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A ROLE IDENTITY EXAMINATION OF PRO-SOCIAL RULE BREAKING

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By

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DO THE ENDS JUSTIFY THE MEANS?
A ROLE IDENTITY EXAMINATION OF PRO-SOCIAL RULE BREAKING

A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE
MICHAEL F. PRICE COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

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Abstract

Pro-social rule breaking, the volitional violation of explicit organizational rules in an attempt to increase organizational efficiency or to provide a greater service to a stakeholder such as a customer or coworker, has drawn the interest of several theorists in the development of conceptual models. However, scant empirical research exists examining either the reasons that employees are likely to engage in such behaviors or the resulting implications of their actions. As a component of the umbrella construct of positive or constructive deviance, an outgrowth of the positive organizational scholarship movement, pro-social rule breaking, like other prosocial behaviors, has traditionally been conceptualized as a collection of behaviors that are beneficial and should be fostered and encouraged. Yet results to date suggest that employees that engage in pro-social rule breaking are high in risk-taking propensity and low in conscientiousness, a personality profile that may be less than ideal in the eyes of practicing managers. Further, employees who deviate from the organization's rules to help others also experience negative repercussions through lower performance evaluations as assessed by supervisors as well as coworkers. Therefore, there is much ambiguity surrounding the construct that I suggest is synonymous with organizational martyrdom such that, in seeking to help others, the employee's career is negatively impacted.

I seek to glean important understanding of pro-social rule breaking through a number of approaches. First, through the use of a pilot study, I attempt to replicate and extend earlier categorization efforts as well as develop a collection of narratives to serve as exemplars. Next, I offer a revised conceptualization of pro-social rule breaking such

that it is suggested to be the behaviors of good employees in negative contexts who feel constrained by the rules of the organization. Guided by role identity theory, a new theoretical perspective for the literature, I develop an interactionist model that depicts the employees who engage in these behaviors in a more positive light as well as provides the first examination of any contextual antecedents. Central to the dispositional factors of the employees, I suggest that those with salient empowerment role identities are more likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking, behaviors that are congruent with their role identities, as well as provide a collection of more distal antecedents. Additionally, I further suggest that employees who perceive their organization to be highly political, as impacted by the hypothesized causes for these perceptions, will also be more likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking. Finally, I also consider the first boundary condition by assessing how relational factors, as measured by leaders' behaviors, impact employees' engagement in pro-social rule breaking before developing a hypothesis for a three-way interaction between the individual, relational and organizational factors and their effect on the enactment of such constructively deviant behaviors.

A largely unexplored but critical aspect of pro-social rule breaking requires attention to the implications or outcomes of these behaviors. While the construct was conceptualized to focus on the intentionality behind the behaviors as independent of the outcomes, intentionality is difficult to assess by observers and, as such, responses to the behaviors and the subsequent outcomes may be driven by the behaviors themselves. I seek to advance this understanding by developing a multi-stakeholder perspective of the outcomes of such behaviors. In doing so, I examinee how the reactions from various

stakeholders can provide feedback which either confirms or disconfirms the employee's role identity. Further, I consider whether the same behavior may be perceived differently by various stakeholders such that the categorization as either destructive of constructive deviance may be in the eye of the beholder. I also create a series of hypotheses regarding these perceptions and their implications on future behaviors as well as key organizational attitudes.

Through a multi-wave, multi-source field study of 270 employees, I test the hypothesized relationships. Support is found for the majority of the hypotheses which suggest that my adapted conceptualization of the focal construct warrants additional consideration such that pro-social rule breaking may be an outcry by employees who desire empowerment and want to make a meaningful impact but feel restricted by organizational rules within an organization that is perceived to be highly political and under the supervision of a leader who does not support creativity.

Additionally, I find support for several important implications of pro-social rule breaking and their subsequent responses from multiple stakeholders. While customers and coworkers generally look favorably on an employee engaging in such behaviors, the organization has the opposite response and these responses guide future behaviors. However, regardless of the direction or source of feedback, having to break rules in order to be more efficient or provide a greater service is likely to lead to perceptions of psychological contract violations and, in turn, low satisfaction and perceptions of fit within the organization. Finally, through the inclusion of a post-hoc exploratory set of analyses I find that other-rated measures may be an acceptable solution in seeking to reduce common method bias in deviance research and that observers are able to

distinguish between various forms of prosocial behaviors although biases may still exist in such responses.

I then conclude by discussing the implications of the findings for researchers and practitioners as well as how the limitations of the current study provide directions for future research.

Do The Ends Justify The Means? A Role Identity Examination of Pro-social Rule Breaking

Deviance, the behaviors of a deviant individual, has a largely negative connotation. When I think of a deviant, images of an unruly child or rebellious teenager come to mind. As they age, these deviants are likely those individuals on the outskirts of society and abiding by their own set of rules that, by definition, deviate from those of the environment in which they participate. Certainly, then, in this conceptualization deviance is indeed considered negative and done for self-serving reasons.

Following the end of World War II, many soldiers who had experienced the emotionally-charged battlefields of war returned to a comparatively dull and boring life. From a desire for excitement, the motorcycle boom in the United States was born. However, during a rally in 1947, motorcyclists converged on the town of Hollister, California in unexpected numbers. Following what has since been recognized as only minor damage, the event was labeled as the Hollister Riot and the fun-loving excitement of the former service men suddenly became a form of deviance. While little had changed in the behaviors of the motorcyclists, the norms by which their behaviors were measured had changed. Following the event, and as an attempt to rebrand the hobby in a more favorable light, the American Motorcyclist Association (AMA) is credited with stating that of motorcyclists, 99% are law-abiding and thereby suggesting that only one percent is comprised of deviants. In the decades since the riot, numerous motorcycle gangs have adopted a diamond patch with “1%er” inside to signal that they are the one percent that abides by their own rules and proudly do so. These gangs have partaken in

the sale of narcotics and illegal prostitution as well as contract murders to name just a few deviant behaviors.

Certainly such an example is consistent with the negative conceptualization of deviance, but researchers have recently indicated that other, more beneficial forms of deviance exist as well (Morrison, 2006; Warren, 2003). Considering that deviance is the departure from rules or norms, deviant acts could be positive if the rules or norms are not appropriate themselves or could be perceived differently from different stakeholders.

Recently, Joe Koblenzer, a 73 year old veteran of the Vietnam War was fired from his job as a greeter at a Cracker Barrel restaurant in Venice, Florida. Having previously earned recognition for his performance in a job that requires being fun and friendly, Joe noticed what appeared to be a homeless man enter the restaurant who asked for mayonnaise and tartar sauce so that he might cook a fish that he had caught. Joe, desiring to help the man and recognizing the minimal value of the requested items, returned with a small bag containing a few packets of the condiments and one of the cornbread muffins which are complementary with any meal in the restaurant. Joe was subsequently fired for the decision he made to voluntarily break the rules of the restaurant by giving away free food. From the organization's perspective, such behaviors create lost revenue and perhaps a reputation in which this one isolated act may become routine. However, as indicated by the backlash that Cracker Barrel has received on social media and online reviews, customers and members of society disapprove of such punishment of employees seeking to help someone in need.

