were distributed. Once each survey was completed the participant placed their survey within a secure lock box within respected office break rooms. This was done to help maintain the employee's confidentiality.

Even though confidentiality was sought in this study, methodological dilemmas must be mentioned. Those studying CWB frequently need to converse with people who wish to remain anonymous. While research on CWB may appear harmless, the participants are at risk of punishment or loss of employment if information they share were to fall into the hands of authority. Therefore, steps were taken to create an acceptable response rate. First, a cover letter was attached to the survey providing confidentiality precautions, it asked for informed consent, and introduced the research. Second, the survey was introduced on team website blogs before the principle investigators visit encouraging employees to respond.

## Procedure

### *Multiple Regression*

In a broad sense, regression analysis is often looking to establish a relationship between a quantitative independent variable and a quantitative dependent variable (Johnson & Christensen, 2002). In a ‘simple regression’ there is only one (quantitative) independent variable and there is only one (quantitative) dependent variable. A regression equation is used to determine the regression line that best fits a pattern of observations. The equation for a simple regression will often look like the following:  $\hat{Y} = a + bX$ , where:  $\hat{Y}$  = the predicted value of the dependent variable;  $a$  = the  $\hat{Y}$  intercept;  $b$  = the regression coefficient, also known as the slope; and  $X$  = the independent variable. However, in this study multiple regression was utilized. Multiple regression was chosen because it allows for the use of two or more independent variables (Johnson & Christensen, 2002).

Multiple regression encases two or more independent variables within the regression equation, therefore, the regression coefficient becomes partial. According to Johnson and Christensen (2002) partial regression coefficients “show the predicted change in  $Y$  given a one-unit change in the independent variable *while controlling for the other independent variable(s) in the equation*” (p.458). It is appropriate to use multiple regression for this research as it contains six independent variables (e.g., procedural justice) and one dependent variable (e.g., CWB).

Once a regression formula was constructed around the six independent variables, the moderator (team identification) and CWB, the data was analyzed through SPSS software. A regression line or best fit line then became a vital tool in establishing (or lack thereof) relationships between the independent variables and CWB along with the relationship strength. For instance, if a line appeared to be vertical from left to right; one can make an assumption that the relationship was positive in nature. However, if the line is downward vertical (right to left) then a negative relationship may exist between the variables. If the regression line was horizontal there may not be an existing relationship between the independent variables and CWB. Furthermore, t-tests were used to determine the strength of relationships among variables.

A hierarchical regression was preformed to conduct the final analysis with the inclusion of a two step process. “It is a common rule of thumb that testing for interaction in multiple regression should only be done hierarchically. That is, one should test for higher-order interactions only when all lower-order interactions and main effects are included in the equation”

(Allison, 2003, 149-150). Therefore, in the first step, core self-evaluations, negative affectivity, positive affectivity, distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, and team identification were added. The interaction effect of any two independent variables can be created by the product values of such variables (Cohen et al., 2003). According to Cohen et al. (2003) before creating an interaction term the two independent variables should be centered to dodge multicollinearity between the computed interaction and the original independent variables. Once the interaction effects were created they were added into the second step of this analysis. Specifically, the interaction effects of team identification and the six independent variables were added to complete the first analysis. For this investigation the presence or the absence of team identification was sought and not levels of team identification.

#### Instrumentation

##### *Counterproductive Work Behavior*

The Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C) (Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, & Kessler, 2006) was utilized to measure CWB. The CWB-C is a 33 item checklist comprised of various existing measures (Fox & Spector, 1999; Hollinger, 1986; Knorz & Zapf, 1996; Neuman & Baron, 1998; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Spector, 1975). Participants were asked to identify how frequently they engage in detailed behaviors while at work. Responses range from 1 (never) to 5 (everyday), with high marks indicating higher levels of CWB. Additionally, the CWB-C scale can be further delineated into five subscales: abuse, withdrawal, theft, production deviance, and sabotage. Spector et al (2006) indicated a coefficient alphas ranging from .42 to .81 for the five subscales identified.

##### *Team Identification*

Team identification was measured using a modified form of the Sports Spectator Identification Scale (SISS) (Wann & Branscombe, 1990, 1993). The instrument was used to establish each subject's identification with the MLB team for which they worked. The SSIS instrument was originally developed by Wann and Branscombe (1990, 1993) with the idea of establishing a "short but reliable measure of team identification" that could be used to investigate how experiences and behaviors of "deeply committed" fans differ from less identified individuals (1993, p.2). The scale is comprised of seven Likert-style (seven point) items created to test team identification as defined by "the extent to which a fan feels a psychological connection to a team and the team's performance are viewed as self-relevant" (Wann, 2006,

pp.332-333). These items have been a part of previous research and Kwon and Armstrong (2002) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .86.

#### *Individual Variables*

*Negative and Positive Affectivity.* Participants were asked to report their own levels of NA and PA on the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). The PANAS utilizes a 5-point measurement scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely) to indicate the degree in which the participant felt different emotions and feelings (e.g., distressed, excited, nervous, and proud). Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1998) reported reliabilities with the PANAS NA and PA scales at .87 and .86, and indicated the correlation between NA and PA was -.09.

*Core Self Evaluations.* Judge et al. (2003) have successfully linked core self-evaluations with job performance and satisfaction; it appears sensible to expand the Core Self-Evaluation Scale (CSES) to other populations and settings. The 12 item scale measures the four components of locus of control, neuroticism, self-efficacy, and self-esteem. Responses to the items were on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. This measure has a .81 test-retest reliability of .81 and a reasonable inter-rater reliability of (Intraclass correlation values) .43.

#### *Situational Variables*

*Procedural Justice.* Employee perceptions of organization-focused procedural justice were measured based on Moorman's (1991) seven-item Procedural Justice Scale. The scale is based on Leventhal's (1980) six criteria (accuracy, bias suppression, consistency, correct ability, ethicality, and representativeness) while focusing on the elements of decision making.

*Interactional Justice.* Employee perceptions of interactional justice were measured on Moorman's (1991) Interactional Justice Scale. The scale is based on suggestions created by Bies and Moag (1986), and examines the degree to which supervisors explained and justified their decision, and treated their subordinates with respect and dignity (e.g., "My supervisor shows concern for my rights as an employee").

*Distributive Justice.* Employee perceptions of organizational focused distributive justice were measured on a five-item scale. The five-items were selected Moorman's (1991) Distributive Justice Scale, and they assess the degree to which rewards received by employees were perceived as fair in relations to their amount of work, work experience, responsibilities,

and other work-related contributions (e.g., “In my organization I am fairly rewarded for the amount of effort I have put in”). All three scales were based on Moorman’s (1991) measure which has reported reliabilities above .90.

#### *Demographic Questions*

Within this project there was a section asking respondents about various demographic items. Items relevant to age, gender, employment status, and tenure were included for classification purposes. This information was used in the descriptive analysis and in comparisons presented in the final project.

#### Conclusion

Through this study the researcher explored counterproductive behaviors in six Major League Baseball organizations. The results provide a better appreciation of how employee perceptions of injustice can affect their behaviors. Additionally, the results contribute to our understanding of how affectivity and team identification can affect behaviors. The next chapter is a presentation of the results of this study.

## CHAPTER 4

### Results

In this chapter the results of the analysis of the data collected from six Major League Baseball (MLB) organizations are reported. The chapter is comprised of a list of all twelve hypotheses included in this investigation, descriptive statistics of the sample used, discussion of the assumptions of multiple regression, hypothesis testing, and a summary of the results. In the conclusion section the results in relation to the research questions are summarized. The three research questions are:

- 1) What role do individual variables play in CWB within a Major League Baseball organization?
- 2) What role do situational variables play in CWB within a Major League Baseball organization?
- 3) What moderating role does team identification play on the relationship between individual and situational variables on CWB within a Major League Baseball organization?

The following twelve hypotheses were developed to answer the three research questions above and were either rejected or not rejected based on the analysis:

- 1) Perceived procedural justice will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors.
- 2) Perceived distributive justice will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors.
- 3) Perceived interactional justice will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors.
- 4) Negative affectivity will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) positive relationship with counterproductive work behaviors.
- 5) Positive affectivity will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors.
- 6) High core self-evaluations will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors.

- 7) Team identification will moderate the relationship between NA and counterproductive work behaviors such that as team identification increases, there will be a decreasing negative relationship between NA and CWB.
- 8) Team identification will moderate the relationship between PA and counterproductive work behaviors such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between PA and CWB.
- 9) Team identification will moderate the relationship between high core self-evaluations and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between core self-evaluations and CWB.
- 10) Team identification will moderate the relationship between perceived procedural justice and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between procedural justice and CWB.
- 11) Team identification will moderate the relationship between perceived distributive justice and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between distributive justice and CWB.
- 12) Team identification will moderate the relationship between perceived interactional justice and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between interactional injustice and CWB.

#### Reliability

Reliability concerns the “quality of a measurement method that suggests that the same data would have been collected each time in repeated observations of the same phenomenon” (Babbie, 2004, p.141). Research measures are used to capture information consistently (Kline, 2005). Therefore, reliability is a vital characteristic in determining trustworthiness in survey instruments (McIntire & Miller, 2000). However, social science research is frequently measuring various difficult variables (e.g. personality) which can lead to researcher error. In simple correlation, multivariate tests, and regression, unreliable measurements result in underestimated relationships or Type II error (Osborne & Waters, 2002). Within multiple regression effect sizes of supplementary variables can be glorified if the covariate is not measured correctly (entire effect would not be removed). This can lead to great concern as the goal of this research is to provide an accurate picture of the sample. Therefore, an a priori evaluation of the reliability scores will be applied.



The utilization of a multi-item measure necessitates assessing internal consistency reliability. McIntire and Miller (2000) characterized internal consistency as “the internal reliability of a measurement instrument; the extent to which each test question has the same value of the attribute the test measures” (p.572). Cronbach’s alpha has been one of the most widely utilized methods for evaluating the internal consistency of a measure. Churchill (1979) vigorously supported the application of Cronbach’s alpha as the suggested measure of internal consistency by writing “coefficient alpha absolutely should be the first measure one calculates to assess the quality of the instrument” (p. 68). Additionally, he highlighted Nunnally’s (1978) use of the square root of the coefficient alpha as the correlation of the k-item test with an errorless score. Therefore, an alpha equaling 1.0 only appears when there is no error and when all items measured have a true score. A common cut-off for a sufficient measure is .70 (Nunnally, 1978; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Scores above the .70 cut-off suggest the measure does correlate well with true scores, and an alpha coefficient below the .70 cut-off suggests the measure does not effectively capture the construct.

#### *Reliability Results*

All scales used in this study have been widely utilized before in previous literature. To demonstrate that the scales performed in a manner similar to previous administrations, the internal consistencies of the constructs were evaluated using Cronbach’s alphas. The examination was conducted to identify any problematic areas. A baseline of a .70 was established to guide this study (Nunnally, 1978). Table 4.1 provides a list of the alphas for each measure used.

#### *Descriptive Statistics and Correlations*

Of the 352 surveys distributed, 301 were deemed complete and usable yielding a response rate of 85%. Of the 301 participants, 208 were male (69%) and 93 were female (31%). All respondents indicated they had at least some college experience. In addition to demographic information on the participants, each survey was coded to indicate which particular team a participant was connected with. “Team 1” contributed 49 usable surveys (16%). “Team 2” and “Team 3” contributed 51 and 52 usable surveys representing 17% each. “Team 4,” “Team 5,” and “Team 6” added 46, 55, and 48 completed surveys accounting for approximately 15%, 18%, and 16% of the usable surveys. Therefore, the researcher concluded the usable surveys were adequately distributed amongst the six organizations for this investigation. All together the six

MLB teams under investigation reported employing 882 full time employees at the time of this investigation.

The descriptive statistics for both the personality and situational variables are displayed in Table 4.1; Table 4.3 is a correlation matrix for all variables analyzed within the study. The team identification construct was measured using a modified version of the SSIS instrument developed by Wann and Branscombe (1990, 1993). In this study, 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = disagree some/agree some, 4 = disagree, and 5 = strongly disagree and Table 4.2 displays the frequency counts for the items under investigation. In this particular study the frequency counts and percentages indicating low or lower levels of team identification outnumbered those who could consider themselves high or in higher levels of team identification. Even though levels of team identification were not under investigation here, these percentages may explain why team identification did not have a more significant role in overall findings.

*Table 4.1 – Descriptive Statistics for Variables under Investigation*

	Mean	SD	Cronbach's Alpha
CWB	2.555	1.040	0.966
Negative Affectivity	2.645	1.366	0.897
Positive Affectivity	3.274	1.439	0.917
Core Self-Evaluations	3.669	1.193	0.887
Distributive Justice	5.086	1.257	0.810
Procedural Justice	2.857	1.273	0.849
Interactional Justice	3.345	1.313	0.864
Team Identification	4.166	1.122	0.964

*Table 4.2 – Frequency Counts for Team Identification*

	Strongly Agreed (1)	Agreed (2)	Disagree Some/Agree Some (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly Disagree (5)	Total
Item 1	18 (0.003%)	26 (0.086%)	78 (25.9%)	92 (31.5%)	87 (28.9%)	301
Item 2	13 (0.043%)	16 (0.053%)	68 (22.5%)	101 (33.5%)	103 (34.2%)	301
Item 3	21 (0.069%)	60 (19.9%)	51 (16.9%)	87 (28.9%)	82 (27.2%)	301
Item 4	16 (0.053%)	13 (0.043%)	98 (32.5%)	93 (30.8%)	81 (26.9%)	301
Item 5	16 (0.053%)	15 (0.049%)	95 (31.5%)	90 (29.9%)	85 (28.2%)	301

Correlations among the variables are presented in Table 4.3. The correlations were analyzed with all variables (negative affectivity, positive affectivity, core self-evaluations, distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, and team identification); the matrix indicated a high correlation (.804) between core self-evaluations and distributive justice suggesting the possibility of multicollinearity between the two variables. However, the correlation between core self-evaluations and distributive justice was not above the .85 threshold as suggested by Bohrnstedt and Carter (1971) and Schroeder, Lander, and Levine-Silverman (1990) so both variables were retained for the subsequent analysis.

Table 4.3 – Correlations for CWB Investigation

		Correlations							
	CSES	PA	NA	DJ	PJ	IJ	TEAM ID	CWB	Gender
Core Self-Evaluations	1								
Positive Affectivity	.411**	1							
Negative Affectivity	-.509**	-.548**	1						
Distributive Justice	.805**	.346**	-.459**	1					
Procedural Justice	.203**	.116*	-.190**	.407**	1				
Interactional Justice	.452**	.151**	-.134*	.383**	.220**	1			
Team Identification	.132*	0.099	-0.109	.129*	-0.078	0.089	1		
Counterproductive Work Behavior	-.199**	-.669**	.487**	-0.103	-0.017	-0.05	-.172**	1	
Gender	0.04	0.052	-0.052	-0.016	-.137*	0.029	0.049	-0.057	1

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

### Assumptions of Multiple Regression

Multiple regression is conducted to examine the amount of variance explained in a dependent variable based on more than one independent variable. In addition, the contribution each independent variable makes to the dependent variable can be established (Pallant, 2001). Before the hypotheses can be examined for significance the data was checked for assumptions, predictive power, multicollinearity, and normalcy.

Multiple regression analysis was built upon several assumptions including sample size, reliable measures, linear relationships, normal distribution, and homoscedasticity of residuals (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). The first assumption establishes the sample size must be large enough to be generalized to a population from which the sample was taken (Pallant, 2001). For this investigation, there are eight independent variables (including team identification); using Tabachnick and Fidell's (1996) equation ( $N > 50 + 8m$ ) where m is the number of independent variables, the minimum sample size needed for this study was 114, therefore this assumption was satisfied.

The second assumption is reliable measures were used. All survey instruments for this study produced reliable Cronbach alpha scores higher than the recommended cutoff point of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). A linear relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable is the third assumption. To check this assumption curve estimation was run

in SPSS for each potential relationship. Linear relationships were apparent based on visual inspection. The fourth assumption was that the data was normally distributed. In order to investigate this assumption, the skewness and the kurtosis scores for all the variables were reviewed. The skewness is characterized by the distribution's symmetry near the mean and the kurtosis is a measure of the peakness (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) skewness values greater than two is considered a non-normal distribution and a kurtosis greater than two indicates the variation of the distribution could be undervalued. However, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) a kurtosis statistic above two is not considered a problem when the sample size is greater than 100. In this case, the same size was greater than 100 ( $n=301$ ). Within this study the only variable producing a kurtosis above two was procedural justice. In addition, histograms (see Appendix B) were produced to examine the normalcy of the data using the standardized residuals; the residuals appeared to violate the normality assumption as the histograms were not centered towards the middle of the graph. This does not mean the results were wrong; but instead the findings may be under reported. Finally, P plots (see Appendix B) were used to examine the standardized residuals to satisfy the final assumption of homoscedasticity of the residuals. A probability plot is considered normal if the standardized residuals show a straight line and a reasonable assumption can be made that the observed sample is normally distributed. Conversely, if the points are not on a straight line an assumption can be made indicating the errors are from an independent sample and are not normal (Johnson & Christensen, 2000). In this case the residuals appeared to hug the regression line closely; therefore, the researcher determined the data to be normally distributed.

