

Abstract

**The relationship between culture and counterproductive work behaviors:
The moderating role of job engagement and perceived job insecurity**

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Abstract

Counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) have been a substantial cause for concern among organizational researchers and business executives due to its pervasiveness and ability to negatively impact organizational expenditures. Studies have shown that cultural values have an influence on an employee's propensity to engage in CWBs and this study sought to provide additional insight into the relationship between culture and CWBs. Specifically, this study examined the relationship between cultural values (collectivism and individualism) and reported engagement in both CWBs towards the organization and towards individuals in the organization. In addition, the moderating role of both job insecurity and job engagement in this relationship was examined. Congruent with past research, individualism was shown to have a positive relationship with self-reported engagement in CWBs; however, in contrast to past research, collectivism also demonstrated a positive relationship with self-report engagement in CWBs. Moreover, the relationship between individualism and CWBs was strengthened by increased levels of job engagement. Additionally, it was observed that individuals higher in individualism and individuals higher in collectivism had lower tendencies to engage CWBs as a result of higher levels of job insecurity – as the level of job insecurity increased, the strength of the relationships increased. Implications and study limitations are discussed as well.

**The relationship between culture and counterproductive work behaviors:
The moderating role of job engagement and perceived job insecurity**

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Introduction

The study of counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) has received a growing interest in the last few decades (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Khan et al. 2009; Taylor, 2012). It has quickly risen to become one of the most popular topics of study as well as a cause for concern among organizational researchers and business executives (Clark, 2013; Spector et al. 2006; Smithikrai, 2014; Uche et al. 2017). This mostly stems from the pervasiveness of this behavior in organizations (Hsi, 2017; Lau et al. 2003) and its propensity to harm employee well-being (Xu et al. 2013), decrease job performance (Chang & Smithikrai, 2010; Wei & Si, 2011; Xu et al. 2013) and to increase organizational expenditures (Cohen, 2015; Uche et al. 2017; Wei & Si, 2011). In the United States of America, up to 200 billion dollars has reportedly been lost annually due to counterproductive work behaviors with additional losses being incurred from damage caused by sabotage and low productivity (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Lau et al. 2003; Szostek, 2018). Similarly, Smithikrai and Chang (2010) note that counterproductive work behaviors cost businesses close to 50 billion dollars annually and may be the cause behind as many as 20 percent of failed business. Moreover, CWBs can create an unsafe and insecure environment which may adversely affect performance and the well-being of employees (Wang et al. 2020; Xu et al. 2013). Studies conducted on the issue have also suggest that as many as 33% to 75% of employees in an organization have admitted to engaging in activities such as theft, fraud, vandalism, sabotage and voluntary absenteeism (Lau et al. 2003; Szostek, 2018). Along the same lines, Bennett and Robinson (2000) conducted a study from which 15% of the sample admitted to having stolen from their employer before while Bennett and Robinson (2000) and Cohen (2016) make mention of another study that found that 25% of employees in their sample knew their coworkers abused drugs. The issue of CWBs has become more mainstream with frequent

media reports on corrupt workers and cases of violence occurring in the workplace (Szostek, 2018). Workplace negativity has been a central focus in organizational behavior and management literature and there is a consensus that to understand an organization better, counterproductive behaviors that are often referred to as the dark side of an organization should not be ignored (Cohen, 2016).

Counterproductive work behavior often varies in its definition. Some classify it as any deliberate action that harms an organization and its members and act against its interests (Chang & Smithikrai, 2010; Cohen, 2016) whereas other consider it as any voluntary activities that are harmful to an organization and its stakeholders which includes clients, customers, coworkers and supervisors (Marcus et al. 2013; Spector et al., 2006). Others have also described such behaviors as an extra role behavior that is designed to harm a person or an organization that is apart from core task behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors (Cohen, 2015). These behaviors range from something as petty as gossiping, theft to serious offences such as aggression, sexual harassment, and embezzlement (Szostek, 2018).

To better understand counterproductive work behaviors, researchers have studied the structure, antecedents and consequences of this behavior providing a flood of theoretical and empirical information on the subject. For instance, Szostek (2018) suggests that counterproductive work behaviors may result from internal factors such as personality and some external or situational factors such as organizational culture, environment, and social permission. In addition, literature on the subject indicates that there are relationships between counterproductive behaviors and both organizational and individual characteristics (Smithikrai, 2014; Szostek, 2018; Uche et al. 2017). Other antecedents of counterproductive behaviors mentioned are age, education, personality, perception of fairness in the workplace, stress at work,

integrity, and negative work environments among others (Czarnota-Bojarska, 2015; Khan et al., 2009). These factors have been studied as being related to counterproductive behaviors and inducing such behaviors in employees. Yet there is little information that looks at the relationship between culture and the tendency to engage in counterproductive work behaviors. Studies have shown that culture moderates the relationships between numerous factors and workplace behaviors (Taylor, 2012), such as in the study conducted by Schroeder (2009) where culture was found to moderate the justice-deviance relationship in an organization. In addition, from the study conducted by Smithikrai (2014), correlations have been discovered between cultural values and counterproductive work behaviors indicating that the causes of counterproductive work behaviors may differ across cultures. This is because our cultural values do not only tend to influence how we process information (Triandis, 1995), it also influences our goals, expectations and needs at work; hence these goals, expectations and needs vary across individuals depending on their cultural values, leading to differences in how these individuals perceive organizational environments and outcomes (Smithikrai, 2014). Most theories on counterproductive behaviors have been developed based on studies conducted in the United States, Canada, and Europe hence these theories cannot be used in cultures that are different (Esroy, 2010; Smithikrai, 2014; Taylor, 2012). This poses a problem because strategies that are needed to prevent and curb CWBs in non-North American cultures will prove to be ineffective using theoretical frameworks based on studies from North America (Esroy, 2010; Taylor, 2012). Moreover, there is also a current lack of understanding regarding the factors that lead to or increase the tendency for employees to engage in counterproductive work behaviors (Taylor, 2012).

Statement of the Problem

It is often said that “the world is a global village.” As it becomes more globalized, interdependent, and internationalized, so do organizations and workplaces. Hence, it is important to understand the nuances that set organizations in distinct cultures and countries apart and how cultural orientations influence organizational behavior thus, there is a growing need for executives that are skilled in working with diverse cultures (Smithikrai, 1993). One other consequence of globalization is the need for the examination of workplace deviance or CWBs among the different cultures as counterproductive work behaviors are an example of a common organizational behavior that is constantly a concern for organizations due to how costly engagement in such behaviors can be (Galperin, 2002).

There have been quite a number of studies on the antecedents of CWBs as a way to understand and curb the behavior in organizations but while several theorists have emphasized that cultural variables play an important role in understanding CWBs, little research has been conducted to study the influence of cultural orientation. Many of the studies that have looked at the link between cultural variables and CWBs were conducted in Western countries such as the United States and England (Galperin, 2002; Taylor, 2012). Hence there is a gap for knowledge in this field of study from other countries.

There are conflicting theoretical positions on the influence culture can have on organizational behavior and characteristics. One such theory against the notion that culture can influence behavior is the contingency theory. This theory maintains that organizations became similar to each other with the rise of industrialization. That is, industrialized societies have organizations that are more specialized, experience growth in size and have a complex structure. Thus, they propose that this process of change in organizations is solely as a result of

industrialization and technological development with little to no influence from the cultural context (Taylor, 2012). To determine organizational behavior and characteristics, the organizational context is key hence the relation between the organizational context and organizational characteristics is stable across societies irrespective of the difference in cultural values (Smithikrai, 1993). In contrast, the culture-specific theory posits that organizations are culture bound. Arguing that, cultural variables will still influence the way people behave and react to one another in an organization even if organizations from different societal cultures experience the same contingencies and have the same organizational structure. (Smithikrai, 1993).

Thus, we are left with the question: Do cultural variables influence behavior in the workplace? In more specific terms, is culture a predictor of CWBs in the workplace? If so, how strong of a predictor is culture in this relationship when some antecedents of CWBs are present? While some cultural variables may be able to predict the tendency to engage in CWBs, it is possible that the presence or absence of some antecedents of CWBs or characteristics in the organization may affect this relationship by increasing or decreasing the tendency to engage in the behavior no matter the societal or individual's cultural orientation. This study sought to contribute to the growing knowledge on the relationship between the individualism-collectivism cultural orientation and CWBs and the effect of some antecedents of CWBs or characteristics of the organization have on this relationship.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between cultural variables and the tendency to engage in CWBs. I looked at this relationship by evaluating the predictive nature of culture on an individual level and how it influences engagement in CWBs. Furthermore, this

study evaluated the relationship among culture and some antecedents of CWBs and the tendency to engage in CWBs. This study contributes to the literature on CWBs in two ways. First, it adds to the growing knowledge on the influence of individual cultural values on the tendency to engage in CWBs by comparing responses from participants from India and the US on the tendency to engage in CWBs. Secondly, most studies have evaluated how culture may moderate the antecedent-CWB relationship, but none have looked at how the presence or absence of these situational antecedents in an organization can affect the strength of the culture-CWB relationship thus this study looked at the culture-CWB relationship moderated by job insecurity and job engagement.

Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) have been described with various concepts such as employee deviance or delinquency, workplace aggression, antisocial behavior, unruliness, incivility, mobbing or bullying and organizational misbehavior (Chang & Smithikrai, 2010; Özbağ, 2019; Sulea et al, 2013); traditionally it is defined as any voluntary behavior that works against the interests of the organization (Chang & Smithikrai, 2010; Marcus et al. 2016; Smithikrai, 2014; Wang et al. 2013; Wei & Si, 2013; Uche et al. 2017) This definition of CWB broadly covers the constructs listed above and includes specific acts such as theft, substance use, sabotage, absenteeism and other constructs such as workplace retaliation, aggression and incivility and even antisocial behaviors exhibited by an employee of an organization and excludes any behavior exhibited by an organizational outsider (Chirumbolo, 2015; Clark, 2013). These behaviors are detrimental to an organization, its members and stakeholders, causing a financial toll to the organization and an emotional toll on employees in addition to the serious

threat it poses to the functioning and effectiveness of the organization (Chirumbolo, 2015; Esroy, 2010; Hsi, 2017; Taylor, 2012; Xu et al. 2013).