Such an example is in line with Warren's (2003) conceptualization of constructive deviance as behaviors which deviate from organizational norms in order to maintain society's hypernorms. Further, Joe noted that the organization had the right to fire him for breaking the rules but he maintains that what he did was morally right (Hulsey, E.). In this way, then, Joe's deviant behaviors were a form of pro-social rule breaking that he voluntarily perpetuated in order to help another even though doing so required that he break the rules of the organization.

I am interested in the construct of pro-social rule breaking based on my own experiences in the workforce. While serving as a paralegal in the real estate department of a large law firm, I frequently worked under tight deadlines and immense pressure from customers and attorneys alike. When faced with a deadline that is almost unrealistic to meet, a typical response is often to ask for help. However, due to prior contractual agreements with clients and the importance of reconciling billable hours as both a measure of performance and also a way of collecting revenue, I was frequently unable to help a fellow employee. Yet, despite the firm's policy against working on projects for which I was unable to bill my hours, my coworkers and I engaged in a social exchange to perform helping behaviors with the expectation that they would be returned in the future. In another example, such deadlines also required erratic and long hours during which I was frequently the only employee in the office. When needed supplies were unavailable in the supply room, I simply "borrowed" from other coworkers to accomplish the task at hand with intentions to replace them.

Later, as the manager of a multi-state, multi-office title company I was responsible for not only the transfer of corporate real estate properties, but also the

annual evaluations and assessments of the employees. Throughout the year I worked closely with many of the employees in the various offices on projects that could take several months to prepare for the closing. Through these interactions, I was able to learn more about their personal and professional lives, families, hobbies, and so forth. In doing so, it made the impartial and unbiased assessment of their performance difficult if not impossible. Indeed, as the evaluator, my intentions behind the assessments were never to be truly impartial but rather to be fair to the employees considering all criteria that I deemed pertinent rather than just the restricted measurables I was provided. While recognizing the ever-present influence of politics in performance evaluations (Longenecker, Sims, & Gioia, 1987), I would rate an employee higher for helping when it was not expected or for a general positive disposition. Likewise I would utilize a utilitarian perspective in considering how the discretionary funds I had available to give as bonuses or raises would provide the greatest good, which could be influenced by the needs of the employees and extenuating circumstances within their lives or their families.

These are the forms of deviance that I experienced much more so than the self-centered theft, violence, or sabotage that has been traditionally studied (e.g., Greenberg, 1990; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). I find that pro-social rule breaking aligns well with my own experiences and therefore it is unsurprising to me that Morrison (2006), in her initial study of the construct, found that over 60% of the reported incidents of workplace deviance were done for other-focused rather than self-serving motives.

Dissertation Purpose and Intended Contributions

> "Any fool can make a rule, and every fool will mind it" – Henry David Thoreau (1817-1867)

Workplace deviance has been studied for decades (Davis, 1964; Sherif & Sherif, 1953) and is considered a central component of the dysfunctional behaviors at work (Grifin & Lopez, 2005), behaviors which have been estimated to cost organizations billions of dollars annually (Parks, Ma, & Gallagher, 2010; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). These behaviors have been conceptualized to be performed by selfish and angry employees who are focused on their self-interests in retaliation against their organizations (Greenberg, 1990). While an important collection of behaviors that warrant additional interest from researchers and practitioners alike, a different conceptualization of deviance has more recently been put forth. Indeed, positive deviance (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003, 2004) and constructive deviance (Galperin, 2012; Warren, 2003) were created separately yet suggest a brighter side to the definition of workplace deviance. With roots in the positive organizational scholarship movement, the distinction is made that employee behaviors that violate the rules or norms of the organization may be performed with an other-focused intent such as to increase organizational efficiency or to assist a coworker or customer. A central component of this brighter side of organizational deviance is pro-social rule breaking.

Morrison's (2006) definition of pro-social rule breaking focuses on the violation of organizational rules for the benefit of others. Therefore, while much of the literature on deviance focuses on the violation of the more informal and emergent organizational norms (e.g., workplace deviance – Robinson & Bennett, 1995; constructive deviance – Warren, 2003), researchers examining the construct of pro-social rule breaking are interested in why employees engage in behaviors that voluntarily and knowingly violate

the formal and explicit rules of the organization in order to help others. In this way, pro-social rule breaking seems to be oxymoronic such that employees must make a decision and accept the tradeoffs that exist between performing in accordance with the organizational rules and maintaining the status quo or violating them in order to attempt to perform a role more efficiently.

To add to the complexity of this tradeoff, Dahling and colleagues (2012) found that engaging in pro-social rule breaking can result in negative performance evaluations as assessed by supervisors as well as coworkers. Therefore, while pro-social rule breaking was developed to focus on the intentionality of the behaviors, as independent from the outcomes (Bryant, Davis, Hancock, & Vardaman, 2010), some support exists to suggest that referent observers may consider the behaviors themselves and attribute them to the actor rather than the environment, in accordance with the fundamental attribution error (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Heider, 1985; Ross, 1977). Further, these findings suggest that pro-social rule breaking may lead to what I consider to be organizational martyrdom such that, in contrast to other forms of prosocial behaviors (e.g., organizational citizenship behaviors – Organ, 1988; contextual performance – Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), engaging in pro-social rule breaking requires the intention to help others but also the violation of organizational rules which may come at the direct expense of the rule-breaker's career outcomes.

With this conceptualization as part of the umbrella construct of constructive deviance and with early findings suggesting that employees that are willing to take risks and that have the autonomy to do so (Morrison, 2006) are the likely performers of such behaviors, it is understandable why researchers have frequently considered pro-social

rule breaking to be beneficial. Of course, such behaviors also greatly complicate the creation and maintenance of organizational rules as well as human resource management practices. Should such an employee, who willingly violates the rules of the organization to provide better service to a customer, to test an innovative idea that could streamline organizational processes, or who picks up the slack to help a coworker be punished or rewarded? This is a central and lingering question within the literature of pro-social rule breaking along with others such as how much pro-social rule breaking should be tolerated and in what context as well as whether a tipping point may exist such that too much pro-social rule breaking leads to organizational chaos.

While these questions remain unanswered and researchers are yet to explore the actual outcomes of such behaviors in impacting the positive change they are intended to provide, there is a general agreement that pro-social rule breaking, at least to a certain extent, is beneficial. This optimism could be sparked from the early roots in the positive organizational scholarship movement, or from the flattering terminology used to name constructs such as *positive* or *constructive* deviance and *pro-social* rule breaking. Likewise, a positive impression could result from the notion that creativity and innovation are inherently deviant in challenging and breaking rules (Zhou & George, 2001), a concept that researches in the entrepreneurship literature are well versed in (e.g., Gould, 1969; Hosikisson & Busenitz, 2002; Longenecker, McKinney, & Moore, 1988; Zhang et al., 2009; Zhang & Avery, 2009).

