COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR AS COPING:

AN EXAMINATION OF BENEFICIAL OUTCOMES

AND REPERCUSSIONS IN THE WORKPLACE

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A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department

of Psychology

University of Houston

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In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts

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Dena Rhodes

December, 2013

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ABSTRACT

Researchers have previously suggested that counterproductive work behavior (CWB) can

be a form of coping with job stressors (Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010; LePine,

Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005; Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007; Spector & Fox, 2002).

This study incorporated CWB with Folkman's (1997) coping model to explain why CWB

may function as a form of coping and possibly yield beneficial and consequential

outcomes for employees. This study found indirect evidence that individuals may solve

problems more frequently through CWB, as CWB was positively linked with problem-

focused coping (PFC) strategies. Furthermore, findings indicated that employees who

experienced high hindrance or challenge stressors tended to use CWB as a PFC strategy.

When employees experienced low levels of these stressors, individuals who frequently

engaged in CWB tended to experience reduced emotional well-being, PFC, self-efficacy,

self-esteem, and goal achievement compared to those who infrequently used CWB.

However, individuals who engaged in CWB often received a variety of repercussions for

their actions. A final component of the study examined the role of individual differences.

In particular, I examined whether politically skill employees were more likely to benefit

from CWB while escaping repercussions from the organization. Hypotheses regarding

political skill were not supported.

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Counterproductive Work Behavior as Coping:

An Examination of Beneficial Outcomes and Repercussions in the Workplace

Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) is a serious issue that can cost organizations billions of dollars (U.S. Chamber of Commerce, 2002), sever coworker and supervisor relationships (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), and reduce employee productivity (Penney & Spector, 2005; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). For these reasons, organizations often strive to minimize CWB. However, researchers have recently found evidence that some forms of CWB may actually be beneficial to employees. Specifically, CWB may be used as a coping mechanism to help employees deal with stressors in the workplace (Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005; Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007; Spector & Fox, 2002). For instance, an employee taking a long break is considered counterproductive from the organization's perspective. On the other hand, this behavior may also help the individual reduce emotional exhaustion and potentially improve his/her productivity later (Krischer et al., 2010; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005; Penney, Hunter, & Perry, 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2007; Spector & Fox, 2002).

In spite of suggestions by researchers about the role of CWB as a form of coping, few studies have empirically examined CWB as a form of coping or demonstrated how CWB can be integrated into coping models. Researchers have investigated two main types of coping: problem-focused coping (PFC) and emotion-focused coping (EFC). Some researchers have suggested that CWB can be a form of EFC (Jex, Bliese, Buzzell, & Primeau, 2001; Keller & Nesse, 2005; Krischer et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2005; Penney & Spector, 2008; Podsakoff et al., 2007). In this paper, I argue that CWB can

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function as either PFC or EFC. It should be noted, however, that CWB does not always have to reflect coping; for example, a mean-spirited person may engage in CWB solely for personal pleasure. However, the focus of this study was solely CWB that could be considered a coping response to a problem/stressor in the workplace.

Research regarding beneficial outcomes from CWB has been relatively untapped. One exception comes from a qualitative study by Tunstall, Penney, Hunter, and Weinberger (2006), who asked participants to describe a specific incident of CWB that they performed and outcomes that occurred as a result of their CWB (e.g., achieving the desired result, being reprimanded), among other inquiries. However, their data only captured a limited range of beneficial outcomes and repercussions from engaging in CWB. Another exception comes from Krischer et al. (2010), who found that under conditions of low organizational justice, employees who engaged in higher levels of withdrawal and production deviance tended to display lower levels of emotional exhaustion. However, the Krischer et al. (2010) study only examined two forms of CWB (withdrawal and production deviance) and one beneficial outcome from CWB (emotional well-being).

The first goal of the present study was to build on the Tunstall et al. (2006) and Krischer et al. (2010) studies by examining if CWB can serve as an effective coping mechanism. Therefore, I investigated whether CWB was associated with five beneficial outcomes of effective coping: increased emotional well-being (Brown, Westbrook & Challagalla, 2005; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Fox & Spector, 1999; Laux & Weber, 1991; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978; Penney & Spector, 2007; Spector & Fox, 2002), personal control (Allen & Greenberger, 1980; Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006; Fox &

Spector, 2006; Krischer et al., 2010), problem solving (Brown, Westbrook & Challagalla, 2005; Laux & Weber, 1991; Spector & Fox, 2002), self-esteem (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Laux & Weber, 1991; Lazarus, 1991), and goal achievement (Brown, Westbrook & Challagalla, 2005; Fox & Spector, 2010; Neuman & Baron, 2005; Schweitzer, Ordóñez, & Douma, 2004; Tepper, 2007). This research not only helps to increase understanding about employee motivations for CWB, but also provide insight to companies about helping employees achieve these same beneficial outcomes in ways that do not involve CWB.

The second goal of the present study was to determine how specific stressors may influence employee coping outcomes. CWB may be a more effective coping mechanism depending on whether employees experience challenges or hindrances at work. Challenge stressors are job demands that can be potentially beneficial to employees, such as deadlines or increased job responsibility (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000; Rodell & Judge, 2009). Handling these stressors successfully may help employees gain knowledge, experience, or promotion recommendations. Hindrance stressors, on the other hand, prevent people from achieving their goals and offer few rewarding experiences (Boswell, Olsen-Buchanan, & LePine, 2004; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Rodell & Judge, 2009). Examples include hassles with others, role ambiguity, or unclear organizational procedures (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Rodell & Judge, 2009). This study assessed whether CWB was an effective means of coping with both challenge and hindrance stressors.

Although employees who engage in CWB should attain numerous beneficial outcomes, employees may also experience repercussions from the organization if they are

discovered for their actions. Examples include getting suspended, receiving a warning, or being fired altogether. Currently, little empirical work has examined whether or not employees actually experience repercussions from their CWB (with the exception of Tunstall et al., 2006). Thus, the third goal of this study was to examine whether certain individuals - specifically, those with a high level of political skill - were more likely to receive beneficial outcomes from CWB while avoiding repercussions due to superior social skills, popularity, and sincere demeanor (Ferris et al., 2007).

Overall, this study makes several theoretical contributions to the literature. First, the study suggests that CWB can be considered a form of coping with job stressors. If empirical evidence supports the positive links between CWB and coping outcomes, this calls for an addendum to current CWB models. In addition, I argue that CWB (as coping) should affect a variety of employee outcomes, both beneficial *and* adverse. This study contributes to the literature by further investigating possible repercussions employees may experience for engaging in CWB. Another theoretical contribution of this study was that it examined the effectiveness of CWB as a coping mechanism in response to situational stressors (challenges and hindrances). Finally, this study contributed to the examination of individual differences regarding beneficial outcomes and repercussions from CWB.

This study bears practical implications for organizations as well. First, if organizations can understand employees' motivations behind CWB and the beneficial outcomes they wish to attain, organizations may be able to find ways to help employees reach these outcomes without engaging in CWB. Second, organizations should be aware of which types of CWB are most effective for employees (and under what conditions)

because these types of CWB may be attempted frequently. Any recurring CWB has the potential to cost organizations an exorbitant amount of money over time.

This paper is organized in several ways. First, I define CWB and describe several CWB typologies (as proposed by Robinson & Bennett, 1995 and Spector & Fox, 2002). Next, I explain the concept of coping and how CWB can be considered a form of coping. I show how CWB can be applied to Folkman's (1997) coping model as well as Latack and Havlovic's (1992) coping chart to represent problem-focused coping (PFC) and emotion-focused coping (EFC). I then discuss coping effectiveness, beneficial outcomes, and repercussions from CWB. Next, I explore the conditions under which employees might use CWB (i.e., when coping with hindrance and challenge stressors in the workplace). Finally, I discuss whether individual differences in political skill may affect one's likelihood of attaining beneficial outcomes from CWB while avoiding any repercussions from the organization.

Counterproductive Work Behavior

Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) is an intentional action performed by employees that can harm an organization, other employees, or both (Penney & Spector, 2005). Examples include gossiping about a coworker, wasting supplies, or leaving work early. CWB can also be referred to as employee deviance and workplace aggression. According to Hershcovis et al. (2007), "despite different labels (e.g., *aggression, deviance, retaliation*), the actual measurement of these constructs may be the same" (p. 228). That is, CWB, aggression, deviance, and retaliation all involve behaviors that violate organizational norms and have the potential to physically or mentally harm the organization and/or the employees (Hershcovis et al., 2007; Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Types of CWB

Robinson and Bennett (1995) describe two main dimensions of CWB. The first is interpersonally-directed deviance (CWB-I), or behavior aimed at other employees. Interpersonally-directed deviance can include minor behaviors, such as gossiping about others, or serious behaviors, such as sexual harassment. The second dimension of CWB is organizationally-directed deviance (CWB-O). This type of deviance can include minor behaviors, such as arriving late, or serious behaviors, such as ruining equipment.

According to Spector and Fox (2002), there are more specific types of CWB beyond these two dimensions: namely, abuse against others, production deviance, sabotage, withdrawal, and theft. Abuse against others refers to physical or emotional abuse directed at other people, such as creating rumors, being rude, arguing, or pushing someone. Production deviance refers to purposefully doing work incorrectly or inefficiently, such as working slowly or neglecting procedures (Krischer et al., 2010; Penney & Spector, 2008). Sabotage is the destruction of organizational property, such as harming equipment or wasting supplies. Withdrawal is when employees work less than what is required by the organization (Penney & Spector, 2008), such as taking excessive breaks, faking sickness, or not arriving to work on time. Lastly, theft is stealing from the organization, coworkers, or both.

Stressor-Strain Theory

CWB has been described in terms of a stressor-strain framework. According to Jex et al. (2001), job stressors are aggravating work conditions, such as an overbearing boss or a tense working environment. Job stressors provoke strain outcomes, which are employees' reactions to stressors (Jex et al., 2001). Strains can be psychological (such as

emotional exhaustion, job dissatisfaction, or turnover desires), physical (such as aches and pains), or behavioral (such as CWB; Spector, 2003).

Spector and Fox (2005) elaborate further on this theory with the stressor-emotion model of CWB. According to this model, people appraise environment stressors (e.g., organizational constraints or injustices) in terms of being threatening or beneficial before assessing coping strategies. If the stressor is perceived as harmful or a threat, this can sometimes lead to negative emotions and subsequently CWB (a behavioral strain). The extent of an employee's personal control in the workplace, such as autonomy, self-efficacy, and an external versus internal locus, may also have moderating effects and therefore affect one's likelihood of engaging in CWB (Fox & Spector, 2006).

Spector and Fox's (2005) stressor-emotion model of CWB is very similar to Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional stress model in that it includes an appraisal of stressors and the use of either problem-focused or emotion-focused coping strategies. However, Spector and Fox's (2005) stressor-emotion model differs in that the model ends at the CWB stage and does not explore subsequent outcomes from the CWB. For instance, CWB may help individuals cope with job stressors by increasing their self-esteem. By exploring these subsequent outcomes, one can determine how effective CWB is as a coping mechanism. Whereas Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional model does address individuals' emotional outcomes from coping (e.g., increased positive affect or distress), it does not address more specific outcomes an individual may receive. In the next few sections, I discuss why CWB is an important aspect of coping with job stressors, how it may be integrated into a revised version of Folkman's (1984) transactional stress model (see Folkman, 1997), and its implications in terms of employee outcomes.

CWB as Coping

Several researchers have suggested that CWB should not be constrained to merely negative reactions to stressful work conditions (Spector & Fox, 2005). Instead, CWB may reflect a form of coping with job stressors (Krischer et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2005; Penney, Hunter, & Perry, 2011; Penney & Spector, 2008; Podsakoff et al., 2007; Spector & Fox, 2002).

Various definitions of coping have been discussed in the literature (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985; Latack & Havlovic, 1992; Parasuraman & Hansen, 1987; Folkman, 2009; Zakowski, Hall, Klein & Baum, 2001), but the most common definition of coping is "the behavioural and cognitive efforts to manage external and internal demands that are perceived as taxing or exceeding a person's resources" (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005, p. 83). In other words, coping is a way to manage or deal with difficult demands.

According to Folkman (2008), there are three main types of coping: problem-focused coping (PFC), emotion-focused coping (EFC) and meaning-focused coping (MFC). PFC directly addresses a problem/stressor (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005; Krischer et al., 2010; Zakowski et al., 2001) and aims to change the event causing the stress (Gowan, Riordan, & Gatewood, 1999). For example, if a person has too many work duties and responsibilities, a person could engage in PFC by prioritizing assignments (Latack & Havlovic, 1992). EFC, on the other hand, aims to reduce one's emotional response to the stressor by regulating emotions (Fox & Spector, 2006; Krischer et al., 2010; Zakowski et al., 2001). Examples include venting, using drugs/alcohol (Baker & Berenbaum, 2007; Latack & Havlovic, 1992), devaluing the importance of an event, or thinking optimistically (Folkman, 1984).

The last main type of coping is meaning-focused coping (MFC). MFC occurs when people use beliefs, values, and goals to motivate themselves during a stressful period (Folkman, 2008) and is considered an additional coping step beyond PFC or EFC (Folkman, 1997). For example, if an outcome from engaging in PFC or EFC is unfavorable, then one may decide to engage in MFC to reduce distress and increase positive affect (Folkman, 1997). However, because CWB refers to behaviors and not cognitions, this current paper focuses on PFC and EFC as potential forms of CWB.

CWB Coping

Previous researchers have suggested that CWB can be a form of coping with stressors (Krischer et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2008; Podsakoff et al., 2007; Spector & Fox, 2002). CWB coping can be categorized as either PFC or EFC. Problem-focused CWB can be considered more instrumental; for instance, Tepper (2007) speculated that supervisors may use abusive tactics against low performing employees to improve employee performance. Theft may help an employee solve a problem under stressful circumstances, such as stealing an important document to meet an approaching project deadline. In contrast, emotion-focused CWB coping can be considered a strategy to regulate emotions. For example, deliberately working slowly (i.e., production deviance) may help employees increase emotional well-being from their job by reducing physiological reactions, such as heart rate or blood pressure. Minimizing one's time at work (i.e., withdrawal) may be an attempt to regulate negative emotions and conserve resources by reducing one's exposure to stressful job conditions (Keller & Nesse, 2005; LePine et al., 2005; Penney & Spector, 2008; Podsakoff et al., 2007).