Hypothesis testing was conducted using both correlations and multiple regression as it was important to assess the predicted relationships between the variables. In the case of multiple regression, beta weights are useful because they can be compared. The regression coefficient was positive between NA and CWB suggesting a positive relationship. However, if the regression coefficient was negative between PA and CWB then a negative relationship can be established from this data. Consistent with previous research there was a positive correlation between CWB and NA, and a negative correlation between CWB and PA (see Table 4.3). The results provide evidence to support the idea that individuals who see their world through a negative lens are more likely to engage in counterproductive behaviors, compared to their counterparts. In addition to the significant correlations of NA and PA with CWB, there were non-significant

correlations between the three justices (procedural, distributive, and interactional) and CWB. This was an interesting non-significant finding as it seems to contradict previous literature on justice and CWB. Additionally, one of the main premises for this investigation was the inclusion of the moderating effect of team identification in the relationship between the independent variables and CWB. For this portion of the hypotheses testing regression analysis was used to determine if there was such an interaction.

Multicollinearity is undesirable within multiple regression because “if the independent variables are highly correlated, none of them will demonstrate a substantial unique contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable” (Wampold & Freund, 1987, p. 378). Additionally, multicollinearity can create “poor estimates of population parameters” (Wampold & Freund, 1987, p.378) which can lower the possibility of significant findings. Bohrnstedt and Carter (1971) and Schroeder, Lander, and Levine-Silverman (1990) both suggest a cutoff point of .85 amongst correlations as an indication of multicollinearity.

In this investigation the correlation between core self-evaluations and distributive justice (.804) could be considered a sign of multicollinearity but it was not above the .85 threshold as suggested by Bohrnstedt and Carter (1971) and Schroeder et al. (1990) so both variables were kept in the analysis. Two additional steps were taken to check for multicollinearity: 1) the variance inflation factors (VIF) factors were inspected for high levels and 2) the beta weights were examined. The higher the VIF or the smaller the tolerance, the greater the chance of multicollinearity amongst the variables used. Previous research on VIF and tolerance has suggested no exact cut-off value for both, yet Cohen, West, Aiken, and Cohen (2003, p.423) have suggested any VIF above 10 (equaling a tolerance of 0.1) indicates there is multicollinearity amongst variables. Upon examination of the coefficient table a beta weight greater than 1 was present for interactional justice. The beta weight above 1 for interactional justice indicates it may be redundant with another variable in the analysis. In this case having multicollinearity in the data may weaken the predictive power and overall analysis. However, if interactional justice were to be removed from the analysis degrees of freedom may be lost; therefore, interactional justice remained in the study. Nevertheless, the predictive power of the second model was .549 ( $r^2 = .549$ ).

*Hypotheses Testing*

To examine the hypotheses the correlations between all independent variables and CWB were examined and hierarchical multiple regression was conducted using a two-step process. The independent variables (Allison, 2003) were entered (e.g., negative affectivity, positive affectivity, distributive justice, procedural justice, and team identification) in the first step and the results are displayed in Model 1 (see Table 4.4). Interaction terms were then developed by multiplying each independent variable with team identification (i.e., the moderator under investigation in this study) (Cortina, 1993). Once the interaction terms were developed they were entered into the second step in the linear regression to test for variance explained and significance along with the independent variables, and are depicted in the results of Model 2 in Table 4.4. The R<sup>2</sup> change between the two models (Model 1 without the interaction and Model 2 with the interaction) was at 0.028. When the interaction effect was added in the second model the R<sup>2</sup> was low at .028 so the variance explained by the second model was only two percent higher than the first model. The following tables (see Table 4.4 and Table 4.5) present the evidence produced by the linear regression:

*Table 4.4 - Models Tested with Independent Variables and Interaction Effects*

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.722 <sup>a</sup>	0.521	0.51	16.8014
2	.741 <sup>b</sup>	0.549	0.529	16.47653

a. Predictors: (Constant), teamid, PJ, PA, IJ, NA, DJ, CSES

b. Predictors: (Constant), teamid, PJ, PA, IJ, NA, DJ, CSES, PJTEAM\_INT, NATEAM\_INT, PATEAM\_INT, CSESTEAM\_INT, IJTEAM\_INT, DJTEAM\_INT

Table 4.5 – Coefficients Table with Independent Variables and Interaction Effects

Coefficients <sup>a</sup>					
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	92.985	9.461		9.828	.000
Core Self Evaluations	.024	.184	.010	.130	.897
Positive Affectivity	-1.318	.108	-.601	-12.226	.000
Negative Affectivity	.613	.127	.256	4.844	.000
Distributive Justice	1.143	.370	.234	3.093	.002
Procedural Justice	-.008	.158	-.002	-.053	.958
Interactional Justice	-.026	.148	-.008	-.177	.860
Team Identification	-.527	.189	-.115	-2.787	.006
2 (Constant)	21.898	38.266		.572	.568
Core Self Evaluations	.133	1.012	.056	.132	.895
Positive Affectivity	-2.165	.518	-.987	-4.181	.000
Negative Affectivity	1.024	.498	.428	2.055	.041
Distributive Justice	2.913	2.269	.595	1.284	.200
Procedural Justice	-2.201	.940	-.650	-2.341	.020
Interactional Justice	3.193	1.014	1.003	3.150	.002
Team Identification	2.802	1.786	.613	1.569	.118
NA*TEAM	-.022	.024	-.228	-.955	.340
PA*TEAM	.039	.024	.496	1.670	.096
CSES*TEAM	-.004	.048	-.060	-.090	.928
DJ*TEAM	-.081	.107	-.588	-.755	.451
PJ*TEAM	.096	.042	.679	2.261	.024
IJ*TEAM	-.145	.046	-1.324	-3.162	.002

a. Dependent Variable: CWB



Hypothesis 1: Perceived procedural justice will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors. The data did not support this hypothesis as the relationship was not significant at the .05 level ( $\beta = -.002, p = .958$ ) in model one, but a significant relationship was presented in model two at the .05 level ( $\beta = -.650, p = .020$ ).

Hypothesis 2: Perceived distributive justice will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors. This hypothesis was supported at the .05 level ( $\beta = .234, p = .002$ ) in model one, but was not supported in model two ( $\beta = .595, p = .200$ ), as the relationship was the opposite of what was predicted. A possible explanation is that distributive justice provided participants the freedom to respond to counterproductive behaviors. That is, those participants who had high distributive justice felt as if they were able to openly answer CWB questions without fear of retaliation.

Hypothesis 3: Perceived interactional justice will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors. This hypothesis was not supported at the .05 level in model one ( $\beta = -.008, p = .860$ ), but it was in model two ( $\beta = 1.003, p = .002$ ), as the relationship was the opposite of what was predicted. In addition to a non-significant finding; multicollinearity was a concern after running the initial analysis. Within the second model (displayed in Table 4.4) a beta weight of 1.003 was computed. Multicollinearity can exist when high correlations are present between independent variables. That is, the two variables add the same information or overlap in the regression analysis thus making it difficult to determine uniqueness of the independent variables. In addition to high correlations, beta weight's greater than 1.0 should also be considered an indication of multicollinearity. In this specific hypothesis the beta weight was above 1.0

Hypothesis 4: NA will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) positive relationship with counterproductive work behaviors. As NA increases employee counterproductive work behaviors are expected to increase. This hypothesis did receive support as the relationship between NA and counterproductive work behavior was significant at the .05 level in model one ( $\beta = .256, p = .000$ ) and in model two ( $\beta = .428, p = .041$ ). This finding supports previous literature on negative affectivity and CWB (see Crede, Chernyshenko, Stark, Dalal, & Bashshur, 2007; Lindsay, 2003; Spector & Fox, 2002).

Hypothesis 5: PA will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors. The results indicate support for this hypothesis as a

significant negative relationship between an individual's PA and counterproductive behaviors at the .05 level ( $\beta = -.601, p = .000$ ) in model one and in model two ( $\beta = -.987, p = .000$ ).

Hypothesis 6: High core self-evaluations will have a significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors. Those with higher levels of core self-evaluations are expected to engage in fewer counterproductive work behaviors. This hypothesis was not supported in model one ( $\beta = .010, p = .897$ ) or in model two ( $\beta = .056, p = .895$ ).

After hypotheses 1 to 6 were examined to explore potential relationships between the independent variables of interest and CWB, hypotheses 7 through 12 were explored to investigate the possible moderating effect of team identification. Even though a non-significant result was indicated in some of the direct effects on CWB the decision was made to continue examining hypotheses 7 through 12 because this was an exploratory investigation. Team identification has been a variable of interest in various sport consumer research (e.g., Wann et al. 2005, Wann et al. 1999) but it has not been a widely used topic of interest in sport organizational behavior.

Hypothesis 7: Team identification will moderate the relationship between NA and counterproductive work behaviors such that as team identification increases, there will be a decreasing positive relationship between NA and CWB will decrease. After conducting a multiple regression with CWB as the constant value (NA as the predictor and entering team identification as the moderating value) there was no significant interaction effect; the hypothesis was not supported at the .05 level ( $\beta = -.228, p = .340$ ).

Hypothesis 8: Team identification will moderate the relationship between PA and counterproductive work behaviors such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between PA and CWB. Though a multiple regression analysis the interaction did not support this hypothesis at the .05 level as ( $\beta = .496, p = .096$ ).

Hypothesis 9: Team identification will moderate the relationship between high core self-evaluations and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between core self-evaluations and CWB. This hypothesis was not supported at the .05 level ( $\beta = -.060, p = .928$ ).

Hypothesis 10: Team identification will moderate the relationship between perceived procedural justice and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between procedural justice and CWB. After conducting the

linear regression analysis the data did support this hypothesis ( $\beta = .679, p = .024$ ) at the .05 level. The interaction effects are displayed in Figure 4.1.

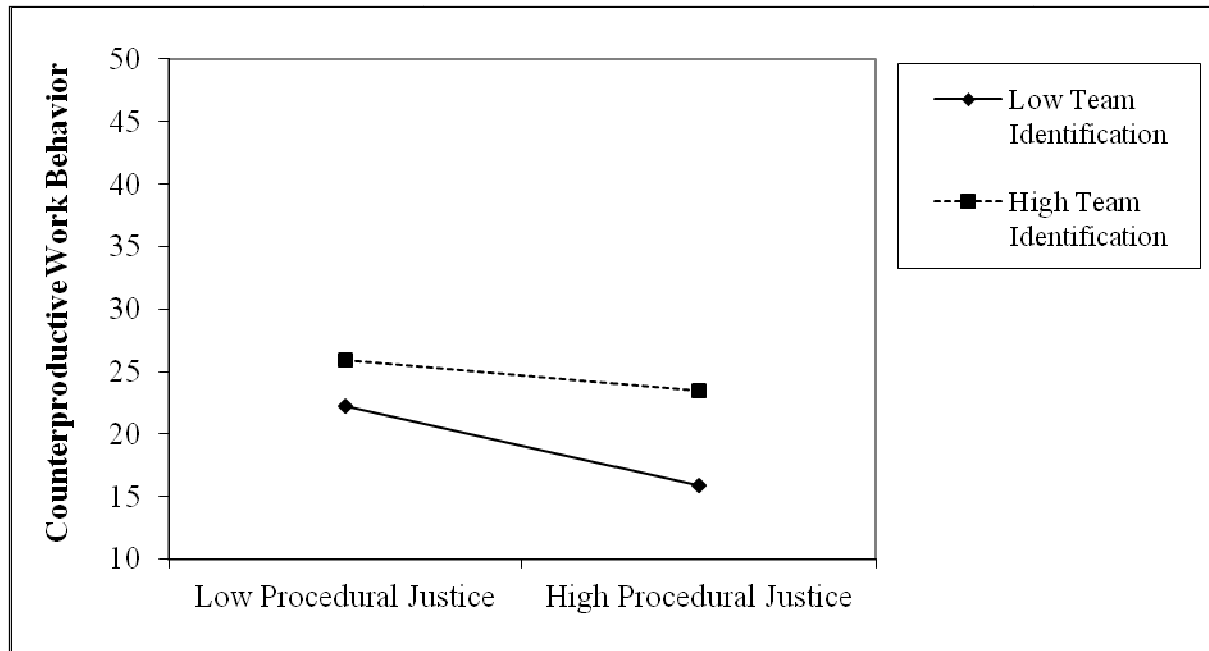


Figure 4.1 – Interaction Effects of Procedural Justice and Team Identification on CWB

Hypothesis 11: Team identification will moderate the relationship between perceived distributive justice and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between distributive justice and CWB. The data did not support the hypothesis ( $\beta = -.588, p = .451$ ).

Hypothesis 12: Team identification will moderate the relationship between perceived interactional justice and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between interactional justice and CWB. This hypothesis was supported at the .05 level ( $\beta = -1.324, p = .002$ ); however, with a beta weight above 1.0 multicollinearity was a concern.

#### Additional Findings Generated

The results associated with Model 1 provide evidence there was a significant relationship between team identification and CWB at the .05 level ( $\beta = -.115, p = .006$ ). This finding was not replicated in Model 2. The finding in model one suggests evidence of a relationship between

team identification and CWB. In addition, a significant negative correlation was present between the two variables (-.172). These significant findings are a good starting point when looking at the behaviors of MLB employees. They suggest as team identification drops, employee counterproductive behaviors at work may increase; so therefore, further research needs to be conducted on the relationship between team identification and CWB.

Additional analysis was conducted using the demographic variables: gender, income, and highest level of education completed. First, an independent t-test was used to test for the difference between males and females in this sample. In this sample, the Levene's Test for Equality of Variances was .176 which is larger than  $\beta = .05$ , so it is assumed that the variances are equal. In other words, the t-test failed to reveal a statistically reliable difference between the mean number of males and females on CWB. Nevertheless, it is important to consider there were only 93 females in this study compared to 208 males. Respondents were asked to provide their annual income within this study. The scale was coded as: 1 = less than \$25,000; 2 = \$25,001 - \$40,000; 3 = \$40,001 - \$55,000; 4 = \$55,001 - \$70,000; 5 = \$70,001 - \$85,000; 6 = \$85,001 - \$100,000; 7 = \$100,001 - \$115,000; 8 = \$115,001 - \$130,000; and 9 = over \$130,000. In this study, the t-test resulted in a significant finding as p-value was less than .05 at .011.

Besides indicating their gender and income, participants were asked to indicate their highest level of education completed. The scale was scored as: 1 = less than high school; 2 = high school; 3 = some college; 4 = 2 year college degree; 5 = 4 year college degree; and 6 = graduate school. The t-test indicated there was a non-significant relationship between high or low education levels on CWB at the .05 level as  $p = .129$ .

## Conclusion

The current study highlights the relationships between individual variables (e.g., House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991) and organizational/situational variables (e.g., Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989) on behaviors at work. The effect of two individual variables (negative affectivity and positive affectivity) on employee behaviors in the current study was found to be consistent with the Davis-Blake and Pfeffer (1989) dispositional approach argument. Their argument suggests employee behaviors are affected by stable individual traits. The results in the current study provide additional evidence to support this argument. Conversely, the 'situational approach' argues employee behaviors are a reaction to situational characteristics and/or the interaction

between an individual and a situation (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989). Instead of solely concentrating on one side or the other, this study attempted to look at a handful of variables including both situational and personal approaches. The intent was to provide a starting point in studying the employment population within the sport industry; therefore, variables were selected based on previous management literature. The study's findings did have both academic and managerial implications, which are discussed in the following chapter.

## CHAPTER 5

### Discussion

#### *Introduction*

The general intent of this study was to measure the counterproductive work behavior's (CWB) of full-time employees within a handful of Major League Baseball (MLB) organizations. In Chapter 4, the results of the study were reported. The results of the study provided evidence supporting research of CWB within the sport industry, and expanding the implications of team identification past sport consumer research to the workforce of such organizations. CWB was shown to be impacted by some individual and situational variables included in this investigation. Based on the results, the interpretation, managerial implications, limitations, and future research directions will be discussed.

The results present important implications for policies and strategic management within Major League Baseball organizations. Sport permeates society and is a multi-billion dollar industry. Organizations who deliver sport and entertainment have ultimately grown due to interest and proposed economic impact. Thus, the importance of efficient and effective management has grown, and the concept of management has evolved accordingly. Management involves the creation of purposeful plans, goals, actions, and decision making which enables them to reach their objective(s). Strategic management according to Pearce and Robinson (2007) involves: 1) action and decision plans surfacing from the organization's mission, 2) accounts for both external and internal environment, 3) contains both long-term and short-term plans and objectives, and 4) entails choices in resource allocation with respect to people, reward systems, structures, tasks, and technologies. A policy is a written statement that includes procedures to solve reoccurring problems equitably and consistently. Policies are frequently written to deal with issues impacting the organization as a whole. They often are responsible for broad issues within the workplace. As Kemper (1966) argues an organization's values are vital influences in employee behavior; therefore, this study highlights the need for management to understand the environment in which their subordinates work. Specifically, Graber and Kilpatrick (2008) posit leaders "need to stress that [the organization's values] contribute to the competitiveness and success of the organization" (p. 194). As a result, strategic management needs to comprehend counterproductive behaviors. According to Hums and MacLean (2004)

“Strategy is extremely important because sport organizations have historically had reputations for ineffective planning. Many amateur sport groups developed from informal beginnings and were dominated by volunteer, nonprofessional staff. Today, the stakes are high, and poor management can mean not getting to the medal podium or losing a billion-dollar product line. It is accepted that planning is the foundation of effective strategic management” (p. 47).