A construct that is purposefully housed at the nexus between helpful and harmful is certain to gain much interest from researchers. Further, the real-world applicability as well as the suggested frequency of the behaviors coined pro-social rule

breaking has drawn the interest from practicing managers. Indeed, Morrison (2006) in her early examination of pro-social rule breaking found that the majority (over 60%) of examples of critical incidents of rule breaking that respondents could recall across two studies were prosocial in nature rather than self-focused. As such, while a relatively new construct that is emerging within the deviance literature, pro-social rule breaking and the related constructive deviance has been at the heart of only a few empirical studies (e.g., Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012; Mayer, Caldwell, Uhl-Bien, & Gresock, 2007), but several conceptual models (e.g., Bryant, Davis, Hancock, & Vardaman, 2010; Parks, Ma, & Gallagher, 1020; Vadera, Pratt, & Pooja, 2013; Vardaman, Gondo, & Allen, 2014).

Despite the ongoing interest in pro-social rule breaking, there have been several shortcomings to date that provide opportunities to fill in large areas of uncertainty as well as the possibility to share a new perspective on these prosocially deviant behaviors. Of note, while several researchers have suggested and called for the examination of contextual or situational factors that are likely to serve as antecedents to pro-social rule breaking (e.g., Morrison, 2006; Vardaman, Gondo, & Allen, 2014), none have yet to do so. Pro-social rule breaking has been conceptualized as an interactionist construct in which the decision to engage in such behaviors is likely driven by contextual factors as well as the dispositional or individual difference factors that have been the focus of the research to date (Morrison, 2006). Likewise, throughout the larger deviance literature, researchers have commonly adopted only a few theoretical perspectives such as social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) or social learning theory (Bandura, 1979).

Therefore, while maintaining a consistent perspective can be beneficial in the exploratory development of a new construct, the opportunity now exists to provide a new lens in which to develop and test an interactionist model of pro-social rule breaking. To do so, I suggest that role identity theory (Burke, 1991; Styker, 1980) is not only a new perspective in the deviance literature, but, as a theoretical framework that was developed from the social interactionist movement and draws from the works of George Herbert Mead (1934, 1938), recognizes that the individual and organization are inherently intertwined. Therefore, I consider how dispositional, relational, and situational variables may interact in order to provide a more developed view of the drivers of pro-social rule breaking.

In doing so, I suggest a new perspective of pro-social rule breaking – one that is both more favorable as well as discouraging than previously posited. For while researchers typically consider pro-social rule breaking as beneficial, their findings suggest that these behaviors are committed by employees high in risk-taking propensity (Morrison, 2006) and low in conscientiousness (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012); a personality profile that practicing managers may be unwilling to select for. However, I suggest that the employees that engage in such behaviors may actually be among the best and ideal types of employees. In contrast, though, I suggest that these premier employees engage in pro-social rule breaking as an outcry or a critical attempt to help craft or change a context that they perceive as negative. In doing so, I'm reminded of the words of Socrates from Plato's *Symposium* that, "what is not beautiful need not be ugly and what is not good need not be bad."

I therefore draw the comparison of the rotten barrel spoiling the good apple. If supported, this perspective would shed a new light on pro-social rule breaking. Specifically, Warren (2003), in her development of the constructive deviance construct, noted that two separate streams of research were being conducted in relative isolation from each other – negative or detrimental deviance and positive of beneficial deviance. Therefore, while this area of research was built from the recognition that categorizing deviance as inherently negative is problematic, the result has become a false dichotomy such that what is not bad (destructive deviance) is assumed to be good (constructive deviance) and good things should be welcomed and fostered. However, the unique conceptualization of pro-social rule breaking suggests that it shares some characteristics with the negative counterproductive workplace behaviors and destructive deviance, such as being predicted by low conscientiousness (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012; Sackett & DeVore, 2001), while also sharing some characteristics in common with other prosocial behaviors, such as the intention to provide discretionary benefits to help others (Morrison, 2006; Organ, 1988).

Recent conceptual advancements within the related constructs of organizational citizenship behaviors and counterproductive workplace behaviors have offered a multi-stakeholder perspective such that there may be times when organizational citizenship behaviors are detrimental to the focal employee, coworkers, or organization and the reverse may be true for counterproductive workplace behaviors (Reynolds, Shoss, & Jundt, 2015). Pro-social rule breaking is ripe to be considered in a similar perspective. Violating the rules to provide a greater service to a customer by giving unearned discounts, free advice, or inside information may accomplish the intended results and

the customer will likely be satisfied, however it may come at the direct expense of the organization. Therefore, while the deviance can be perceived as prosocial to one stakeholder, the customer, it may be perceived as destructive to another, the organization. I seek to provide the first assessment of pro-social rule breaking through such a multi-stakeholder perspective by examining how different parties respond to the actions and how these responses impact subsequent attitudes and behaviors.

With role identity theory as a framework, I seek to incorporate an interactionist multi-stakeholder perspective to pro-social rule breaking. In doing so, I answer several calls to expand the usage of role identity theory in general and empowerment role identity in the organizational setting specifically (Farmer, Tierney, & Kung-Mcintyre, 2003; Zhang & Bartol, 2010) as well as to consider organizational factors as predicting such behaviors (Galperin, 2012). Likewise, recent calls have been made to attempt to replicate the early work which relied on a scenario-based design (Morrison, 2006) and to explore the validity of observer-focused measures of deviance (Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012).

Also, Griffin and Lopez (2005), in their review of the deviance literature noted several additional shortcomings that I seek to address. First, they note that researchers typically treat deviant behaviors as either present or absent without the concern for maintaining or repeated such behaviors. Through my framework within role identity theory, I will seek to explore and explain the repeating cycle of a specific form of deviance, pro-social rule breaking, and how the future likelihood of such behaviors can be impacted. Further, the authors note that the outcomes or consequences of such behaviors have also frequently been neglected. I seek to address this shortcoming in the

second half of my model which focuses on the reactions or responses to the behaviors as well as the attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. Additionally, they noted that there has been a large shortfall in the research that examines how organizations and individuals respond to deviant behaviors. Their assertion is that the responses from these parties will impact the likelihood of such behaviors in the future. Responses from the organization, customers, and coworkers, the suggested beneficiaries of pro-social rule breaking (Morrison, 2006), is a key component of my hypothesized model and is suggested to predict the occurrence of similar behaviors in the future as either reaffirming or denying the merger of the role identity that the behaviors stem from.

To address these issues, I begin by reviewing the literature on workplace deviance, constructive and positive deviance, and pro-social rule breaking as well as aid in the divergent validity of pro-social rule breaking by contrasting it against several related constructs. I then implement a pilot study with the aims of replicating and extending Morrison's (2006) dimensions and typology of pro-social rule breaking as well as the frequency with which it occurs. Next, I outline role identity theory and argue for its consideration as a central framework for pro-social rule breaking before using it in the creation of a conceptual model and the development of several hypotheses that include proximal as well as more distal proposed antecedents of pro-social rule breaking, responses to such behaviors from multiple stakeholders, important attitudinal and behaviors outcomes, as well as boundary conditions. Through the usage of a subsequent multi-wave, multi-source methodological design, I use the General Pro-Social Rule Breaking Scale (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012) to test the hypothesized relationships as well as a post-hoc exploration into the validity of other-

rated measures of positive deviance and the differentiation between pro-social rule breaking and other prosocial behaviors. The implications of my findings are then discussed in order to spark additional directions for future research and to benefit practicing managers.