Counterproductive work behaviors have been conceptualized and measured in several ways by researchers. Hollinger and Clark in 1983 proposed that CWBs be measured and conceptualized as a concept with two dimensions which are property deviance (stealing company equipment and merchandise) and production deviance (taking longer breaks than usual, calling in sick when not) (Özbağ, 2019). In addition to the behaviors proposed by Hillinger and Clark, Robinson and Bennett (1995) suggested two more behaviors be added which are political deviance (e.g. showing favoritism, gossiping at work, blaming co-workers and nonbeneficial competition) and personal aggression, which includes actions such as sexual harassment, verbal abuse, stealing and endangering co-workers. Gruys and Sackett (2003) also conducted studies and produced 11 categories to show the dimensionality of CWBs. These categories are theft and related behaviors, destruction of property, misuse of information, misuse of time and resources, unsafe behavior, poor attendance, inferior quality work, alcohol use, drug use, inappropriate verbal actions, inappropriate physical actions. In 2006, Spector and colleagues proposed that assessing CWBs with one or two overall dimensions may obscure the relationship between potential antecedents with more specific forms of behavior hence they conducted a finer-grained analysis with five subscales or dimensions which are abuse toward others, production deviance, sabotage, theft and withdrawal. This scale has widely been used in empirical studies of CWB (Özbağ, 2019). Another commonly used conceptualization of CWB is the one proposed by Bennett and Robinson (2000). They derived two scales of measures for CWB: a 12-item scale of organizational deviance or CWB directed toward the organization (CWB-O) and a 7-item scale of Interpersonal deviance or CWB directed towards individuals (CWB-I). CWB-O is defined as

voluntary acts that hurt the organization includes behaviors such as theft, sabotage, work slowdowns and withdrawal while CWB-I is defined as any behavior by an employee that is intended to harm his or her fellow employees. Examples of CWB-1 are verbal assault, aggression, bullying, favoritism and spreading rumors. For this study, CWB was measured by categorizing deviant behavior into those targeted at the organization (CWB-O) and toward the individual (CWB-I) as conceptualized by Bennet and Robinson.

Antecedents of CWBs

As previously noted, several factors have been studied as antecedents of CWB. These antecedents have been grouped into two categories: individual and situational antecedents.

Situational Factors

Academic research has shown evidence that there are situational antecedents of CWB. For instance, situational constraints, that is any external factor that hampers an employee's performance such as faulty equipment and insufficient training, have been reported to lead to frustration among employees which can in turn enhance the tendency to engage in CWB (Clark, 2013). Similarly, Hershcovis (2007) in a study found a positive correlation among situational constraints, interpersonal conflicts, and job dissatisfaction and both interpersonal and organizational CWB. Situational factors are the aspects of the organizational environment and social context that are perceived by individuals and are influenced greatly by other members of the organization (Hershcovis et al. 2007,). Several situational factors have been found to contribute or predict to the performance of CWBs (Hsi, 2017). These include perceived organizational justice, interpersonal conflict, situational constraints, and poor leadership (Sulea et al., 2013). According to Hsi, (2017) an employee, when faced with an undesirable condition, will decide whether to engage in a counterproductive work behavior after engaging in a cognitive

appraisal and evaluation of the situation hence the situation can play a major factor in deciding whether or not to engage in a CWB.

Individual Factors

Many researchers have studied individual antecedents of CWB hence there is also a wealth of information on the subject. Individual factors are stable personality traits and inherent characteristics that influences a person's behavior such as demographic variables and personality traits (Hsi, 2017). Research indicates that these factors predispose individuals to behave in a certain manner and colors the way situations and events in the workplace are perceived and interpreted by individuals. Other studies suggest that general personality traits such as external locus of control and trait anxiety, can cause frustration in employees thus increasing the tendency of those employees to engage in CWBs (Clark, 2013; Fox & Spector, 1999; Hershcovis et al. 2007). In past studies, the most common individual factor researched is personality that is, the Big Five personality traits, trait anger, positive and negative affectivity, and demographic characteristics (Hershcovis et al. 2007; Sulea et al, 2013). Studies have shown that there is a relationship between the Big Five personality traits and CWB, specifically, agreeableness, neuroticism and conscientiousness were found to have a negative correlation to CWB (Clark, 2013). Hsi (2017) suggests that personality traits play a role in how a person perceives and appraises his or her environment, the reasons ascribed to the cause of an event, how they respond emotionally and their tendency to hold back aggressive and counterproductive impulses. Positive relationships have also been observed between CWBs and negative affectivity, narcissism, and low self-control (Clark, 2013).

Culture

Culture is a network of values, attitudes, beliefs, and behavioral meanings shared by members of a society and passed down from generation to generations (Thomas et al. 2003). Hofstede defines culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (Schroeder, 2009; Taras et al. 2010). Though culture is believed to exist within the knowledge system of individuals and is formed during childhood and reinforced throughout life, it is viewed as a construct at the group level and is neither genetic nor about individual behavior (Thomas et al. 2003).

Among the cultural dimensions proposed by Hofstede (1980) and believed to have an influence on work-related behavior, individualism and collectivism has been central to most theoretical and empirical studies (Wasti, 2003). Individualism has been identified in countries such as the United States, Britain and countries influenced by the British whereas, collectivism has been observed in African, Asian, and Latin American countries (Triandis et al. 1990).

Individualism and Collectivism

Hofstede’s individualism and collectivism dimension of culture is defined by Hofstede as the extent to which individuals in a country prefer to act as individuals rather than as a part of a group or in other words, the amount of social interactions among individuals. Wasti (2003) suggests that the distinction between individualism and collectivism is the construct of self; in the sense that, the former views the self as an independent entity whose behavior is heavily influenced by his or her own thoughts, feelings, and actions. In contrast, the latter defines the self as interdependent with a behavior that is consistent with the thoughts, feelings and actions of important others that is, the in-group. This cultural dimension is said to be very useful in the prediction and explanation of a diverse array of social behavior and major studies looking at

national variation in value orientations feature individualism and collectivism. (Schroeder, 2009; Smithikrai, 2014; Taras et al., 2010; Thomas et al., 2003). It is also believed to be the most significant cultural difference among cultures and is often referred to as the “deep structure” of cultural differences (Triandis, 2001). For this reason, even though there are five cultural dimensions proposed by Hofstede, we will focus on the individualism- collectivism dimension.

Individualism is defined as the tendency for an individual to view himself as independent of others and to be more concerned about what the consequences of behavior may be for his or her personal goals (Thomas et al., 2003). Triandis (1995) defines individualism as “a social pattern that consists of loosely linked individuals who view themselves as independent of collectives; are primarily motivated by their own preferences, needs, rights, . . . and emphasize the rational analysis of the advantages and disadvantages to associating with others” (p.2). Cognitively, individualists’ behavior is guided by attitudes, personal needs and rights and relationships are formed based on rational analysis. Moreover, the motivation to achieve dominates an individualists’ social identity hence aggression and conflict is used to protect markets or profits and are justified based on utilitarian principles (Thomas et al., 2003; Triandis, 1995; Triandis, 2001).

In contrast, *collectivism* is defined by Triandis (1995) as when individuals “see themselves as parts of one or more collectives (family, co-workers, tribe, nation); are primarily motivated by the norms of, and duties imposed by, those collectives; . . . and emphasize their connectedness to members of these collectives” (p. 2). Collectivist cultures typically pay more attention to situational factors such as norms, roles, and obligations as the major determinants of behavior and place their emphasis on values that further the welfare of their in-group (Smithikrai, 2014). Cognitively, collectivists’ behavior is guided by a focus on norms,

obligations and duties and there are more interested in forming a relationship even when they are unsure of the consequences hence, they prefer methods of conflict resolution that will save the relationship (Thomas et al. 2003; Triandis, 1995; Triandis 2001). Triandis (2001) mentions a study carried out by Ohbuchi, Fukushima and Tedeschi in 1999 which showed that collectivists facing conflicts are mainly concerned with maintaining their relationship with others while individualists are more concerned with achieving justice. The motivating factor for collectivists is the desire to be like others and their social identity comes from their ancestry or race (Thomas et al. 2003; Triandis, 2001).

According to Triandis and Gelfand (1998), there are four defining features of individualism and collectivism: the definition of self, which emphasizes personal and collective aspects or can be independent or interdependent, and personal goals that have priority over ingroup goals or vice versa. The other defining features are the emphasis on exchange and rationality rather than communal relationship and relatedness and the importance of attitudes and norms in determining social behavior. Triandis and Gelfand (1998) go on to further argue that there are different kinds of individualism and collectivism based on horizontal and vertical social relationships. This gives rise to four categories: horizontal and vertical individualism and horizontal and vertical collectivism.

In horizontal individualism, individuals are more self-reliant and are not interested in attaining social status whereas in vertical individualism, individuals seek to acquire social status, and to be the best which they try to attain from competing with others. In horizontal collectivism, common goals with others, interdependence and sociability are emphasized but there is a reluctance to submit to authority while in vertical collectivism, emphasis is on the integrity of the in-group. Individuals are willing to sacrifice their personal goals for the attainment of in-group

goals; they support competitions between their in-groups and out-groups and they easily acquiesce to the will of authority to act in certain ways even if they do not support the act.

Research shows that though Hofstede conceptualized the individualism- collectivism dimension at a cross-national level and that most countries exhibit predominantly collectivistic or individualistic features, significant nuances exist in the cultural values of a country's individuals (Schroeder, 2009, Wasti, 2003). Thus, it may be wrong to assume that everyone in a country with a collectivistic culture is collectivistic or everyone in individualistic cultures is individualistic (Kalemci et al. 2018). At the individual level, individualism and collectivism are referred to as idiocentrism and allocentrism, respectively. Idiocentric individuals are said to uphold values, attitudes, or norms consistent with notions of independence and the belief that personal needs and rights should come first while allocentric individuals approve of interdependence and put the values, obligations, and norms of the group first (Wasti, 2003). In this paper, cultural values specifically individualism-collectivism was examined at the individual level as conceptualized by Triandis.