One way to potentially limit CWB within sport organizations such as MLB teams would be to consider the sport fan as an employee and incorporating this within strategic management and policy making. If for example, evidence has suggested there is a self-serving bias amongst sport consumers (e.g., Madrigal & Chen, 2008; Wann & Schrader, 2000) why not look at highly identified fans as a more qualified employee, if all job candidates are equally qualified for the position? For sport organizations, team identification may be a vital component to consider (along with job qualifications) when evaluating applicants, who if selected, would be faced with a potential lifestyle change apt to counterproductive behaviors. In addition to asking questions pertaining to a job applicant’s team identification, it is also important to screen for potential counterproductive behaviors as well. For instance, in future endeavors, job applicants should be asked about their ability to separate their job from being a fan. In MLB, applicants should be asked if they watch that particular team or if they follow the team. A line of questioning such as this may inform the sport organization if an applicant is more apt to be dedicated to their job or not.

Linear regression equations were used to determine if variations in the independent variables could explain variations in CWB. In this investigation, employee NA and PA did significantly predict CWB. Yet, procedural justice did not while distributive justice did. Furthermore, team identification did not assist in the prediction of CWB when it moderated the relationship between distributive and procedural justice and CWB. The results of this investigation indicated additional research and data analysis is needed to gain a better insight into the predictors of CWB and on the effects team identification has on these relationships.

Workplace behavior is an essential factor for the entire organization as well as the employee. Productive work is frequently characterized as completing expected goals, tasks, and objectives the sport organization puts forth. On the other hand, counterproductive behavior is a

viable issue costing organizations resources, time, and money. This behavior can vary in forms such as tardiness, theft, laziness, absenteeism, etc. Together these behaviors as a whole can have severe consequences to any sport organization if regulations and procedures are not in place to combat them. Given the possible consequences of unchecked counterproductive behaviors the following research questions were proposed:

1. What role do individual variables play in CWB within a Major League Baseball organization?
2. What role do situational variables play in CWB within a Major League Baseball organization?
3. What moderating role does team identification play on the relationship between individual and situational variables on CWB within a Major League Baseball organization?

The investigation of CWB is important to sport industry practitioners and academics because the appearance of these behaviors at work can result in significant costs (socially and financially). As a result the current study advances the research done on CWB by investigating an often difficult environment to penetrate: the sport industry. “Effective functioning and competitiveness of an organization” (Tan & Tan, 2008, p.90) depends upon an understanding of CWB and employee behavior. Therefore, the findings of this dissertation lend support to a key argument that an individual’s affect, team identification and organizational justice may play a significant role in employee’s behavior.

#### *Situational Variables*

For this dissertation organizational justice was investigated, as previous literature has suggested a persistent relationship with CWB. While the results were mixed, a significant relationship between distributive justice and CWB was indicated. On the other hand there was a non-significant result between procedural justice and CWB. At a glance this non-significant result seems to be inconsistent with previous research since all three organizational justice variables have been linked to CWB (e.g., Ambrose et al., 2002; Aquino et al., 1999; Berry, 2007; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

Procedural justice is frequently characterized by the “adherence to fair process criteria” (Colquitt, 2001, p. 386). According to Leventhal and colleagues (Leventhal, 1976; Leventhal et al., 1980) there are six fundamental rules when focusing on procedural justice. These rules are



(1) consistency over time and across people, (2) bias suppression (as bias does not affect decision makers), (3) accuracy of information, (4) whether or not policies are correctable, (5) rules are representative of the people involved, company values, and views, and (6) ethics. In this study (Hypothesis 1) a non-significant relationship between procedural justice and CWB was established in model one ( $\beta = -.002$ ,  $p = .958$ ) but a significant result was indicated in model two ( $\beta = -.650$ ,  $p = .020$ ). Individuals were asked various questions pertaining to the procedures of the organization and indicated a negative relationship with CWB. As participant's perceived fair policies in the organization their rate of CWB dropped, and as participants perceived unfair procedures they indicated higher levels of CWB. The non-significant finding in model one may be attributed to participants not personally experiencing lower levels of procedural justice at work. In addition, participants may be experiencing lower levels of procedural justice but they may be conditioned to it; therefore, not recognizing it anymore. Finally, this non-significant may indicate that the relationship is just not there. The results of model two is of no surprise and is consistent with previous literature on procedural justice (e.g., Folger, 1977, Leventhal, 1976). This study produced mixed results on the relationship between procedural justice and CWB. As a result further analysis is needed on this relationship.

The second hypothesis posited perceived distributive justice will have a negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors. The hypothesis was not supported; instead the relationship was opposite of what was initially predicted at the .05 level ( $\hat{\alpha} = .586$ ,  $p = .025$ ) and the correlation was non-significant ( $-.103$ ). "Distributive justice deals with the perceived fairness of outcomes; it has the potential to have strong implications in the organizational context, of which distribution of outcomes is an integral part" (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001, p. 280). The non-significant results for hypothesis 2 could be explained by a sense of saliency amongst participants. If the organizational culture has accepted unfair procedures intertwined within its environment, it is plausible that the participants might not recognize them. In addition, this result could be produced by the nature of this study. This was a cross-sectional study so perceived distributive justices that happened a week ago or even two weeks ago participants may not recall them. Therefore, it is noteworthy to consider a future longitudinal study on the relationship between distributive justices and CWB within sport organizations.

The third type of justice; interactional justice was hypothesized to have a significant effect on CWB. Specifically, hypothesis 3 states perceived interactional justice will have a

significant ( $p > .05$ ) negative relationship with counterproductive work behavior. Per se, interactional justice relates to the communication processes between management (source) and employees (recipient) and includes perceptions of various treatments, such as, respect, honesty, and politeness (Bies & Moag, 1986; Tyler & Bies, 1990). A supervisor represents a sport organization's authority, how they interact with employees has representative meaning (Bies, 2001). Interactional justice by a supervisor is perhaps the utmost genuine violation an employee may face at work (Inness, Barling, & Turner, 2005). Instances of supervisor justice can build on each other and cause "white-hot" emotions within employees (Barclay, et al., 2005; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Such negative feelings may be heightened by predisposed negative affectivity as well.

In this particular study multicollinearity was a concern with interactional justice. Specifically, a beta weight above 1.0 did appear in the analysis (which is an indicator of multicollinearity). As multicollinearity was apparent it does place a question on the strength of the current analysis and how much uniqueness interactional justice was lending to the study. In future studies, interactional justice may be removed from the study in an attempt to combat multicollinearity.

#### *Individual Variables*

The fourth hypothesis stated that negative affectivity would have a positive relationship with CWB. The results from this investigation suggested a positive significant relationship between the two variables and are in line with previous literature (e.g., Jawahar, 2002; Neuman & Baron, 1998; Watson & Clark, 1984). Specifically, negative affectivity reveals an individual's propensity to experience negative emotional states, feelings of being dissatisfied and distressed across differing times and places (Watson & Clark, 1984). Those that "dwell on the negative" are characterized as having negative affectivity thus they are more likely to be affected by aversive actions than their counterparts who are low in negative affectivity (Jawahar, 2002). Neuman and Baron (1998) posited that CWB can result as negative emotions and affective aggression.

An individual's levels of NA have been related to aggressive behaviors within the workplace (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Hepworth & Towler, 2004). Additionally, Aquino et al. (1999) provided evidence linking NA with interactional and organizational forms of deviance. The results from this dissertation were consistent with previous research as NA has been linked

with elements of CWB such as abusive behavior, overt acts, threats, work avoidance, and work sabotage (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 1999). Similar studies have been used to look at the affective state of NA with CWB. Douglas and Martinko (2001) and Penney and Spector (2003) found correlations of .21 and .31 with CWB by employing the NA subscale of the PANAS.

In keeping with previous research on NA and CWB, NA correlated with CWB at .487 indicating an even stronger connection amongst participants compared to Douglas and Martinko (2001) and Penney and Spector (2003). In addition, a significant result was also indicated in the multiple regression ( $\beta = 4.27, p = .040$ ). These results provide more evidence indicating that people who view their surroundings as primarily negative will act in negative ways toward their organization.

Conversely, PA reveals the extent to which people view their environment in a positive manner (Watson et al., 1998), while having a tendency to experience positive emotions. As hypothesis 5 states PA will have a negative relationship with CWB. The results of this dissertation supported this hypothesis as a significant negative correlation was established and this relationship was consistent with previous literature. Specifically, those who possess higher levels of PA view themselves as efficacious and as active and alert (George, 1992). On the other hand, individuals with low levels of PA experience lower efficacy, feel less active, and have a lower sense of well-being (Watson & Clark, 1984). Evidence has indicated PA and NA are frequently independent; as individuals can be high on one and low on the other, high on both, or low on both (Watson & Tellegen, 1985).

Positive emotions lead people to feel, think, and act in ways promoting both involvement and resource building (Elliot & Thrash, 2002; Lyubomirsky, 2001). A person experiencing a positive emotion or mood has a tendency to interpret a circumstance as desirable despite the actual situation; therefore it is logical to assume higher levels of PA will result in less counterproductive acts at work.

Durham, Locke, and Judge's (2002) research on core self-evaluations assessed its relationship to job related behaviors. The author's evidence indicated individuals with positive core self-evaluations influenced self-reported job behaviors (e.g., using independent judgment, seeking promotions and raises by asking supervisors, motivating employees, and seeking greater challenges at work). In this investigation produced interesting results as CSES was not significantly related to CWB in any model; yet, it produced a significant negative correlation

with CWB at the .01 level (-0.199). These results seem to contradict previous literature on CSES and organizational performance (see Judge et al., 2000). This contradiction of previous literature may be the result of core-self evaluations being related to positive organizational performance and not the opposite (CWB); nevertheless, further research needs to be conducted to understand this potential relationship. In addition, CSES was highly correlated with distributive justice (see Table 4.3) at .805 which can also be seen as a sign of multicollinearity. This high correlation makes it difficult to interpret the uniqueness of each variable to the study. In the future, core-self evaluations may be removed from an analysis such as this to limit multicollinearity concerns.

#### *Moderating Effect of Team Identification*

Team identification has been the focus of various sport consumer research and has often been defined as the extent to which a fan perceives a psychological connection to their team (e.g., Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann et al., 2001). When an individual perceives a strong sense of attachment to a team, they may experience an elevated state of well-being because of their connection. Additionally, this perceived relationship with the team leads to a greater feeling of belongingness (Gibson, Willming, & Holdnak, 2002; Mael & Ashforth, 2001). Sport consumer research has confirmed this effect with sport fans and their perceived associations through a variety of outlets. Specifically, previous literature has illustrated elevated levels of identification with a team have been related to elevated levels of positive emotions, collective and personal self-esteem, vigor, openness, social life satisfaction, and extroversion (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Wann, Dimmock, & Grove, 2003; Wann, 2006). Furthermore, higher levels of team identification have been associated with lower levels of alienation, negative emotions, depression, and loneliness within sports fans (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Wann, 1994; Wann 2006; Wann, Dimmock, & Grove, 2003; Wann, Dunham, Bryd, & Keenan, 2004; Wann, Inman, Ensor, Gates, & Caldwell, 1999; Wann & Pierce, 2005; Wann, Walker, Cygan, Kawase, & Ryan, 2005).

An important piece of this investigation was the possible moderating effect of team identification. Rather than focusing on just the possible relationship between individual's perceived justices and affectivity with CWB, this study explored a potential mechanism that may moderate these relationships: team identification. This study indicated perceptions of procedural justice and team identification may take a toll on counterproductive behaviors at work. As a

result, this study can be considered one of the first to suggest that perceived procedural justice and team identification will alter CWB at work.

This study incorporated a highly investigated sport fan variable into an organizational employment setting. One argument that is frequently heard in the sport industry is: Why do people want to work in sport when the hours are consistently long and pay scales are low? In a practical sense the answer to this ongoing debate is rooted in an individual's psychological connection with the team. Consequently, it is practically significant to investigate how team identification may alter an individual's attitude, cognitions, and behaviors at work. This study examined the moderating effects of team identification on the relationships between three justice variables and two personality variables.

The findings indicate team identification does play a moderating role in the relationship between procedural justice and CWB. As mentioned above, team identification has been linked with positive emotions, collective and personal self-esteem, vigor, openness, social life satisfaction, and extroversion so it is logical to argue that individuals who highly identify with the team may make rationalizations for perceived injustices at work. Specifically, entry-level and/or middle management employees within a MLB baseball organization may settle for less pay and longer hours because they identify with the team. In a way, this 'wanting' to work for a sport organization who will undoubtedly pay individuals less (because the demand is high), give individual's less vacation time (based upon season), and long work weeks (sometimes without a day off depending on a home-stand) goes against what people are taught from a very young age in the United States. To a lot of people in the United States, money and time-off equal success (Derber, 1979; Kasser & Ryan, 1993). So if working in sport goes against a lot of what American culture suggests, then why such a high demand for a position with a sport's organization? Team identification may hold the key into answering this great mystery of sport employment demand. In other words, people may be willing to accept lower paying positions with the organization based on their wanting to belong with the team and injustices at work may be overlooked based on their sense of identification. Yet, team identification did not play a significant moderating role in the relationship between distributive justice and CWB. This non-significant finding may indicate team identification may not alter the relationship between distributive justice and CWB. Those employees who feel as if the distribution is fair at work may have lower levels of CWB no matter what their identification is at work.

The moderating effect of team identification on the relationships between NA and PA and CWB were investigated in hypotheses 7 and 8. Interestingly enough a non-significant finding was generated in both hypotheses when multiple regression was conducted. Before the analysis was conducted hypothesis 7 declared as team identification increases, the positive relationship between NA and CWB would decrease. This was a logical hypothesis due to previous literature based upon the sport fandom literature's findings on team identification.

Hypothesis 8, on the other hand, suggested that as team identification increases, the negative relationship between PA and CWB will increase. Again the data produced a non-significant finding. Just as in hypothesis 7, this finding could be a result of team identification not moderating the relationship between PA and CWB; but instead should be looked at as two separate independent variables in future investigations. This finding also seemed interesting as the relationship between PA and CWB itself was significant within the regression analysis.

Team identification was used mainly as a moderating effect between various individual and situational variables; however, it seems plausible that team identification may not be a moderating effect but an individual variable itself. This idea seems reasonable given the notion proposed by Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). It would seem reasonable that highly identified employees would view their supervisor's and organization as fair and impartial, given those are positive group characteristics. Consequently, they may see their work environment through 'rose colored glasses' no matter what the situation and may allow things to slide at work due to their positive nature. In addition, these results may be due to the participants in this particular study having lower levels of team identification (see Table 4.2). The frequencies of team identification indicated 29.9% of respondents were very low in team identification while only two percent were very high in team identification. Although this study did not seek to establish high and low levels of team identification; these frequencies may indicate why team identification did not have more of an impact on the relationships with CWB. Specifically, in this case team identification could not impact the relationships because it simply was not there. Table 5.1 shows how the results of this study either refuted or reinforced the presented research hypotheses. From these results, it is imperative to indicate how the results influence both practitioners and academics alike and suggest routes for future research.

*Table 5.1 Hypothesis Testing for Current Investigation*

Hypothesis	Results
H <sub>1</sub> Perceived procedural justice will have a significant negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors at the .05 level.	Not Supported
H <sub>2</sub> Perceived distributive justice will have a significant negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors at the .05 level.	Not Supported
H <sub>3</sub> Perceived interactional justice will have a significant negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors at the .05 level.	Not Supported
H <sub>4</sub> NA will have a significant positive relationship with counterproductive work behaviors at the .05 level.	Supported
H <sub>5</sub> PA will have a significant negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors at the .05 level.	Supported
H <sub>6</sub> High core self-evaluations will have a significant negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviors at the .05 level.	Supported
H <sub>7</sub> Team identification will moderate the relationship between NA and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing positive relationship between NA and CWB.	Not Supported
H <sub>8</sub> Team identification will moderate the relationship between PA and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between PA and CWB.	Not Supported
H <sub>9</sub> Team identification will moderate the relationship between high core self-evaluations and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between core self-evaluations and CWB.	Not Supported
H <sub>10</sub> Team identification will moderate the relationship between perceived procedural justice and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between procedural justice and CWB.	Supported
H <sub>11</sub> Team identification will moderate the relationship between perceived distributive justice and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between distributive justice and CWB.	Not Supported
H <sub>12</sub> Team identification will moderate the relationship between perceived interactional justice and CWB such that as team identification increases, there will be an increasing negative relationship between interactional justice and CWB.	Not Supported

### *Practical Implications*

The workplace is frequently considered complex in nature and this study highlights the importance of employee team identification, perceptions of justice, and affectivity within six Major League Baseball organizations. The findings offer some practical significance for how sport organizations may attempt to decrease the amount and frequency of CWB. The findings indicate procedural and interactional justice were both particularly pertinent in predicting CWB. The two concepts underscore how powerful fair procedures and fair explanations are on CWB. Sport managers may be able to reduce CWB by implementing fair policies and by communicating such policies in a sincere manner.