Workplace Deviance

> "It is impossible to ensure total conformity to the organization, nor is that ever desirable…Everyone breaks established rules occasionally, and some break the rules much of the time." - Charon, 1999 (p. 144)

While the traditional view of job performance is restricted to Borman and Motowidlo's (1997) task performance, researchers are aware that job performance is multidimensional and that other, more discretionary behaviors, impact job performance as well (Dalal, 2005). As a response, there has been a call to consider job performance as a composite of the triumvirate of task performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and counterproductive work behaviors, or deviance (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Sackett, 2002; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000).

Deviance in the workplace has been frequently studied for over 70 years and primarily focuses on the litany of negative behaviors that stem from employees who violate group norms (cf. Davis, 1964; Feldman, 1984; Sherif & Sherif, 1953). The general conceptualization of rule breaking has considered the actions of deviant or counterproductive employees resulting from hostility (Judge, Scott, & Iles, 2006), dissimilarity (Liao, Joshi, & Chuang, 2004), exclusion (Twenge, Catanese, & Baumeister, 2002), personality (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004), or dissatisfaction (Dalal, 2005). Indeed, such behaviors have largely been thought to be

self-interested or unethical (e.g., Griffin & Lopez, 2005; Renn, Allen, Fedor, & Davis, 2005; Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

The frequency as well as the high cost of the behaviors associated with workplace deviance have drawn increased interest from researchers over the last 20 years (Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly, & Collins, 1998; Peterson, 2002). From the practical standpoint, researchers have noted that deviant behaviors such as fraud, theft, harmful behaviors, and wasting resources cost between 1-2 percent of the total annual sales (Coffin, 2003) resulting in the loss of billions annually (Parks, Ma, & Gallagher, 2010; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). Robinson and Bennett (1995) created the most frequently used definition of workplace deviance as "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (p. 556). Therefore, in order for an act to be considered deviant it must be done with volition and in violation of the norms of what Robinson and Bennett (1997) described as the "dominant administrative coalition" (p. 6). Further, it can be either targeted at the organization, considered as organizational deviance, or at individuals affiliated with the organization, categorized as interpersonal deviance, as well as some combination of the two (Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008). Deci and Ryan (1985) further argued that deviance is not accidental or the results of circumstances but rather behaviors that are enacted to purposefully violate the rules or norms. In this way, deviance has been conceptualized as negative or bad behaviors and is frequently treated as such (e.g., Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004; Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Elangovan & Shapiro, 1998; Lee & Allen, 2002; Peterson, 2002; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998).

Researchers have implemented several theoretical lenses in which to view and explain deviance. A frequently used (e.g., Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999; Greenberg, 1990) perspective is equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965) in which employees engage in deviant behaviors as a reaction to perceived inequity in order to seek retaliation against a lack of fairness and justice or to regain a balance or equity. Indeed, Sackett and DeVore (2001) noted that "there is a certain poetry in behaving badly in response to some perceived injustice" (p. 160). Likewise, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) has been used to determine how an unsupportive or negative environment may lead to a reciprocation of deviant behaviors (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004). Along these lines, Robinson and Bennett (1997) created a model of workplace deviance and suggested that deviant behaviors are a response to perceptions of injustice or poor conditions.

Organizational as well as individual factors have been found to contribute to workplace deviance. Unfair treatment, social norms, and the pressures of work groups all predict deviance (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). Further, Colbert and colleagues (2004) found that the personality dimension of agreeableness is positively related to workplace deviance while conscientiousness and emotional stability reduce such behaviors. Likewise, Sackett and DeVore (2001) stated that low conscientiousness is the best dispositional predictor of deviant behaviors. However, in general there has not been as much support for dispositional factors impacting workplace deviance (Arbuthnot, Gordon, & Jurkovic, 1987; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998), leading to arguments that an interactional view may be most appropriate (Trevino & Youngblood, 1990).

As an interactionist construct, researchers have found that the predictive abilities of individual or dispositional factors are enhanced (e.g., Hepworth & Towler, 2004) or weakened (e.g., Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005) by situational or environmental factors and vice-versa (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004; Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Trevino, 1986). Indeed, Skarlicki and colleagues (1999) found that negative affect moderated the impact of perceived justice on retaliatory behaviors. Likewise, conscientiousness and emotional stability were found to weaken the relationship between the perceptions of a developmental environment and organizational deviance while agreeableness was found to strengthen the relationship between perceived organizational support and interpersonal deviance (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004).

Workplace deviance has traditionally been examined under such a consistently negative lens that in an attempt to categorize and synthesize the findings of several negative behaviors in the workplace, Griffin & Lopez (2005) noted that deviance is so pervasive and of such interest to researchers, that it should be one of the four components of a larger umbrella construct they called dysfunctional behaviors. In comparison to related bad behavior constructs (e.g., aggression, antisocial behavior), deviance has received more attention from researchers and is more fully developed (Peterson, 2002). Further, Griffin and Lopez (2005), noted that some behaviors which may be perceived as bad may actually be motivated by employees seeking to be helpful. Indeed, the outcomes of deviance have been thought to span across a wide continuum. While deviance can be dysfunctional and threaten members of the organization or the organization itself (Best & Luckenbill, 1982), it may also be beneficial in creating

warning signals and safety valves of underlying concerns (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Therefore, Griffin and Lopez (2005) were particularly cautious to exclude from their classification of dysfunctional deviant behaviors "those behaviors that might be seen as undesirable by the organization, such as whistle-blowing, but that may provide social benefits." (p. 989). This separation represents an important new conceptualization of deviance as possibly positive or constructive.

Positive Deviance

> "Do not follow where the path may lead. Go instead where there is no path and leave a trail." – Harold R. McAlindon

The word deviant stems from the Latin words de or "from" and via which means "road" such that a deviant is someone who goes from the road or off of the beaten path (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003). Greenberg (1997) suggested that the motives or intentions beneath deviant behaviors may be "much more complex than generally conceived" (p. 88). As such, scholars have sought alternative conceptualizations of deviance, noting that the reduction of deviance to negative behaviors has created "an unnecessarily narrow area of study" (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004, p. 828). Spreitzer and Sonenshein (2003; 2004) drew on Wilkins' (1964) work to conceptualize positive deviance as "intentional behaviors that depart from the norms of a referent group in honorable ways" (Spretizer & Sonenshein, 2003, p. 209). Therefore, the primary distinction between positive and traditional deviance is the intentionality behind the behaviors.