Counterproductive Work Behaviors and Culture

Past studies on CWBs have shown a relationship between CWBs and several individual characteristics. Yet very few studies have looked at how cultural values are relevant to understanding the occurrence of such deviant behaviors. It has been found that individuals with different cultural values have different goals, expectations and needs from work (Smithikrai, 2014). Moreover, their perceptions of work environments and outcomes are colored by their cultural values. Looking at individualism and collectivism is essential in understanding cultural differences because they have been shown to have an influence on social behavior which plays a significant role in contemporary work behavior. Research conducted by Chang and Smithikrai

(201) found that collectivism has a negative relationship with CWB and predicted the behavior in employees while individualism was positively related to and predicted CWBs as well (Smithikrai, 2014). Smithikrai (2014) also conducted a subsequent study to explore the relationship between cultural values and CWBs while looking at stress as a mediating factor and results suggested a meaningful relationship between counterproductive work behaviors and collectivism and vertical individualism. Individuals exposed to a stressful environment tend to make attributions for the cause of events and these causes are either seen as being under the individual's control and whether the harm is intentional or not. Cultural values play a role in the interpretation of the events individuals experiences, with individualists' considering their interests as being more important than that of the group as compared to collectivists who consider the interests of the group over personal interests. Hence, individualists are more likely to look out for themselves and solely pursue their personal goals. Such individuals are more likely to interpret unpleasant situations as threats leading to experience anger and the desire to engage in CWBs. Vertical individualists were found to be more likely to engage in deviant behavior while horizontal collectivists were less likely to do so. In the same vein, a study conducted to test the effect of psychological collectivism on four different dimensions of group member performance indicated that members who were more collectivistic performed their tasks better, contributed more discretionary citizenship and were less likely to engage in counterproductive work behaviors (Jackson et al., 2006). Based on the contemporary model by Spector and Fox (2005), deviant behaviors result from an interaction between an employee and his or her environment. Cultural values influence how an individual interprets a situation in his environment that may be a potential threat to their welfare. Individualists tend to consider their personal interests as being more important than the interest of the group hence they look out for

themselves. In an unpleasant situation, individualists will feel more threatened than collectivists and will more likely experience anger and a desire to engage in counterproductive work behaviors (Smithikrai, 2014). On the other hand, collectivists are more likely to view work relationships as family relationships and may feel it necessary to maintain a positive relationship despite their negative experiences in the workplace (Schroeder, 2009). Drawing from the results from previous research, it was expected that individuals more oriented towards collectivism will have a lower tendency to engage in CWBs as compared to individuals who are less oriented toward collectivism.

H1a: Individual orientation towards individualism (idiocentrism) will be positively related to the tendency to engage in both CWB-I and CWB-O.

H1b: Individual orientation towards collectivism (allocentrism) will be negatively related to the tendency to engage in both CWB-I and CWB-O.

Counterproductive Work Behaviors and Job Engagement

Employee engagement has been defined as an emotional and intellectual commitment to the organization (Hamel, 2012). Kahn (1990) describes it as being psychologically present when occupying and performing in a position in an organization. Other researchers have defined it as a motivational construct that represents the active allocation of personal resources toward any task associated with the work role (Ariani, 2013). Schaufeli and colleagues (2002) defined engagement as a positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is categorized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Here, vigor is defined by elevated levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in your job and the ability to persist even when facing difficulties. Dedication is the sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration,

pride, and challenge. Absorption, the final facet means full concentration and deep attention to one's work.

The results of a study conducted by Chhetri (2017), indicated that job engagement was found to be negatively related to CWBs. Ariani (2013) and Sulea and colleagues (2012) found comparable results and suggests that individuals who are engaged at work have a positive perception of the work they perform whereas unengaged employees may negatively perceive the work situation hence they are more likely to engage in CWB.

Individualist cultures and individuals oriented towards individualism lean towards an independent sense of self and are concerned with the attainment of their goals. According to Gonzalez-Navarro et al., (2019), individualists embrace work engagement to a greater extent than collectivists. Individualists are more focused on achieving their own goals and have less concern about the goals of the group. Hence, we proposed that work or job engagement will moderate the culture and CWB relationship. That is, an increase in the level of an individualist oriented employee's work engagement will weaken the relationship between culture and the likelihood that he or she will engage in CWBs.

H2: Job engagement will moderate the relationship between culture and the tendency to engage in CWBs such that the greater the level of job engagement, the weaker the relationship between individualism and CWB.

Counterproductive Work Behaviors and Job Insecurity

Job insecurity has been defined as the perception and fear that results from a person having his or her job at risk (Chirumbolo, 2015). Job insecurity has also been described as the subjective fears and worries associated with the desire for continuity in the job situation; it is the condition where there is the absence of job assurance and job stability from day to day, week to

week and year to year (Joe-Akunne et al., 2014; Van den Broeck et al., 2014). Others conceptualize job insecurity as a subjective phenomenon that varies in intensity even when employees are facing similar job threats (Reisel et al., 2014). The dimensionality of job insecurity has been debated and two categories have emerged: the first is quantitative job insecurity which has to do with losing or retaining the job altogether while qualitative job insecurity refers to the loss or discontinuation of important job roles, tasks or features (Reisel et al. 2014; Van den Broeck et al., 2014). Research has proven that job security is a key factor considered in selecting a job (Joe-Akunne et al., 2014). According to Senol (2011), job security plays a fundamental role in the social and working life of an individual because it aids in reducing worry about the future, contributes to ensuring labor peace, increases work productivity and protects social balance and values. Hence, the lack of job security or the presence of job insecurity can lead to attitudinal reactions such as intentions to quit, reduced commitment, and reduced satisfaction (Ashford et al. 1989).

Many studies have produced results that corroborate the above statement. For instance, studies show that employees in an insecure job position tend to experience stress, frustration and anxiety which may in turn translate or contribute to these employees engaging in CWBs (Ma et al., 2018; Probst et al. 2007). Similarly, Joe-Akunne and colleagues (2014) found that among bankers in Nigeria, there was a significant relationship between job insecurity and CWB that is, bankers were more likely to engage in CWB as a result of the perception of job insecurity. Ma and colleagues (2018) also found that the higher the levels of job insecurity, the more CWB-O and CWB-I may occur.

In direct contrast, research has shown that should an employee with perceptions of job insecurity believe engaging in CWBs will result in sanctions such as termination or the financial

consequences associated with job loss, they will be less likely to engage in CWBs. Even without the perceived threat of sanctions, job insecurity in a study, was proven to decrease the tendency to engage in CWBs (Probst et al., 2007).

Individualists are motivated by the pursuit of their personal goals and to advance their personal welfare and self-interests. Thus, employees that are individualistic may respond to any situation that influences their well-being by engaging in behaviors that are intended to harm the individual or thing that threatens their welfare or pursuit of their goals unlike collectivists are mainly concerned with their social relationships and will consider how their actions be it deviant behaviors, will affect these relationships. Literature has also shown that individualists are more likely to value mastery, autonomy and hierarchy and work centrality which is the degree of importance that work has in a person's life is to cultures that value mastery and hierarchy (Morgan, 2018). Research by Morgan (2018) and Probst and Lawler (2006) has shown that individuals with collectivist values, highly value job security hence they are more likely to exhibit turnover intentions, reduced job satisfaction and withdrawal behaviors in reaction to job insecurity.

Hence, we proposed that in the face of job insecurity, individualists and collectivists may be more likely to engage in CWBs.

H3: Job insecurity will moderate the relationship between culture and the tendency to engage in CWBs such that the greater the level of job insecurity the stronger the relationship between collectivism and CWB and the stronger the relationship between individualism and CWB.

Methods

Sample

Participants for the study were fulltime workers in the USA and India and were acquired via Amazon Mechanical TURK. These countries were selected based on their individualism scores on Geert Hofstede's cultural dimensions; the USA has a score of 91 and India a score of 48 (Hofstede, 1980). A total of 233 individuals participated in the study; however, responses from 47 participants were removed due to failing the attention checks that were embedded in the survey. Thus, the final sample size consisted of 186 individuals. A bit over 63% of the participants were male and the mean age was 36.73 years ($SD = 8.88$), ranging from 24 to 74. 54.5% of responses were from workers located in the USA and 44.9% were located in India. A total of 49.7% of participants identified themselves as Asians, 45.5% identified as Caucasian, 3.2% as African American, 1.1% as Native American or Alaskan native and .5% as Middle Eastern. In exchange for their involvement in the study, participants received monetary compensation. Further demographic information is presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Demographic Information of Participants

Variables	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>
Gender		
Female	69	36.9
Male	118	63.1
Country		
USA	102	54.5
India	84	44.9
Race		
Asian	93	49.7
White/Caucasian	85	45.5
Black/African American	6	3.2

Native American or Alaskan	2	1.1
Native Middle Eastern	1	.5
Ethnicity		
Hispanic or Latino	19	10.2

Note. n =187

Due to race being confounded with country, it was not included in any of the analyses. As noted in Table 2 below, over 90% of Asian respondents were from India and over 90% of Caucasians were respondents from the United States, as well as other races considerably smaller populations in India such as African Americans and Native Americans or Alaskan Natives.

Ethnicity was also excluded from the analysis due to a low rate of responses. Only 19 out of 187 participants reported being of Hispanic or Latino ethnicity.

Table 2

Count of race by country

		Country	
		US	India
Race	Asian	9	85
	White/Caucasian	85	2
	Black/African American	5	1
	Native American/Alaska Native	2	0
	Middle Eastern	1	0

Procedures

Responses to the survey were collected using Amazon’s Mechanical Turk (MTURK) online platform where a link to the Qualtrics survey was posted. Restrictions were placed to allow only qualified participants to partake in the study; qualified meaning the participant had a full time job and was either Indian or American and above age 18. The survey consisted of a total of 64 questions, demographic questions included, which took approximately 15 minutes to

complete. Prior to participation, workers were provided with a consent form that they had to complete before access was given to the actual survey questions. Participants were also informed about the confidentiality and anonymity of their responses and were told they had the right to refuse to participate in the without any consequences. To move on in the survey, participants had to show consent to participate. Participants who did not consent to participate were directed to a “Thank you” page and exited the survey.

Measures

Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Counterproductive work behaviors were measured via Robinson and Bennett’s (2000) scale with 12-items assessing organizational deviance and a 7 items assessing interpersonal deviance. Participants were asked to indicate how often they had engaged in a specific behavior with a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (*never*) to 6 (*always*). A higher score on the scale indicated a higher tendency to engage in CWBs. The items measuring interpersonal CWB (CWB-I) demonstrated an acceptable level of internal consistency ($\omega = .97$) with scores being unrelated to gender, $F(1, 184) = .04, p = .841$; however, scores were related to age ($r = -.36, p < .001$), and country, $F(1, 183) = 181.64, p < .001$. Items measuring organizational CWB (CWB-O) also had an acceptable level of internal consistency ($\omega = .98$). Scores for this variable were found to be unrelated to gender, $F(1, 184) = .58, p = .446$ but were found to be related to age ($r = .33, p < .001$), and country, $F(1, 183) = 124.73, p < .001$.

A test of normality was conducted to determine the distribution of responses to items on the CWB scale. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test indicated that responses to the items on the CWB-I scale do not follow a normal distribution, $D(186) = 0.19, p < .001$. The distribution of responses was skewed to the right and had a leptokurtic distribution; the values for skewness was 0.86 and

the value for kurtosis was -0.82. The distribution of scores indicate that a higher number of participants responded with 0 or never to the items.