Latack and Havlovic (1992) created a chart to classify various subtypes of PFC and EFC (see Figure 1). The chart lists numerous coping examples which can be considered CWB. For example, social coping involves seeking out social support or venting one's frustrations (Latack & Havlovic, 1992), but venting may be harmful especially if the target is a supervisor or another coworker. Malicious gossip can also be considered abuse against others (Penney & Spector, 2008). Delaying or leaving undone normal job responsibilities is, by definition, production deviance. Finally, avoiding a stressor by changing to non-work activities (e.g., drinking on the job, doing drugs) can also be considered production deviance because it may slow down one's work progress or impede one's ability to do work effectively.

Bowling and Eschleman (2010) offer one counterpoint to CWB as coping by claiming that CWB "represent[s] a response to ineffective coping" (p. 92) as opposed to coping itself. For example, they claim, disengagement at work and drug use can both be considered ineffective coping methods. One might engage in CWB as a result, such as skipping work or working slowly. But even in these situations, disengagement at work can be considered a form of withdrawal and the usage of drugs can be considered production deviance if it interferes with one's ability to perform job tasks effectively (Biron, Bamberger, & Noyman, 2011; Thoma et al., 2011). The additional examples given from the Latack and Havlovic (1992) chart suggest that CWB *is* coping- not a response to coping.

CWB and Folkman's (1997) Coping Model

In this section, I will integrate CWB into Folkman's (1997) coping model. Previous research has generally focused on negative aspects of CWB, such as lost

productivity, damaged property, aggression against others, stealing, wasted resources, and increased turnover (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Bowling & Echleman, 2010; Hershcovis, Turner, Barling, Arnold, Dupré, Inness, LeBlanc, & Sivanathan, 2007; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Spector & Fox, 2005). With the exceptions of Krischer et al. (2010) and Tunstall et al. (2006), research has seldom studied how employees may benefit from CWB. Integrating the CWB literature with Folkman's (1997) coping model helps fill this gap by demonstrating the role of CWB as a coping mechanism and how CWB can determine beneficial or consequential outcomes for individuals. On a note of caution, the reader should be aware that this model does *not* imply that all forms of coping are CWB or that all CWB is a form of coping. Rather, the adapted model shows the process through which CWB may reflect employee attempts at coping with job stressors and produce favorable or unfavorable outcomes for the actor.

Folkman's (1997) Revised Stress and Coping Model

Folkman's (1997) model (see Figure 2) begins with an event, which is any encounter that can be considered stressful, neutral, or a positive experience (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). An example would be an impending work deadline. Through primary appraisal, individuals decide the nature or significance of the event (Folkman, 1984) and whether or not it can be considered harmful, potentially threatening, or a challenge. A harm appraisal means that injury or damage has already occurred, such as "a loss of a limb, damage to a friendship, or loss of self-esteem", and is accompanied by sadness or anger (Folkman, 1984, p. 840). A threat appraisal is the "potential for harm or loss" and is accompanied by anxiety or fear (Folkman, 1984, p. 840). Lastly, a challenge appraisal

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is "an opportunity for growth, mastery, or gain" and is accompanied by excitement, eagerness and confidence (Folkman, 1984, p. 840).

In secondary appraisal, people assess their coping resources and decide how to resolve the harm, threat, or challenge (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989; Folkman, 1984). The person's coping method (PFC or EFC) will attempt to serve this function (Carver et al., 1989). As previously discussed, CWB can be used as a form of PFC or EFC (Keller & Nesse, 2005; Krischer et al., 2010; Latack & Havlovic, 1992; Penney & Spector, 2008). An example of CWB in this coping model would be first perceiving a threat (e.g., "My job demands may prevent me from finishing this project on time; I might get in trouble with my supervisor") and then deciding to take a quick break (i.e., withdrawal) to increase emotional well-being as a method of EFC.

Once the person decides on an initial coping method (PFC or EFC), the event outcome will either be favorable (i.e., a beneficial outcome) or unfavorable (i.e., distress). In the previous example, the person's withdrawal may effectively help the person increase emotional well-being, constituting a beneficial outcome from the CWB. If taking a break does not help the individual increase emotional well-being, according to Folkman (1997), this constitutes an unfavorable coping outcome and the person experiences a feeling of distress. The individual may subsequently engage in meaning-focused coping (MFC; using beliefs and values to motivate oneself) or repeat the whole coping cycle again.

CWB as coping helps fill a void not only in the Folkman (1997) coping model, but also in the previously mentioned Spector and Fox (2005) stressor-emotion model of CWB. Specifically, Spector and Fox's (2005) model incorporates CWB as a behavioral

response to workplace stressors, but does not discuss beneficial or consequential outcomes after engaging in CWB. Folkman's (1997) model, on the other hand, shows how one's coping style can help determine emotional outcomes, but does not explicitly incorporate CWB as a form of coping. Evidence from Krischer et al. (2010) as well as examples of PFC and EFC provided by Latack and Havlovic (1992) suggest that CWB can be a form of either PFC or EFC, and thus CWB should be included in the Folkman's (1997) model under the 'coping' step to fully implicate how CWB will affect employee outcomes. Furthermore, the outcomes that result from CWB may be more complex than simply positive affect or distress; for instance, CWB may help individuals achieve a goal or increase self-esteem in the workplace. The following section describes several types of beneficial outcomes that employees may experience from effective coping.

<div align="center">**CWB Coping Effectiveness**</div>

According to Brown, Westbrook, and Challagalla (2005), effective coping "enables individuals to resolve problems, relieve emotional distress, and stay on track toward achieving their goals" (p. 792). In the sections below, I discuss several beneficial outcomes that occur from effective coping and how CWB may enable employees to achieve those outcomes.

Outcomes of Effective Coping

Several researchers have attempted to determine the outcomes of effective coping. Zeidner and Saklofske (1996) as cited in Folkman and Moskowitz (2004) came up with eight goals of coping: "Resolution of the conflict or stressful situation, reduction of physiological and biochemical reactions, reduction of psychological distress, normative social functioning, return to pre-stress activities, well-being of self and others affected by

the situation, maintaining positive self-esteem, and perceived effectiveness" (p. 754).

However, Folkman and Moskowitz (2004) point out that some situations cannot reach

resolution, such as "chronic illness, caregiving, unemployment, bereavement" (p. 754),

making the application of the eight goals somewhat limited. Additionally, the "reduction

of physiological reactions" is inconsistent with some methods of coping, such as

confronting an abusive coworker about his/her behavior (i.e., PFC) or venting to someone

about high workload (i.e., EFC), all of which may increase physiological arousal.

Other coping literature suggests that there are five general beneficial outcomes

from effective coping: increased emotional well-being (Brown, Westbrook &

Challagalla, 2005; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Fox & Spector, 1999; Laux & Weber,

1991; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978; Penney & Spector, 2007; Spector & Fox, 2002),

personal control (Allen & Greenberger, 1980; Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006; Fox &

Spector, 2006; Krischer et al., 2010), problem-solving (Brown, Westbrook & Challagalla,

2005; Laux & Weber, 1991; Spector & Fox, 2002), self-esteem (Cohen-Charash &

Mueller, 2007; Laux & Weber, 1991; Lazarus, 1991), and goal achievement (Brown,

Westbrook & Challagalla, 2005; Fox & Spector, 2010; Neuman & Baron, 2005;

Schweitzer, Ordóñez, & Douma, 2004; Tepper, 2007). If CWB can function as coping,

employees should be able to achieve any of these five beneficial outcomes (or

combinations of outcomes) through their CWB. For instance, an employee might take

frequent breaks during work hours to increase emotional well-being and a sense of

personal control. An employee might yell at a coworker to solve a problem (e.g.,

facilitate his/her performance). Or, a stressed employee may be up for a promotion along

with several other individuals; to achieve this goal, he/she might spread rumors about the other candidates to ensure that they do not receive the promotion.

Recently, a few researchers reported findings about beneficial CWB outcomes. Tunstall et al. (2006) presented an open-ended questionnaire to employed college students and a national sample of working adults that asked participants to describe a specific incident of CWB that they performed, including their work behaviors, emotions felt during CWB, outcomes that occurred as a result of their CWB, and perceived harm from their CWB. Of those who reported engaging in withdrawal or production deviance, almost a third felt positive or neutral emotions, whereas for theft - a more serious type of CWB - 48% felt positive or neutral emotions (Tunstall et al., 2006). When questioned about outcomes from their CWB, the same pattern emerged: subjects reported positive or neutral outcomes from production deviance (57%), withdrawal (61%), theft (81%), and sabotage (100%). These findings suggest that more serious types of CWB such as theft and sabotage may be associated with more beneficial outcomes for individuals. However, the damages resulting from theft and sabotage could be overall more costly to the organization in terms of repairs and replacements to organizational property.

Krischer et al. (2010) also investigated whether employees experienced beneficial outcomes (i.e., increased emotional well-being) from engaging in CWB. The researchers predicted that under uncontrollable situations, such as low procedural and distributive justice, emotion-focused CWB would be positively associated with reduced emotional exhaustion. This hypothesis was consistent with prior research that has suggested that EFC is more effective than PFC under uncontrollable situations (Goral, Kesimci, & Gencoz, 2006; Zakowski et al., 2001). Krischer et al. (2010) surveyed 295 employees of

various industries (e.g., government, education, finance). They found that under conditions of low distributive justice, employees who engaged in high levels of production deviance and withdrawal reported less emotional exhaustion than employees who engaged in low levels. In other words, under conditions of low distributive justice, the highest levels of production deviance and withdrawal were associated with the lowest levels of emotional exhaustion. Additionally, employees who engaged in higher levels of withdrawal under low procedural justice also reported less emotional exhaustion than those who engaged in lower levels of withdrawal. Krischer et al. (2010) speculated that these CWBs helped to increase employees' emotional well-being by giving employees a greater sense of control in the situation. The Krischer et al. (2010) results overall suggest that CWB may benefit employees by serving as a coping mechanism and enhancing emotional well-being.

Other support comes from Schweitzer et al. (2004), who found evidence that unethical behaviors may help people attain beneficial outcomes. The researchers conducted a study to examine goal-setting behavior and whether incentives might produce unethical behavior (i.e., lying about one's performance to attain a reward). The researchers had 154 undergraduates engage in a word creation task from a series of letters. They either instructed participants to 1) do their best, 2) achieve a specific goal, such as making nine words per round, or 3) create nine words each round and get paid two dollars for each word (i.e., reward condition). Schweitzer et al. (2004) found that participants in the mere goal or reward conditions lied about their performance on the word task in order to appear that they achieved the required word goal and/or attain the monetary reward. This effect was especially common for those who missed their goals by

a small amount. This study demonstrated that unethical behavior (namely, lying) was used to overcome performance stressors and successfully achieve goals, such as meeting the word task requirements and/or gaining the financial reward. When applying this study to a work setting, these findings suggest that when faced with job stressors, individuals might resort to CWB as a coping mechanism in order to achieve their goals.

In summary, these studies discuss several beneficial outcomes that people may achieve from CWB (feeling positive emotions, increasing emotional well-being, and achieving goals). Two of the studies (Krischer et al., 2010 and Schweitzer et al., 2004) also included the presence of a stressor (e.g., organizational injustices, meeting a required goal), which was useful in establishing how people may turn to CWB as a coping mechanism. However, there are still several gaps in these studies that the present study attempted to address. For example, the beneficial outcomes examined in all three studies were somewhat limited. I attempted to expand upon the work of these studies by examining a broader range of other beneficial outcomes from CWB within the context of coping. Hence, I expected to bridge CWB and coping literatures to examine whether CWB could be an effective coping strategy and thus enable employees to achieve a variety of beneficial outcomes. Specifically, I examined coping outcomes such as increased emotional well-being, problem-solving, self-esteem, personal control, and goal achievement. Overall, these five categories were the most agreed upon by researchers and the most comprehensive. In other words, most coping outcomes fall into at least one of these five categories. This inclusivity made these categories a good way of assessing beneficial employee outcomes from CWB coping.

Problem-solving. The first beneficial outcome from CWB is solving problems. For example, supervisors may be faced with a job stressor such as low subordinate performance. To cope with this job stressor (and solve the problem), supervisors may use abusive tactics against low performing employees in order to increase employee performance (Tepper, 2007). Other CWB such as theft and sabotage may also be utilized as ways to solve problems in the workplace. According to Spector et al. (2006), employee motives for theft are likely instrumental, such as obtaining an important document or securing supplies for non-work uses. Mustaine and Tewksbury (2002) also concur, stating that a major reason for employee theft is simply economic need. Sabotage can also be used to solve a variety of problems, such as "[drawing] attention to a problem, [affecting] organizational change, [receiving] peer acceptance, or [gaining] competitive advantage over peers" (Spector et al., 2006, p. 449). Therefore, I will operationalize problem-solving with problem-focused coping (PFC), which captures problem-solving strategies that participants might use in the workplace.

Hypothesis 1: CWB will be positively related to PFC.

Increasing personal control. Another beneficial outcome from engaging in CWB is increasing personal control in a stressful situation. Personal control can manifest as self-efficacy (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005; Fox & Spector, 2006; Zellars, Perrewé, Rossi, Tepper, & Ferris, 2008), autonomy (Fox & Spector, 2006; Spector, 1986), or decision latitude (Karasek, 1979). Because autonomy and decision latitude generally reflect job characteristics (for instance, the control one actually has over rules and procedures), they are less likely to change as a result of coping behaviors, including CWB. However, occupational self-efficacy is more likely to fluctuate. Occupational self-efficacy captures

people's beliefs about how competent they are in the workplace or "the extent to which individuals believe that they have the capacity to accomplish their tasks [at work]" (Zellars et al., 2008, p. 557). Occupational self-efficacy can be considered a sense of control because it functions as a sense of empowerment to employees (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005). This empowerment enhances employees' beliefs they are capable of accomplishing their tasks and goals (Fox & Spector, 2006) and that they can successfully influence decisions or outcomes (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005). Therefore, this study concentrated on occupational self-efficacy as a method of increasing personal control in the workplace.

There are numerous ways employees may use CWB as coping mechanism in order to increase personal control. According to Barth (1988) as cited in Cohen-Charash and Mueller (2007), hostility can help boost one's sense of personal control by "compensat[ing] for one's sense of inadequacy" (p. 667). This assertion suggests that one may engage in abuse against others in order to increase one's self-efficacy. Krischer et al. (2010) also suspected that that production deviance and withdrawal may have increased employees' sense of control under low distributive justice. According to Lind and Van den Bos (2002), stressors (such as distributive injustices) are more likely to be deemed uncontrollable when they come from a higher source in the organization, such as a supervisor or the organization itself. In order to restore resources drained by distributive injustice, employees may engage in withdrawal or production deviance. These CWBs may allow employees to escape a stressful environment and feel better equipped to handle stressors later (i.e., display increased self-efficacy).