In their development, Spreitzer and Sonenshein (2003) positioned positive deviance within the positive organizational scholarship movement and recognized those

that had referenced such deviance (e.g., Quinn, 1996; Quinn & Quinn, 2002). Cameron, Dutton, and Quinn (2003) suggested positive deviance to be a critical mechanism for organizations to extend from the ordinary to extraordinary. Spreitzer & Sonenshein (2003) noted that there are three levels of reference groups that should be considered when determining whether employee deviance is positive – the unit, organizational, and business norms. Further, they suggest that employees will engage in positive deviance if they have the following five psychological conditions – sense of meaning, other focus, self-determination, personal efficacy, and courage. These conditions closely mirror those of Spreitzer's earlier work (1995, 1996) in developing psychological empowerment as containing the four dimensions of meaning, self-determination, competence, which she described as self-efficacy, and impact. Further, these five conditions were later used in the early development of the nomological network of pro-social rule breaking by Morrison (2006).

Constructive Deviance

"Deviance compared to what?" - Warren, 2003 (p.623)

Around the same time that Spreitzer and Sonenshein (2003, 2004) were developing positive deviance, Galperin (2003) and Warren (2003) were developing the related construct of constructive deviance rather independently from each other. Galperin offered as a definition of constructive deviance, "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in doing so contributes to the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (Galperin, 2003, p. 158). This definition is an exact replication of the definition of workplace deviance by Robinson and Bennett (1995) with the exception again being the intentionality of the behaviors. Further,

through the designation of constructive deviance as being other-focused and beneficial, the more traditional forms of deviance that are self-focused and detrimental were relabeled as destructive deviance. She subsequently created and validated a measure of constructive deviance across a series of studies (Galperin, 2012) which, like traditional deviance, produced a two-factor solution for deviance aimed at the organization and at individuals. As hypothesized, a positive and moderately significant relationship between destructive and constructive deviance was found similar to the levels found by Dalal (2005) in his meta-analysis of the relationship between counterproductive workplace behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Additionally, in seeking to provide discriminant validity between constructive and destructive deviance, she found that constructive deviance is positively predicted by Machiavellianism and, central to the current study, role breadth self-efficacy, however role breadth self-efficacy is not statistically related to destructive deviance. Galperin (2012) also recognized the importance of considering contextual variables in predicting constructive deviance such that access to information was negatively related to constructive deviance aimed at the organization. While she stopped short of testing a true interactionist model, she did suggest the need to explore additional contextual variables and specifically noted the likely impact of the organization's climate on constructive deviance. Finally, she also suggested that the constructiveness of deviance likely lies in the eye of the beholder such that the same behavior may be perceived as beneficial to one party while detrimental to another.

Warren (2003) offered a more neutral perspective on deviance more in line with the early work in the literature (e.g., Sherif & Sherif, 1953) by recognizing that two

ongoing and inconsistent streams of research were being conducted simultaneously. Specifically, while the traditional perspective of workplace deviance is one in which the violation of organizational rules and norms is done for self-serving purposes (Cohen, 1966; Griffin & Lopez, 2005; Renn, Allen, Fedor, & Davis, 2005; Robinson & Bennett, 1995), thereby resulting in the perceptions of angry or dissatisfied workers, a second stream of research focuses on deviance in a positive light and includes such behaviors as whistle-blowing, functional disobedience, dissent, voice, and tempered radicalism (Brief, Buttram, & Dukerich, 2001; Graham, 1986; Meyerson & Scully, 1995; Near & Miceli, 1987, 1995; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

Therefore, while both are deviant in that there is separation from the established norms, Warren (2003) suggested that the central question is "Deviance compared to what?" (p.623). A frequent assumption exists that organizational norms and rules are normal and correct (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999), although they may be misinformed, outdated, or overly restrictive. Therefore, when seeking to determine the impact of deviance it is important to consider what the actions are deviating from. While organizational scholars frequently use the norms of the organization as the benchmark for such deviations, Merton (1949) suggested that deviance is a departure from society's norms. Further, in accordance with role identity theory, each employee is a part of several social groups and can hold a separate role identity for each (Burke, 1980; Stryker, 1968, 1980; Stryker & Serpe, 1982). Indeed, Mead noted that "A multiple personality is in a certain sense normal" (1934, p. 142).

As such, an employee's behaviors may be deviance at one level or in one group but conformity in another (Warren, 2003). This conceptualization is also in line with

Merton's (1957) recognition of two types of roles – local and cosmopolitan – with important implications regarding the behaviors of the role taker. Local role takers will seek role definitions and expectations from within the workplace while cosmopolitan role takers will seek definition in the social system outside of the organization. Therefore, holding local or cosmopolitan perspectives of roles will influence which reference groups are selected to define the role expectations (Gouldner, 1957; Victor & Cullen, 1988) and therefore indicate which norms and rules are more likely to be followed, which may further result in perceptions of deviance when not intended.

Spreizter and Sonenshein (2003) noted the difficulty in determining which norms were being departed from as well as which reference group should be considered the most appropriate. Therefore, it is important to establish the criterion on which to measure the deviation of behaviors. Various benchmarks have been used including organizational performance and norms (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), work roles (Staw & Boetteger, 1990), regulatory laws (Near & Miceli, 1995), and legal standards (Baucus & Baucus, 1997; Baucus & Near, 1991; Dozier & Miceli, 1985; Miceli & Near, 1984). To overcome these issues and multiple interpretations, Warren (2003) recommended the use of hypernorms, or globally accepted values and beliefs (Donaldson & Dunfee, 1994, 1999). Such metanorms primarily involve survival such as food, shelter, and security (Braithwaite & Law, 1985; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987; Sherif, 1936) and should be identified through the standards of global organizations such as the United Nations and International Labor Organization (Warren, 2003).

Comparing the organizational norms with such hypernorms, Warren (2003) developed a 2x2 matrix with four possible behavioral categories. As she noted,

behaviors that are outside of both sets of norms are considered destructive deviance, and those within the reference group norms but outside of the hypernorms are destructive conformity. Alternatively, behaviors that are in agreement with both sets of norms are constructive conformity while behaviors in line with the hypernorms but that violate the organizational norms are constructive deviance. Within this last and positive form of deviance, employees will defy the organizational rules or norms in order to satisfy the larger societal hypernorms. In this way, it was suggested that employees may be organizational deviants yet do so in ways that benefit society and often through selfless motives, such as the case of a whistle blower who reports the actions that are within the norms of the organization but outside of the hypernorms of society. Such behaviors have been suggested to lead to improved work methods, decision making, and performance but they may come at the expense of alienating employees (Griffin & Lopez, 2005).