Similarly for responses to the items in the CWB-O scale, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test suggested that the distribution of responses did not follow a normal distribution, $D(186) = 0.21$, $p < .001$. Responses were also positively skewed and leptokurtic; skewness was 0.90 and kurtosis was -0.72. More participants responded 0 or never to items on the CWB-O scale.

Engagement

Work engagement was assessed via the 17-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) by Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova (2002). This scale was designed to measure three subdimensions of engagement: vigor (6 items), dedication (5 items), and absorption (6 items). Participants were asked to indicate how engaged they were at work with a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*). The UWES was found to have an acceptable internal consistency ($\omega = .96$) with scores that were related to country, $F(1, 183) = 78.59$, $p < .001$ but were unrelated to age ($r = -.08$, $p = .260$) and gender, $F(1, 184) = .25$, $p = .620$.

Job Insecurity

Job insecurity was measured via Francis and Barling's (2005) 5-item scale. This scale is said to be a global measure of job insecurity (Reisel et al., 2010). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with the statements in the scale with a 5-point Likert scale starting from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The insecurity scale was found to have acceptable internal consistency ($\omega = .69$) with scores being related to country, $F(1, 183) = 6.10$, $p = .014$ but unrelated to gender, $F(1, 184) = .02$, $p = .902$, and age ($r = .05$, $p = .536$).

Individualism-Collectivism

Individualism-collectivism was measured via Triandis and Gelfand's (1998) 16-item scale by. This scale has 8 items measuring individualism and 8 items measuring collectivism. Participants were asked to indicate whether they agree to the items or not with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Items measuring collectivism were found to have an acceptable internal consistency ($\omega = .80$) with scores to these items being unrelated to age ($r = -.12, p = .111$), gender, $F(1, 184) = 2.58, p = .110$ while scores were found to be related to country, $F(1, 183) = 70.02, p < .001$. Individualism was also found to have an acceptable internal consistency ($\omega = .76$) with scores being related to age ($r = -.26, p < .001$), and country, $F(1, 183) = 63.78, p < .001$ but unrelated to gender, $F(1, 184) = 2.67, p = .104$.

Results

Relationships between Independent variables and CWB

Using multiple regression, CWB-I and CWB-O were predicted by country (1= “USA” and 2 = “India”) and gender (1 = “female” and 2 = “male”), age, job insecurity, job engagement, individualism, and collectivism. Separate regression models predicting CWB-O and CWB-I were fit. Slopes, standard errors, p values, and effect sizes are presented in Table 3 and 4 below.

In regression model fit to predict CWB-O, The model with all predictor was significant, $R^2 = 0.56$, $F(7, 177) = 32.56$, $p < .001$. Age, gender, and job insecurity had a significant negative relationship with CWB-O while country, and individualism were significant predictors with positive relationships with CWB-O. Women and Indians reported a higher tendency to engage in CWB-O and the older an individual, the lower the tendency to engage in CWB-O. Holding demographic variables constant, the higher the level of individualism the higher the tendency to engage in CWB-O and the higher the level of job insecurity, the lower the tendency to engage in CWB-O.

Regression assumptions and diagnostics were checked for this model. The results indicate that 2 cases were found to be high in distance with studentized residuals above 2.5 but below 3. These cases did not have influence or leverage hence they were not checked. A few cases were high in leverage with values above the calculated 0.09 cutoff point but these cases had no influence or distance hence they were not a cause for concern. No values had a significant Cook’s D value above 1.

The residuals of the regression based on the Q-Q plot and histogram, were fairly normal and no variables were observed to be multicollinear. Residuals of the regression, according to a scatterplot were not equally distributed hence the assumption of homoscedasticity was violated.

Table 3*Regression model predicting CWB-O*

Predictor	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	β	<i>p</i>	<i>sr</i> ²
Age	-0.03	0.01	-0.15	.008	.02
Gender	-0.58	0.19	-0.15	.003	.02
Country	1.27	0.27	0.34	<.001	.05
Engagement	0.22	0.12	0.14	.071	.01
Individualism	0.75	0.18	0.25	<.001	.04
Collectivism	-0.02	0.21	-0.01	.944	.00
Job Insecurity	-0.72	0.13	-0.30	<.001	.08

Predicting CWB-I, the model was found to be significant, $R^2 = 0.61$, $F(7, 177) = 39.52$, $p < .001$, results were similar to those reported in the model predicting CWB-O. Age, gender and job insecurity were significant and negatively related to CWB-I while individualism and country were significant and positively related to CWB-I.

Regression assumption and diagnostics indicated that 2 cases had distance that is, these cases had studentized residual values above 2.5 but not above 3. These cases did not have influence and leverage values that suggested a cause for concern hence these cases were not checked. A few cases also had leverage values above the cutoff point of a calculated 0.09 but since these cases also did not have a huge influence or distance, they were not checked. No cases had significant Cook's D values. The distribution of residuals was observed to be fairly normal per the histogram and Q-Q plot. In addition, no variable was found to be multicollinear. The data was observed to be heteroscedastic with unequally distributed residuals. This also suggests that the data may not be linear.

Table 4*Regression model predicting CWB-I*

Predictor	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	β	<i>p</i>	<i>sr</i> ²
Age	-0.03	0.01	-0.15	.005	.02
Gender	-0.46	0.19	-0.12	.016	.02
Country	1.57	0.26	0.41	<.001	.08
Engagement	0.26	0.12	0.16	.025	.01
Individualism	0.69	0.18	0.22	<.001	.03

Collectivism	0.04	0.20	0.01	.845	.00
Job Insecurity	-0.53	0.12	-0.22	<.001	.04

Test of hypotheses

Hypotheses 1a and 1b were about the relationship between both cultural orientations and the tendency to engage in CWBs. Hypothesis 1a specifically proposed that individualism will be positively related to both CWB-I and CWB-O and this was supported. There was a positive relationship observed between Individualism and CWB-I and CWB-O (See Table 3 and 4 above). Hypothesis 1b proposed that collectivism will be negatively related to CWB-I and CWB-O. This hypothesis was not supported: collectivism did not predict the occurrence of CWB-I (See table 3 and 4 above).

Hypothesis 2 suggested that job engagement will moderate the relationship between culture and the tendency to engage in CWBs such that the relationship will be weaker when job engagement is higher in individualists. Similarly, Hypothesis 3 suggested that job insecurity will moderate the relationship between culture and the tendency to engage in CWBs such that the relationship will be stronger when both collectivistic and individualistic individuals are faced with high levels of job insecurity. To test these hypotheses, moderated regression models were estimated using PROCESS macro (version 3.5, Hayes, 2020) in SPSS 25 with a three-step moderated regression analysis. Country, age and gender were also added into the regression model as covariates.

Hypothesis 2 was assessed in two ways: first, moderation of the relationship between individualism and CWB-O was assessed after which the moderation of the relationship between individualism and CWB-I was looked at. For both analyses, in the first step, the socio demographic variables were included: country, age and gender (Step 1). Individualism and

engagement were entered in the second step (Step 2) and for the third step, the interaction term between individualism and engagement was added to the model (Step 3).

Country ($b = 2.21, p < .001$), age ($b = -0.03, p = .026$) and gender ($b = -0.52, p = .018$) emerged as a significant predictors of CWB-O, suggesting participants in India and women reported engaging in more organizational CWBs (CWB-O) and as age increased the tendency to engage in CWB-O decreased. The overall model with all predictors, demographic variables and the interaction term were found to be statistically significant $R^2 = .56, F(6,178) = 38.15, p < .001$ and Engagement was found as a significant moderator of the relationship (see Table 5 and the interaction is shown in Figure 1).

After probing the simple slopes, it was found that when engagement was 2.74 which is one standard deviation below the mean, there was a non-significant negative relationship between individualism and CWB-O ($\beta = -.13, p = .643$). When engagement was 3.90 (the mean) and 5.06 (one standard deviation above the mean), there was a significant positive relationship between individualism and CWB-O ($\beta = 1.27, p < .001$) and ($\beta = 2.66, p < .001$) respectively. Thus, indicating that when engagement is high the slope is positive; as the level of engagement increased, the relationship between individualism and CWB-O grew stronger.

Table 5
Moderation Effects of Engagement on Individualism with CWB-O

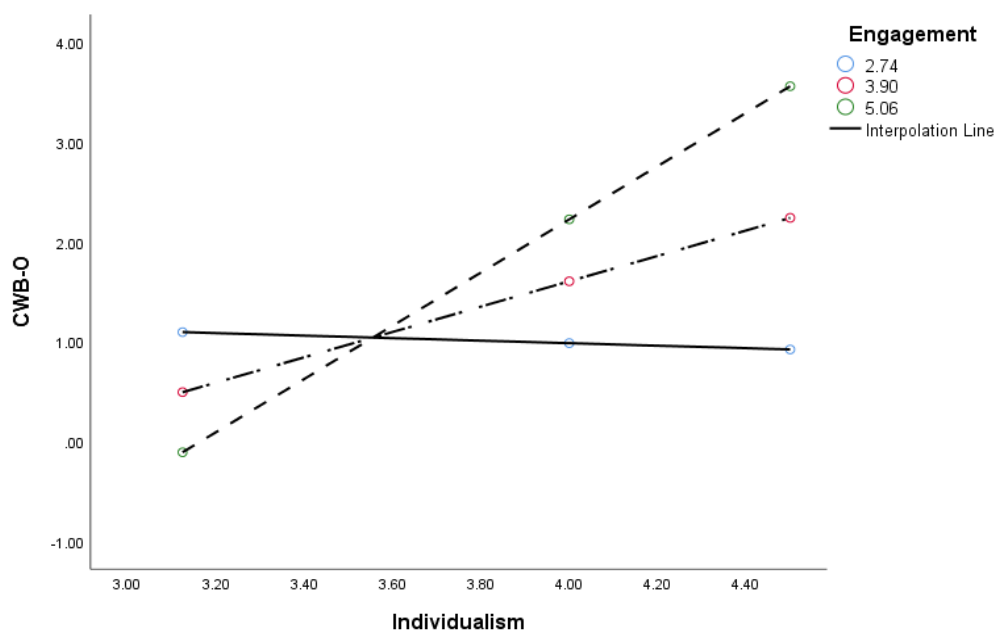
	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>sr</i> ²	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
<i>Step 1</i>						.44	.44
Country	2.21	0.22	9.98	<.001	0.31		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.24	.026	0.02		
Gender	-0.52	0.22	-2.39	.018	0.02		
<i>Step 2</i>						.48	.05
Country	1.73	0.27	6.43	<.001	0.12		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.05	.042	0.01		
Gender	-0.59	0.21	-2.81	.006	0.02		
Engagement	0.03	0.11	0.31	.758	0.00		
Individualism	0.76	0.20	3.85	<.001	0.04		

Step 3						.56	.08
Country	1.55	0.25	6.01	<.001	0.09		
Age	-0.01	0.01	-1.06	.289	0.00		
Gender	-0.55	0.19	-2.85	.005	0.02		
Engagement	-3.50	0.63	-5.59	<.001	0.08		
Individualism	-2.76	0.64	-4.30	<.001	0.05		
Ind x Eng	0.93	0.16	5.71	<.001	0.08		

Note. Ind x Eng is the interaction between individualism and engagement.