Findings have been presented indicating organizational leaders may be trained to be fair (Skarlicki & Latham, 1996). During training sessions procedural and interactional justice concepts were taught to union leaders. After the training sessions, the results indicated an increase in the union members' perception of leader fairness. Other organizational investigations have demonstrated training interventions increase leader fairness and have a positive impact on outcome variables including organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions (Skarlicki & Latham, 2005).

Given the current study and previous literature on perceptions of justice training interventions aimed at reducing them. For instance, to address interactional and procedural justice, sport managers should be taught the significance in their body language and voice in the fairness process. Workers who are affected by the policies should feel as if they have the opportunity and ability to express their views. In attempting to create a fair working environment, sport managers should be provided training in the significance of applying them consistently. All training in procedural and interactional justice should highlight fair procedures should allow for appeals and modifications in the event a complaint is raised. Lastly, sport managers must create procedures based on ethical standards. To address interactional justice, sport managers should be trained in the importance of honesty and openness in their lines of communication when changing or implementing procedures. A successful training session or intervention should be designed to decrease perceptions of justice to lower CWB.

Findings of the current research also support previous literature on the relationship between NA and CWB. NA is characterized as a dispositional tendency to see the world in a negative light across various situations and times. It has been studied immensely in relations to



CWB (Fox & Spector, 1999) and other organizational settings such as justice, constraints, job stressors, and strains (Chen & Spector, 1992; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999; Spector & O'Connell, 1994). This study adds to the proceeding evidence on the relationship between NA and CWB. To address NA at work in attempts to reduce CWB, sport managers may want to consider a screening process during the interview stages. By using personality questions, such as how did you handle a situation when a patron at a game was extremely unhappy? May provide insight into how the job candidate will handle future situations.

The results of this current study also suggest team identification may have a moderating effect on CWB within the six organizations studied. This is a good starting point for future investigations on the effects of team identification on sport industry employees. For instance, those with higher levels of team identification may overlook procedural justices at work just because they are a 'fan' of the team. However, this may need to be monitored by management and could be a cause for concern in the work place. If an employee is highly identified with the team and their moods and behaviors alter due to the team's performance will their productivity fluctuate based on it? Sport organizations may have to investigate this question further.

#### *Study Limitations and Future Research*

The measurement of justice variables (procedural, distributive, and interactional) can be viewed as one limitation within this investigation. Perceptions of justice at work could be viewed as three characteristics at work that fluctuate on a daily basis. This fluctuation can cause an inherent concern when attempting to examine a relationship as the participants answer may change rapidly. This rapid change may suggest one viable reason as to why no significant relationship between distributive justice and CWB was established. In addition, this study employed a cross-sectional design so no causality can be determined from the data. This particularly applies to the findings concerning justice and CWB, since the relationship may be much more complex than it appears in this study. A second potential limitation of the investigation was pressure and influences to complete the study in an acceptable way. The presence of just one supervisor or co-worker could have triggered the participant to answer the survey in a suitable way. Although a secure drop off box was presented to all participants and the principle investigator handed out the surveys, participants were still at their place of work; therefore, pressure to answer the survey in a socially acceptable manner may have influenced the findings.

Research on CWB presents significant challenges because of the harmful and/or illegal nature of the behaviors. This has created a reliance on anonymous self-report questionnaires in order to “protect” participants. A sense of anonymity is needed to allow participants to be forthcoming and honest. Without this sense of anonymity (even with it sometimes) people are hesitant to admit to improper or even illegal acts resulting in CWB being under-reported. Yet, self-report questionnaires are needed because participants know best about what they have or have not done as various counterproductive behaviors towards the organization are done covertly. The reliance on self-report, cross-sectional design limits this study’s conclusions. As a result of the study design the correlations between CWB and the independent variables, all measured with self-report during one work day, may be a result of unmeasured variables. The relationship between CWB and the independent variables may be due to unmeasured situational factors or unmeasured personal characteristics. Therefore, this study should be replicated in order to determine the reliability and validity of the results.

Within their study of justice and CWB, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) had participants complete their own perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. In conjunction the authors had co-workers fill out a CWB measure on the participants. The results of this investigation indicated all three justice measures had a significant correlation with CWB. The correlations ranged from -.44 to -.54 and are considerably higher than those found in studies where justice and CWB were analyzed from just the participants. In a second publication (from the same data) Skarlicki et al. (1999) found a .19 correlation between NA and CWB. In a subsequent study Penney and Spector (2003) found an identical correlation between NA and coworker CWB.

Two studies in particular utilized both self-report and coworker reports of CWB. Goh et al. (2003) and Penny and Spector (2003) asked a sample to complete an anonymous questionnaire including a measure of CWB and various other variables. Within their investigation a parallel questionnaire was given to a coworker chosen by the employee. A secret code was placed on both questionnaires so the researchers could pair the surveys together. Both investigations found correlations with CWB at .29 (Goh et al., 2003) and .22 (Penney & Spector, 2003). Within the results, the authors of both studies indicated a substantial difference between personal CWB ( $r = .47$ ) and organizational CWB ( $r = .13$ , non-significant). The authors suggest their results are due to the “hidden” nature of organizational CWB and the visibility of personal

acts (as coworkers can frequently see them). Organizational CWB is more likely to be hidden from view as these acts can get an individual fired or sanctioned at work. For example, within this study participants were asked to indicate 'not working hard at work' as a part of the CWB measure. Not working hard is a subjective judgment, depending upon their own assessment of effort and ability. Based off of previous research such as the two abovementioned there is just case for continuing research on CWB within sport organizations. Instead of just asking for self-reported CWB coworker assessment should be analyzed in conjunction. However, it is also important to note at this time there could be potential pitfalls to relying on alternative sources of CWB data. Only the participant knows what he or she actually does. Other people, such as coworkers, supervisor, subordinates, clients, peers are only aware of the behaviors in which they see or see the results of (see Table 5.2).

Table 5.2 – Research Design Issues when Investigation CWB

	Contamination Tendency: Over Report	Deficiency Tendency: Under Report
Self-report	Common method variance  3 <sup>rd</sup> variable bias  Item overlap between antecedent and outcome variable  Social desirability	Fear of being caught  Belief the behavior is functional or beneficial when the company or research see's it otherwise
Other-report (coworker)	Item overlap  Paranoid perceptions of negative intention where none exist  3 <sup>rd</sup> variable bias  Personal agenda  Halo or horn effects	Lake of access to private information, experiences, behaviors and/or intentions  Fear of retaliation from coworkers  Coworkers may miss critical connections between affect, cognition, and behaviors
Objective Measure (HR and Management)	Withdrawal behaviors	Can only represent behaviors caught by the organization  Limits on what types of behaviors are tracked  Whistle blowers effect

Source: Fox, S., Spector, P. E., Goh, A., & Bruursema, K. (2005). Does your coworker know what you're doing? Convergence of self- and peer-reports of counterproductive work behavior. Unpublished manuscript.

Another potential restraint to this study was the way counterproductive behaviors were measured. Using a survey that combines a variety of behaviors and then groups them into one construct is somewhat limiting. Spector et al. (2006) suggests grouping various behaviors into one construct can create an assumption that they are all linked to one another. For instance, by grouping 'came to work late without permission' and 'threatened a person at work with violence' implies the two behaviors are related. In addition to grouping items together the CWB-C is not exhaustive (Jarvis, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003) and when investigating a sport organization

such as a Major League Baseball team items related to the industry should be developed. For example, a counterproductive behavior worthy of investigation for a Major League Baseball team would be ‘watching batting practice while on the clock’ or ‘watching the game while on the clock.’ The checklist used for this investigation, while it has been developed and tested thoroughly, may not include the types of counterproductive behaviors the sport industry is concerned with. As a result there may be omission of potential harmful counterproductive behaviors to a Major League Baseball organization because they were not presented in the survey. Future research may want to avoid this pitfall by creating a measure specific for the sport specific industries. In addition, CWB was looked at as a whole within this study and in the future it may be noteworthy to investigate CWB in relation to its specific target. For instance, previous research has investigated two forms of CWB; interactional CWB and organizational CWB (see Bennett & Stamper, 2001; Dalal, 2005).

Future research on team identification is warranted within the employment sector of the sport industry. Possible hypotheses may be centered on levels of identification with the team and the employees resulting behaviors (both positive and negative) at work. For instance, a hypothesis stating low levels of team identification will have a positive relationship with CWB and high levels of team identification will have a negative relationship with CWB. This investigation used the variable team identification as a moderating variable, and it merits future investigation as an independent variable when studying employee behavior. Based on this exploratory investigation team identification seems to play a part in why people want to work in sport and future analysis is needed to determine why and the extent to which it alters worker’s behaviors.

A significant relationship was established between an individual’s affectivity and CWB and is in need of further analysis. In addition, future research should focus on other possible organizational factors other than procedural, distributive, and interactional justice. Other variables that may be noteworthy to a Major League Baseball organization are fatigue (as it is a long and draining work season), distractions, organizational culture, and time pressure.

From a sport organization perspective, it would be beneficial to understand how employee to co-worker CWB affects other relationships. For instance, how do consumers at a sporting event respond when they encounter a disgruntled employee or an unpleasant work environment? In addition, are there spillover effects to suppliers or vendors? CWB research has

presented its challenges for researchers within the confines of sport organizations, yet it may be plausible to investigate the implications CWB may have on various stakeholders (after all this is a service industry).

Qualitative research based on incidences of counterproductive behaviors may shed light on the motives and processes behind counterproductive work behaviors within a sport organization. By conducting interviews with co-workers and supervisors directly related to incidents may assist researchers in uncovering the reasons behind behaviors at work. In addition, a longitudinal study may uncover the reasoning's behind counterproductive behaviors instead of a cross sectional study.

### Conclusion

CWB is a concept that has existed in management literature for a considerable amount of time. The goal of this dissertation was to expand on such previous literature and to provide an exploratory investigation into the counterproductive behaviors amongst six Major League Baseball (MLB) organizations. It was hypothesized that negative affectivity, positive affectivity, core self-evaluations, distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice would all have a significant relationship with CWB amongst the participants. In addition, it was further hypothesized that team identification would moderate each of these relationships in various ways. Although the data analysis provided mixed results it does represent a good starting point for the investigation into the counterproductive behaviors amongst sport organization employees. It is highly likely to assume employees with high levels of team identification may respond more positively to adverse situations at work compared to those who are less identified with the team. Conversely, it is also plausible to consider those employees who are highly identified with the team may be more apt to be counterproductive. For instance, a MLB employee is expected to be in his or her office during normal office hours (8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.) but batting practice begins around 2:00 p.m. if that individual is highly identified they may leave their assigned duties to go watch batting practice. This behavior thus results in being counterproductive at work. Even though this dissertation was limited in generalizability and by the variables under investigation it is hoped that it will facilitate a warranted discussion surrounding the influence team identification can have on sport industry employees. All in all, sport organizations depend on their "behind the scenes" employee and business related behaviors are extremely important to their survival. Organizations would prosper if they thought about how treatment of their

employees can lead to unwanted CWB, and that CWB frequently hidden within their organizations. “Instituting fair procedures, reducing stress where possible, and empowering employees can go a long way toward reducing CWB and enhancing the well-being of both organizations and their stakeholders” (Spector & Fox, 2001, p.245). Specifically, this study provides sport organizations a ‘barometer’ into how their employees feel and act within their organization. Do they let injustices slide due to their attachment to the team? How does an individual’s negative and positive affectivity alter their behavior? All of these are questions sport organizations can answer by investigating CWB and its antecedents.

Given the restraints in the sport industry there is a danger in fostering counterproductive behaviors within the workplace. Frequently, lower level employees follow the direction of superiors making it even more imperative for organizations to identify CWB at every level. Perpetuating behaviors starting with senior executives can be risky when it includes the items asked within the CWB-C. The main question, therefore, is whether or not human resources can address counterproductive behavior and its impact on the organization? Guidelines to the advancement process may encourage a change in cultural norms, ethical decision making, rewards, and discipline. For instance, leaders may be encouraged to publicize information about important decisions, as well as the sharing the principles behind the decision making process (Trevino et al., 2003). In addition, leaders should openly communicate with subordinates on a regular basis especially when ethical dilemmas are involved and utilize “socially salient actions” (Trevino et al., 2003) (e.g., rewards and discipline). Veiga, Golden, and Dechant (2004) suggest organizations need to place an emphasis on the development of confronting ethical dilemmas and creating a work atmosphere that goes above and beyond just following the rules. This investigation adds evidence to the Veiga et al. (2004) argument by indicating that CWB does exist on some level within the MLB organizations investigated. Basically, it is important for leaders within the sport organizations to take responsibility for identifying ways to deal with unwanted behaviors in a fair and right way.

This is also especially noteworthy when other people’s emotions and welfare are involved (Veiga et al., 2004). Schneider (1987) succinctly argued “people make the place” at the end of the day. This is even more of the case for leaders within the sport organization. Therefore, efforts to form an ethical environment where there is little acceptance for CWB starts with good selection strategies in the hiring process. Selection of employees has focused on the

‘relevant job experiences’ and ‘job related behaviors’ sometimes at the expense of broader relevant traits such as honesty and affectivity. This dissertation provides a better understanding of how affectivity (positive and negative) is related to work place counterproductive behaviors. These could be addressed in the employee selection process. For example, negative affectivity had a positive relationship with CWB and could be a useful tool for organizations. Nevertheless, it is important to remember psychological variables often interact with various situational variables and may alter the outcomes vastly. What is clear about this research, however, is that different variables including team identification impact counterproductive behaviors in different ways.



APPENDIX A – MEASURES

*The PANAS*

Adopted from Watson, D., Clark, L. A., and Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 54(6), 1063-1070.

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you have felt these emotions within the past week. Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5
Very slightly Or not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a Bit	Extremely
_____ interested				_____ irritable
_____ distressed				_____ alert
_____ excited				_____ ashamed
_____ upset				_____ inspired
_____ strong				_____ nervous
_____ guilty				_____ determined
_____ scared				_____ attentive
_____ hostile				_____ jittery
_____ enthusiastic				_____ active
_____ proud				_____ afraid

## How I am in general

Adopted from John, O. P., Donahue, E. M., & Kentle, R. L. (1991). The Big Five Inventory-Versions 4a and 54. Berkeley, CA: University of California, Berkeley, Institute of Personality and Social Research and John, O. P., Naumann, L. P., & Soto, C. J. (2008). Paradigm shift to the integrative Big Five trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and conceptual issues. In O. P. John, R. W. Robins, & L. A. Pervin (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (pp. 114-158). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who *likes to spend time with others*? Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which **you agree or disagree with that statement.**

<b>1</b> Disagree Strongly	<b>2</b> Disagree a little	<b>3</b> Neither agree nor disagree	<b>4</b> Agree a little	<b>5</b> Agree strongly
----------------------------------	----------------------------------	---	-------------------------------	-------------------------------

### I am someone who...

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. _____ Is talkative</li> <li>2. _____ Tends to find fault with others</li> <li>3. _____ Does a thorough job</li> <li>4. _____ Is depressed, blue</li> <li>5. _____ Is original, comes up with new ideas</li> <li>6. _____ Is reserved</li> <li>7. _____ Is helpful and unselfish with others</li> <li>8. _____ Can be somewhat careless</li> <li>9. _____ Is relaxed, handles stress well.</li> <li>10. _____ Is curious about many different things</li> <li>11. _____ Is full of energy</li> <li>12. _____ Starts quarrels with others</li> <li>13. _____ Is a reliable worker</li> <li>14. _____ Can be tense</li> <li>15. _____ Is ingenious, a deep thinker</li> <li>16. _____ Generates a lot of enthusiasm</li> </ol> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>17. _____ Has a forgiving nature</li> <li>18. _____ Tends to be disorganized</li> <li>19. _____ Worries a lot</li> <li>20. _____ Has an active imagination</li> <li>21. _____ Tends to be quiet</li> <li>22. _____ Is generally trusting</li> <li>23. _____ Tends to be lazy</li> <li>24. _____ Is emotionally stable, not easily upset</li> <li>25. _____ Is inventive</li> <li>26. _____ Has an assertive personality</li> <li>27. _____ Can be cold and aloof</li> <li>28. _____ Perseveres until the task is finished</li> <li>29. _____ Can be moody</li> <li>30. _____ Values artistic, aesthetic experiences</li> <li>31. _____ Is sometimes shy, inhibited</li> </ol> |
|---|--|

32. \_\_\_\_\_ Is considerate and kind to almost everyone
33. \_\_\_\_\_ Does things efficiently
34. \_\_\_\_\_ Remains calm in tense situations
35. \_\_\_\_\_ Prefers work that is routine
36. \_\_\_\_\_ Is outgoing, sociable
37. \_\_\_\_\_ Is sometimes rude to others
38. \_\_\_\_\_ Makes plans and follows through with them
39. \_\_\_\_\_ Gets nervous easily
40. \_\_\_\_\_ Likes to reflect, play with ideas
41. \_\_\_\_\_ Has few artistic interests
42. \_\_\_\_\_ Likes to cooperate with others
43. \_\_\_\_\_ Is easily distracted
44. \_\_\_\_\_ Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature

### *The Core Self-Evaluations Scale (CSES)*

Adopted from Judge, T. A., Erez, A., Bono, J. E., & Thoresen, C. J. (2003). The core self-evaluations scale: Development of a measure. *Personnel Psychology*, 56, 303-331.