Rebels and Innovators

> "Never tell people how to do things. Tell them what to do and they will surprise you with their ingenuity." – General George Patton

The dichotomous classification as constructive or destructive deviance is somewhat misleading such that it is unlikely that employees will be purely motivated for self-serving or other-serving intentions but rather the focus is on the primary reasons behind the behaviors (Morrison, 2006). Further, it is consistent with Merton's (1968) framework of employees such that their reactions to the rules and norms of the organization is dependent upon the strength that they identify with the desired goals and means to accomplish them. Deviant workers, then, can be either those employees who

do not agree with the expected means and are labeled as innovators, or those who do not identify with the goals and are labeled as rebels. Rebels oppose the organization's desired goals or end results and therefore work toward accomplishing their own goals in a self-serving way. Therefore, they are likely to engage in the traditional view of deviance or as Warren (2003) suggested, as destructively deviant. Alternatively, innovators agree with the goals but do not agree with and, therefore adhere to, the suggested means of how to accomplish the goals. They may break the rules of the organization in order to be innovative or to help others. As such, these innovators are similar to Warren's (2003) view of constructive deviants.

Therefore, there is a direct parallelism from Warren's (2003) classifications of destructive and constructive deviance and Merton's (1968) rebels and innovators (Galperin, 2012). In addition to whistle-blowing, tempered radicalism, voice, functional disobedience, and facilitative resistance, Morrison (2006) developed pro-social rule breaking to be included within constructive deviance.

Pro-social Rule Breaking

"You are remembered for the rules you break." – General Douglas MacArthur

While much attention had been given to the violation of organizational norms through destructive and constructive deviance, Morrison (2006) focused her attention on the violation of organizational rules for prosocial reasons. In doing so, she created the construct of pro-social rule breaking and defined it as "any instance when an employee intentionally violates a formal organizational policy, regulation, or prohibition with the primary intention of promoting the welfare of the organization or one of its stakeholders" (Morrison, 2006: p. 6). Within this definition there are several

similarities to the traditional perspective of deviance in that it requires (1) voluntary and intentional actions that (2) deviate from a specific organizational dictation for the expected behavior which (3) impacts the organization, a stakeholder, or both. However, traditional deviance has been considered as self-serving behaviors whereas pro-social rule breaking is theorized as other-focused. This definition is in line with Brief and Motowidlo's (1986) prior definition of prosocial behaviors as those behaviors that are enacted at the benefit, and in order to increase the welfare of, another party. Interestingly, the development and exploration of prosocial behaviors has emerged to reflect the antithesis of certain deviant behaviors. Specifically, Batson and Powell (2003) noted that "the word prosocial does not appear in most dictionaries: it was created by social scientists as an antonym for antisocial" (p. 463).

Further, Morrison (2006) also followed the precedent of researchers in related constructs such as traditional deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995) as well as positive deviance (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004) in framing the construct based on the intent behind the behaviors, independent of their outcomes (Bryant, Davis, Hancock, & Vardaman, 2010). Importantly as well, this definition inherently suggests that the construct of pro-social rule breaking is an interactionist construct (Bandura, 1999; Trevino, 1986) such that scholars have noted that while self-interest is automatic and innate (Krebs & Denton, 2005; Murninghan, Cantelon, & Elyashiv, 2001); concerns for the needs of others is a composite of disposition (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986), socialization (Kohlberg, 1969), and situation (Mazar, Amir, & Ariely, 2008) factors. While pro-social rule breaking, as defined by Morrison (2006) would appear to be beneficial (Bryant, Davis, Hancock, & Vardaman, 2010), it can be difficult

to distinguish between beneficial and detrimental behaviors in the workplace (Griffin & Lopez, 2005). For example, Bryant and colleagues (2010) suggested that pro-social rule breaking behaviors conducted by supervisors will result in negative consequences for their subordinates.

Morrison (2006) suggested that the opportunity to engage in pro-social rule breaking creates a daily conflict for many employees. In doing so, they must weigh the decision whether to remain obedient to their organizations by engaging in only the expected and allowed behaviors or whether they should break the rules. In some cases maintaining the status quo may result in a reduction of innovation, responsiveness, compassion, or customer service. However, breaking the rules may also result in negative consequences such as punishment and reduced career outcomes.

While pro-social rule breaking behaviors may also benefit the enacting employess, they are primarily motivated by helping another (Morrison, 2006). Therefore, there is a distinction between the angry or self-interested employees in destructive deviance and the motivated employees who take initiative in pro-social rule breaking. In this way, Morrison (2006) continued in the tradition of researchers of other constructive deviance constructs to expand upon the bright side of a traditionally negatively-conceived construct. Specifically, Cameron and Caza (2004) suggested that constructive deviance "realizes the highest potential of organizations and their members" (p. 732) by planting the seeds for organizational creativity and innovation while promoting organizational change (Galperin, 2012; Howell, Shea, & Higgins, 2005). As such, while organizations create rules in order to define the appropriate behaviors for their employees and compensate them accordingly, such a system may

actually reduce efficiency and innovation, thereby leading to the *folly of rewarding A while hoping for B* (Kerr, 1975).

In her seminal exploratory collection of studies, Morrison (2006) found that employees engage in pro-social rule breaking in order to benefit three distinct parties, to: (1) increase organizational efficiency, (2) assist a coworker, or (3) provide a greater service to a customer. In many ways, then, this classification is in line with several other collections of behaviors that are both deviant (destructive deviance – Robinson & Bennett, 1995; constructive deviance – Galperin, 2012) as well as prosocial (organizational citizenship behaviors – Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) in recognizing that the behaviors can be targeted at either the organization or individual stakeholders. The distinction that Morrison (2006) made was to note two separate groups of individuals in order to give consideration to rule breaking aimed at helping customers as well. Scholars in marketing and related fields have recognized that employees deviate from organizational rules in order to provide better service for customers (Arnold, Reynolds, Ponder, & Lueg, 2005; Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990; Brady, Voorhees, & Brusco, 2011; Campbell, 2000; Hui, Au, & Frock, 2004; Leo & Russell-Bennett, 2014; Tokman, Davis, & Lemon, 2007). However, while potentially beneficial for the customers, such behaviors may result in additional costs to the organization (Campbell, 2000; Litzky, Eddleston, & Kidder, 2006) and therefore result in negative consequences for the employee (Leo & Russell-Bennett, 2014).

Pro-social Rule Breaking as Proactive Behavior

> "Orville Wright did not have a pilot's license: Don't be afraid to bend, or break the rules." – Richard Tait, Cranium, Inc.

Pro-social rule breaking, like related behaviors such as taking charge (Moon, Kamdar, Mayer, & Takeuchi, 2008; Morrison & Phelps, 1999), and voice (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998, 2001), is a collection of proactive organizational behaviors (Bjorkelo, Einarsen, & Matthiesen, 2010). Proactive behavior is defined as "taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to current conditions" (Crant, 2000, p. 436). Bateman and Crant (1993) posited that proactive behavior is motivated and change-oriented, for which other researchers have suggested includes actions such as anticipating and solving problems as well as actively searching for and implementing new ways to change work situations (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996; Parker & Collins, 2010; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). Indeed, proactivity consists of behaviors that are acted in advance and intended to create an impact by changing or altering the context with intended results (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Morrison & Phelps, 1999) which can be done through the creation of new ideas (Scott & Bruce, 1994) and by scanning the environment for opportunities (Frese & Fay, 2001). Therefore, proactive behavior is self-initiated and future-oriented (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006; Wu & Parker, in press).