According to Allen and Greenberger (1980) and Spector and Fox (2002), experiencing insufficient control can also increase employees' feelings of anger and anxiety, which in turn can lead to CWB. For example, if a supervisor is overly rude and demanding to an employee, this employee may feel reduced self-efficacy because he/she may not be able to satisfy the supervisor's wishes. By using CWB as a coping mechanism, the employee may actually be able to increase his/her self-efficacy. For example, to cope with the demanding supervisor, the employee may take frequent breaks or work slowly in order to feel more capable of handling stressors later (through resource replenishment). If an employee is faced with a group deadline, he/she may act in an abusive manner to facilitate other group members' performance; this abuse may enhance the employee's belief that he/she can accomplish tasks effectively.

Hypothesis 2: CWB will be positively related to occupational self-efficacy.

Emotional well-being. If CWB is an effective coping mechanism, then engaging in CWB should also help increase employees' emotional well-being. Employees may react to job stressors via psychological strains, such as anxiety, anger, or depression. However, engaging in CWB may help mitigate these effects. For example, substance use may help to manage or regulate one's emotions (i.e., EFC; Baker & Berenbaum, 2007; Latack & Havlovic, 1992), but is counterproductive at work if it hinders one's ability to perform job tasks effectively. According to LePine et al. (2005) and Podsakoff et al. (2007), taking frequent breaks may be an effective way to cope with hindrance stressors at work. Withdrawal may serve as EFC by limiting employees' "exposure to stressful situations and preventing subsequent strain" (Krischer et al., 2010, p. 155). For instance, Spector et al. (2006) found that a primary antecedent of withdrawal included feeling

upset; therefore, withdrawal may be used as a coping mechanism particularly to relieve this distress and increase emotional well-being.

Hypothesis 3: CWB will be positively related to emotional well-being.

Protecting self-esteem. Another beneficial outcome that may be associated with coping and CWB is the protection of self-esteem (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Laux & Weber, 1991; Lazarus, 1991). Individuals are likely to engage in CWB when an event threatens favorable views of themselves (Baumeister, 1995; Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996). This effect is particularly pronounced for people with high self-esteem, such as narcissists, who face an ego threat (Baumeister et al., 1996). An ego threat is likely to spur negative affect, which in turn increases one's likelihood of engaging in CWB (Penney & Spector, 2002). In addition, employees who feel envious of other coworkers may target individuals through CWB, such as sabotaging another employee's work area or acting rude to a disliked coworker. CWB may be used to make the aggressor feel better and reduce his/her feelings of inferiority (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007), thereby protecting or enhancing self-esteem.

Hypothesis 4: CWB will be positively related to organization-based self-esteem.

Achieving goals. Finally, employees may engage in CWB in order to achieve specific goals (Brown et al., 2005; Fox & Spector, 2010; Laux & Weber, 1991; Neuman & Baron, 2005; Schweitzer et al., 2004; Tepper, 2007). According to Neuman and Baron (2005), bullying or emotional abuse towards others is often used as a method of goal achievement. For instance, an employee may spread rumors about other coworkers to ensure that they do not receive a promotion opportunity. Sabotage may also be goal-oriented; for example, an employee may undermine a coworker's project so that he/she

can take charge (Neuman & Baron, 2005). Production deviance, such as work stoppages or slowdowns, may also be used as a tactic to influence labor-management negotiations.

Hypothesis 5: CWB will be positively related to goal achievement.

CWB and Employee Repercussions

Whereas engaging in CWB may result in beneficial outcomes, employees may also be punished if their actions are discovered. It is important to emphasize that the beneficial outcomes an employee may attain from CWB (solving problems, achieving goals, increasing personal control, increasing emotional well-being, and protecting self-esteem) are separate from consequences administered from the organization (i.e., employee repercussions). An act of CWB might yield high beneficial outcomes as well as high repercussions. For example, engaging in sabotage may help an employee to achieve a goal (e.g., establish equity against a coworker); however, the action may additionally result in the suspension or firing of the employee.

Deonance theory (Folger, 2001) helps to explain why people engage in CWB without considering the consequences. Deonance theory utilizes injunctive norms to determine what actions are appropriate or inappropriate based on people's values, beliefs, or morals (Bell & Main, 2011; Folger 2001). Fairness among individuals is generally perceived to be a norm or moral obligation (Beugré, 2010; Folger, 2001). When perceptions of justice are violated, people often engage in behaviors that aim at re-establishing fairness, such as CWB (Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002; Greenberg, 1990; Krischer et al., 2010; Penney & Spector, 2008; Spector et al., 2006). In cases of justice violations, deonance theory claims that the end goal of a behavior is to simply re-establish fairness or to "do the right thing". For instance, assaulting a workplace bully

might be viewed as giving the bully what he/she deserves. However, people may not consider whether or not their actions have organizational or even legal consequences. Assaulting a known bully may restore equity, which constitutes a beneficial outcome for the employee; at the same time, this action may get the employee fired and possibly sued as well.

Hypothesis 6: CWB will be positively associated with repercussions.

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When is CWB Effective Coping?

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Thus far, I have argued that CWB may be an effective coping mechanism that is associated with beneficial outcomes. However, the conditions under which one engages in CWB may determine the effectiveness of CWB as a coping mechanism. In other words, beneficial outcomes from CWB may be more or less likely to occur depending on the type of stressor one experiences.

Hindrance Stressors and Beneficial CWB Outcomes

One of the main types of job stressors is known as a hindrance stressor. Hindrance stressors impede one's abilities to benefit from assigned tasks or achieve one's professional goals (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). As Boswell et al. (2004) wryly put it, hindrance stressors provide "all of the pain but none of the gain" (p. 167). These stressors may manifest as role ambiguity (Rodell & Judge, 2009), concerns about job security, hassles with others (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; LePine et al., 2005; Rodell & Judge, 2009), or organizational politics (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Podsakoff et al., 2007). For instance, a person may be told conflicting information about how to perform a task; these actions may delay the task being performed correctly and hinder the person's understanding about his/her duties.

In order to cope with hindrance stressors, employees may turn to CWB. For example, an employee experiencing role ambiguity may snipe at others to manage his/her emotional distress. Previous research has positively linked hindrance stressors (such as interpersonal conflict or organizational constraints) with CWB, including withdrawal (Bayram, Gursakal, & Bilgel, 2009; Podsakoff et al., 2007; Spector et al., 2006; Storms & Spector, 1987), abuse, sabotage (Bayram et al., 2009, Spector et al., 2006; Storms & Spector, 1987), theft (Bayram et al., 2009; Spector et al., 2006), and production deviance (Bayram et al., 2009; Spector et al., 2006). These findings suggest that employees may use CWB as a coping mechanism in response to hindrance stressors. However, no research to date has examined whether CWB is an effective means of coping with hindrance stressors (i.e., associated with beneficial outcomes). I will now explain the rationale behind why CWB may be useful for coping with hindrance stressors through conservation of resources theory (COR) and the CWB coping model.

First, COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) emphasizes the role of resources in preventing psychological strain outcomes (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Hobfoll, 1989; 2001). Resources can be objects, conditions (things that are valued and sought after, such as a promotion or CEO status), personal characteristics, or energies (such as time devoted to a project). According to COR, people are motivated to protect their current resources, attain more resources, and prevent the loss of resources. One way to replenish resources is through effective coping (Folkman, 2008). Because CWB can be considered a form of coping, CWB may replenish resources that are depleted from hindrance stressors. Hence, higher levels of CWB should replenish greater resources for employees as well as enable employees to attain numerous beneficial outcomes. For instance, employees may take

frequent breaks to manage emotional distress from work hassles. Or, when faced with interpersonal conflict, employees may increase their self-esteem by belittling others.

Hypotheses 7a-e: The negative relationship between hindrance stressors and a) emotional well-being, b) PFC, c) occupational self-efficacy, d) organization-based self-esteem, and e) goal achievement will be moderated by CWB such that the relationship will be weaker for individuals who engage in high (i.e., frequent) CWB rather than low (i.e., infrequent) CWB.

Challenge Stressors and Beneficial CWB Outcomes

Another type of job stressor is known as a challenge stressor. According to Cavanaugh et al. (2000), challenge stressors present opportunities for rewarding experiences or gains in one's profession, such as promotions, enhanced knowledge, or increased self-efficacy (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Rodell & Judge, 2009). Examples of challenge stressors are increased job responsibility, workload, approaching deadlines (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Rodell & Judge, 2009), and job complexity (Rodell & Judge, 2009). An employee who is given increased job responsibility or scope may be highly motivated to tackle these challenges. For example, the employee's effective handling of these extra duties may impress upper management and open opportunities for a possible promotion or pay raise.

Unlike hindrance stressors, challenge stressors give employees the opportunity for personal growth and/or the achievement of one's goals (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Rodell & Judge, 2009). However, it is not entirely clear how CWB will affect one's likelihood of attaining beneficial outcomes when facing challenge stressors. I will briefly discuss two contrasting interpretations.

One interpretation is that when it comes to challenge stressors, engaging in occasional CWB may be more advantageous to employees than engaging in frequent CWB. For instance, an employee who takes a few unscheduled breaks may replenish enough resources to work more effectively afterwards, thereby meeting his/her work deadline. Without engaging in withdrawal, the employee's resources may have been too depleted to effectively finish the project (if at all). On the other hand, abundant unscheduled breaks may interfere with the employee's ability to complete the assigned tasks on time. Therefore, challenge stressors may have a stronger positive relationship with beneficial outcomes for individuals who engage in low (i.e., infrequent) CWB rather than high (i.e., frequent) CWB. However, this interpretation differs from the main perspective of this paper in that higher levels of CWB (rather than lower levels) should be more effective coping mechanisms and yield more beneficial outcomes. Perhaps the goals that people typically desire from challenge stressors (e.g., promotions, increased pay, enhanced knowledge, increased self-efficacy) become blocked when engaging in higher levels of CWB. Therefore, frequently using CWB as a coping mechanism may interfere with people's ability to meet challenge stressors.

An alternative interpretation is that employees who use higher levels of CWB may cope more effectively with challenge stressors (compared to individuals who engage in lower levels). For example, continuously exaggerating one's involvement in successful work projects may eventually mislead supervisors into granting the employee a promotion. If a deadline is rapidly approaching, an employee may often engage in CWB (e.g., coercing others, stealing) in order to attain necessary materials for the project. To handle increased job responsibilities, one may frequently yell at other employees to

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facilitate their performance; this abuse may increase one's sense of personal control or self-efficacy. In these cases, higher levels of CWB may be more advantageous to employees coping with challenge stressors compared to lower levels of CWB.

In summary, the first perspective argues that modest levels of CWB should help employees gain beneficial outcomes and help them cope effectively with challenge stressors; furthermore, higher levels of CWB may distract employees and prevent them from attaining the rewards that accompany challenge stressors (e.g., increased knowledge, self-efficacy). The second perspective is that as CWB increases, employees should experience more beneficial outcomes. Employees should be able to apply their CWB in useful ways that can help address challenge stressors (e.g., solve problems, achieve goals). Hence, higher levels of CWB should be optimal for the employee when facing challenge stressors.

Neither the CWB coping model nor COR theory provides a clear direction on which argument is correct. The CWB coping model (combined with COR theory) proposes that CWB can be considered a form of coping with job stressors; therefore, CWB should replenish employees' resources. Although resources typically foster beneficial outcomes, such as eustress and engagement (Hobfoll, 1989), it is not clear whether or not the resources gained through CWB can be misdirected or misused. In other words, high CWB may not direct resources towards meeting challenge stressors. For instance, employees who engage in low levels of CWB may be able to use CWB to their advantage (e.g., take a quick break and return to their work), but those who engage in excessive CWB may become distracted from the tasks at hand (e.g., taking a few days off and missing important deadlines). On the other hand, because CWB should be able to

help employees increase their resources and achieve numerous beneficial outcomes,

employees should theoretically be able to direct their CWB towards meeting challenge

stressors effectively. For example, an employee who has been granted increased job

responsibilities may need his/her coworkers' cooperation; the employee may frequently

act in an abusive manner in order to facilitate cooperation (e.g., threatening others).

Individuals who refrain from CWB may have more difficulty with handling their

increased job responsibilities and attaining these beneficial outcomes. In conclusion, I

have no specific prediction about whether or not higher versus lower levels of CWB are

optimal for employees who face challenge stressors. Instead, I will examine how CWB

affects the relationship between challenge stressors and beneficial outcomes in an

exploratory manner.

Research Question 1: Does CWB moderate the relationship between challenge

stressors and beneficial outcomes? If so, how?

Political Skill

Not only may a particular type of stressor affect one's likelihood of attaining

beneficial outcomes from CWB, but individual differences may also play a role.

Compared to others, some employees may show greater ease attaining beneficial

outcomes from CWB and escaping consequences from the organization. Although

researchers have yet to examine political skill in the context of CWB coping, COR theory

(Hobfoll, 1989) can explain why politically skilled employees possess abundant

resources and how these resources enable them to be more successful than others at work.

Specifically, high resources may enable politically skilled employees to achieve more

beneficial outcomes from CWB while avoiding repercussions.

Background of Political Skill

According to Ferris, Treadway, Hochwarter, Kacmar, Douglas, and Frink (2005), political skill is "the ability to effectively understand others at work [and] to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives" (p. 127). Political skill has been found to be a separate construct from social skill (Luthans, Hodgetts, & Rosenkrantz, 1988; Peled, 2000) or emotional intelligence (Ferris et al., 2005). According to Ferris et al. (2007) and Perrewé, Ferris, Frink, and Anthony (2000), political skill can either be a natural trait or learned by individuals (thus subject to improvement through time and practice). It involves four dimensions: social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability, and apparent sincerity (Ferris et al., 2007).

The first political skill dimension, social astuteness, involves having a high understanding of others' emotions as well as one's own emotions (Ferris et al., 2007). A politically skilled individual knows how to say just the right thing in order to elicit the proper emotion from the second party. This characteristic makes the individual particularly clever in dealing or negotiating with others (Ferris et al., 2007).