Instructions: Below are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item.

1                      2                      3                      4                      5  
Strongly disagree   Disagree                      Neutral                      Agree                      Strongly agree

1. \_\_\_\_\_ I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.
  2. \_\_\_\_\_ Sometimes I feel depressed, (r)
  3. \_\_\_\_\_ When I try, I generally succeed.
  4. \_\_\_\_\_ Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless, (r)
  5. \_\_\_\_\_ I complete tasks successfully.
  6. \_\_\_\_\_ Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work, (r)
  7. \_\_\_\_\_ Overall, I am satisfied with myself.
  8. \_\_\_\_\_ I am filled with doubts about my competence, (r)
  9. \_\_\_\_\_ I determine what will happen in my life.
  10. \_\_\_\_\_ I do not feel in control of my success in my career, (r)
  11. \_\_\_\_\_ I am capable of coping with most of my problems.
  12. \_\_\_\_\_ There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me. (r)
- r* = reverse-scored.

## *Organizational Justice*

Adopted from Moorman, R., H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(6), 845-855 and Nehoff, B. P., & Moorman, R. H. (1993). Justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(3), 527-556.

The following statements relate to your feelings and attitudes about your supervisor or manager. Please indicate one number per statement using the following scale:

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Moderately Disagree
- 3 = Disagree
- 4 = Neither Disagree or Agree
- 5 = Agree
- 6 = Moderately Agree
- 7 = Strongly Agree

### Distributive Justice

1. \_\_\_\_\_ My work schedule is fair.
2. \_\_\_\_\_ I think that my level of pay is fair
3. \_\_\_\_\_ I consider my work load to be quite fair.
4. \_\_\_\_\_ Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.
5. \_\_\_\_\_ I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.

### Procedural Justice

1. \_\_\_\_\_ Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner.
2. \_\_\_\_\_ My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.
3. \_\_\_\_\_ To make job decisions, my general manager collects accurate and complete information.
4. \_\_\_\_\_ My general manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.
5. \_\_\_\_\_ All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.
6. \_\_\_\_\_ Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager.

## Interactional justice

1. \_\_\_\_\_ When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with kindness and consideration.
2. \_\_\_\_\_ When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with respect and dignity.
3. \_\_\_\_\_ When decisions are made about my job, the general manager deals with me in a truthful manner.
4. \_\_\_\_\_ When decisions are made about my job, the general manager shows concern for my rights as an employee.
5. \_\_\_\_\_ Concerning decisions made about my job, the general manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me.
6. \_\_\_\_\_ The general manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.
7. \_\_\_\_\_ When making decisions about my job, the general manager offers explanations that make sense to me.
8. \_\_\_\_\_ My general manager explains very clearly any decision made about my job.

### *CWB Measure*

Adopted from Spector, P. E., Fox, S., Penney, L. M., Bruursema, K, Goh, A., & Kessler, S. (2006). The dimensionality of counterproductivity: Are all counterproductive behaviors created equal? *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68, 446-460).

Instructions: Respond to each of the statements that follow and circle the number on the scale which best describes you. Remember, there is no right or wrong answer and your answers are COMPLETELY confidential.

1. Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies

Never    1       2       3       4       5       Everyday

2. Told people outside the job what a lousy place you work for

Never    1       2       3       4       5       Everyday

3. Purposely did your work incorrectly

Never    1       2       3       4       5       Everyday

4. Came to work late without permission

Never    1       2       3       4       5       Everyday

5. Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't

Never    1       2       3       4       5       Everyday

6. Purposely damaged a piece of equipment or property

Never    1       2       3       4       5       Everyday

7. Purposely dirtied or littered your place of work

Never    1       2       3       4       5       Everyday

8. Stolen something belonging to your employer

Never    1       2       3       4       5       Everyday

9. Started or continued a damaging or harmful rumor at work

Never    1       2       3       4       5       Everyday

10. Been nasty or rude to a client or customer

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

11. Purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

12. Took a longer break than you were allowed to take

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

13. Purposely failed to follow instructions

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

14. Left work earlier than you were allowed to

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

15. Insulted someone about their job performance

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

16. Made fun of someone's personal life

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

17. Took supplies or tolls home without permission

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

18. Put in to be paid for more hours than you worked

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

19. Took money from your employer without permission

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

20. Ignored a person at work

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

21. Blamed a person at work for an error you made



Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

22. Started an argument with a person at work

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

23. Stole something belonging to a person at work

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

24. Verbally abuse a person at work

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

25. Made an obscene gesture (the finger) to a person at work

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

26. Threatened a person at work with violence

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

27. Threatened a person at work, but not physically

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

28. Said something obscene to a person at work to make them feel bad

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

29. Did something to make a person at work look bad

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

30. Played a mean prank to make a person at work look bad

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

31. Looked at a person's private mail/property at work without permission

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

32. Hit or pushed a person at work

Never 1 2 3 4 5 Everyday

33. Insulted or made fun of a person at work

Never    1    2    3    4    5    Everyday

### ***Team Identification***

Adapted from:

Wann, D. L. (2002). Preliminary validation of a measure for assessing identification as a sport fan: The Sport Fandom Questionnaire. *International Journal of Sport Management*, 3, 103-115.

Please answer each of the following questions being completely honest in your responses. Simply indicate the most accurate response by circling the appropriate number under each statement. Responses may range from 5 “strongly agree” to 1 “strongly disagree.”

For the following questions please consider the specific team in which you are employed.

**I consider myself to be a sports fan of the team I work for.**

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree some/ Agree some	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

**My friends see me as a sports fan of the team I work for.**

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree some/ Agree some	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

**I believe that following the team I am employed by is the most enjoyable form of entertainment.**

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree some/ Agree some	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

**My life would be less enjoyable if I were not able to follow the team I work for.**

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree some/ Agree some	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

**Being a sports fan of the team in which I am employed is very important to me.**

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree some/ Agree some	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

### *Demographic Questions*

Please answer the demographic questions listed below. Your answers will be strictly confidential and will only be used by the researcher for statistical purposes.

1. Are you: \_\_\_\_\_ Male \_\_\_\_\_ Female

2. What is the highest level of education you have complete? (Check one)

\_\_\_\_\_ Less than high school

\_\_\_\_\_ High school

\_\_\_\_\_ Some college

\_\_\_\_\_ 2 year college degree

\_\_\_\_\_ 4 year college degree

\_\_\_\_\_ Graduate school

3. Your employment status is: \_\_\_\_\_ Full-time employee \_\_\_\_\_ Part-time employee

4. How long have you worked for this company? \_\_\_\_\_ years \_\_\_\_\_ months

5. What is your age in years? \_\_\_\_\_

6. What is your yearly household income? (Check one)

\_\_\_\_\_ Less than \$25,000

\_\_\_\_\_ \$25,001-\$40,000

\_\_\_\_\_ \$40,001-\$55,000

\_\_\_\_\_ \$55,001-\$70,000

\_\_\_\_\_ \$70,001-\$85,000

\_\_\_\_\_ \$85,001-\$100,000

\_\_\_\_\_ \$100,001-\$115,000

\_\_\_\_\_ \$115,001-\$130,000

\_\_\_\_\_ Over \$130,000

APPENDIX B – ASSUMPTION CHARTS

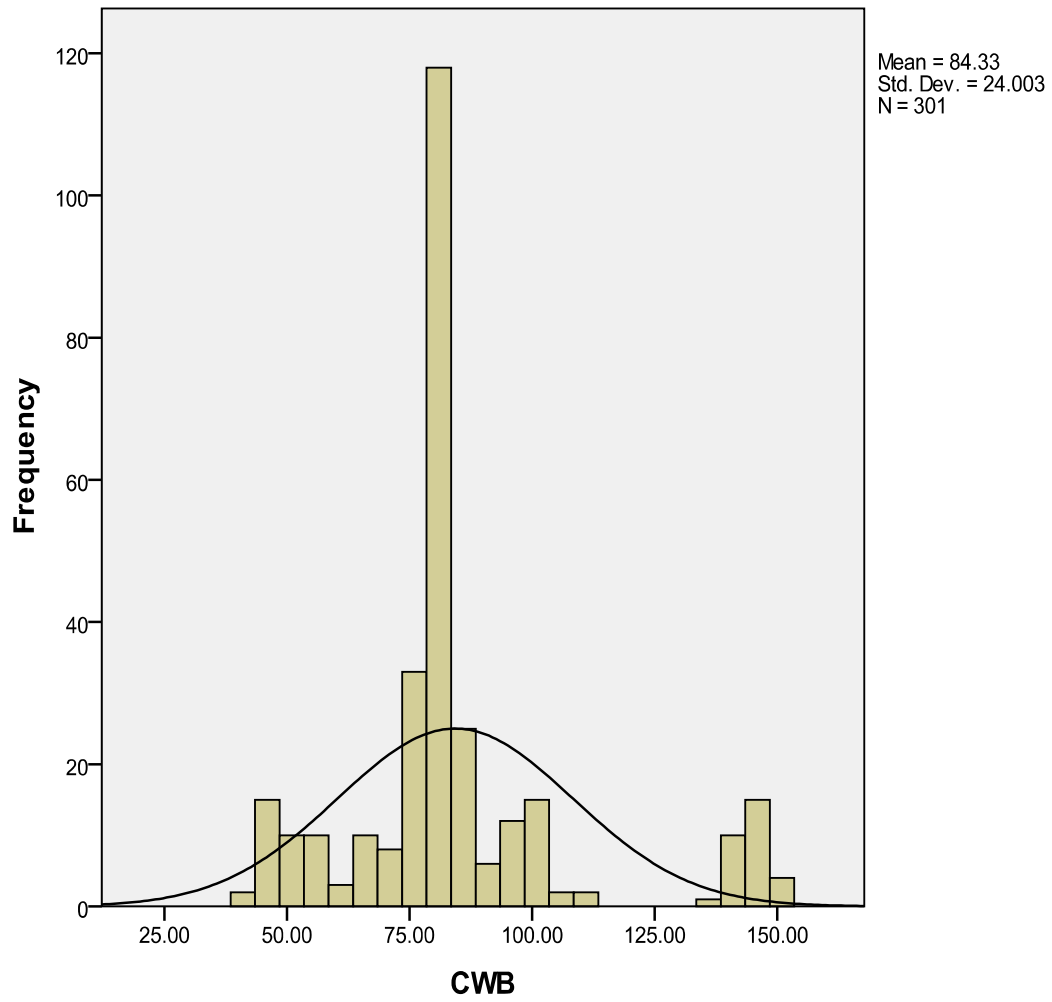
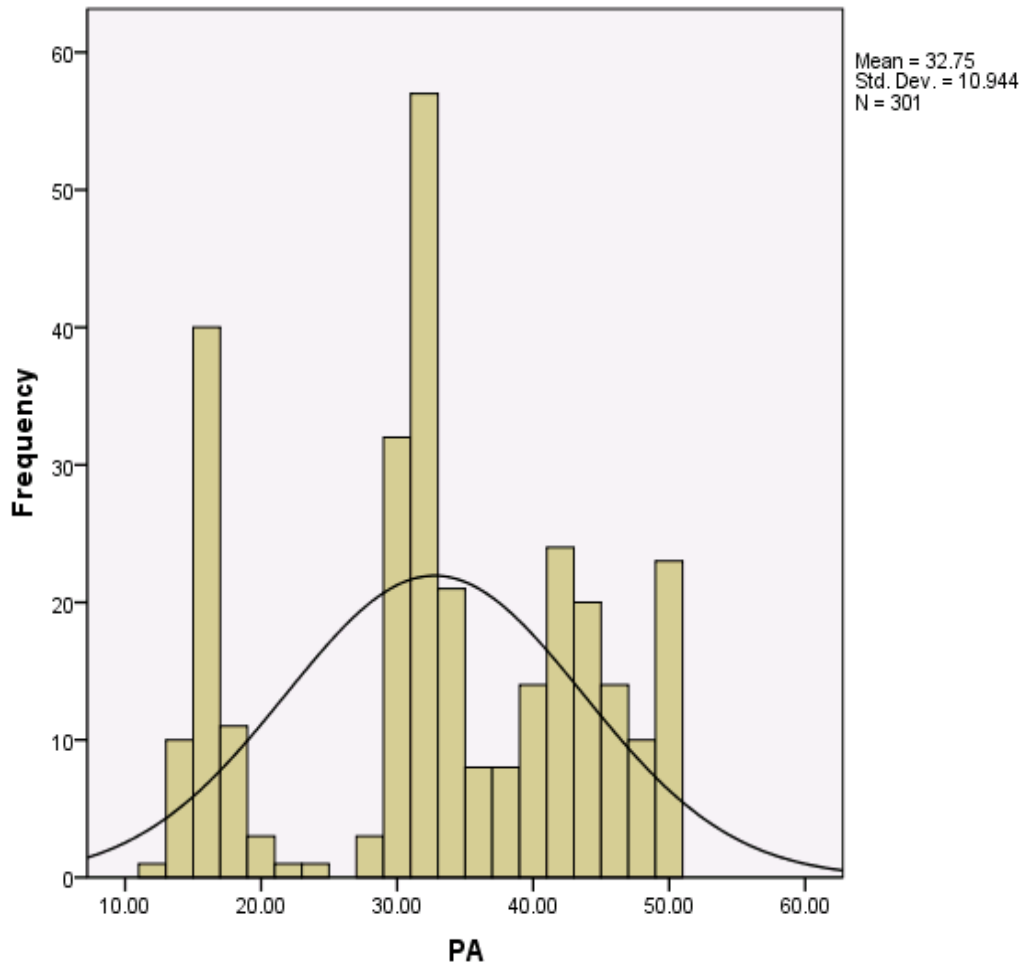