Figure 1

Engagement as a moderator between individualism and CWB-O



In the first step, country ($b = 2.52, p < .001$) and age ($b = -0.03, p = .019$) emerged as significant predictors of CWB-I while gender was not a significant predictor ($b = -0.40, p = .053$), suggesting participants in India and younger participants reported higher tendencies of engaging in CWB-I. The overall model with all predictors including the covariates was found to be statistically significant, $R^2 = .62, F(6,178) = 49.29, p < .001$ and the interaction between engagement and individualism was found to be significant hence the simple slopes were probed (see Table 6 and the interaction is shown in Figure 2). After probing the simple slopes, it was

found that when engagement was 2.74 (1 standard deviation below the mean), there was a non-significant negative relationship between individualism and CWB-I ($\beta = -0.02, p = .929$). When engagement was 3.90 (the mean) and 5.06 (1 standard deviation above the mean), there was a significant positive relationship between individualism and CWB-I ($\beta = 1.28, p < .001$) and ($\beta = 2.58, p < .001$) respectively. Thus, indicating that when engagement is high the slope is positive; as the level of engagement increased, the relationship between individualism and CWB-O grew stronger.

Table 6

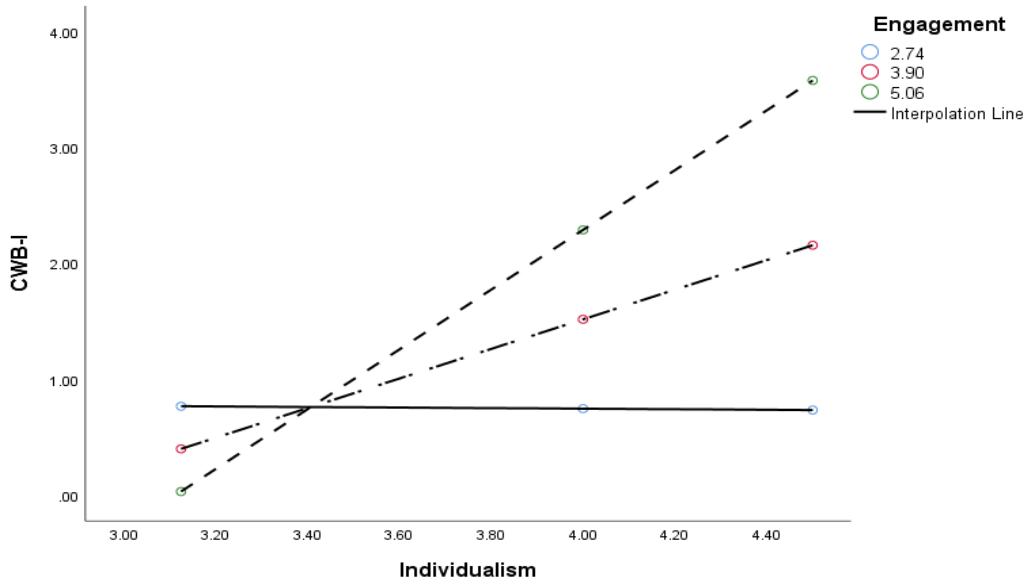
Moderation Effects of Engagement on Individualism with CWB-I

	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>sr</i> ²	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
<i>Step 1</i>						.52	.52
Country	2.52	0.21	12.05	<.001	0.38		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.37	.019	0.01		
Gender	-0.40	0.20	-1.95	.053	0.01		
<i>Step 2</i>						.57	.05
Country	1.92	0.25	7.64	<.001	0.14		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.37	.019	0.01		
Gender	-0.46	0.20	-2.35	.020	0.01		
Engagement	0.14	0.10	1.43	.154	0.00		
Individualism	0.69	0.18	3.78	<.001	0.03		
<i>Step 3</i>						.62	.06
Country	1.73	0.24	7.27	<.001	0.11		
Age	-0.02	0.01	-1.48	.140	0.00		
Gender	-0.43	0.18	-2.33	.021	0.01		
Engagement	-2.88	0.60	-4.85	<.001	0.05		
Individualism	-2.31	0.61	-3.80	<.001	0.03		
Ind x Eng	0.80	0.16	5.15	<.001	0.06		

Note. Ind x Eng is the interaction between individualism and engagement.

Figure 2

Engagement as a moderator between individualism and CWB-I



Hence, Hypothesis 2 was partially supported: Job engagement did moderate the relationship between individualism and CWB but the relationship grew stronger instead of weaker as proposed.

Four models were fit to test hypothesis 3: First, job insecurity as a moderator between individualism and CWB-O, secondly, job insecurity as a moderator between individualism and CWB-I. The third model was with job insecurity as a moderator between collectivism and CWB-I and the final model with job insecurity as a moderator between collectivism and CWB-O. As with the models fit above, for the first step of the regression analysis, country, age and gender were added to the model (Step 1). For the second step, the cultural variable (individualism or collectivism) were entered (Step 2). The interaction term between the cultural variable and job insecurity was then included in the third step (Step 3).

In the first analysis ran, country ($b = 2.21, p < .001$), age ($b = -0.03, p = .026$) and gender ($b = -0.52, p = .018$), emerged as a significant predictor of CWB-O. Indicating that participants in India, women and younger participants reported higher tendencies to engage in CWB-O.

The overall model with the demographic variables, job insecurity, individualism and the interaction between job insecurity and individualism explained a significant amount of the variance in CWB-O, $R^2 = .57, F(6, 178) = 39.84, p < .001$. Since the interaction term was significant (see Table 7), the simple slopes were probed to determine the direction of the interaction.

When the score on the job insecurity scale was 2.99 (one standard deviation below the mean) and 3.77 (the mean), there was a significantly positive relationship between individualism and CWB-O, ($\beta = 1.21, p < .001$) and ($\beta = 0.77, p < .001$) respectively. When job insecurity was and 4.55 (one standard deviation above the mean), there was a non-significantly positive relationship between individualism and CWB-O ($\beta = .33, p = .169$). The effect of individualism on CWB-O suggests that as the level of job insecurity increased, the strength of the relationship between individualism and CWB-O grew weaker.

Table 7
Moderation Effects of Job Insecurity on Individualism with CWB-O

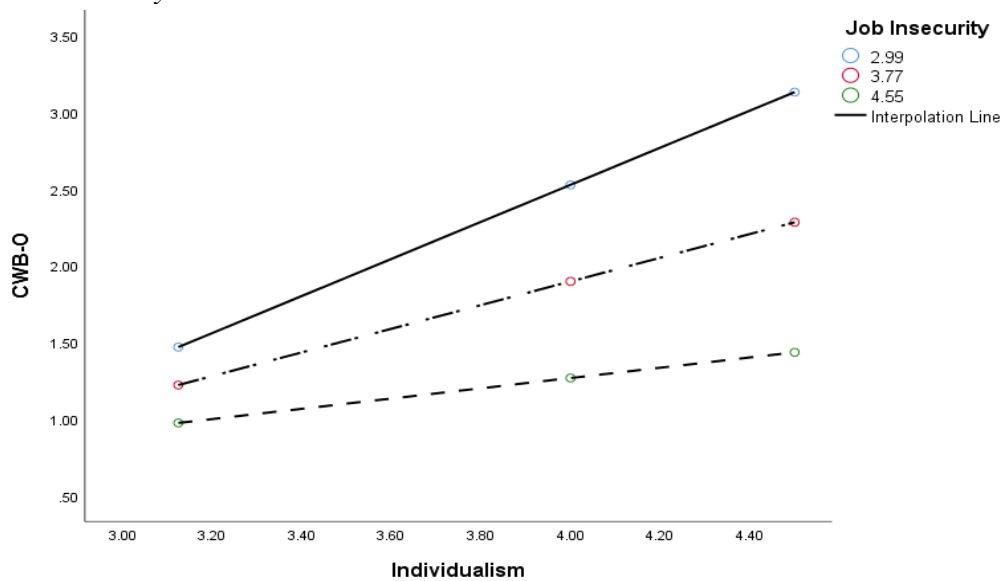
	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>sr</i> ²	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
<i>Step 1</i>						.44	.44
Country	2.21	0.22	9.98	<.001	0.31		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.24	.026	0.02		
Gender	-0.52	0.22	-2.40	.018	0.02		
<i>Step 2</i>						.55	.12
Country	1.54	0.23	6.75	<.001	0.11		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.32	.021	0.01		
Gender	-0.59	0.19	-3.02	.003	0.02		
Job Insecurity	-0.64	0.12	-5.29	<.001	0.07		
Individualism	0.83	0.18	4.69	<.001	0.06		

Step 3					.57	.02
Country	1.47	0.22	6.54	<.001	0.10	
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.51	.013	0.02	
Gender	-0.52	0.19	-2.70	.008	0.02	
Job Insecurity	1.43	0.71	2.03	.044	0.00	
Individualism	2.88	0.71	4.04	<.001	0.04	
Ind x JI	-0.56	0.19	-2.96	.003	0.02	

Note. Ind x JI is the interaction between individualism and job insecurity.

Figure 3

Job Insecurity as a moderator between individualism and CWB-O



The socio-demographic variables, country ($b = 2.52, p < .001$) and age ($b = -0.03, p = .019$) were found to be significant predictors of CWB-I but gender was a non-significant predictor of CWB-I ($b = -0.40, p = .053$). Thus suggesting participants in India and younger participants reported higher tendencies to engage in CWB-I. The overall model with the demographic variables and predictors was found to be significant, $R^2 = .60, F(6, 178) = 45, p < .001$. Since the interaction term was found to be significant, the simple slopes were probed. The results showed that when the level of job insecurity was 2.99 (one standard deviation below the mean) and 3.77 (the mean), there was a positively significant relationship between individualism

and CWB-I ($\beta = 1.06, p < .001$) and ($\beta = 0.75, p < .001$) respectively. When the level of job insecurity was 4.55 (one standard deviation above the mean), there was a non-significant positive relationship between job insecurity and CWB-I ($\beta = 0.45, p = .063$). The strength of the relationship between individualism and CWB-I was found to grow weaker as the level of job insecurity increased.