The second political skill dimension is interpersonal influence. Individuals high in political skill are successfully able to influence people around them in order to carry out personal agendas. In particular, high political skill employees are behaviorally flexible and can manipulate their behaviors in ways that will influence others effectively (Pfeffer, 1992 as cited in Ferris et al., 2007).

Networking ability is the third dimension of political skill. This dimension involves having connections with many people – especially those with power and

valuable assets – and forming strong friendships and alliances with those people (Ferris et al., 2007). Being in this position means also having the opportunities and resources (via friendships with others) to accomplish one's personal objectives.

The final dimension is known as apparent sincerity. High politically skilled individuals appear genuine and honest to others. This characteristic suggests to others that politically skilled individuals possess no ulterior motives. Whereas some politically skilled people may actually be genuine and honest, others use a facade of apparent sincerity in order to gain advantages. For example, other employees might be more likely to grant another employee a favor if it seems he/she has no ulterior motives for the request. Other employees, believing the person's sincerity, may also defend the person in the presence of accusations of wrongdoing (e.g., CWB).

Political Skill and Conservation of Resources Theory (COR)

Resources may explain why politically skilled employees are so successful with influencing others and obtaining organizational goals. Politically skilled employees possess resource advantages via social astuteness, apparent sincerity, and interpersonal influence, and networking abilities. Each dimension serves a unique purpose that helps employees become more effective in the workplace. According to COR theory, resources help employees achieve tasks and reduce strains caused by job stressors (Hobfoll, 1989). Therefore, these four dimensions (i.e., resources) enable high politically skilled employees to be "in a better position to accumulate and protect scarce organizational resources" compared to low politically skilled employees (Ferris et al., 2007, p. 301).

In addition to these four dimensions, politically skilled employees also tend to be popular with others (Cullen, Fan, & Liu, 2012). Research suggests that popular

employees are likely to have greater access to resources and fewer hindrances to attaining resources. Cullen et al. (2012) found that political skill increased one's popularity, which in turn decreased mistreatment from others. The authors also found that political skill was negatively related to workplace ostracism and workplace conflict. Interestingly, even when popular students are disliked by others, Eder (1985) found that university students "still behave positively toward [popular individuals]" (p. 21). This finding suggests that popularity is an integral resource for politically skilled employees, especially for attaining beneficial outcomes from CWB.

Political Skill and Beneficial Outcomes

Because resources help employees reduce strains caused by job stressors (Hobfoll, 1989), politically skilled employees should be better able to use CWB to attain beneficial outcomes compared to low politically skilled employees. Although politically skilled employees may achieve a variety of beneficial outcomes from CWB, they should be particularly likely to achieve goals and increase their sense of personal control from the behaviors. Politically skilled individuals strongly desire to get what they want and are focused on achieving both personal and organizational objectives (Ferris et al., 2005; Ferris et al., 2007). Therefore, CWB may aid politically skilled employees by allowing them to achieve their goals and increase their personal control over others.

Social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking abilities, and apparent sincerity all serve as resources that help politically skilled employees achieve their objectives at work. Therefore, employees high in political skill should be more effective in using their CWB to achieve goals compared to those low in political skill. For instance, an employee may spread rumors about a coworker (i.e., abuse) in order to

prevent him/her from getting a promotion. A politically skilled employee might be more likely to be believed by others due to close alliances and a sincere demeanor. The news may also be spread further and faster due to superior networking abilities. However, a low politically skilled employee may not spread rumors as effectively due to low popularity and poor networking. This employee may also be met with skeptical responses due to lack of apparent sincerity. In addition, popularity from networking abilities may help politically skilled employees achieve their organizational goals. For instance, Newcomb, Bukowski, and Pattee (1993) reported that popular children receive more OCBs and are targeted with fewer CWBs compared to unpopular children. This pattern was also replicated by Scott and Judge (2009) among popular and unpopular workplace employees, suggesting that politically skilled employees not only have abundant resources to attain beneficial outcomes, but also have few obstacles from attaining their goals.

Resources should also enable politically skilled employees to more successfully increase personal control through CWB compared to low politically skilled employees. Politically skilled employees possess social astuteness and thereby know how to be aggressive in an effective way (e.g., so the subordinate will follow the instructions), but not to completely offend others (e.g., cause the subordinate to abandon the instructions and create further organizational obstacles). Politically skilled employees also possess apparent sincerity, so although the employee may act aggressively, the subordinate may presume that the employee has sincere motives for his/her behavior (e.g., "It's just the stressor that is causing the behavior, not because the person is mean"). Although low politically skilled employees may also try to increase personal control as well, they

should be less successful in their attempts due to lack of resources. For example, others

may not follow these employees' hostile requests because they lack in apparent sincerity.

There also is little benefit to agreeing to low politically skilled employees' domineering

requests. Abiding will not result in a gain in interpersonal influence or networking ability

within the company because low politically skilled employees possess few resources to

begin with. Hence, low politically skilled employees may not receive many beneficial

outcomes from engaging in CWB.

Hypotheses 8a-e: The positive relationship between CWB and a) emotional well-

being, b) PFC, c) occupational self-efficacy, d) organization-based self-esteem,

and e) goal achievement will be moderated by political skill such that CWB will

have a stronger positive relationship with these beneficial outcomes for

individuals high in political skill compared to individuals low in political skill.

Political Skill and Employee Repercussions

In addition to receiving more beneficial outcomes, politically skilled employees

should also receive significantly fewer repercussions for their CWB compared to low

politically skilled employees. Adept social skills, close friendships, interpersonal

influence, and the sincere demeanor of politically skilled employees should ultimately

help them from being blamed or identified for their CWB. For example, if an employee

engages in theft to solve a problem, friendship alliances and interpersonal influence may

motivate others to protect the employee from being discovered for the theft. According to

Scott and Judge (2009), popular employees (such as politically skilled individuals; Cullen

et al., 2012) are overall targeted by fewer CWBs compared to less popular employees,

suggesting that coworkers desire to protect their most popular employees from organizational harm.

Furthermore, if an employee is blamed for CWB, politically skilled employees may display a sincere demeanor and reduce any speculations about their involvement. Politically skilled employees additionally may have more leeway due to pressure from others (i.e., interpersonal influence) and popularity (i.e., high networking abilities). Low politically skilled employees, however, possess poor social skills and fewer friendships; therefore, they may have few defenders if accused of the CWB. Low politically skilled employees also may not appear honest to others when denying their role in the CWB (i.e., lack of apparent sincerity). Therefore, low politically skilled employees may be administered more frequent repercussions for CWB and possibly serve as a scapegoat for others' CWB.

Hypothesis 9: The positive relationship between CWB and employee repercussions will be moderated by political skill such that CWB will have a stronger relationship with repercussions for individuals low in political skill than high political skill.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants consisted of 510 employed students (18 and over) recruited from a large, southern university. Students were offered extra credit for completing the web-based survey. All responses were anonymous. After removing participants for non-conscientious responding, missing catch items (e.g., "For this item, please select "Agree"

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for key purposes"), and working fewer than 20 hours per week, the final sample size was 370.

The sample consisted of 54 males and 315 females (one additional participant elected not to disclose his/her gender) with a mean age of 24.13 years. The sample was approximately 28.6% Caucasian, 17.8% African-American, 32.2% Hispanic, 15.7% Asian, and 5.4% participants who classified themselves as 'Other' (the remaining 0.3% chose not to disclose their race). Participants worked in a variety of industries, such as retail, banking, and food/hospitality. All participants were currently employed for at least six months in the same company. Participants had a mean job tenure of 2.69 years and worked an average of 28.88 hours/week.

Piloted Scales

Goal achievement. I constructed a scale to capture how well employees perceived that they accomplished personal or organizational goals in the workplace (as opposed to goal commitment or in-role performance). I piloted the scale on 45 employed participants recruited from University of Houston, Facebook, and email. After excluding cases listwise, the total sample consisted of 40 participants. Participants rated nine items from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). Sample items included "I am able to achieve my work goals", "I do what I have to do in order to complete my work goals", and "In my job, I don't always finish the work I would like to complete" (last item reverse-coded). The Cronbach α was .87 with all nine items included, indicating sufficient scale reliability. An exploratory factor analysis using principal components analysis and varimax rotation supported a two-factor structure among the goal achievement items with reverse-scored items forming their own factor.

Employee repercussions. I also constructed a scale to capture direct

repercussions that employees experienced from engaging in CWB (e.g., "Been demoted",

"Been suspended", "Received a warning"). In this scale, participants were asked how

often they experienced various types of discipline in the past six months. Participants

rated seven items from 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Extremely Often*). One additional item asked

participants, "How many times have you been fired in your previous jobs?" This item

clarified that firing did not include company-wide layoffs or not having one's contract

renewed. This item was not also restricted to the participants' previous six months in a

job (i.e., it could be a job from four years ago).

I piloted the repercussions scale on 45 employed participants recruited from a

southern university, Facebook, and email. After excluding cases listwise, 44 participants

remained. The Cronbach α did not meet the minimum level of .70 in order for the scale to

be considered sufficiently reliable. However, some items received no/little variance

("Been suspended", "Been docked pay", "Been written up", "Been demoted", "Received

some other disciplinary action"). Even after these items were removed, scale reliability

remained poor (α=.46). The repercussion items may not have overlapped each other in

content because each item represented a unique type of repercussion. In other words, an

employee who received one type of disciplinary action, such as a warning, may not

necessarily have received another type of disciplinary action, such as a suspension. In

spite of poor scale reliability, I therefore decided that the scale was still useable. An

exploratory factor analysis with principal components analysis and varimax rotation

supported a one-factor structure among the three remaining items ("Fired", "Had a

supervisor discuss your actions with you", and "Received a warning") when combined

with goal achievement items. After the pilot study, I changed the item "Had a supervisor discuss your actions with you" to "Been informally or unofficially reprimanded by your supervisor," and changed the item "Received a warning" to "Received a formal warning from a supervisor" in order to better specify the items and illustrate both informal and formal repercussions.

Evaluation of New Scales

I re-tested the factor structure of the goal achievement scale and direct repercussions scale using the final study sample (N=370) by conducting an exploratory factor analysis using varimax rotation. In addition, I also chose to use principal axis factoring instead of principal components analysis (PCA), which was used for my pilot study analyses. Whereas PCA focuses on the total variance from items and derives factors from those items, this total variance may also contain possible error. Principal axis factoring is usually the preferred method because it focuses on shared variance rather than error variance (Hair, 2010).

After conducting the factor analysis, two goal achievement items ("I often abandon assigned work goals" and "In my job, I don't always finish the work I would like to complete.") were dropped due to poor factor loadings, leaving a total of seven items. For direct repercussions, four items were not included in the factor analysis due to limited variance among the item responses ("Been suspended", "Been docked pay", "Been demoted", and "Received some other disciplinary action"). The item regarding previous firings did not load with the remaining three direct repercussion items (which was somewhat expected due to its distinctiveness) and therefore I decided to separately examine this item in relation to other variables.

The final items and factor loadings can be viewed in Table 1. The factor analysis provided support for a two-factor structure. A scree plot also reinforced this assessment, indicating between two and three factors for the scale items. The internal reliabilities of goal achievement scale (α=.86) and the direct repercussions scale (α=.70) were both sufficient. Both scales showed improvements in their scale reliabilities after dropping the allotted items. Given the acceptable factor loadings and scale reliabilities, I proceeded with using both scales in my analyses.

Other Measures

CWB. To assess counterproductive work behavior, I used Spector and Fox's (2002) shortened 32-item CWB Checklist (CWB-C; α=.88). Survey items were rated on a frequency scale from 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Everyday*). Sample items included "Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies" and "Stolen something belonging to your employer".

Hindrance stressors. To assess hindrance stressors, I used Spector and Jex's (1998) 11-item organizational constraints scale (OCS; α=.91). Participants were asked, "In the past six months, how often have you found it difficult or impossible to do your job because of...?" Sample items were "Your supervisor", "Inadequate training", and "Conflicting job demands". Participants rated items on a scale of 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Extremely Often*).

Challenge stressors. To assess challenge stressors, I used Spector and Jex's (1998) Quantitative Workload Inventory (QWI; α=.80). It consisted of five questions regarding the past six months, such as "How often does your job require you to work

very fast?" and "How often does your job leave you with little time to get things done?" Participants indicated these frequencies on a scale of 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Extremely Often*).

Problem-solving. I used eight problem-focused coping (PFC) items from Carver et al.'s (1989) COPE questionnaire (α=.86) to capture problem-solving strategies that participants might use in the workplace. The items depicted "active coping, planning, suppression of competing activities, restraint coping, [and] seeking of instrumental social support" (p. 267). Participants rated these items on a frequency scale from 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Extremely Often*). Sample items included "I've been taking action to try to make the situations better" and "I've been thinking hard about what steps to take".

Emotional well-being. To measure emotional well-being, I used the Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS; α=.89; Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000), which assessed people's emotions regarding their job. JAWS can be scored by averaging positive affect items, averaging negative affect items, or reverse-scoring negative affect items and averaging them with all positive affect items. I used the third method to score the JAWS items. Participants rated 20 items on a scale of 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Extremely Often*). Sample items included "My job made me feel discouraged", "My job made me feel gloomy", and "My job made me feel proud".

Self-esteem. To determine employee self-esteem, I used the organization-based self-esteem scale (OBSE; α=.94; Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989). Participants rated 10 items on a scale of 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). I substituted the words "around here" with "in my job" to better reference the organization. For example, "I am taken seriously around here" became "I am taken seriously in my job".

Occupational self-efficacy. One's sense of personal control in the workplace can be captured by one's self-efficacy (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005; Fox & Spector, 2005; Zellars et al., 2008). To assess self-efficacy, I used Schyns and von Collani's (2002) occupational self-efficacy scale (α=.89). Participants rated eight items in terms of frequency (1=*Never*, 5=*Extremely Often*). A sample item included "No matter what comes my way in my job, I'm able to handle it."

Political skill. To assess political skill, I used Ferris et al.'s (2005) 18-item political skill inventory (PSI; α=.92). The items corresponded to the four dimensions of political skill: networking ability, interpersonal influence, social astuteness, and apparent sincerity. Participants rated items from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*). Sample items included "I am good at building relationships with influential people at work" (i.e., networking ability) and "I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others" (i.e., social astuteness)".