Further, pro-social rule breaking has been considered a type of personal initiative (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2007), as defined by Frese and Fay as "work behavior characterized by its self-starting nature, its proactive approach and by being persistent in overcoming difficulties that arise in the pursuit of a goal" (p. 134). In this sense, personal initiative has been considered a specific type of proactive behavior (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2007; Ohly, Sonnentag, & Pluntke, 2006). Importantly personal

initiative is frequently considered to be in line with organizational goals (Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, & Tang, 1997) but may include less than desirable behaviors from the organization's perspective (Crant, 2000). Further, Fay and Frese (2001) noted that personal initiative can violate the organization's rules.

Proactive behaviors are interactional in that individual differences and perceptions of the organizational environment can interact to influence whether an employee will behave proactively. In addition to empirical analyses of proactive behaviors that have taken an interactionist approach (e.g., Wu & Parker, 2011; Wu & Parker, in press), proactive behaviors has roots in social interactionism (Bjorkelo, Einarsen, & Matthiesen, 2010). Social interactionism is a movement within the sociology literature that recognizes that society influences individuals and individuals influence society (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Additionally, it is the same movement from which role identity theory, the theoretical framework for my dissertation, was developed.

Organizational Rules

> "No organizational planning can foresee all contingencies within its own operations, can anticipate with perfect accuracy all environmental changes, or can control perfectly all human variability…An organization which depends solely upon its blueprint of prescribed behavior is a very fragile system" - Katz and Kahn, 1966 (p. 338)

Pro-social rule breaking, as the name suggests, is focused on the violation of organizational rules while several related constructs focus on the organization's norms. Organizations can use rules and norms in order to maintain employee obedience, and their power to do so is quite strong (Asch, 1951; Barnard, 1938; Milgram, 1974). Rules are shared beliefs that have been formally defined regarding the behaviors that should

and should not be elicited in specific situations (Argyle, Furnham, & Graham, 1981). Morrison (2006), referencing the work of March and colleagues (2000), stated that rules are explicitly defined organizational policies, regulations, or prohibitions that detail how employees are expected to perform their jobs. In this way, the rules are inherently restrictive in order to create an environment in which dissimilar employees will behave similarly. Further, she noted that such policies, regulations, and prohibitions should be reasonably accepted, legitimate, and enforced (Edgerton, 1985; Jackson, 1966). Alternatively, norms consist of ranges of behaviors that a certain social group are tolerated and/or expected to enact (Jackson, 1966). In comparison to rules, norms are less formal and more emergent (Axelrod, 1986; Feldman, 1984). Further, rules are primarily top-down, well institutionalized, and more strongly enforced (Ouchi, 1980). Therefore, while an employee that breaks an organizational norm might not be aware of it due to his or her newness in the organization or the norm being new and emerging itself, rules are explicated stated creating less room for interpretation or misunderstanding.

The act of rule breaking harkens back to Warren's (2003) argument that the determination of the destructiveness or constructiveness of such behaviors can only be assessed when attention is given to what was deviated from. Morrison (2006) noted that many constructs in organizational research (e.g., organizational misbehavior, antisocial behavior, corporate crime) are also based on the idea of rule breaking yet these behaviors are not classified as prosocial. There is frequently an assumption that rules are inherently positive, correct, and just such that a deviation suggests an incorrect or negative action. Alternatively, the construct of pro-social rule breaking may be able to

provide additional understanding regarding the implications of negative, incorrect, unjust, outdated, counterproductive, or just excessively constraining rules.

Indeed, such rules may make an employee feel trapped such that breaking organizational rules may be a reactionary attempt to perform one's role better, to benefit the organization, or to help important stakeholders such as coworkers and customers (Morrison, 2006). In this way, pro-social rule breaking shares a commonality with behaviors known as principled dissent in which employees will violate their behavioral expectations if they perceive the rules guiding such behaviors are wrong (Graham, 1986). Likewise Staw and Boettger (1990), in their assessment of task revision, behaviors in which employees attempt to modify rules that they perceive as limiting in order to work more efficiently, suggested that in such cases incorrect rules should be broken and the results will benefit the organization.

Adaptors and Innovators

> "In everyday experience, it comes down to a conflict between those folks who dutifully work to manage established routines in order to ensure the successful functioning of their organization, and those who courageously challenge routines in order to do the very same thing" - Hornstein, 1986 (p. 8)

In considering the differences between employees who may engage in pro-social rule breaking and those that may not, insight can be gained from Kirton's (1976) continuum of employees who he terms adaptors and innovators such that adaptors do things different while innovators do different things. This distinction was made from Drucker's (1969) earlier statement that organizations seek to maintain certain behaviors such that managers are selected who have "the ability to do better rather than the courage to do differently" (p. 50). Adaptors maintain the status quo and existing

paradigms and therefore may perceive innovators as a threat (Kuhn, 1970). These innovators may also use unexpected means in order to bring about change which adaptors may find unpleasant (Kirton, 1961; Whyte, 1957). Such unexpected means could suggest the intentional and voluntary violation of organization rules. If these innovators do things differently, then they are more likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking as they will likely deviate from the defined organizational rules with the intention to increase efficiency. Indeed, Schoen (1960) noted that innovator will accept deviance for good reasons.

Several of the behavioral descriptions offered by Kirton (1976) of the innovator mirror Morrison's (2006) conceptualization of pro-social rule breaking including: taking control in unstructured situations, challenging rules, not needing a consensus to agree, providing the dynamics needed for radical change, and appearing to have high beliefs in one's self. From these descriptions of an innovator, then, an image of an employee that may be likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking begins to emerge. Specifically, these behaviors suggest that employees must be proactive in seeking to do things differently, confident in their abilities, open to trying new things, and desiring the opportunity to effect change in order to be innovators and, as a result, pro-social rule breakers. I seek to examine just such an employee in the developed of my hypothesized model.

Rule Following – Contrasting Perspectives

Tyler and Blader (2005) noted that organizations must rely on employees to follow the rules and sought to determine strategies to help them do so. Such adherence has frequently been suggested as needed for organizational success (e.g., Bell,

McLaughlin, & Sequeira, 2002; Laufer & Robertson, 1997), although researchers have recognized widespread noncompliance (e.g., Frederick, 1995; Healy & Iles, 2002; Rice, 1992; Simon & Eitzen, 1990; Spence, 2001). Organizations expend significant costs and time trying to control their employees (O'Reilly, 1989) and the results of the study by Tyler and Blader (2005) suggest that organizations can increase employee rule conformity through either a command-and-control model that is extrinsically oriented or a self-regulatory model that is intrinsically motivated although the self-regulatory model is more effective.

Interestingly, while the results are for proactive approaches to rule following, Wheeler's (1976) work in synthesizing punishment and arbitration theories suggests similar approaches after the rules have been broken. In general, he notes that there are two types of punishments – authoritarian and corrective. Authoritarian punishment consists of retribution and focuses on setting an example for others while corrective is focused on reform such that the focal employee will meet the appropriate standards in the future (Wheeler, 1976). Further, he notes that the aim of corrective punishment is to instill a self-discipline into employees such that they will self-regulate their behaviors in order to make the need for such future corrective action moot. Finally, he suggests that the corrective action is likely to be more effective and should increase in magnitude with the severity of the deviant behavior as well as the frequency of such actions.