Table 8

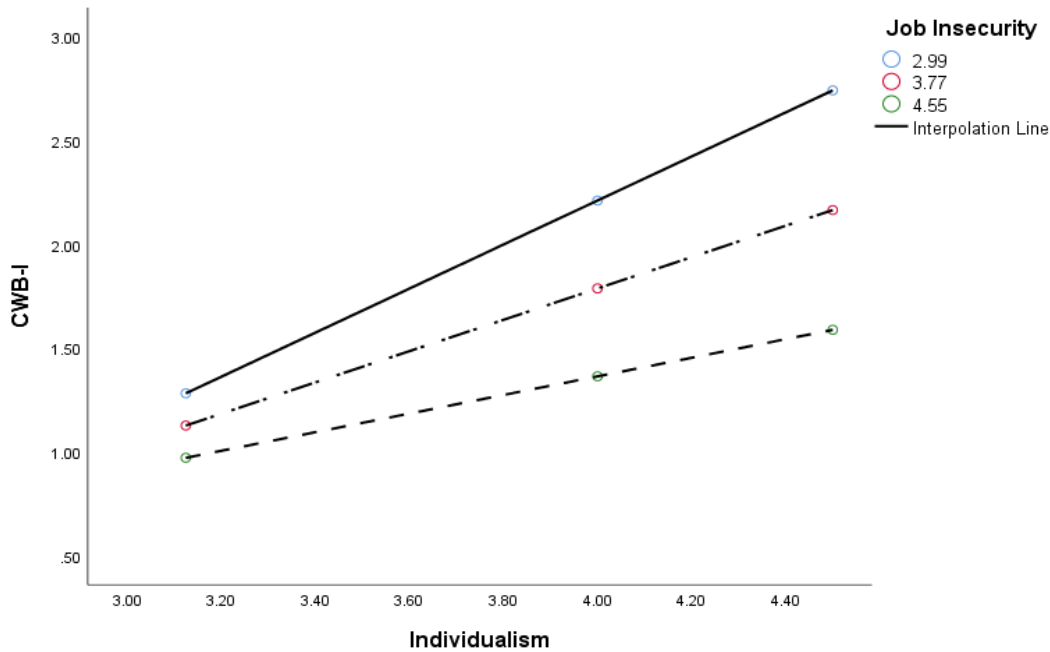
Moderation Effects of Job Insecurity on Individualism with CWB-I

	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>sr</i> ²	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
<i>Step 1</i>						.52	.52
Country	2.52	0.21	12.05	<.001	0.38		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.37	.019	0.01		
Gender	-0.40	0.20	-1.95	.053	0.01		
<i>Step 2</i>						.59	.07
Country	1.93	0.22	8.68	<.001	0.17		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.33	.021	0.01		
Gender	-0.47	0.19	-2.46	.015	0.01		
Job Insecurity	-0.42	0.12	-3.60	<.001	0.03		
Individualism	0.80	0.17	4.59	<.001	0.05		
<i>Step 3</i>						.60	.01
Country	1.88	0.22	8.49	<.001	0.16		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.45	.015	0.01		
Gender	-0.42	0.20	-2.20	.029	0.01		
Job Insecurity	1.03	0.70	1.47	.144	0.00		
Individualism	2.23	0.71	3.17	.002	0.02		
IndxJI	-0.39	0.19	-2.10	.037	0.01		

Note. Ind x JI is the interaction between individualism and job insecurity.

Figure 4

Job Insecurity as a moderator between individualism and CWB-I.

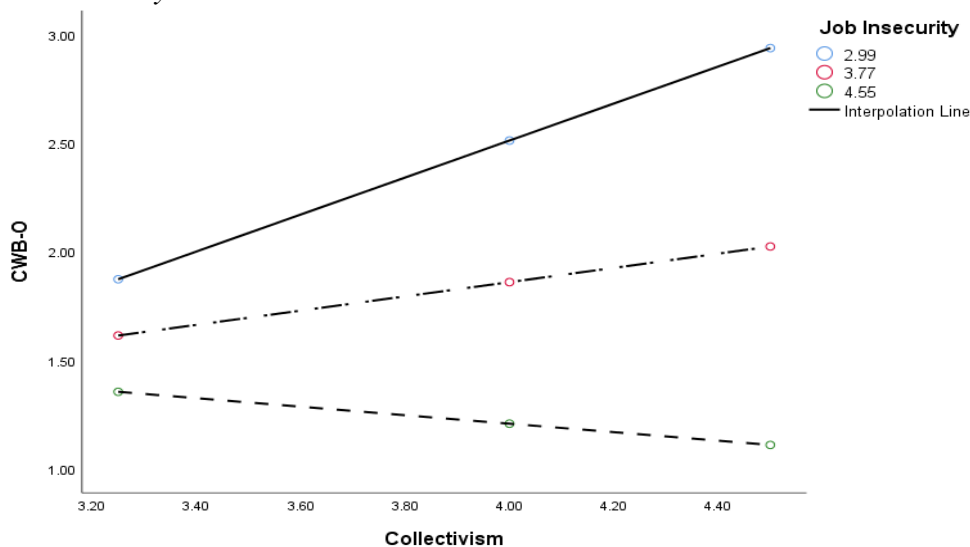


In the third model with job insecurity as the moderator between collectivism and CWB-O, country ($b = 2.21, p < .001$), gender ($b = -0.03, p = .026$) and age ($b = -0.52, p = .018$) were found to be significant predictors. The overall model explained a significant amount of variance, $R^2 = .54, F(6, 178) = 34.89, p < .001$. The interaction term was found to be significant hence the simple slopes were probed. The results showed that when the level of job insecurity was 2.99 (one standard deviation below the mean), there was a positively significant relationship between individualism and CWB-O ($\beta = .85, p < .001$). When the level of job insecurity was 3.77 or high 4.55, the relationship was non-significantly positive between job insecurity and CWB-O, ($\beta = 0.33, p = .076$) and ($\beta = -0.20, p = .360$) respectively. Thus the results showed that the strength of the relationship was found to grow weaker as the level of job insecurity increased.

Table 9*Moderation Effects of Job Insecurity on Collectivism with CWB-O*

	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>sr</i> ²	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
<i>Step 1</i>						.44	.44
Country	2.21	0.22	9.98	<.001	0.31		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.24	.026	0.02		
Gender	-0.52	0.22	-2.40	.018	0.02		
<i>Step 2</i>						.50	.07
Country	1.85	0.26	7.24	<.001	0.15		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.65	.009	0.02		
Gender	-0.54	0.21	-2.62	0.01	0.02		
Job Insecurity	-0.64	0.13	-4.88	<.001	0.07		
Collectivism	0.24	0.19	1.25	.214	0.00		
<i>Step 3</i>						.54	.04
Country	1.66	0.25	6.62	<.001	0.11		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.84	.005	0.02		
Gender	-0.56	0.20	-2.85	.005	0.02		
Job Insecurity	1.85	0.65	2.84	.005	0.02		
Collectivism	2.86	0.70	4.09	<.001	0.04		
Col x JI	-0.67	0.17	-3.89	<.001	0.04		

Note. Col x JI is the interaction between collectivism and job insecurity.

Figure 5*Job Insecurity as a moderator between collectivism and CWB-O.*

For the final model with job insecurity as the moderator between collectivism and CWB-I, In the first step, country ($b = 2.52$, $p < .001$) and age ($b = -0.03$, $p = .019$) were found to be significant predictors of CWB-I while gender was a non-significant predictor ($b = -0.40$, $p = .053$). The overall model explained a significant amount of variance, $R^2 = .59$, $F(6, 178) = 42.52$, $p < .001$. The interaction term was found to be significant hence the simple slopes were probed. The results showed that when the level of job insecurity was 2.99 (one standard deviation below the mean) and 3.77 (the mean), there was a positively significant relationship between collectivism and CWB-I ($\beta = 0.94$, $p < .001$) and ($\beta = .42$, $p = .019$) respectively. When the level of job insecurity was or 4.55 (one standard deviation above the mean), the relationship was non-significant between job insecurity and CWB-I ($\beta = -0.10$, $p = .636$). Similar to the results from the models fit to investigate hypothesis 2, the strength of the relationship between collectivism and CWB-I was found to grow weaker as the level of job insecurity increased.

Table 10
Moderation Effects of Job Insecurity on Collectivism with CWB-I

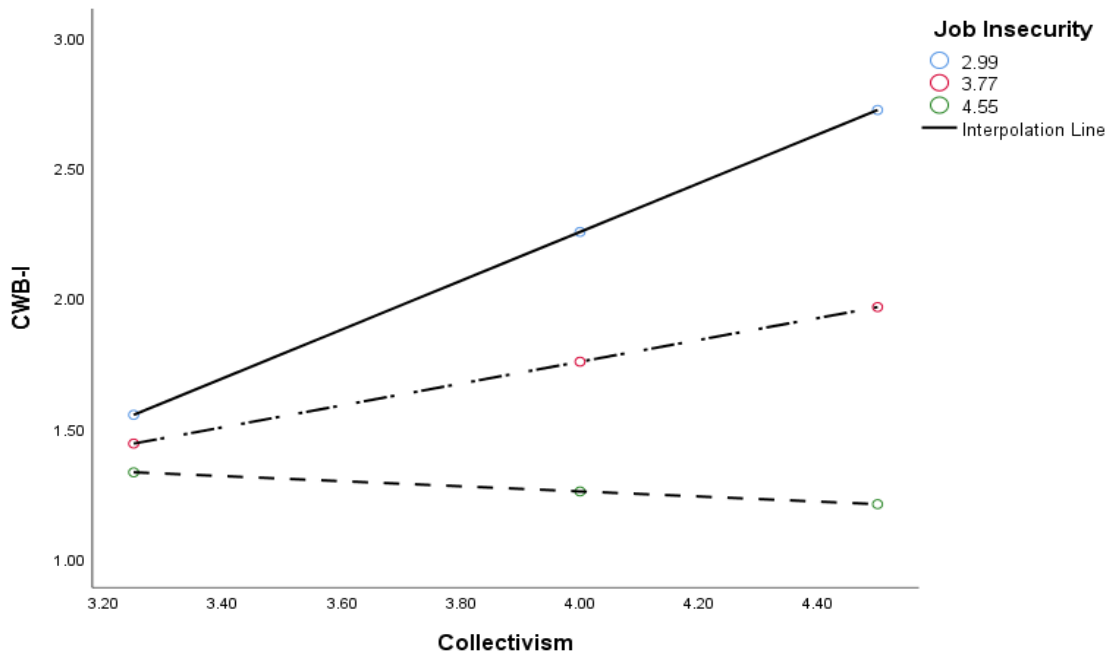
	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>sr</i> ²	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
<i>Step 1</i>						.52	.52
Country	2.52	0.21	12.05	<.001	0.38		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.37	.019	0.01		
Gender	-0.40	0.20	-1.95	.053	0.01		
<i>Step 2</i>						.55	.03
Country	2.16	0.25	8.69	<.001	0.19		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.73	.007	0.02		
Gender	-0.43	0.13	-3.49	.033	0.01		
Job Insecurity	-0.44	0.13	-3.49	.001	0.03		
Collectivism	0.33	0.18	1.79	.076	0.01		
<i>Step 3</i>						.59	.04
Country	1.97	0.24	8.09	<.001	0.15		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.93	.004	0.02		
Gender	-0.45	0.19	-2.36	.019	0.01		

Job Insecurity	2.01	0.63	3.18	.002	0.02
Collectivism	2.92	0.68	4.31	<.001	0.04
Col x JI	-0.66	0.17	-3.96	<.001	0.04

Note. Col x JI is the interaction between collectivism and job insecurity.