Figure B.1 – Counterproductive Work Behavior Histogram



*Figure B.2 – Positive Affectivity Histogram*

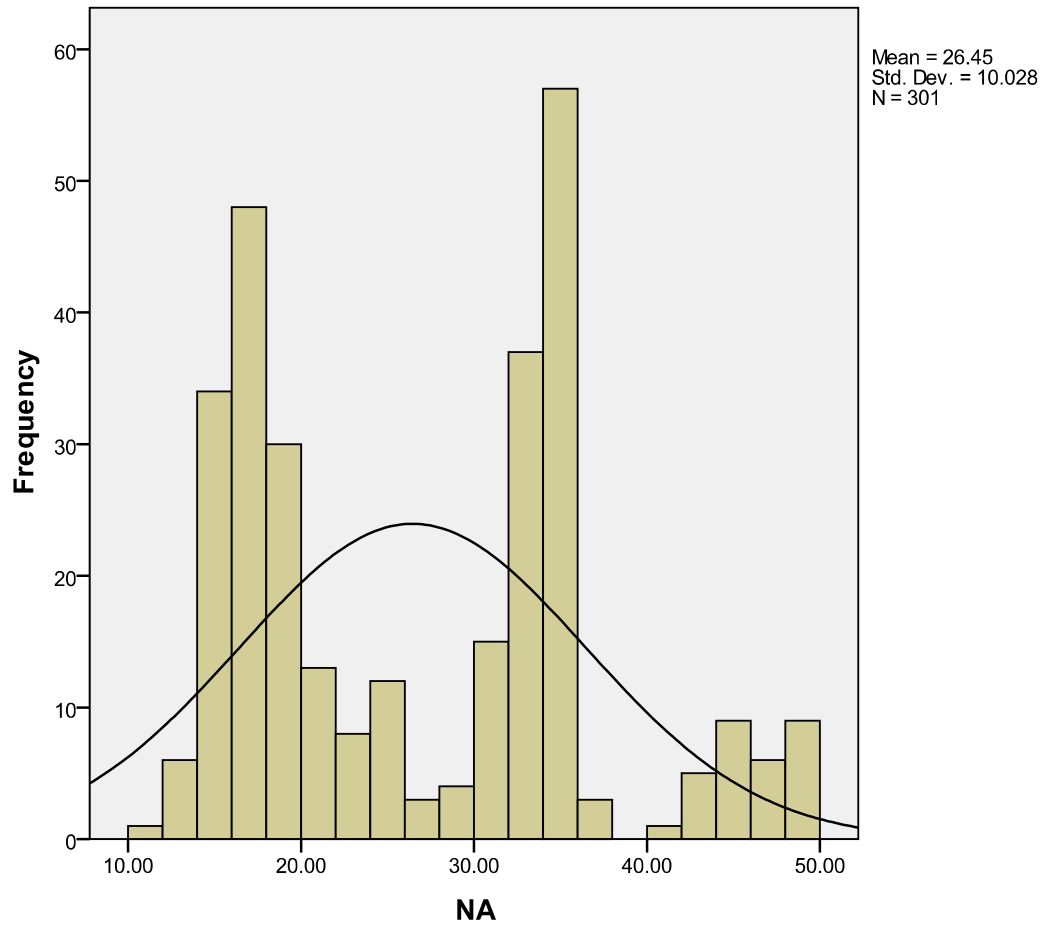


Figure B.3 – Negative Affectivity Histogram

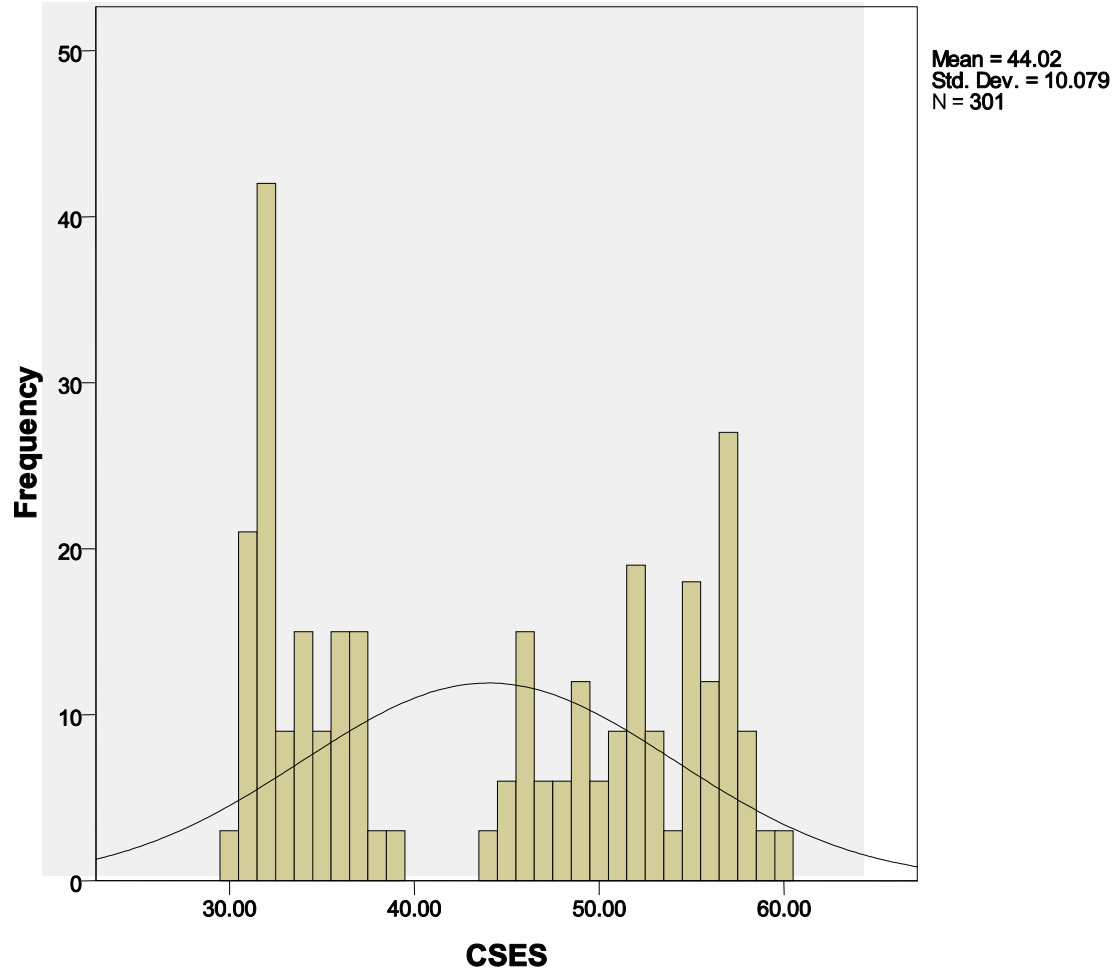


Figure B.4 – Core Self-Evaluation Histogram



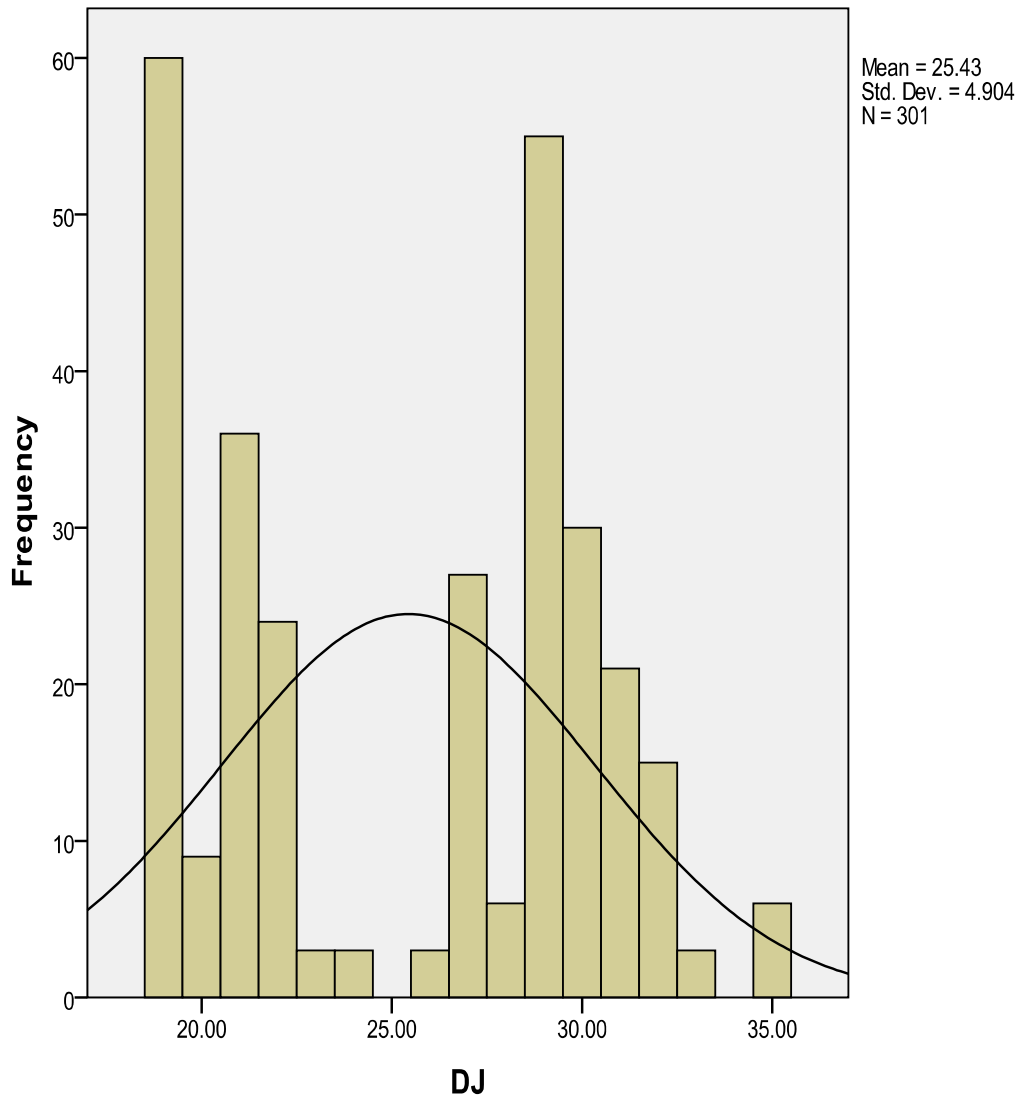


Figure B.5 – Distributive Justice Histogram

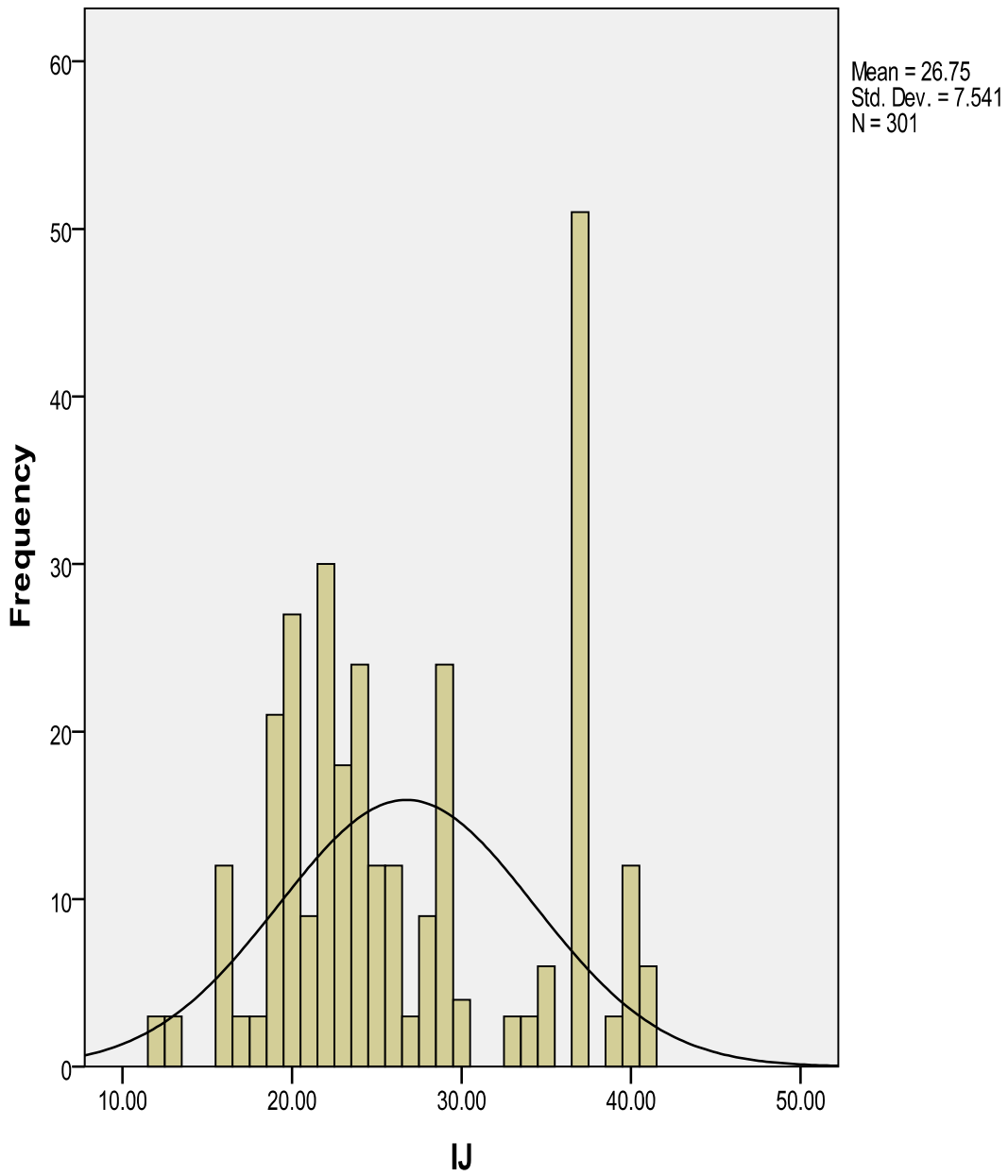