Results

The means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and scale reliabilities of the study variables can be found in Table 2. Before performing any further analyses, I tested the predictor variables for possible multicollinearity. When predictor variables are highly correlated with one another (i.e., exhibit multicollinearity), this hinders researchers from determining the unique contribution of each predictor variable on the criterion variable (Morrow-Howell, 1994). To test for multicollinearity, one may either: 1) look for correlations between predictors that are near or greater than .80, or 2) run a series of linear regressions with "each independent variable as linear combinations of all others" and examine the variance inflation factors (VIFs) within each regression model (Morrow-

Howell, 1994, p. 3). VIFs greater than 10 indicate multicollinearity between the predictor variables, although smaller VIFs are optimal (Chatterjee & Price, 1991).

To follow the linear regression precedent for detecting multicollinearity, I ran a linear regression with three of the predictors (e.g., constraints, quantitative workload, CWB) and the fourth predictor variable temporarily as the criterion (e.g., political skill). To assess every combination, this process was repeated four times total (each time with the criterion variable being a different predictor variable). The lowest VIF was 1.02 and the highest VIF was 2.23, demonstrating low multicollinearity among the predictor variables.

Hypotheses 1-5 proposed that CWB would be positively related to 1) PFC, 2) occupational self-efficacy, 3) emotional well-being, 4) organization-based self-esteem, and 5) goal achievement. CWB was positively related to PFC ($r=.16$, $p=.002$), supporting hypothesis 1. Hypotheses 2-5 were not supported as CWB was not significantly related to occupational self-efficacy ($r= -.10$, $p=.063$) and was negatively related to emotional well-being ($r= -.29$, $p<.001$), organization-based self-esteem ($r= -.13$, $p=.013$), and goal achievement ($r= -.18$, $p<.001$).

Hypothesis 6 predicted that CWB would be positively associated with repercussions. CWB was positively related to direct repercussions ($r=.38$, $p<.001$) as well as being fired from a previous job ($r=.11$, $p=.035$). Thus, hypothesis 6 was supported.

Moderation Hypotheses

Although most of my study variables had residuals that were normally distributed, some were positively skewed (e.g., CWB, direct repercussions). Therefore, I used the bootstrapping technique for the following regression analyses. Bootstrapping is a way of

redrawing observations from one's collected sample in order to better estimate the population distribution (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). This method increases power by increasing the number of bootstrap resamples. Furthermore, bootstrapping makes no assumptions about normality in a distribution, making it a more powerful test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Preacher & Hayes, 2008; MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004).

Hindrance stressors. Hypotheses 7a-e proposed that CWB would moderate the negative relationship between hindrance stressors and beneficial outcomes, such that the relationship would be weaker for individuals who engaged in higher levels of CWB compared to lower levels of CWB. To test this hypothesis, I regressed each beneficial outcome (emotional well-being, PFC, occupational self-efficacy, organization-based self-esteem, and goal achievement) onto organizational constraints, CWB, and their product term in separate regression equations. Prior to all analyses, I mean-centered the predictor and moderator variables. Significant β's for the product term (i.e., those with a 95% confidence interval that did not include zero) were indicative of significant interactions. For the first linear regression model, I entered the main effects (constraints and CWB) in block 1. In block 2, I entered the interaction between constraints and CWB. The interaction between constraints and CWB was a significant predictor for emotional well-being (β=.14, p=.008), organization-based self-esteem (β=.13, p=.026), PFC (β=.15, p=.011), and goal achievement (β=.13, p=.031) (see Table 3).

To graph the interactions, I plotted two lines using moderator values one standard deviation above the mean (for high CWB) and below the mean (for low CWB; Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Consistent with my hypotheses, the graphs indicated a weaker negative relationship between constraints and coping outcomes when CWB was

high compared to low when predicting emotional well-being, organization-based self-esteem, and goal achievement (see Figures 3, 4, 5). For example, in the interaction between constraints and CWB on emotional well-being, the data indicated that there was a weaker negative slope between emotional well-being and constraints when CWB was high (b= -.31, $p<.001$) as opposed to low (b= -.45, $p<.001$). However, several findings were contrary to prediction. First, when constraints were low, individuals who engaged in high levels of CWB (rather than low) actually exhibited lower levels of emotional well-being, organization-based self-esteem, and goal achievement. Second, when constraints were high, individuals who engaged in lower levels of CWB (as opposed to high) exhibited overall similar levels of these beneficial outcomes. Therefore, hypotheses 7a, 7d, and 7e were only partially supported.

For the interaction between constraints and CWB when predicting occupational self-efficacy, the graph showed a negative slope when CWB was low (b= -.07, $p=.159$), but a positive slope when CWB was high (b=.04, $p=.455$; see Figure 6). However, p-values indicated that there was not enough evidence to show that the slopes were statistically significant from zero. Therefore, I could not conclude that higher levels of CWB were associated with greater occupational self-efficacy under high levels of constraints. Regardless, when constraints were high, occupational self-efficacy levels were almost identical for those who engaged in either high or low CWB. Hypothesis 7c was therefore not supported.

The data were quite interesting when the outcome variable was PFC. First, I did not anticipate a positive relationship between constraints and PFC. Nevertheless, the interaction between constraints and CWB was significant (β=.15, $p=.011$) such that the

positive relationship between PFC and constraints was stronger for those who engaged in higher levels of CWB (b=.33, $p<.001$) compared to lower levels of CWB (b=.15, $p=.019$). In particular, individuals who engaged in higher levels of CWB (rather than lower levels) overall tended to use more problem-solving strategies when facing high levels of constraints (see Figure 7). Therefore, hypothesis 7b was partially supported.

Challenge stressors. Research Question 1 asked if CWB moderated the relationship between challenge stressors and beneficial outcomes, and if so, how CWB moderated this relationship. For these linear regression models, I regressed each of the five beneficial outcomes onto quantitative workload (QW), CWB, and their product term in separate regression equations. Prior to all analyses, I mean-centered the predictor and moderator variables. Significant β's for the product term (i.e., those with a 95% confidence interval that did not include zero) were indicative of significant interactions. The QW x CWB interaction was significant when predicting occupational self-efficacy ($\beta=.11$, $p=.046$) and PFC ($\beta=.15$, $p=.004$; see Table 4).

Results of the QW x CWB interactions were fairly consistent with the previous constraints x CWB interactions. When predicting occupational self-efficacy, the graph showed a positive relationship between self-efficacy and workload for those who engaged in high levels of CWB (b=.15, $p=.006$), and no significant relationship for those who engaged in low CWB (b=.01, $p=.805$; see Figure 8). Contrary to prediction, participants reported similar levels of occupational self-efficacy when workload was high, regardless of CWB. However, those who engaged in high levels of CWB reported lower occupational self-efficacy when workload was low.

For the interaction between QW x CWB on PFC (β=.15, p=.004), the trend of the data was again a bit different. Specifically, the slope between PFC and workload was positive for those who engaged in high CWB (b=.35, p<.001) but non-significant for those who engaged in low CWB (b=.11, p=.069). When experiencing high workload, individuals who frequently engaged in CWB tended to engage in more problem-solving strategies compared to those who infrequently engaged in CWB (see Figure 9).

Political skill. Hypotheses 8a-e predicted that political skill would moderate the relationship between CWB and beneficial outcomes such that the positive relationship would be stronger for individuals high in political skill compared to low in political skill. To test these hypotheses, I regressed each beneficial outcome (emotional well-being, PFC, occupational self-efficacy, organization-based self-esteem, and goal achievement) onto CWB, political skill, and their relevant product term in separate regression equations. Prior to all analyses, I mean-centered the predictor and moderator variables. Significant β's for the product term (i.e., those with a 95% confidence interval that did not include zero) were indicative of significant interactions. However, the interactions between CWB and political skill were not significant when predicting any of the five beneficial outcomes (see Table 5). Thus, hypotheses 8a-e were not supported.

Hypothesis 9 predicted that the positive relationship between CWB and repercussions would be moderated by political skill such that CWB would have a stronger relationship with repercussions for individuals low in political skill compared to those high in political skill. For these linear regression models, I regressed repercussions and being fired onto CWB, political skill, and their relevant product term in separate regression equations. The interactions were not significant when predicting direct

repercussions or being previously fired (see Table 6). Thus, hypothesis 9 was not supported.

Discussion

The main purpose of the study was to determine if CWB could be considered an effective coping mechanism and help individuals attain favorable coping outcomes. Based on Folkman's (1997) coping model, Latack and Havlovic's (1992) coping chart, and other coping literature (e.g., Brown et al., 2005; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Krischer et al., 2010), I anticipated that CWB would be positively associated with emotional well-being, problem-focused coping (PFC), occupational self-efficacy, organization-based self-esteem, and goal achievement.

Overall Findings

The results generally did not support the expected relationships between CWB and four of the five beneficial outcomes associated with effective coping (i.e., emotional well-being, occupational self-efficacy, organization-based self-esteem, goal achievement). However, the findings provided some support that CWB may be used to cope effectively with stressors. PFC showed a significant, positive relationship with CWB, suggesting that individuals who engage in high CWB might be more successful in solving problems in the workplace, due to increased problem-solving strategies. Furthermore, employees reported the highest levels of PFC when engaging in high levels of CWB and experiencing high hindrance or challenge stressors. These findings reinforced the idea that CWB may be an effective coping mechanism with job stressors in the workplace.

CWB did not appear to be an effective buffer against stressors for increasing emotional well-being, self-efficacy, self-esteem, or goal achievement. Individuals tended to experience similar levels of these four beneficial outcomes when frequently engaging in CWB and experiencing high stressors. Furthermore, when stressors were low, individuals who frequently engaged in CWB (rather than infrequently) tended to experience lower levels of emotional well-being, PFC, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and goal achievement. On a note of caution, individuals who often engaged in CWB also tended to receive a variety of repercussions for their actions, ranging from being fired to receiving a formal supervisory warning. Although CWB may possibly help employees achieve beneficial outcomes (such as solving problems in the workplace), this study demonstrated the inherent risks involved when employees choose to engage in CWB.

Regarding individual differences, the degree to which an employee was politically skilled did not significantly affect the relationships between CWB and the five beneficial outcomes. Similarly, no evidence was found that politically skilled employees who engaged in CWB tended to evade repercussions more often than those who were weakly political skilled. All of these findings are discussed in greater detail in the sections below.

CWB and Coping Outcomes

Many of the findings regarding emotional well-being, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and goal achievement were either partially supported or not supported. Contrary to prediction, individuals who engaged in higher levels of CWB tended to experience lower levels of emotional well-being, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and goal achievement. One possible interpretation for this finding is that CWB may not be an effective coping mechanism for job stressors; hence, CWB would be an inadequate tool for increasing

beneficial coping outcomes. Employees instead might experience more beneficial outcomes by refraining from CWB and utilizing alternative methods to cope with stressors. For instance, employees may talk to their supervisor about reducing job demands to increase emotional well-being, plan or prioritize assignments to achieve workplace goals, or turn to coworkers for support to increase self-esteem.

Another possible explanation for the study's unexpected results was the cross-sectional design. Whereas high levels of emotional well-being, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and goal achievement can be considered effective coping outcomes, low levels emotional well-being, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and goal achievement may also be antecedents to CWB. For example, Spector et al. (2006) found that antecedents for production deviance included fatigue, gloominess, and fury (i.e., low emotional well-being). If an employee was extremely fatigued because he/she was dealing with conflicting job demands, the employee might try to cope with the stressor by taking frequent breaks at work. The employee might feel a little better afterwards, signifying an increase in emotional well-being. However, emotional well-being was measured at one point in time, and therefore the magnitude of low emotional well-being responses (in this example) would have outweighed high emotional well-being responses. Because the present study found a negative correlation between emotional well-being and CWB, the findings might have unintentionally captured the relationship between CWB and its antecedents rather than outcomes. A different method might capture more subtle indications that CWB may be an effective coping mechanism for increasing emotional well-being, occupational self-efficacy, organization-based self-esteem, or goal achievement. For instance, an

experimental or longitudinal design would better establish causality and how emotional well-being levels might shift from pre- to post-engagement of CWB.

CWB and PFC. Whereas results regarding emotional well-being, occupational self-efficacy, organization-based self-esteem, or goal achievement were generally contrary to prediction, the results do provide some evidence that CWB may serve as an effective problem-focused coping mechanism. CWB was positively related to PFC, suggesting that individuals who engage in CWB may be more likely to solve problems within the workplace because they engage in more problem-solving strategies. It is not clear how effective CWB may be as a problem-focused strategy in the long term, as longitudinal research has found PFC effectiveness to be somewhat mixed (González-Morales, Peiró, Rodríguez, & Greenglass, 2006). In the short term, however, PFC is generally viewed an optimal coping strategy compared to EFC (Baker & Berenbaum, 2007; Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2006). For instance, PFC is positively associated with empowerment, reduced psychological strain, and job satisfaction (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2006; González-Morales et al., 2006; Jex et al., 2001), whereas EFC is associated with depression and other psychological strains (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2006; Jex et al., 2001). This research suggests that CWB as a PFC strategy might be effective in the short term. However, researchers have not yet examined the extent to which PFC strategies actually predict whether employees feel that they solve problems effectively in the workplace. Based on trial attempts and success probabilities, the more problem-solving strategies a person attempts, the more likely a person should eventually be successful with solving a given problem. For example, a salesperson might think of a strategy in order to meet his/her sales quota (i.e., PFC) and eventually decide to lie about the number of sales

he/she has made in order to meet that quota (i.e., CWB). Using CWB as a form of PFC may ultimately help salesperson solve the problem (i.e., meet the sales quota) through deceptive or counterproductive means.

Although CWB was positively related to PFC in the current study, the relationship itself was modest. It is possible that other variables could be influencing the relationship between CWB and PFC, such as individual differences (e.g., highly conscientious employees might feel disinclined to engage in CWB as a problem-solving strategy if they fear that the benefits might not be worth the risks), the size of the organization (e.g., a person may be less likely to engage in CWB when working in a small organization because he/she may be more accountable), or organizational norms (e.g., if other coworkers often use CWB to cope with job stressors). Therefore, the modest correlation between CWB and PFC may simply be a reflection of other variables influencing the relationship. More research is needed to better understand the extent to which employees use CWB for solving problems.

Coping with Hindrance and Challenge Stressors

Another purpose of this study was to understand the conditions under which CWB might be an effective coping mechanism. CWB did not appear to substantially affect the levels of emotional well-being, organization-based self-esteem, and goal achievement when constraints were high. However, when constraints were low, reduced levels of CWB were associated with higher levels of emotional well-being, organization-based self-esteem, and goal achievement. Perhaps CWB is not an effective coping mechanism with hindrance stressors when one aims to increase emotional well-being, organization-

based self-esteem, or goal achievement. On the other hand, these findings may simply be due to the study's cross-sectional method (see Limitations section).