Figure 6

Insecurity as a moderator between collectivism and CWB-I.



Thus, Hypothesis 3 was partially supported as well. Insecurity did moderate the relationship between individualism and CWB-I and CWB-O and the relationship between collectivism and CWB-I and CWB-O. But the results indicated that as the level of job insecurity increased, the relationships between Individualism, collectivism, CWB-I and CWB-O grew weaker.

Based on the results observed in this analysis, specifically based on the relationship between both cultural values their relationship with both forms of CWB, further analyses was conducting looking at the effect of the interaction between collectivism and individualism on CWB-I and CWB-O. The interaction effect on CWB-I shows that overall model with all

predictors including the covariates was significant, explaining a significant amount of variance, $R^2 = .59$, $F(6,178) = 41.75$, $p < .001$. Country and age were significant predictors of CWB-I ($b = 2.52$, $p < .001$) and ($b = -0.03$, $p = .019$) while gender was a non-significant predictor ($\beta = -0.40$, $p = .053$). Since the interaction term was significant, simple slopes were probed and the results show that when collectivism was 3.30 (one standard deviation below the mean), the effect of individualism on CWB-I was 0.31, when collectivism was 3.93 (the mean), the effect was 0.81 and when collectivism was 4.56 (one standard deviation above the mean), the effect of individualism on CWB-I was 1.31. thus suggesting that as collectivism values increased, the strength of the relationship grew stronger.

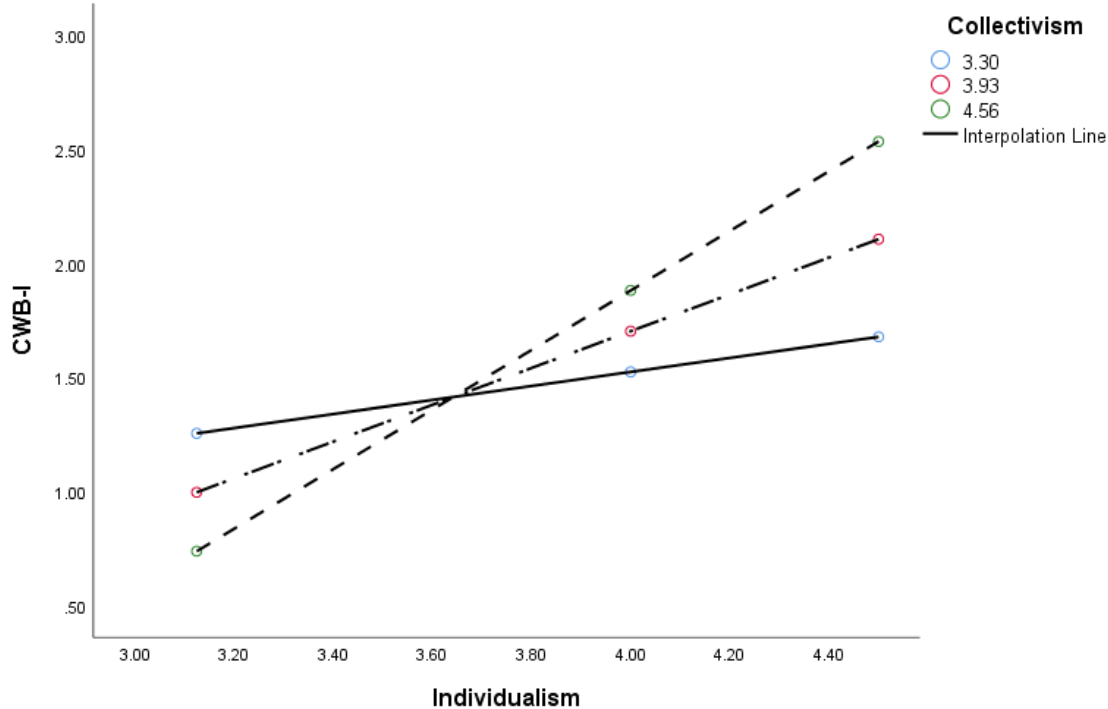
Table 11
Moderation Effects of Collectivism on Individualism with CWB-I

	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>sr</i> ²	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
<i>Step 1</i>						.52	.52
Country	2.52	0.21	12.05	<.001	0.38		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.37	.019	0.01		
Gender	-0.40	0.20	-1.95	.053	0.01		
<i>Step 2</i>						.56	.04
Country	2.01	0.25	7.95	<.001	0.15		
Age	-0.48	0.01	-2.42	.028	0.02		
Gender	-0.48	0.20	-2.42	.017	0.01		
Individualism	0.75	0.18	4.15	<.001	0.04		
Collectivism	0.11	0.18	0.61	.542	0.00		
<i>Step 3</i>						.59	.02
Country	1.86	0.25	7.34	<.001	0.13		
Age	-0.02	0.01	-1.72	.088	0.01		
Gender	-0.43	0.19	-2.20	.029	0.01		
Individualism	-2.31	1.05	-2.20	.029	0.01		
Collectivism	-2.88	1.03	-2.80	.006	0.02		
Ind x Col	0.79	0.27	2.95	.004	0.02		

Note. Ind x Col is the interaction between individualism and collectivism

Figure 7

Collectivism as a moderator between CWB-I and Individualism

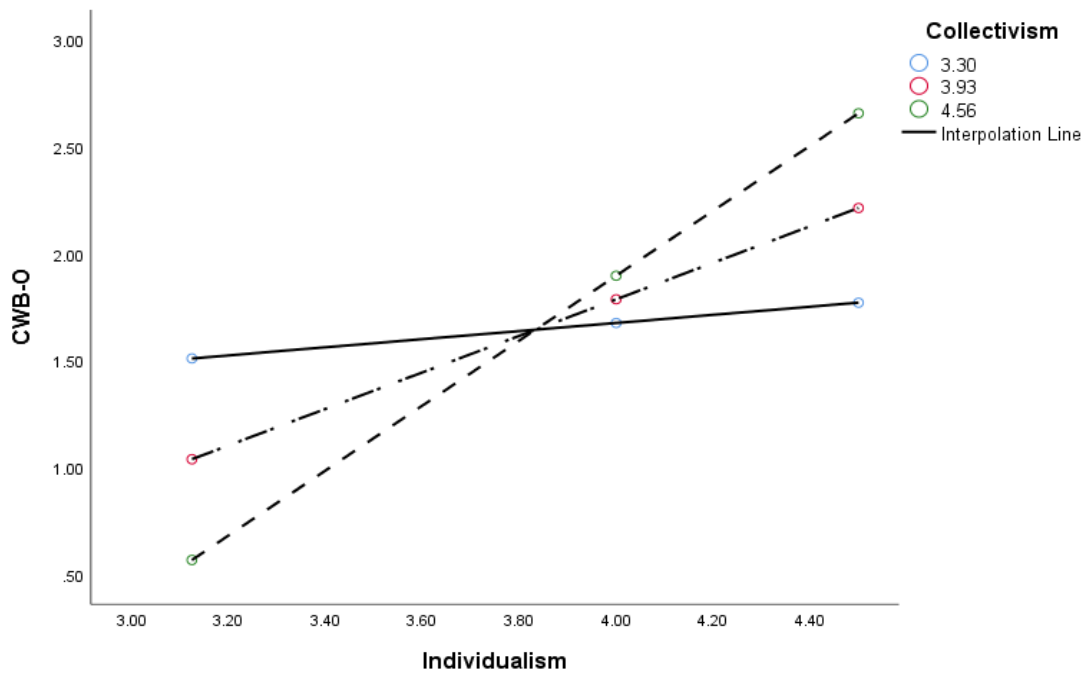


The interaction effect on CWB-O shows that overall model with the demographic variables and predictors was significant, explaining a significant amount of variance, $R^2 = .38$, $F(3,182) = 37.74$, $p < .001$. Country ($b = 2.21$, $p < .001$), age ($b = -0.03$, $p = .026$) and gender ($b = -0.52$, $p = .018$) were significant predictors of CWB-O. Since the interaction term was significant, simple slopes were probed and the results show that when collectivism was 3.30, the effect of individualism on CWB-O was 0.19, when collectivism was 3.93, the effect was 0.85 and when collectivism was 4.56, the effect of individualism on CWB-O was 1.52. Thus suggesting that just as the results of the model where collectivism moderated the relationship between individualism and CWB-O, as collectivism values increased, the strength of the relationship grew stronger.

Table 12*Moderation Effects of Collectivism on Individualism with CWB-O*

	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>sr</i> ²	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
<i>Step 1</i>						.44	.44
Country	2.21	0.22	9.98	<.001	0.31		
Age	-0.03	0.01	-2.24	.026	0.02		
Gender	-0.52	0.22	-2.40	.018	0.02		
<i>Step 2</i>						.48	.05
Country	1.80	0.27	6.70	<.001	0.13		
Age	-0.02	0.01	-1.98	.050	0.01		
Gender	-0.58	0.21	-2.78	.006	0.02		
Individualism	0.77	0.19	4.04	<.001	0.05		
Collectivism	-0.06	0.19	-0.32	.753	0.00		
<i>Step 3</i>						.52	.04
Country	1.60	0.27	6.02	<.001	0.10		
Age	-0.02	0.01	-1.38	.171	0.01		
Gender	-0.52	0.20	-2.54	.012	0.02		
Individualism	-3.29	1.10	-2.99	.003	0.02		
Collectivism	-4.04	1.08	-3.75	<.001	0.04		
Ind x Col	1.06	0.28	3.75	<.001	0.04		

Note. Ind x Col is the interaction between individualism and collectivism.