Figure B.6 – Interactional Justice Histogram

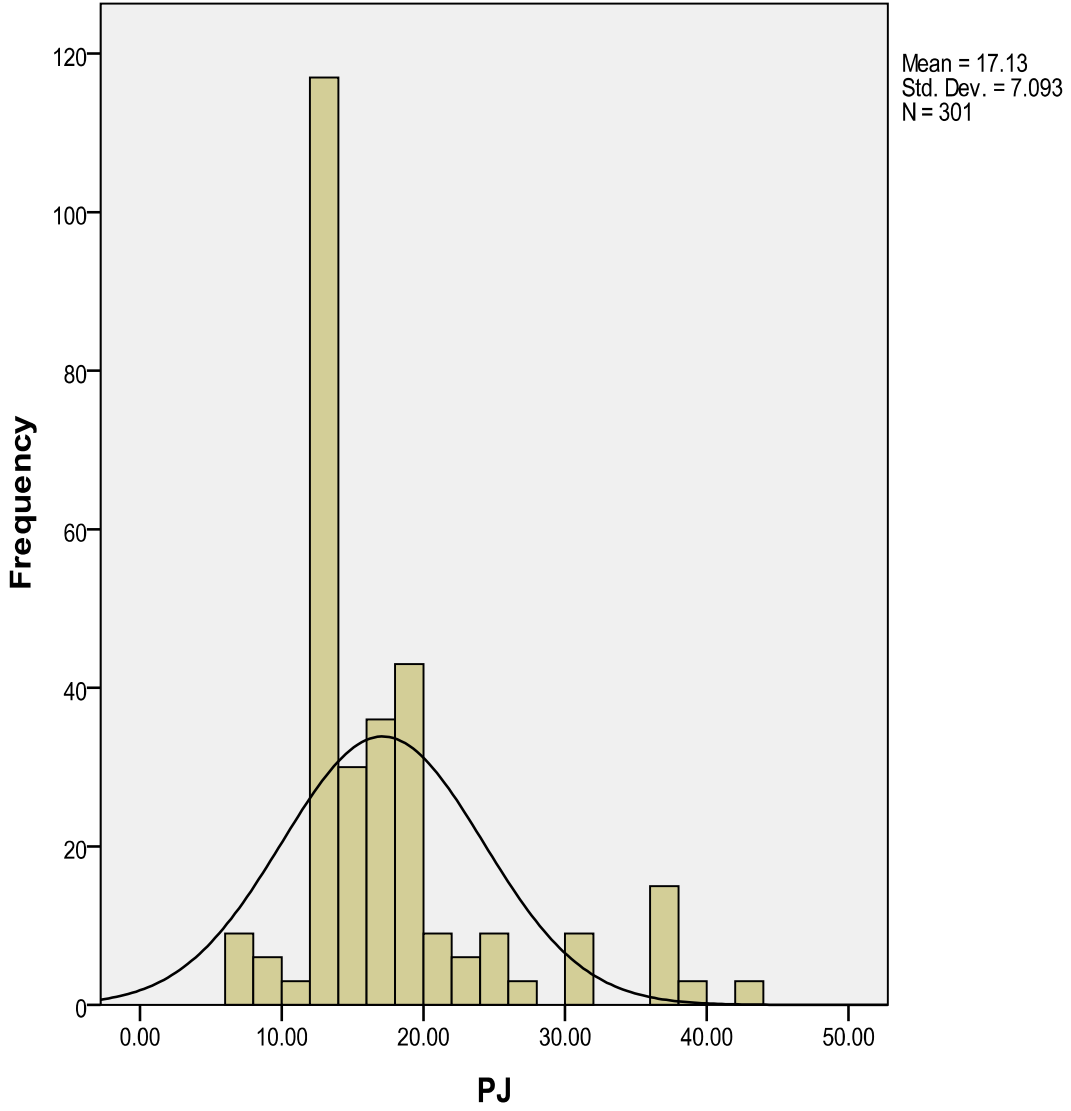


Figure B.7 – Procedural Justice Histogram

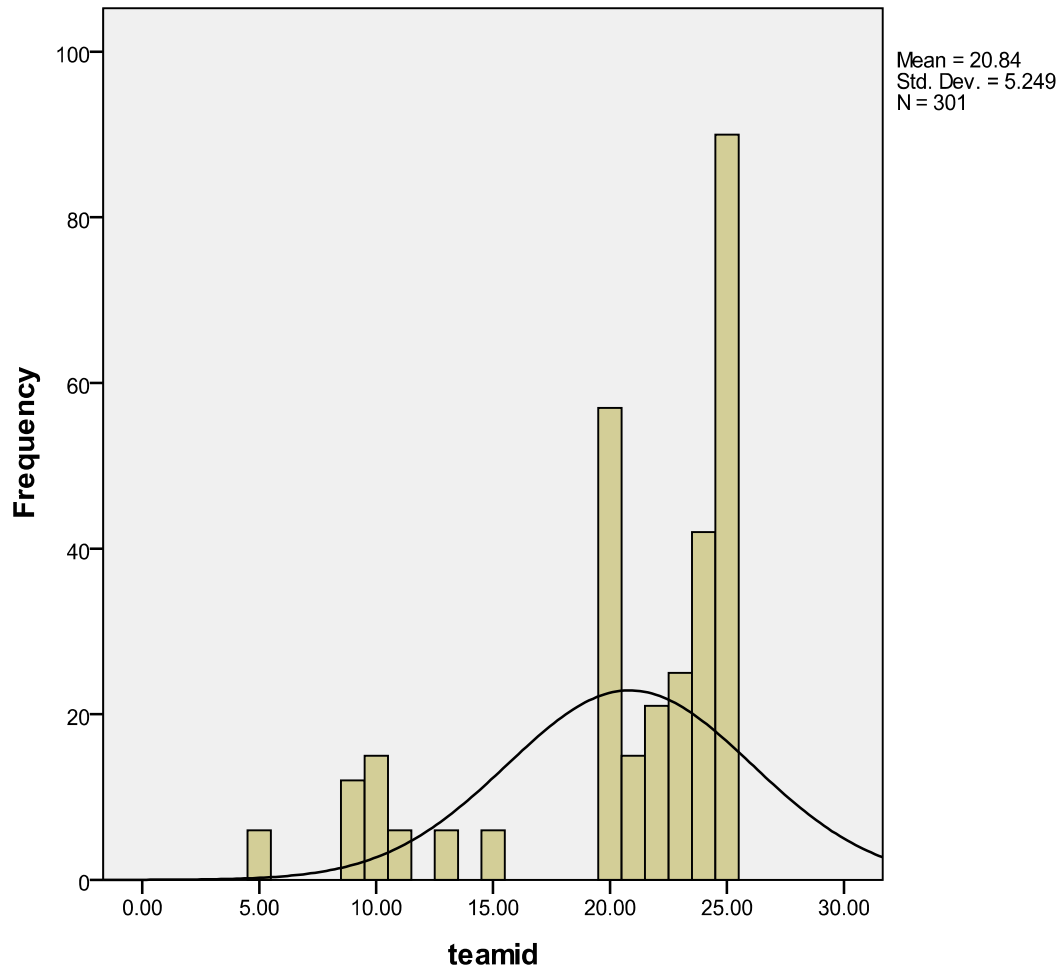
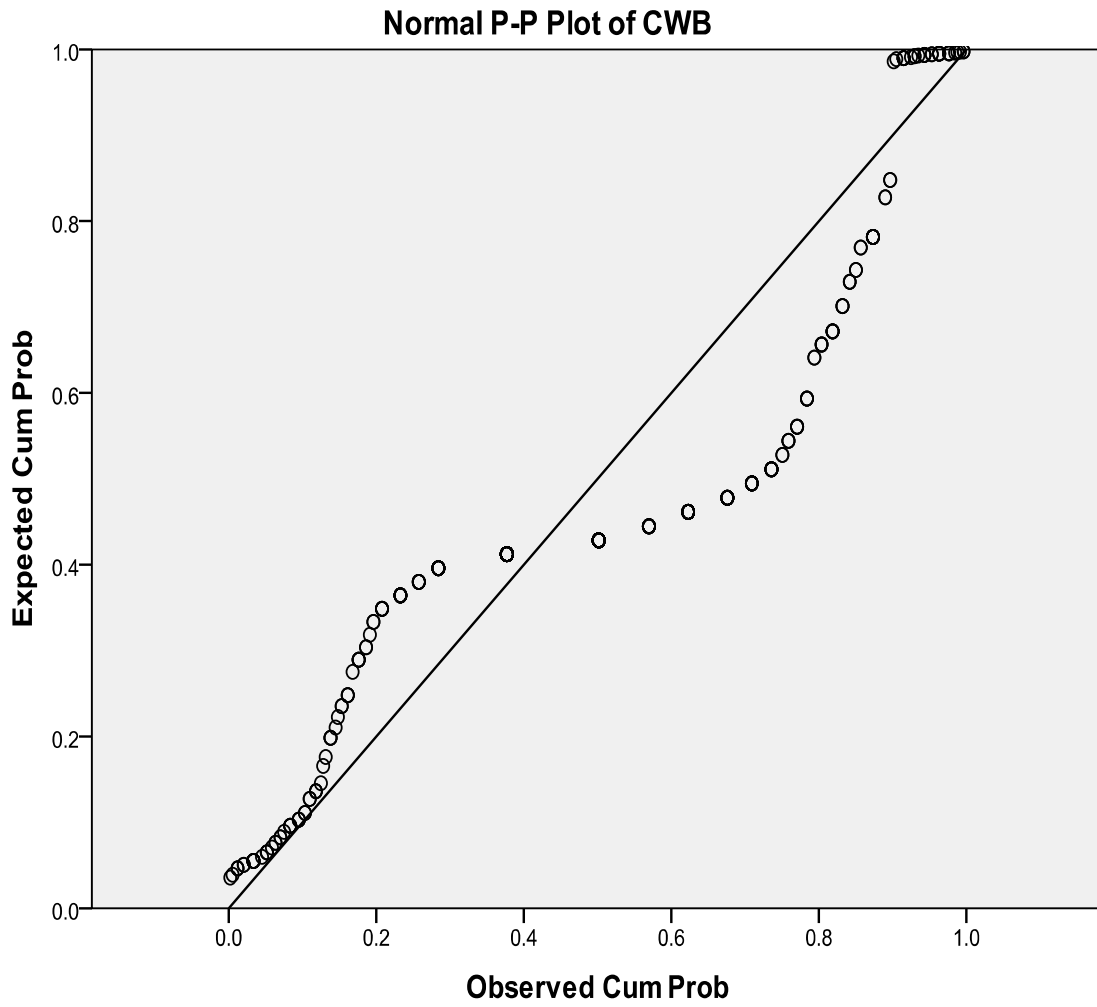
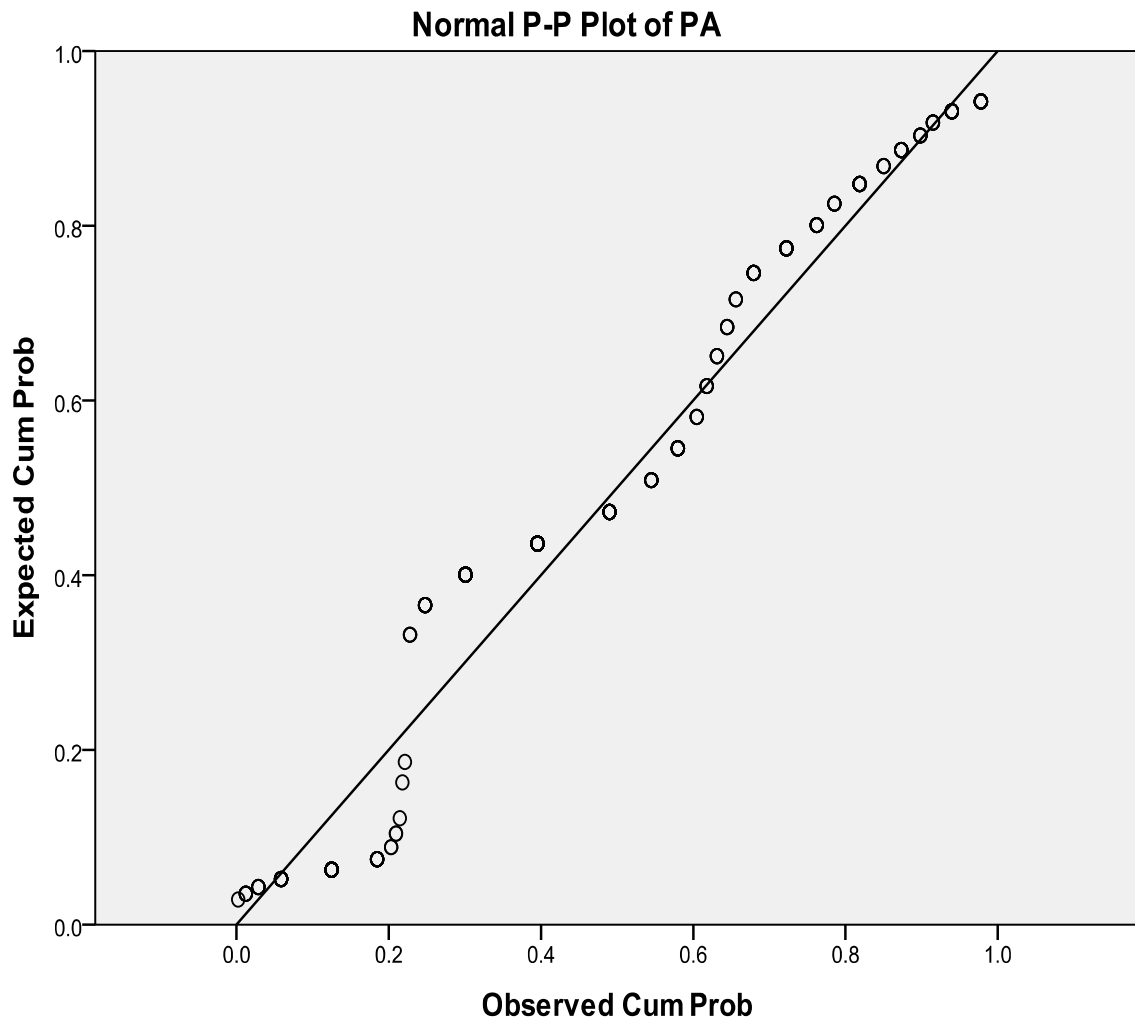


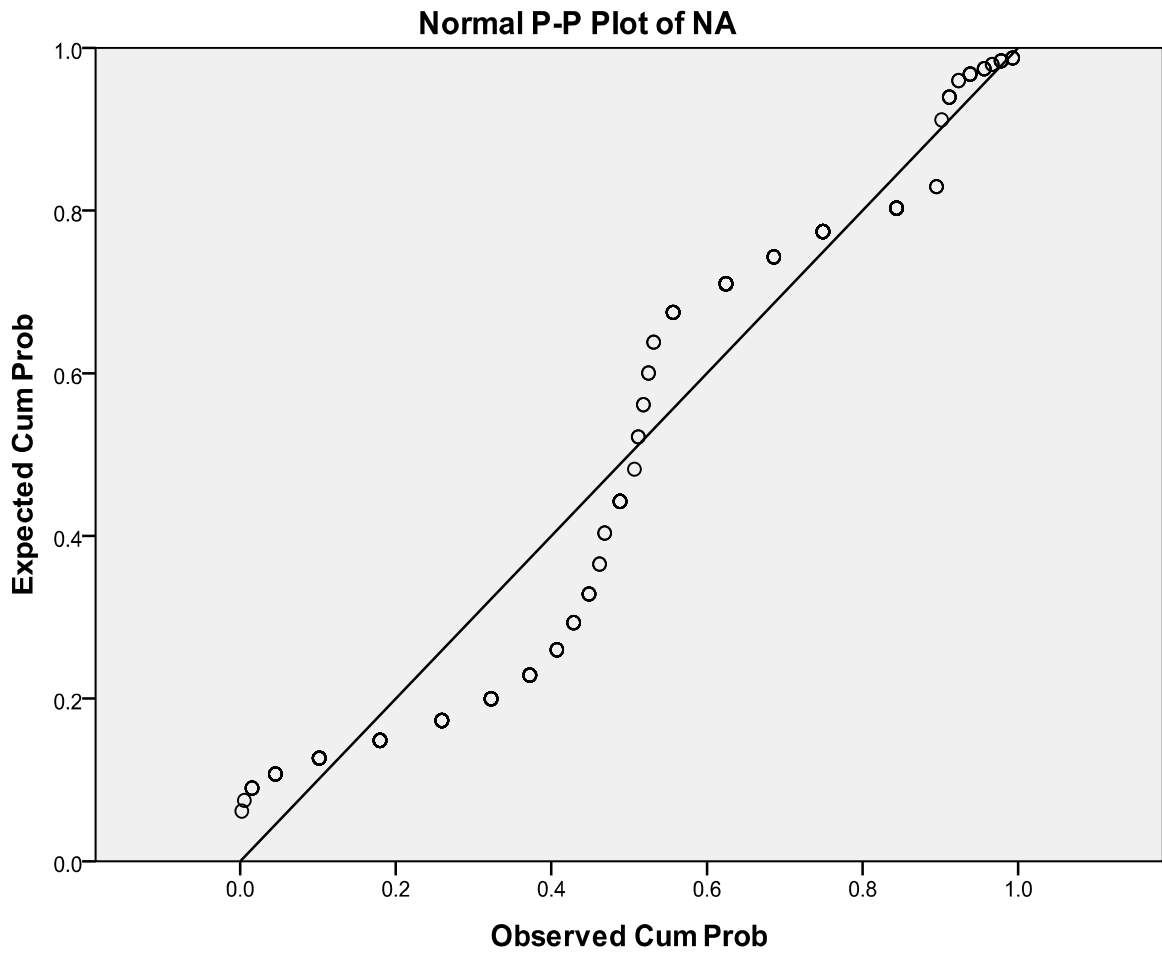
Figure B.8 – Team Identification Histogram



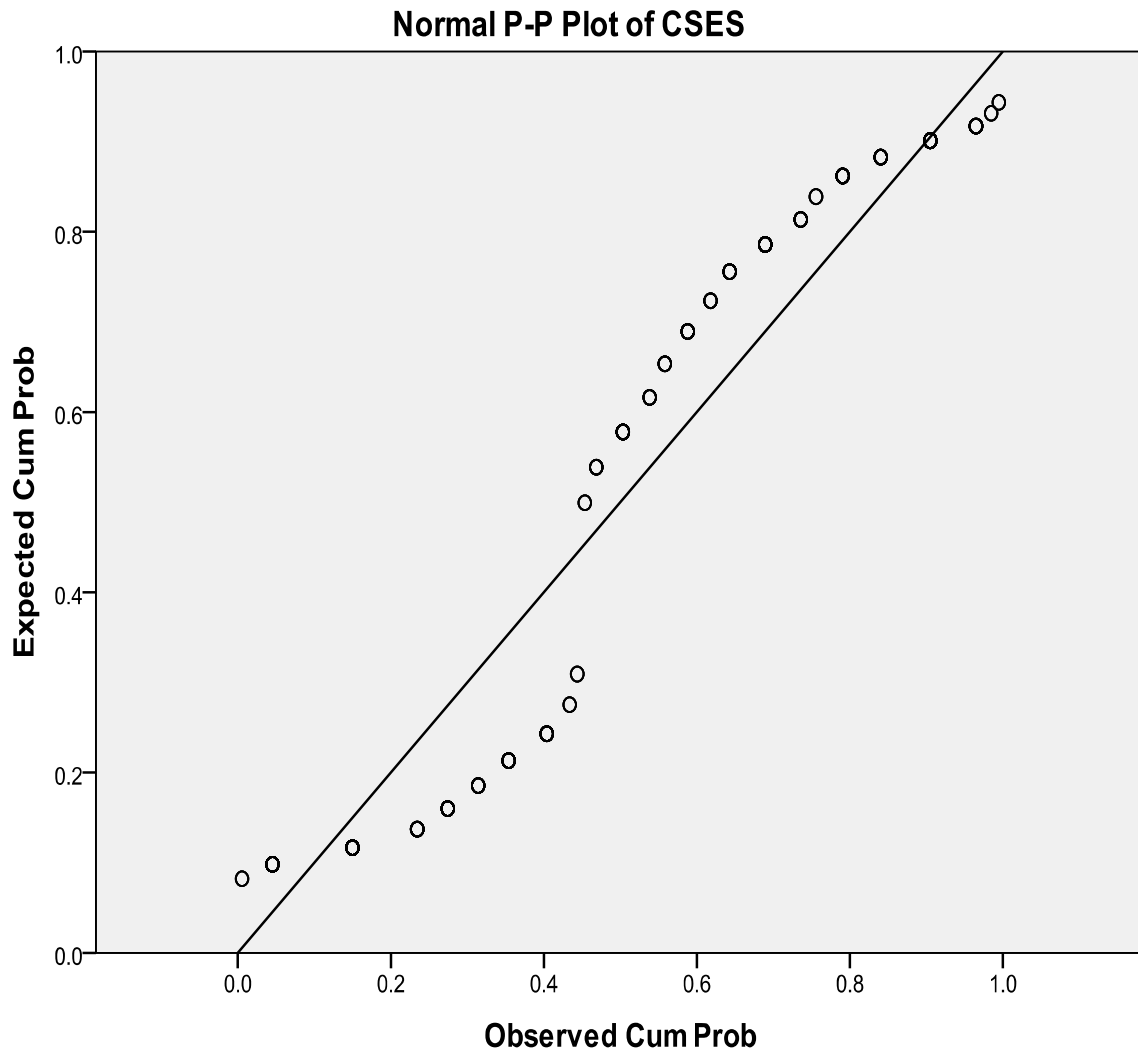
*Figure B.9 – Counterproductive Work Behavior P-Plot*