When it came to solving problems, high levels of CWB appeared to buffer the effects of high constraints in the workplace (albeit somewhat modestly; see Figure 7). Participants who engaged in higher levels of CWB compared to lower levels tended to engage in more problem-solving strategies when constraints were high, suggesting that CWB may be an effective coping mechanism for hindrance stressors. For example, employees may take frequent breaks (i.e., production deviance) to restore resources needed to figure out conflicting job demands. An employee may insult other coworkers (i.e., abuse) in order to end interpersonal conflicts by overpowering or intimidating others. In summary, higher levels of CWB appeared to modestly buffer the effects of hindrance stressors by enabling employees to engage in more problem-solving strategies. This finding suggests that employees who use CWB as a coping mechanism should be more able to solve problems in the workplace more frequently.

In addition to investigating whether CWB can serve as a coping mechanism for hindrance stressors, I also investigated whether CWB may help employees effectively cope with challenge stressors. I posed no specific predictions about whether high versus low levels of CWB would yield more beneficial outcomes, for neither the CWB coping model nor COR theory provided a clear direction on which argument was correct. Graphs of quantitative workload (QW) x CWB interactions appeared to overall support the second research perspective (i.e., that higher levels of CWB should be more effective for coping with challenge stressors). When workload was high, occupational self-efficacy levels generally remained the same when employees engaged in high or low CWB. This

finding offered little support to the first research perspective, which claimed that when experiencing challenge stressors, lower levels of CWB should be more effective for producing beneficial outcomes. In contrast, employees who faced high workload and engaged in high levels of CWB (compared to low levels) tended to use more problem-solving strategies. This finding supports the second research perspective that higher levels of CWB (compared to lower levels) should help people cope more effectively with challenge stressors. In particular, these employees should be able to solve problems more frequently in the workplace when facing challenge stressors.

Low levels of stressors. Several interesting findings occurred when employees experienced low levels of hindrance or challenge stressors. Specifically, when hindrances or challenges were low, employees who infrequently engaged in CWB (compared to frequently) tended to experience higher levels of emotional well-being, PFC, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and goal achievement. Perhaps when employees face few stressors in the workplace, high levels of CWB may not be advantageous because employees do not intentionally direct the behavior in helpful or functional ways. For instance, one may surf the internet for hours for fun (i.e., production deviance) instead of performing daily tasks, but such behaviors are unlikely to produce high levels of occupational self-efficacy or help employees achieve their goals in the workplace.

On the other hand, perhaps individuals who have higher levels of emotional well-being, PFC, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and goal achievement may be less likely to engage in CWB in the first place when there is no urgent reason to do so (e.g., no impending deadlines, little interpersonal conflict, clear organizational rules and procedures). In this case, engaging in CWB would be considered unnecessary, as it would offer few (if any)

benefits for the employee and could ultimately jeopardize the employee's place in the company. For instance, if a company provided an abundance of high-quality equipment to their employees (i.e., a low hindrance), individuals should not gain a major advantage by stealing equipment for themselves, and may be fired if caught. Employees may only be inclined to engage in CWB if the benefits outweigh the costs. If a company had mostly poor-quality equipment, stealing a high-equality piece of equipment might allow the employee to cope with the hindrance stressor by using theft as a problem-solving strategy. Ultimately, when employees decide to take a chance and engage in CWB, they likely have the prospect of attaining a beneficial outcome (e.g., such as solving a problem); otherwise, engaging in CWB may be an unreasonable and unnecessary risk.

Repercussions

Whereas employees may use CWB to solve problems in the workplace, they may not consider potential consequences for their actions. The results indicate that CWB had significant, positive relationships with direct repercussions and previous firings. Furthermore, the relationship between CWB and direct repercussions ($r=.38$, $p<.001$) showed moderate strength. Although it may seem intuitive that CWB should result in repercussions for the actor, little empirical evidence exists on the types of repercussions people may receive for CWB, how frequent repercussions are administered for CWBs, or whether some individuals are more likely to evade repercussions from CWB. Whereas Tunstall et al. (2006) investigated formal/informal discipline from CWB (a direct repercussion) and having one's relationships deteriorate as a result of CWB (a more subtle repercussion), I expanded on this study by differentiating between informal and formal discipline, examining whether employees were written up for their behavior, and

asking employees to indicate whether they were fired altogether from a previous job. Ultimately, my findings suggest that employees who engage in CWB to solve problems should be cautious because there is a moderate likelihood of receiving punishment for CWB.

Political Skill and CWB

The final component of this study examined whether some employees were more likely to attain beneficial outcomes from CWB while avoiding repercussions. I chose to examine political skill because a person's social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking abilities, and apparent sincerity could be used as resources for attaining beneficial coping outcomes. These attributes might also prevent the individual from being identified or blamed for any CWB. However, the interactions between CWB and political skill when predicting the five beneficial outcomes and repercussions were all non-significant. This may have been due to range restriction among one of the criterion variables (direct repercussions). This three-item scale asked participants how many times they had been written up, been informally/unofficially reprimanded by their supervisor, or received a formal warning from their supervisor (see Table 1). Although participants' responses used the full extent of 1-5 point frequency scale (1=*Never*, 5=*Four or More Times*), approximately 80%-90% of the scores were still 1 (Never) for all three items. Hence, the aggregated direct repercussions variable only showed a mean of 1.2 (on a scale of 1-5) and a standard deviation of .47. The scale's limited range likely made it more difficult for the CWB x political skill interactions to become significant.

It is also possible that political skill might have been a significant moderator of the CWB – repercussion relationship had I used a different measure of repercussions.

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Workplace incivility is a more subtle and informal outcome that people may experience after engaging in CWB, and could be an important repercussion. For instance, if an employee frequently engages in CWB-I, the supervisor and/or coworkers may react coldly to the employee and ignore his/her suggestions and opinions. Hence, experiencing workplace incivility may be a more subtle repercussion for employees who engage in CWB.

Another possibility is that political skill itself may not have been the best moderator for a) the relationship between CWB and beneficial outcomes, and b) the relationship between CWB and repercussions. For example, Goh (2007) found that Machiavellians were less likely to experience workplace incivility from others. Political skill and Machiavellianism have similarities in terms of the desire to influence others, but Machiavellianism emphasizes manipulating others and using people as means to a goal (Kessler et al., 2010), rather than a desire for friendships and interpersonal closeness (Deluga, 2001; Wastell & Booth, 2003). Perhaps when people engage in more manipulative tactics, they are better able to attain beneficial outcomes from CWB while avoiding repercussions for their actions.

Theoretical Implications

This study makes two unique contributions to the existing CWB literature. First, the positive relationship between CWB and PFC brings insight into employee motivations for engaging in CWB. Specifically, this study found evidence that individuals may be motivated to use CWB as a way of coping with job stressors – namely, to solve problems in the workplace. Findings indicated that individuals tended to use CWB as a problem-solving strategy, suggesting that employees who engage in CWB

should be more likely to solve problems in the workplace. However, the current literature contributions could be far more substantial if PFC is empirically shown to have a strong, positive relationship with perceived problem-solving (i.e., the degree to which employees perceive that they solve problems effectively in the workplace). One could then amend current CWB models to 1) include CWB as a possible coping mechanism and 2) include coping outcomes from CWB. For example, Spector and Fox's (2005) stressor-emotion model could be expanded beyond the CWB stage by adding problem-solving as an outcome of CWB. Similarly, Folkman's (1997) coping model could be expanded to include problem-solving as an outcome that individuals may receive from effective coping beyond positive affect. Future research should investigate links between PFC and perceived problem-solving in order to enhance CWB and coping literature contributions.

Another important aspect from this study was that it furthered the current research on employee repercussions from CWB. Previous qualitative research (Tunstall et al., 2006) reported that nine percent of individuals (19 out of 216) experienced formal/informal discipline from CWB. I expanded on the Tunstall et al. (2006) study by examining additional repercussions that employees might receive from CWB, such as being written up or fired altogether, in a quantitative study. The moderate strength of the CWB – direct repercussion relationship suggests that CWB, as a whole, is often detected and punished by the organization. Therefore, individuals should exercise caution before resorting to CWB as a coping mechanism from job stressors.

Practical Implications

The findings from this study have several implications for organizations. First, the results suggest that when employees need to solve problems at work, they may resort to

CWB as a problem-solving strategy (e.g., stealing an important document to meet a deadline). This issue should especially concern organizations, for frequent CWB may undermine employee profits and productivity. Frequent CWB may also create an organizational climate where unethical behavior becomes the norm. Organizations therefore should seek ways to help employees solve these same problems in ways that do not involve CWB. For instance, organizations could hire a flexible supervisor willing to listen to employees' difficulties and find alternative solutions. Second, although CWB was found to be moderately correlated with direct repercussions, the relationship could potentially be stronger if organizations explore additional ways of detecting CWB and holding employees accountable for their actions.

This research also sheds light on the conditions under which CWB may be an effective coping mechanism for employees. When faced with challenge and hindrance stressors, employees may attempt to use CWB to cope in order to solve problems in the workplace. More alarming for organizations, CWB that is effective may be attempted frequently. Companies should aim to minimize hindrance stressors (e.g., by providing sufficient equipment, training supervisors on conflict resolution) in order to remove employees' reasons for turning to CWB and increase positive outcomes in general for employees (e.g., job satisfaction, reduced emotional exhaustion; Cavanaugh et al. 2000; Boswell et al., 2004). Likewise, when faced with challenge stressors, organizations should encourage their employees to use alternate methods for solving workplace problems besides CWB (e.g., seeking assistance from other coworkers or discussing deadline expansion with a supervisor).

Limitations

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A primary study limitation was the correlational and cross-sectional design. Because all variables were measured at one point in time, the negative relationships between CWB and four of the five coping benefits (emotional well-being, organization-based self-esteem, occupational self-efficacy, and goal achievement) may simply be capturing antecedents to CWB rather than outcomes. Because cross-sectional designs preclude drawing conclusions about causality and directionality, an experimental or longitudinal design could better establish directionality and how emotional well-being changes before and after CWB. For instance, Spector et al. (2006) reported that feeling upset was a significant antecedent to abuse, production deviance, and withdrawal. Therefore, an employee might be extremely upset at a coworker at Time 1, engage in abuse at Time 2, and feel slightly better at Time 3 (constituting a beneficial outcome from CWB: increased emotional well-being). Unfortunately, the cross-sectional design used in this study fails to accurately capture that process. Measuring variables at one point in time may capture both antecedents and outcomes of CWB and therefore dilute the strength of relationship between employee beneficial outcomes and CWB. In the case described above, mean emotional well-being ratings reflect an employee's entire emotional experience regarding his/her job in the past six months. If feelings leading up to possible CWB (i.e., feeling extremely upset) are stronger in magnitude than the well-being outcome (i.e., feeling slightly better), the overall relationship between CWB and emotional well-being would appear to be negative. An experimental or longitudinal study method could more conclusively demonstrate how CWB may help individuals cope with job stressors (i.e., by increasing emotional well-being, organization-based self-esteem, occupational self-efficacy, and goal achievement).

Another important limitation was the measure used to operationalize problem-solving. The PFC items from the COPE scale (Carver et al., 1989) captured problem-solving strategies (e.g., turning to others for help and advice, trying to come up with a strategy about how to handle a problem) rather than the extent to which participants generally solve problems effectively in the workplace. Unfortunately, this makes conclusions about employee problem-solving more indirect. The positive relationship between CWB and PFC implies that individuals who engage in CWB should also solve problems more frequently (due to increased problem-solving strategies), but the link between problem-solving and using problem-solving strategies has not yet empirically been tested (i.e., the strength and direction of the relationship between perceived problem-solving and PFC). For instance, an employee may use CWB as a problem-solving strategy (e.g., yelling at a team member to increase team performance), but the employee may conclude that the behavior did not adequately solve the problem. Hence, a more direct measure of problem-solving should be used for future research.

Finally, a third weakness of this study was its use of self-reported data. Self-reported data may be prone to common method variance (i.e., when correlations between measured variables are inflated due to the variables being measured with the same method). For instance, a person with high social desirability may be biased towards certain items, and therefore these items should show greater correlations with one another. However, Spector (2006) argues that common method variance is an overstated problem that actually has little influence on the validity of one's results. According to Spector (2006), "social desirability [only] accounts for a small amount of variance in a limited number of organizational variables" (p. 224). Furthermore, even a large sample

size does not guarantee statistically significant results for correlations with common method variance.

Future Research

Future research should investigate other individual differences that may enhance one's likelihood of attaining beneficial outcomes from CWB while avoiding repercussions. Although political skill was not a significant moderator of CWB - outcome relationships, research by Goh (2007) suggests that Machiavellianism might be a better measure of individual differences.

In addition, research should further investigate repercussions from CWB. For instance, once an employee is detected for CWB (e.g., by a coworker), how often does he/she tend to receive repercussions? Brothers (2013) investigated how people tend to react when observing deviant work behaviors (DWB). Using a policy-capturing study, Brothers (2013) found that when DWB was described as severe or interpersonally-directed, participants generally claimed that they would report the actor, confront the actor, or aid the victim. However, when DWB was described as minor or organizationally-directed, participants claimed that they would likely ignore or imitate the behaviors. Expanding on this study, perhaps certain individuals are detected more for CWB, but receive fewer repercussions due to special treatment or favoritism. In addition, people may be more likely to ignore or imitate CWB if it is used as a coping mechanism against job stressors (rather than other motivations, such as for fun or cruelty).

Finally, future research should also explore CWB and beneficial outcomes using an experimental or longitudinal design. These designs better establish causality and directionality by separating CWB antecedents from outcomes. These methods would

provide clearer conclusions about the ability of CWB to serve as an effective coping mechanism and yield a variety of beneficial outcomes.

Conclusion

CWB continues to be a chronic problem for many organizations. The results of this study suggest that when employees encounter few stressors in the workplace, CWB may yield quite detrimental outcomes for employees, including reduced emotional well-being, problem-focused coping (PFC) strategies, organization-based self-esteem, occupational self-efficacy, and goal achievement. However, when employees use CWB specifically to face job stressors (either challenges or hindrances), they tend to utilize CWB as a PFC strategy and therefore may show increased problem-solving in the workplace. This study also found that the benefits from CWB are not without substantial risk, as CWB was moderately related to employee repercussions. However, the significant, positive relationship between CWB and PFC suggests that some employees are willing to take that risk. To prevent harm to the company or other employees, organizations should focus on finding ways to help employees solve problems in the workplace with methods that do not involve CWB. More research is needed to understand other potential benefits and repercussions that employees may experience from using CWB as a coping strategy.