Figure 8*Collectivism as a moderator between Individualism and CWB-O*

Discussion

This paper sought to examine the relationships among individualism and collectivism, job engagement, job insecurity, and CWB-I and CWB-O. The findings in this study contribute towards understanding employee tendencies to engage in CWBs. Overall, the results from the regression analysis with collectivism, individualism, job insecurity and job engagement in addition to the demographic variables; age, gender, country and ethnicity predicting both CWB-I and CWB-O indicated that engagement and collectivism were not significantly related to reports of engaging in CWB while the other predictors were. It was hypothesized that collectivism will be inversely related to both components of CWB while individualism will be positively related to both CWB components. The former was not supported while the latter was. Aside from the relationship between collectivism and CWB being contrary to most studies conducted on the topic, engagement was also found to be positively related to CWBs, such that when employees were more engaged at work, they were more likely to engage in CWBs.

The relationship between job insecurity and CWB was also examined. Job insecurity was found to be negatively related to both forms of CWBs such that employees with higher levels of job insecurity, had a lower inclination to engage in either CWB-I and CWB-O. While studies have shown that job insecurity can cause individuals to experience negative reactions such as stress, frustration, and anxiety and that these negative emotions can then be expressed in the form of counterproductive work behaviors against the organization and individuals (Ma et al., 2018; Probst et al. 2007), other studies have suggested that employees faced with job insecurity may have a lower likelihood to engage in counterproductive work behaviors for fear of sanctions such as termination of job or the financial repercussions associated with job loss (Probst et al., 2007). This might explain why higher levels of job insecurity was related to a lower tendency to

engage in both forms of CWB. The Covid-19 pandemic might also play a role in why these results were observed. In India, as a result of the coronavirus impact, unemployment rates shot up from 8% in March to 24% in April 2020 (Johari, 2021) while in the United States US jobs reports that 20.6 million jobs were lost since mid-March, an unemployment rate not seen since the Great Depression in the 1930s (Soucheray, 2020). Within this period, jobs were and still are hard to come by hence employees may be unwilling and more cautious of engaging in behaviors that may lead to unemployment.

Chen and colleagues (2020), using responses collected from participants in the US and Chinese sought to examine how job engagement may prove detrimental to organizations. They proposed that when employees are over engaged and use too much of their mental resources, negative outcomes in this case, CWBs may occur (Chen et al., 2020; Baumeister et al., 1998). The results of their study showed that in employees with certain dispositions such as conscientiousness as well as employees who cannot cope with and avoid stress situations may experience emotional exhaustion when they are highly engaged at work and this in turn can result in higher counterproductive work behavior (Chen et al., 2020). This notion may explain why engagement was positively related to CWB. The more engaged employees are, the higher the emotional exhaustion they feel which in turn leads to a higher tendency to engage in CWBs.

Esroy (2010) in her study spoke of two types of norms violations (e.g. CWBs): violation of interpersonal norms and violation of regulations as proposed by Ohbuchi et al. (2004). According to Esroy (2010), collectivists experience a degree of guilt and shame when they violate norms that are important to them hence, they type of norm violated is important in understanding the occurrence of CWBs. The results from Esroy's study in 2010 showed that collectivists experience feelings of guilt and shame more strongly when they violated an

interpersonal norm than when they violate a work regulation norm. Hence, contrary to studies, collectivists are more likely to engage in CWBs because they feel less shame and guilt when they engage in such behaviors if the behaviors do not violate interpersonal norms or affect any relationships.

It was assumed that job engagement will make the relationship between individualism and CWB-I and CWB-O weaker; in other words, an employee who is more oriented towards individualism is more likely to engage in CWBs but should that employee be more engaged in their job, they will be less likely to want to engage in both CWB-I and CWB-O. But this hypothesis was not fully supported; the results showed that while job engagement did moderate the relationship, it strengthened the relationship instead of weakening the relationship. As asserted by Gonzalez-Navarro et al. (2019), individualists embrace work engagement to a greater extent than collectivists, this may suggest that individualists tend to use more of their mental resources to stay engaged and this leads to emotional exhaustion and burnout (Chen et al., 2020). Burnout and emotional exhaustion has been linked to an increased likelihood of individuals engaging in organizational deviant behaviors or counterproductive work behaviors. Studies have shown that employees with more individualistic orientations and values generally respond to situations that affect their well-being by engaging in behaviors that intend to harm the person or thing that threatens their welfare. In other words, individualists may use CWBs as a way of asserting their autonomy and as retaliation for the threats to their well-being caused by the organization or individuals in the organization (Wang et al., 2020). Hence, this may explain why the moderating effect of job engagement strengthened the relationship between individualism and CWBs instead of decreasing it like it was assumed and why similar results were found for both forms of counterproductive work behaviors.

Lastly, job insecurity was investigated as a potential moderator between individualism and CWB-I and CWB-O as well as the relationship between collectivism and CWB-I and CWB-O as predicted, strengthening the relationships. It was observed that individuals higher in individualism and individuals higher in collectivism had lower tendencies to engage in both forms of CWB as a result of higher levels of job insecurity; as the level of job insecurity increased, the strength of the relationships increased. As explained above, this might be a consequence of the Covid-19 pandemic and its impact on the jobs in both countries and hence the fear of job loss and the inability to obtain another one.

Further analyses of the effect of the interaction between collectivism and individualism on CWB-I and CWB-O showed that individuals high in collectivism and individualism reported higher tendencies to engage in both forms of CWB. Researchers believe that both values may coexist such that both individualism and collectivism tendencies may surface in an individual depending on the situation he or she finds himself or herself in (Gomez, 2003) and our results indicate that such individuals may have a higher tendency to engage in either CWB-I or CWB-O.

Limitations

First and foremost, responses on deviant behaviors were collected using self-report measures and though the confidentiality and anonymity of responses and participants was stressed in the consent form, it is possible that respondents were not willing to admit to partaking in certain behaviors that may be considered as socially unacceptable.

Furthermore, responses were collected online using Amazon's crowdsourcing platform (MTURK). The reliability of the data could have been affected in some ways. There could be the possibility of participants simply selecting responses without reading the questions so as to quickly move on to another job. Using attention checks, I tried to prevent that from happening

since attention checks may promote cautious and systematic processing and may change attention rather than measuring attention (Miller et al. 2017). Also, respondents could have misinterpreted the questions since we did have respondents whose first language is not English.

Another limitation faced in conducting this study is in regards to the sample size. The norm for social science research is to have power of 0.80 hence a power analysis was conducted prior to data collection to ensure there is sufficient power to detect moderation effects.

Unfortunately for this study I was unable to acquire the suggested amount of 250 responses required for power of 0.80. This may have been an effect of the Corona Virus pandemic.

Lastly, it was observed that for counterproductive work behaviors, the most common response to items was “never”. This has been identified to occur with self-report scales that uses Likert response scales. Consequently, this may lead to an underestimation or overestimation of the true population parameter hence affecting the generalizability of these results (Lavrakas, 2008).

Future Research

First of all, there is very little research on the influence of cultural orientations or values on job engagement. Moreover on the subject of job engagement, the study looked at the relationship between job engagement and CWBs. The results were contrary to most studies conducted to test this relationship. External factors such as emotional exhaustion and job burnout may have an influence on this relationship hence this is an angle that can be looked at.

Secondly, the results showed that while the relationship between individualism and CWBs did depend on the presence of job engagement, job engagement strengthened the relationship such that in the presence of job engagement, as individualism increased so did the tendency to engage

in CWBs. This phenomenon can be further investigated what assess why this occurred and what other variables influence the observed relationship.

Researchers suggest that both collectivism and individualism values may surface in an individual depending on their situation and the results of this study shows that such individuals reported higher tendencies to engage in CWBs. This may be a result of dissonance or other factors. Hence, this is another area of study that could be investigated.

Conclusion

This study adds to literature on the occurrence of CWB in the workplace as well as culture on an individual level. The results indicate that the two antecedents of CWB; job insecurity, job engagement and cultural values: collectivism and individualism were positively related to CWBs. Specifically, when job insecurity was high, the tendency to engage in CWBs increased. It was the same for job engagement; when job engagement was high, so was the tendency to engage in CWBs. For both individualism and collectivism, as they increased, so did the tendency to engage in CWBs. In addition, job insecurity and job engagement did moderate the relationship between cultural orientation and CWB. Job insecurity moderated the relationship between individualism and CWB and the relationship between collectivism and CWB; both relationships were positive and grew stronger as job insecurity increased. Job engagement also moderated the relationship between individualism and CWB; as job engagement increased, the relationship between individualism and CWB increased.

Overall, this study contributes towards understanding the relationships between culture, CWBs, job insecurity and job engagement. Further research is needed to assess the results observed in this study. This findings from this study is helpful for organizations and executives in organizations to better understand their diverse employees in terms of their engagement in

counterproductive work behaviors and the factors that can influence these employees to engage in such behaviors.

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Appendix



EAST CAROLINA UNIVERSITY
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Notification of Exempt Certification

From: Social/Behavioral IRB
To: [Mark Bowler](#)
CC:
Date: 2/25/2021
Re: [UMCIRB 20-002932](#)
Culture and Engagement

I am pleased to inform you that your research submission has been certified as exempt on 2/25/2021. This study is eligible for Exempt Certification under category # 2a.

It is your responsibility to ensure that this research is conducted in the manner reported in your application and/or protocol, as well as being consistent with the ethical principles of the Belmont Report and your profession.

This research study does not require any additional interaction with the UMCIRB unless there are proposed changes to this study. Any change, prior to implementing that change, must be submitted to the UMCIRB for review and approval. The UMCIRB will determine if the change impacts the eligibility of the research for exempt status. If more substantive review is required, you will be notified within five business days.

Document	Description
Consent Form [MTURK].docx(0.01)	Consent Forms
Measures.docx(0.01)	Surveys and Questionnaires
Mturk Listing.docx(0.01)	Recruitment Documents/Scripts

For research studies where a waiver or alteration of HIPAA Authorization has been approved, the IRB states that each of the waiver criteria in 45 CFR 164.512(i)(1)(i)(A) and (2)(i) through (v) have been met. Additionally, the elements of PHI to be collected as described in items 1 and 2 of the Application for Waiver of Authorization have been determined to be the minimal necessary for the specified research.

The Chairperson (or designee) does not have a potential for conflict of interest on this study.