*Figure B.10 – Positive Affectivity P-Plot*

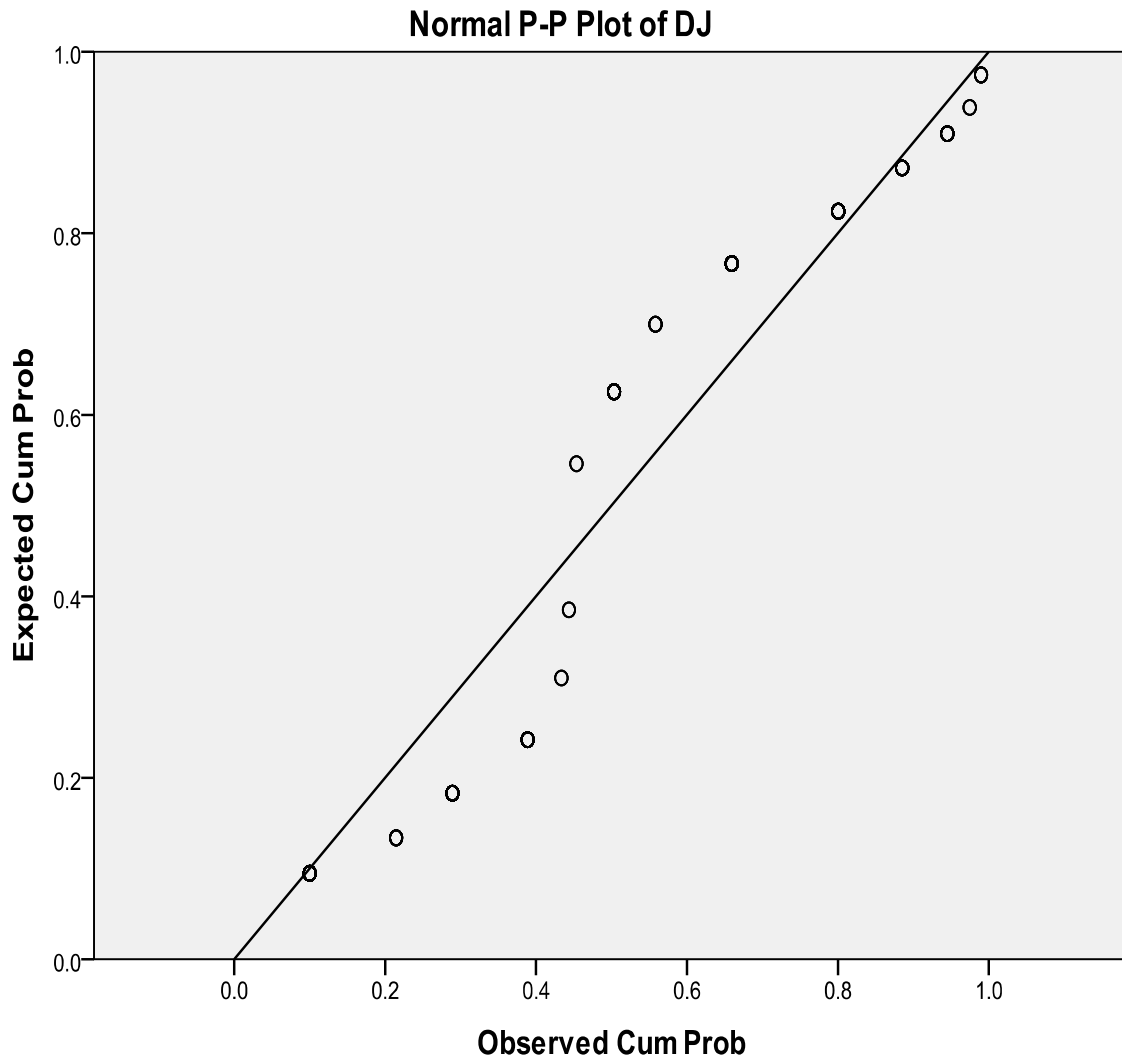


*Figure B.11 – Negative Affectivity P-Plot*

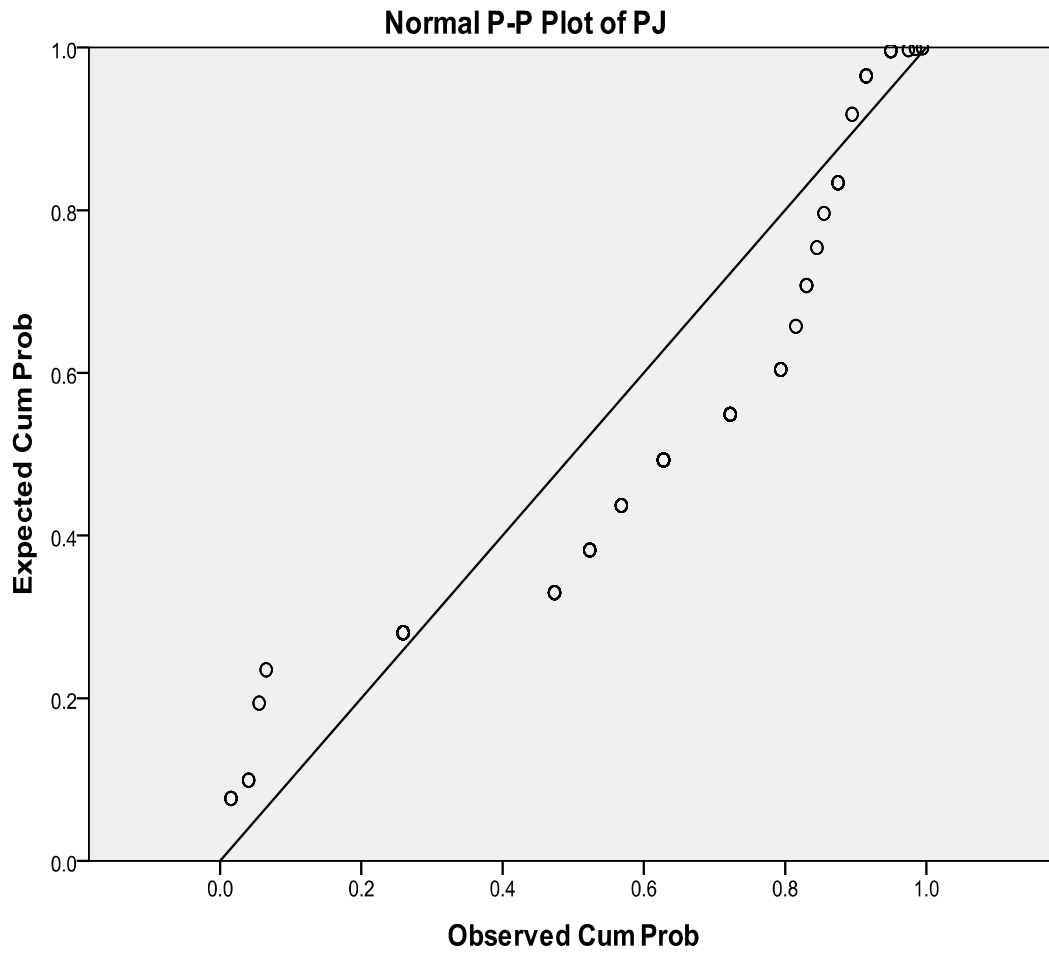


*Figure B.12 – Core Self-Evaluation P-Plot*

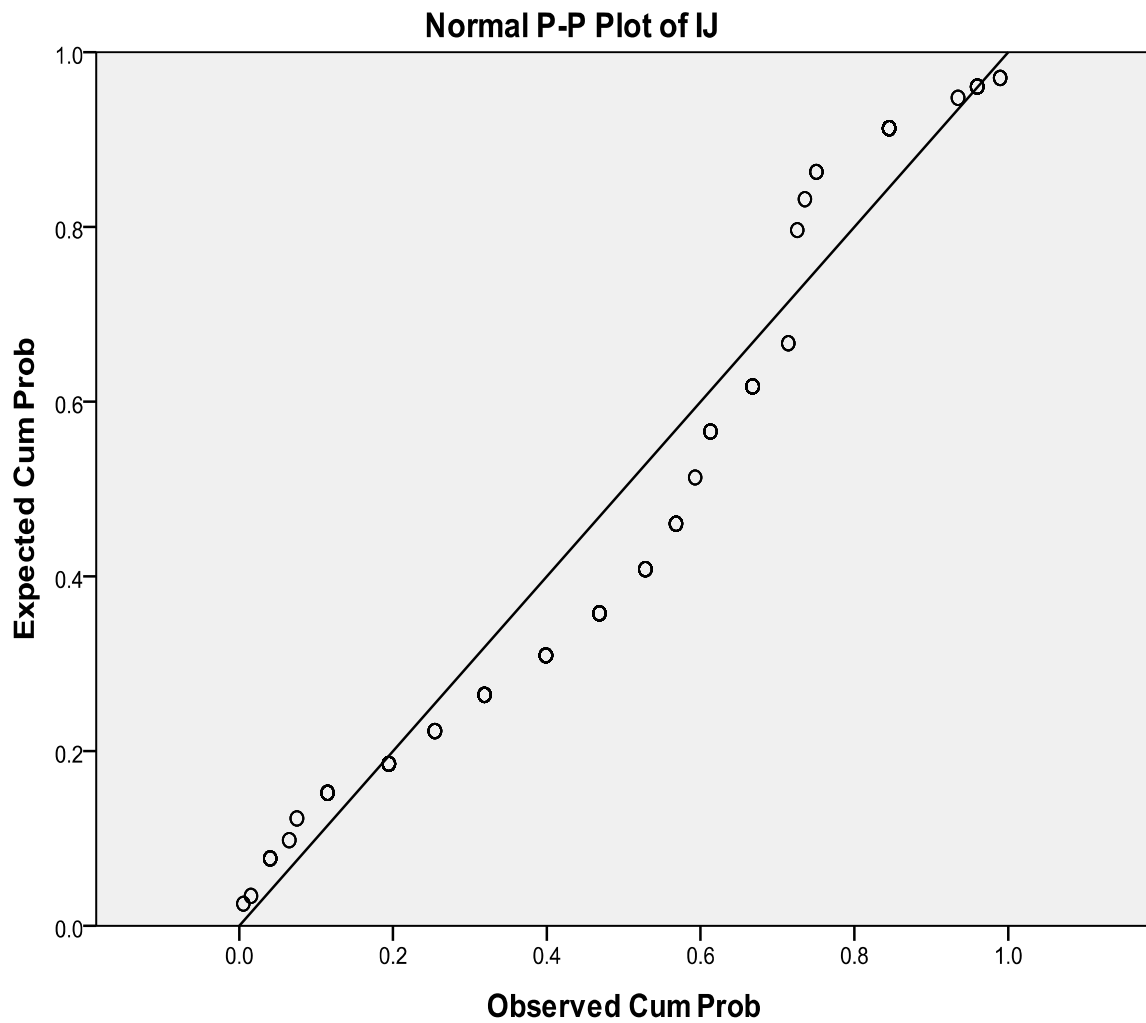




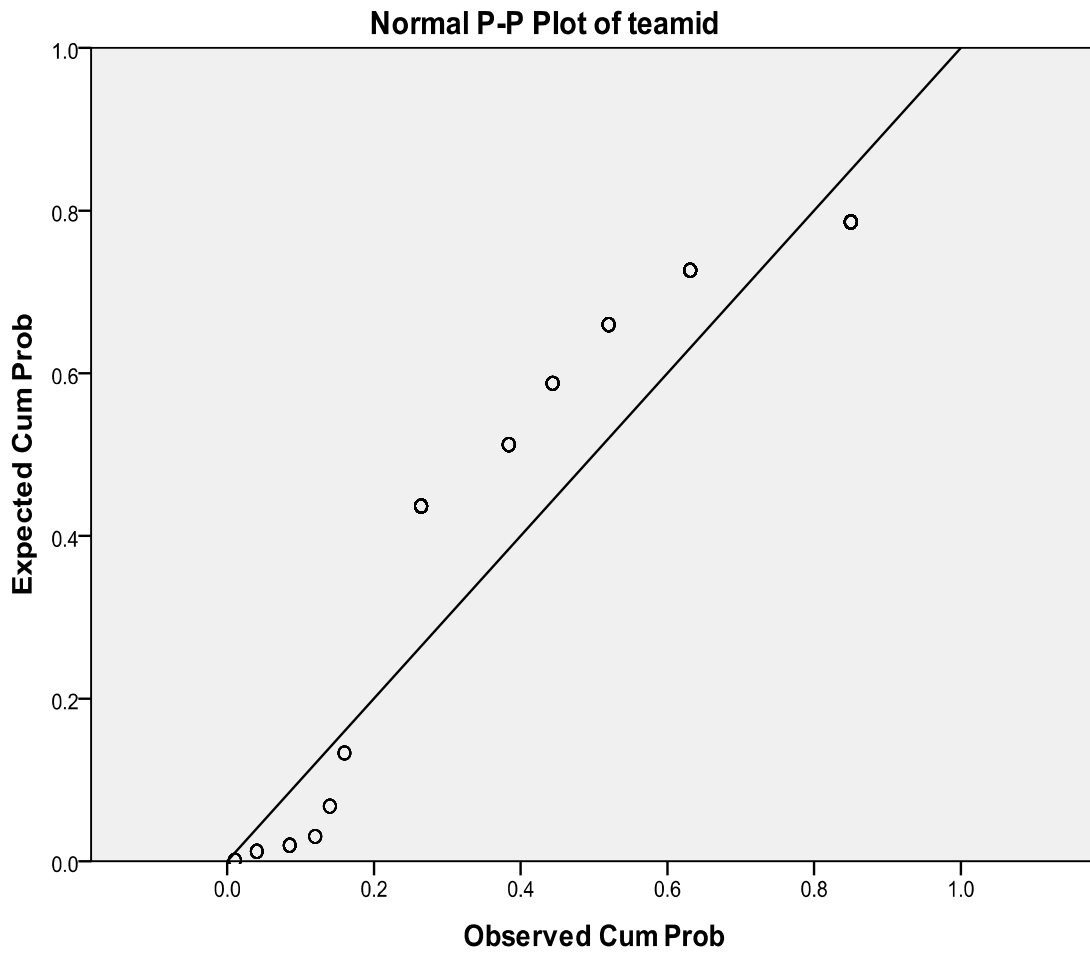
*Figure B.13 – Distributive Justice P-Plot*



*Figure B.14 – Procedural Justice P-Plot*



*Figure B.15 – Interactional Justice P-Plot*



*Figure B.16 – Team Identification P-Plot*

## APPENDIX C – INFORMED CONSENT

Dear Participant:

You have been invited to partake in a research study investigating counterproductive work behaviors among sport industry employees. If you volunteer for this research study, I will be asking you to fill out a survey on counterproductive work behaviors.

The research will involve asking you to talk about organizational factors that influence your behaviors, your individual traits that affect your behavior, and how your team identification may alter your behaviors at work.

The study will take you approximately twenty minutes to complete and you may not receive any benefit from participating in this study, but the survey I give you may help me understand how organizational factors, individual traits, and team identification influence sport employee behaviors.

If you volunteer for the study, you should remember that you may stop participating or withdraw from the study at any point. You will not be penalized in any way if you withdraw from the study. You may omit any question you do not feel comfortable answering without penalty at any time.

The information that you provide in this research will be kept strictly confidential. At no time will any of the information be shared outside the principle investigator and research staff. However, the results of this research may be published in a professional manner and may be presented at professional conferences. Nevertheless, your name and any other information about you will never be revealed. By filling out the survey it is assumed that you have consented to this research study.

If you have any questions about this study or if you have any questions about your rights as a research participant you may call me at [REDACTED] or email me at [REDACTED] or you may contact my major professor Dr. Michael Mondello at 850-645-4825. In addition, you may contact Florida State University's IRB Committee 850-644-7900 if you have any questions regarding this research study.

Sincerely,  
Michelle Brimecombe  
Sport Management Department, 1002 Tully Gym  
Florida State University

APPENDIX D – IRB APPROVAL

Office of the Vice President For Research  
Human Subjects Committee  
Tallahassee, Florida 32306-2742  
(850) 644-8673, FAX (850) 644-4392

APPROVAL MEMORANDUM

Date: 9/21/2010

To: Michelle Brimecombe [REDACTED]

Address: [REDACTED]

Dept.: SPORT MANAGEMENT

From: Thomas L. Jacobson, Chair

Re: Use of Human Subjects in Research  
An Exploratory Investigation on the Predictors of Counterproductive Work Behavior among  
Major League Baseball Employees

The application that you submitted to this office in regard to the use of human subjects in the proposal referenced above have been reviewed by the Secretary, the Chair, and two members of the Human Subjects Committee. Your project is determined to be Expedited per 45 CFR Â§ 46.110(7) and has been approved by an expedited review process.

The Human Subjects Committee has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals, which may be required.

If you submitted a proposed consent form with your application, the approved stamped consent form is attached to this approval notice. Only the stamped version of the consent form may be used in recruiting research subjects.

If the project has not been completed by 9/16/2011 you must request a renewal of approval for continuation of the project. As a courtesy, a renewal notice will be sent to you prior to your expiration date; however, it is your responsibility as the Principal Investigator to timely request renewal of your approval from the Committee.

You are advised that any change in protocol for this project must be reviewed and approved by the Committee prior to implementation of the proposed change in the protocol. A protocol change/amendment form is required to be submitted for approval by the Committee. In addition, federal regulations require that the Principal Investigator promptly report, in writing any unanticipated problems or adverse events involving risks to research subjects or others.

By copy of this memorandum, the Chair of your department and/or your major professor is reminded that he/she is responsible for being informed concerning research projects involving human subjects in the department, and should review protocols as often as needed to insure that the project is being conducted in compliance with our institution and with DHHS regulations.

This institution has an Assurance on file with the Office for Human Research Protection. The Assurance Number is IRB00000446.

Cc: Michael Mondello, Advisor [mmondello@fsu.edu]  
HSC No. 2010.4513

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## BIOLOGICAL SKETCH

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