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Table 1

Factor loadings and Cronbach's α for exploratory factor analysis
with varimax rotation of goal achievement and direct repercussions

Item Stems	Factor Loadings	
	1	2
1. I am able to achieve my work goals	**.703**	.015
2. I often successfully reach my goals in the workplace	**.800**	-.029
3. In my job, I always reach the goals I set	**.785**	-.031
4. I do what I have to do in order to complete my work goals	**.732**	.001
5. I do not tend to meet my work goals (R)	**.559**	-.144
6. I use effective strategies to achieve my work goals	**.583**	-.113
7. When I come up with my own work goals, I am successful in carrying them out	**.659**	.019
8. Been written up	-.046	**.636**
9. Been informally or unofficially reprimanded by your supervisor	-.035	**.566**
10. Received a formal warning from a supervisor	-.028	**.749**
Eigenvalue	3.38	1.32
% of Variance	33.76	46.98

Note. Factor 1 = Goal Achievement (α = .86);

Factor 2 = Direct Repercussions (α = .70). (R) = Reverse-coded item.

The factor loadings for all items on each factor are in boldface.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics, Scale Reliabilities, and Correlations for Key Study Variables[a]

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. CWB (aggregated)	1.20	.24	(.88)													
2. Constraints	2.44	.85	.29**	(.91)												
3. Quant workload	3.35	.81	.10	.39**	(.80)											
4. PFC	3.04	.75	.16**	.30**	.26**	(.86)										
5. Emotional well-being	3.39	.64	-.29**	-.55**	-.22**	-.13*	(.89)									
6. OBSE	4.16	.67	-.13*	-.29**	.08	-.02	.48**	(.94)								
7. OSE	3.97	.59	-.10	-.05	.09	.11*	.26**	.42**	(.89)							
8. Goal achievement	4.07	.55	-.18*	-.18*	.04	-.04	.42**	.57**	.51**	(.86)						
9. Political skill	3.84	.54	.00	-.04	.16**	.24**	.35**	.44**	.45**	.47**	(.92)					
10. Direct repercussions	1.20	.47	.38**	.28**	.10*	.16**	-.23**	-.15**	.01	-.11*	.00	(.70)				
11. Fired	0.16	.45	.11*	.01	.01	-.04	-.06	-.02	-.01	-.04	-.05	.11*	-			
12. Age	24.13	6.88	-.10	.08	.06	-.06	-.02	.13*	.17**	.19**	.01	-.02	.25**	-		
13. Gender	0.85	.35	.01	.00	.01	.01	-.03	-.03	-.12*	-.02	-.01	-.01	-.13*	-.25**	-	
14. Hours per week	28.88	9.39	-.03	.16**	.19**	.07	-.11*	.09	.25**	.12*	.13*	.04	.15**	.51**	-.19**	-

[a]*N*= 370. Coefficient alpha reliabilities are on the diagonal in parentheses. Table reflects original means prior to mean-centering analyses. Quant Workload=Quantitative workload; PFC=Problem-focused coping; OBSE=Organization-based self-esteem; OSE=Occupational self-efficacy. Gender (0=male, 1=female).

* *p* < .05; ** *p* < .01

Table 3

Results of Regression Analyses for Predicting Beneficial Outcomes with Constraints and CWB

Criterion	Constraints β	(SE)	CWB β	(SE)	Constraints x CWB β	(SE)	R^2	Adj R^2	ΔR^2	F	F of ΔR^2
Emotional Well-Being											
Step 1	-.50***	(.04)	-.14**	(.13)			.32***	.31		85.04***	
Step 2	-.50***	(.03)	-.22***	(.12)	.14**	(.13)	.33**	.32	.01**	60.07***	7.22**
Organization-Based Self-Esteem											
Step 1	-.27***	(.05)	-.05	(.17)			.08***	.08		16.81***	
Step 2	-.27***	(.05)	-.12*	(.15)	.13*	(.17)	.10*	.09	.02*	12.99***	4.98*
Occupational Self-Efficacy											
Step 1	-.02	(.04)	-.09	(.14)			.01	.00		1.83	
Step 2	-.02	(.04)	-.15*	(.15)	.11	(.12)	.02	.01	.01	2.30	3.21
PFC											
Step 1	.28***	(.05)	.08	(.16)			.10***	.09		19.18***	
Step 2	.28***	(.05)	-.00	(.18)	.15*	(.17)	.11*	.10	.01*	15.16***	6.55*
Goal Achievement											
Step 1	-.14*	(.04)	-.14**	(.14)			.05***	.05		9.74***	
Step 2	-.14*	(.04)	-.21**	(.14)	.13*	(.13)	.06*	.06	.01*	8.12***	4.69*

Note. "β" refers to standardized regression estimates. Standard errors in parentheses. PFC=Problem-focused coping. Regression estimates are based on 1000 bootstrapped samples.

*p<.05
**p<.01
***p< .001
Two-tailed tests.

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Table 4

Results of Regression Analyses for Predicting Beneficial Outcomes with Quantitative Workload and CWB

Criterion	QW β	(SE)	CWB β	(SE)	QW x CWB β	(SE)	R^2	$Adj\ R^2$	ΔR^2	F	F of ΔR^2
Emotional Well-Being											
Step 1	-.20***	(.04)	-.27***	(.14)			.12***	.12		25.68***	
Step 2	-.20***	(.04)	-.29***	(.15)	.05	(.18)	.13	.12	.01	17.40***	.87
Organization-Based Self-Esteem											
Step 1	.10	(.05)	-.14**	(.15)			.03**	.02		4.89**	
Step 2	.10	(.05)	-.16**	(.17)	.07	(.21)	.03	.02	.00	3.85*	1.76
Occupational Self-Efficacy											
Step 1	.11*	(.04)	-.11*	(.12)			.02*	.02		3.80*	
Step 2	.11*	(.04)	-.14*	(.12)	.11*	(.14)	.03*	.02	.01*	3.89**	4.02*
PFC											
Step 1	.24***	(.05)	.14**	(.16)			.08***	.08		16.80***	
Step 2	.25***	(.05)	.09	(.14)	.15**	(.16)	.11**	.10	.03**	14.28***	8.54**
Goal Achievement											
Step 1	.05	(.04)	-.19***	(.13)			.04**	.03		6.80**	
Step 2	.06	(.04)	-.21***	(.11)	.08	(.15)	.04	.03	.00*	5.21**	1.99

Note. "β" refers to standardized regression estimates. Standard errors in parentheses. QW=Quantitative workload; PFC=Problem-focused coping. Regression estimates are based on 1000 bootstrapped samples.

*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001
Two-tailed tests.

Table 5

Results of Regression Analyses for Predicting Beneficial Outcomes with CWB and Political Skill

Criterion	CWB β	(SE)	Political Skill β	(SE)	CWB x Political Skill β	(SE)	R^2	Adj R^2	ΔR^2	F	F of ΔR^2
Emotional Well-Being											
Step 1	-.29***	(.13)	.35***	(.06)			.21**	.20		47.46***	
Step 2	-.28***	(.13)	.35***	(.06)	-.06	(.25)	.21	.20	.00	32.15***	1.43
Organization-Based Self-Esteem											
Step 1	-.13**	(.13)	.44***	(.07)			.21***	.21		49.31***	
Step 2	-.14**	(.14)	.44***	(.07)	.04	(.21)	.21	.21	.00	33.08***	.71
Occupational Self-Efficacy											
Step 1	-.10*	(.10)	.45***	(.06)			.21***	.21		49.54***	
Step 2	-.10*	(.11)	.45***	(.06)	.11	(.18)	.21	.21	.00	32.97***	.06
PFC											
Step 1	.16**	(.17)	.24***	(.08)			.08***	.08		16.81***	
Step 2	.15**	(.16)	.24***	(.08)	.03	(.31)	.09	.08	.01	11.30***	.35
Goal Achievement											
Step 1	-.18***	(.10)	.47***	(.05)			.26***	.25		63.35***	
Step 2	-.19***	(.10)	.47***	(.05)	.05	(.18)	.26	.25	.00	42.55***	.95

Note. "β" refers to standardized regression estimates. Standard errors in parentheses. PFC=Problem-focused coping. Regression estimates are based on 1000 bootstrapped samples.

*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001
Two-tailed tests.

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Table 6

Results of Regression Analyses for Predicting Employee Repercussions with CWB and Political Skill

Criterion	CWB β	(SE)	Political Skill β	(SE)	CWB x Political Skill β	(SE)	R^2	$Adj\ R^2$	ΔR^2	F	F of ΔR^2
Direct Repercussions											
Step 1	.38***	(.24)	.00	(.05)			.15***	.14	.14	31.24***	
Step 2	.38***	(.22)	.00	(.05)	-.01	(.40)	.15	.14	.00	20.77***	.02
Fired											
Step 1	.11*	(.10)	-.05	(.05)			.02	.01	.02	2.76	
Step 2	.10	(.11)	-.05	(.05)	.04	(.16)	.02	.01	.00	2.04	.61

Note. "β" refers to standardized regression estimates. Standard errors in parentheses. Regression estimates are based on 1000 bootstrapped samples.
*$p<.05$
**$p<.01$
***$p<.001$
Two-tailed tests.

Figures

Figure 1. Latack and Havlovic's (1992) coping chart. This chart depicts numerous CWB as forms PFC and EFC.

	FOCUS	
	Problem/task	**Emotions/reactions**
Method*	**Control:**	**Control:**
	Planning, organizing and prioritizing assignments (Parasuraman and Cleek, 1984)	Try to think of myself as a winner — as someone who always comes through; Get mad at yourself and tell yourself that you could have avoided the situation (Dewe, 1985)
Cognitive		
	Escape:	**Escape:**
	Try to pay attention only to your duties in order to overlook difficulties in your work situation (Menaghan and Merves, 1984)	Tell yourself difficulties are unimportant (Fleishman, 1984); I am able to put my job out of my mind when I go home (Osipow and Sopkane, 1984)
	A | B	
	C | D	
	Social:	**Social:**
	Sit down and talk things out (Ilfeld, 1980)	Express your irritation to other work colleagues just to be able to let off steam (Dewe, 1985)
	Solitary:	**Solitary:**
	I do what has to be done, one step at a time (Carver *et al.*, 1989)	Spend time on a hobby (O'Hare and Tamburri, 1986)
Behavioral†	**Control:**	**Control:**
	Ask callers to hold; delay or leave undone some of normal job responsibilities (Kirmeyer and Dougherty, 1988)	Had no emotional reaction (McCrae, 1984) not communicating distress to anyone (Parkes, 1984)
	Escape:	**Escape:**
	Got busy with other things in order to keep my mind off the problem (Billings and Moos, 1981)	Change to a nonwork activity (Burke and Belcourt, 1974); taking pills, smoking more (Feldman and Brett, 1983)

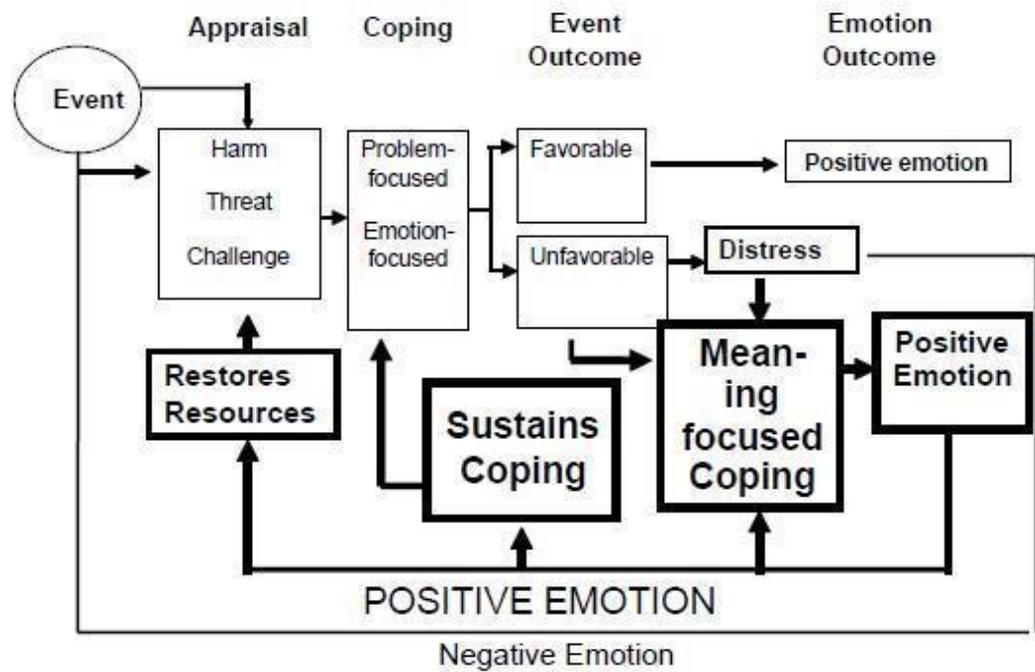*Figure 2*. Revised Stress and Coping Model (Folkman, 1997 as cited in Folkman, 2008).

Figure 3. Graph of the interaction between constraints and CWB on emotional well-
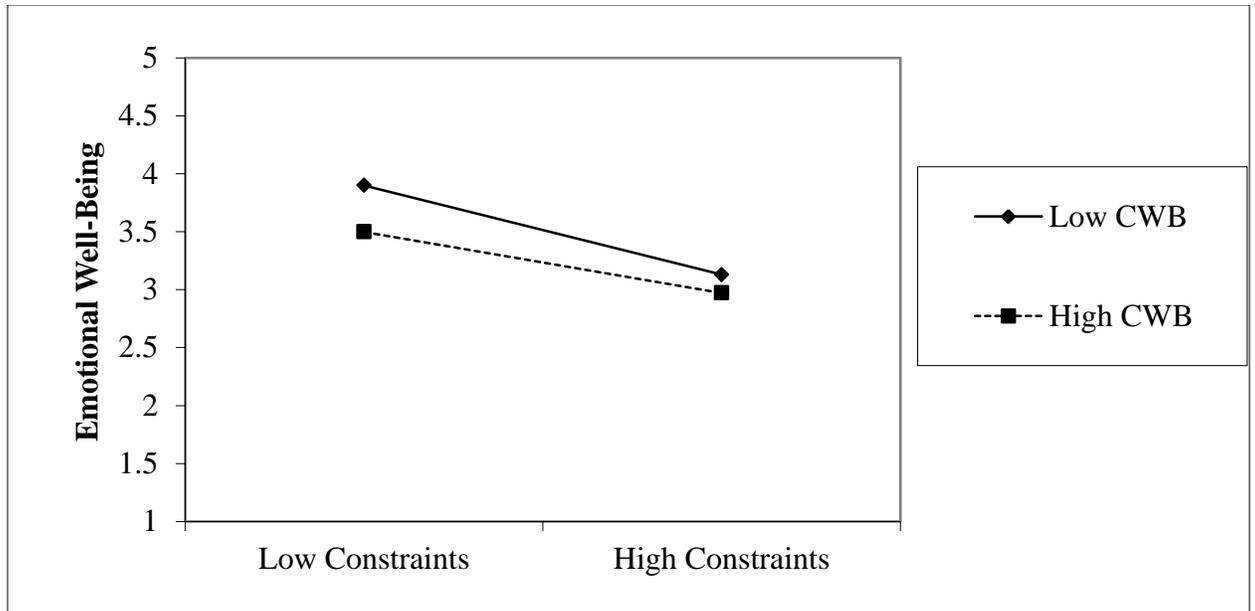
being.

Figure 4. Graph of the interaction between constraints and CWB on organization-based
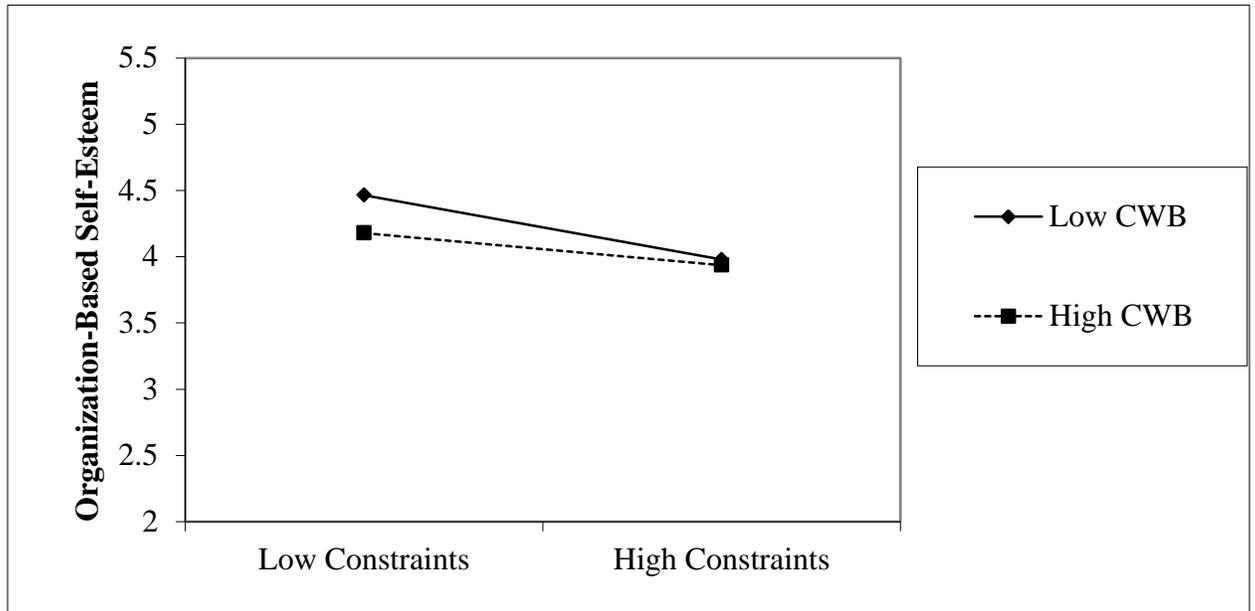self-esteem.

Figure 5. Graph of the interaction between constraints and CWB on goal achievement.
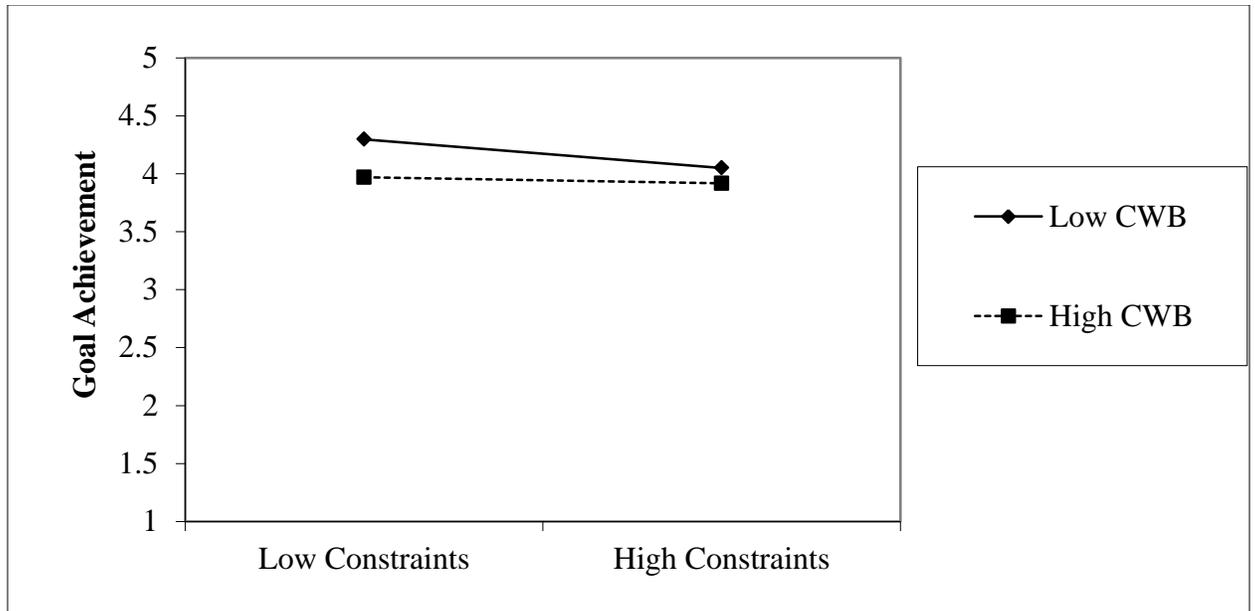
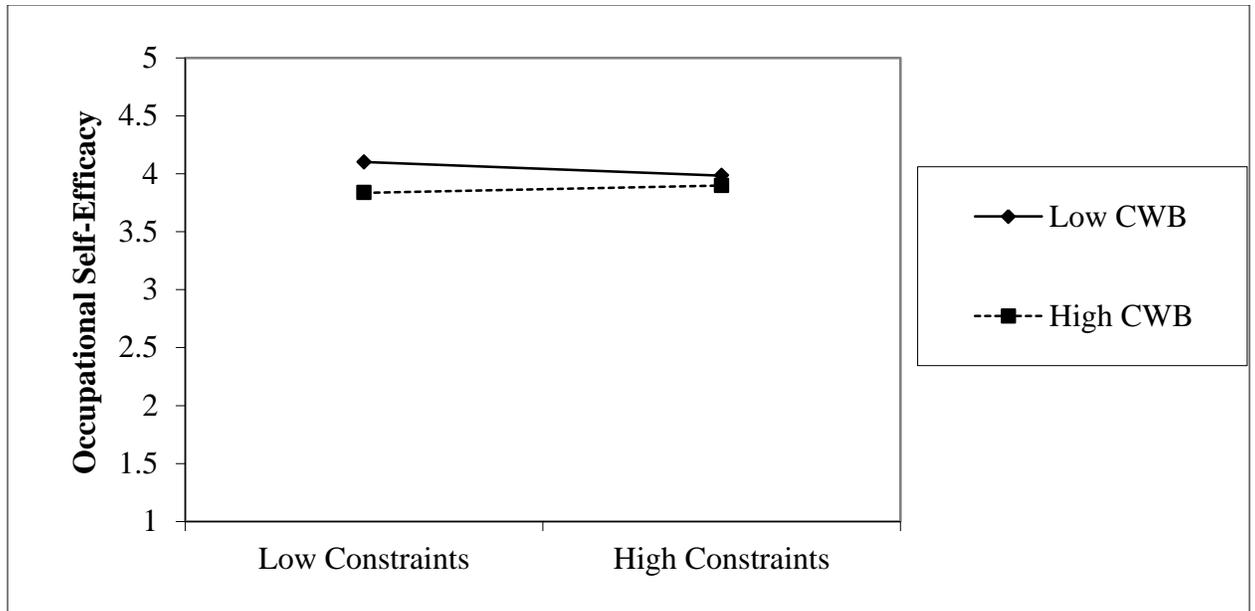*Figure 6*. Graph of the interaction between constraints and CWB on occupational self-

efficacy.

Figure 7. Graph of the interaction between constraints and CWB on problem-focused coping.
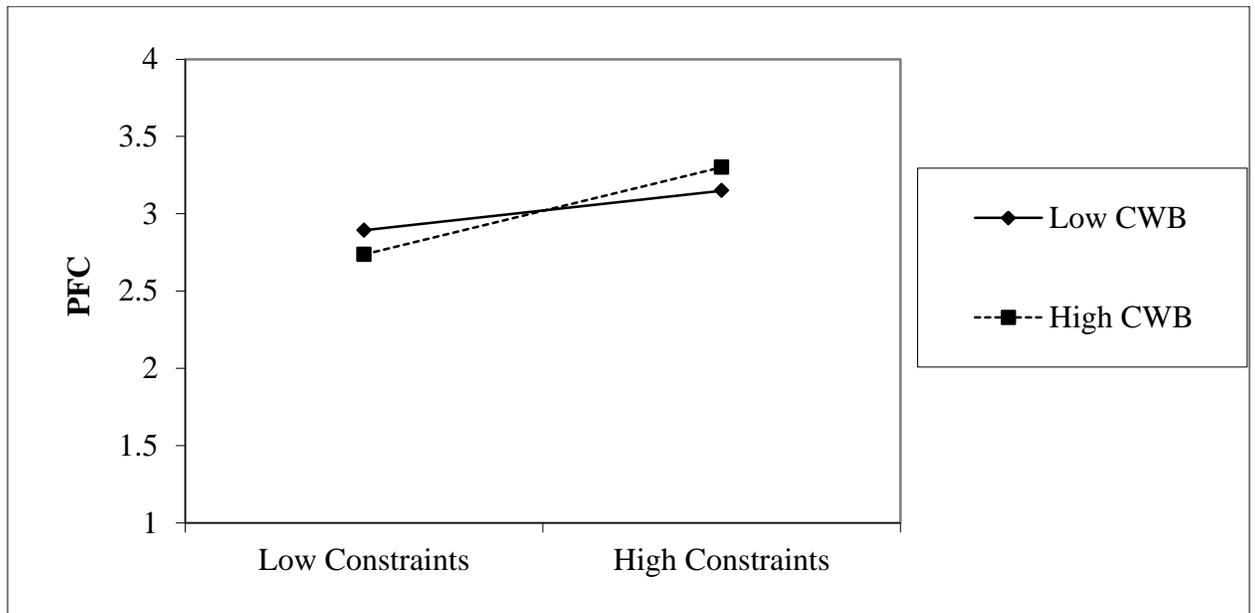
Figure 8. Graph of the interaction between quantitative workload and CWB on occupational self-efficacy.
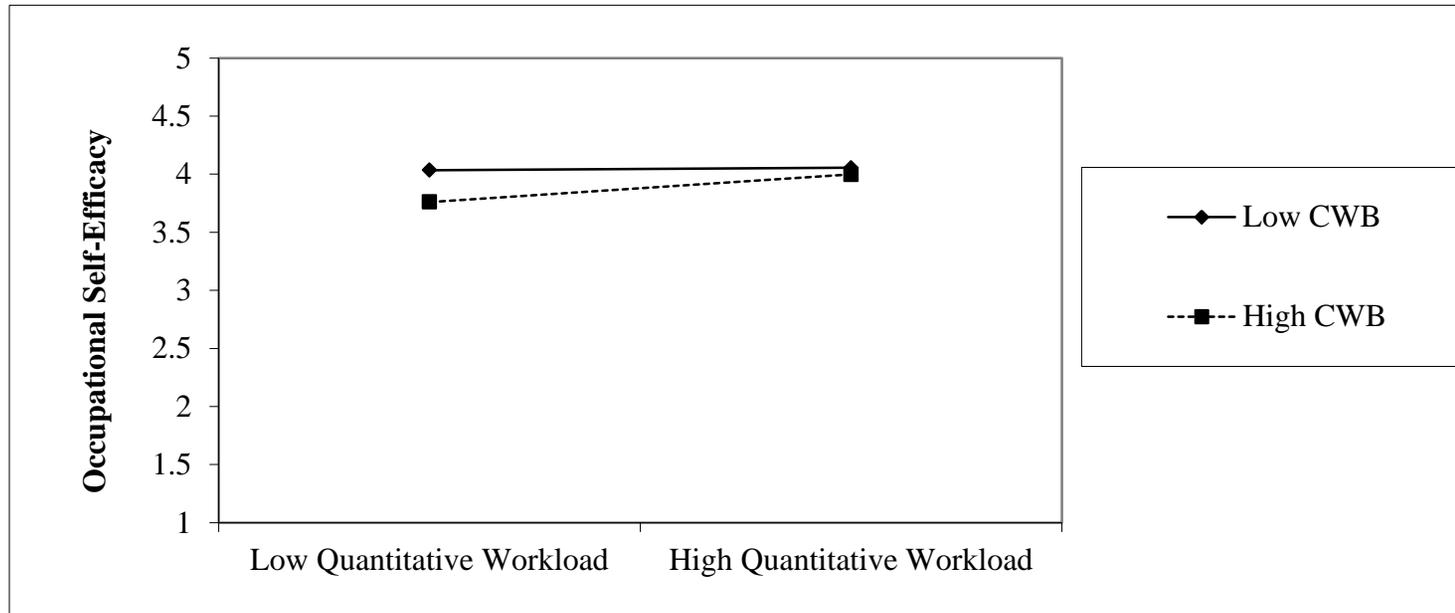
Figure 9. Graph of the interaction between quantitative workload and CWB on problem-focused coping.