In contrast, Zhang and Avery (2009) used Kaplan's (1980) definition of rule breaking as to "fail to conform to the applicable normative expectations of the group" (p. 5) to argue that entrepreneurs are "almost by definition" (p. 436) rule breakers. Counter to the traditional studies of rule breaking in the organizational behavior, human

resource management, industrial and organizational psychology, and sociology literatures, examples have been mostly positive and "in contrast, negative forms of rule breaking have seldom been discussed in the entrepreneurship literature" (Zhang & Avery, 2009, p. 436). Indeed, while management researchers have traditionally considered rule breaking as negative and deviant, entrepreneurship researchers have considered rule breaking as synonymous with creativity and innovation (Zhang & Avery, 2009). Using the theory of nonconformity (Hollander & Willis, 1967; Willis, 1963) the authors suggested and found support for the positive longitudinal relationship between modest rule breaking as an adolescent and their adult entrepreneurial status. They also note that Merton's strain theory (1938) suggested that societal deviance can lead to societal innovation as well as Becker's (1963) suggestion that deviants can be either detrimental or beneficial to society.

Prior Investigations of Pro-social Rule Breaking

In the first in a series of exploratory studies, Morrison (2006) conducted phone interviews with open-ended questions asking for critical incidents of rule breaking. These incidents were then independently rated as either self- or other-focused and the other-focused examples were then placed into subcategories to develop a typology of pro-social rule breaking. Of the 24 employed respondents that were interviewed, 3 were unable to recall a time in which they broke rules and the other 21 respondents provided a total of 40 incidents of rule-breaking. From the categorization, 16 of these incidents (40%) were self-focused while the remaining 24 (60%) were other-focused. Further, the 24 incidents of other-focused rule breaking were categorized into three subcategories representing intentions to increase organization efficiency (N = 10) and to help either a

coworker (N = 9) or a customer (N = 5). Therefore, initial support was found for the presence of rule breaking for pro-social intentions such that 60% of the critical incidents were other-focused and 19 of the 24 interviewees (79%) provided at least one such example.

For the second study, Morrison used a vignette and approached random visitors in line at a tourist attraction. She focused only on the other-focused or pro-social rule breaking classification of behaviors by asking the tourists "Sometimes people at work make the choice to not follow a formal rule, policy, or procedure in order to do their job in the way that they feel that they should. Can you think of a time when you have done this?" (Morrison, 2006, p. 12). Of the 112 tourists that were approached, 33 declined to participate and 17 could not think of a time when they broke their organization's rules. The responses from the remaining participants were independently rated and the rule breaking behaviors were found to be done to increase organizational efficiency (N = 14), to assist a coworker (N = 15), to help a customer (N = 22), for self-interested reasons (N = 7), or were not discernable and therefore discarded (N = 4).

In the third and final study, Morrison (2006) sought to explore possible antecedents of pro-social rule breaking by adapting Spreitzer and Sonenshein's (2003) five suggested psychological conditions that predict positive deviance. In doing so, she hypothesized the pro-social rule breaking would be predicted by high levels of job meaning, autonomy, empathy, proactive personality, and risk-taking propensity as well as coworkers' engagement in pro-social rule breaking. Using short scenarios based on the examples of pro-social rule breaking developed in the prior study, job meaning, autonomy, and coworker behaviors were manipulated in eight versions of the scenario.

After reading the two scenarios assigned to them, the respondents then answered questions regarding their proactive personality, empathy, and risk-taking propensity as well as their likelihood to engage in pro-social rule breaking in the scenarios, the perceived realism of the scenarios, and their perceptions of rule breaking as pro-social or self-interested.

Of the 168 paid MBA students, the results suggested that they perceived the scenario to be realistic and could see themselves in a similar situation. In line with the notion that pro-social rule breaking can be helpful to others at one's own expense, between 68% and 70% of the respondents from the various scenarios agreed or strongly agreed that such behaviors would benefit the company but only between 17% and 22% agreed or strongly agreed that it would benefit their careers. In one scenario gender was significantly related to pro-social rule breaking such that men were more likely to engage in these behaviors. Also, support was found for high levels of autonomy and risk-taking propensity as well as coworker pro-social rule breaking in predicting the focal employee's pro-social rule breaking across the scenarios. However, no support was found for the impact of job meaning, empathy, or proactive personality in predicting pro-social rule breaking in any scenario.

In her discussion and suggestions, Morrison (2006) noted that pro-social rule breaking may be driven by situational forces, that the lack of support for proactive personality may be due to the scenario-based methodology that was utilized, and that researchers should consider other dispositional factors as well. Likewise, she suggested the need to explore the impact of procedural justice and other affective and cognitive variables on predicting pro-social rule breaking. Regarding the outcomes, she noted the

need to explore how pro-social rule breaking can be beneficial to one party and detrimental to another as well as the resulting implications for the employee engaging in these behaviors. While these developments have largely been left unexplored to date, I seek to address each in this dissertation.

Since Morrison's original work on pro-social rule breaking in 2006, there has been continued interest in the construct specifically (e.g., Bryant, Davis, Hancock, & Vardaman, 2010; Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012; Mayer, Caldwell, Uhl-Bien, & Gresock, 2007) as well as more generally within the larger construct of constructive deviance (e.g., Parks, Ma, & Gallagher, 2010; Vadera, Pratt, & Pooja, 2013). Yet, despite the ongoing interest and recognition of pro-social deviance as a means to higher levels of organizational performance (Galperin, 2012), little empirical support has been found to date. As with other areas of research regarding deviant behaviors, constructive deviance and pro-social rule breaking potentially suffer from a social desirability bias in which respondents are less willing to admit their deviant behaviors in fear of being judged or punished from their organizations. Likewise, pro-social rule breaking has been difficult to measure without relying on retrospective sensemaking, using cross-sectional designs, or studying reactions to scenarios. These difficulties likely help to explain why there have been more theoretical models developed in conceptual papers than empirical findings. Indeed, the research on constructive deviance and pro-social rule breaking has been described by Folger, Ganegoda, Rice, Taylor, and Wo (2013) as being in its infancy and, as such, scholars have posited several models that have been void of empirical testing and advancement to date.

In the only follow-up study that has been published, Dahling, Chan, Meyer, and Gregory (2012) created and validated a scale to measure pro-social rule breaking in the only published studies to date that were sampled from within an organization. Further, by providing a reliable scale to measure pro-social rule breaking, they advanced the possibilities for more generalizable results to actual rule breaking behaviors rather than reactions to scenarios or vignettes. The authors hypothesized that low conscientiousness, high job demands, and perceptions of similar behaviors performed by others would predict pro-social rule breaking in their second study and also examined the relationship between pro-social rule breaking and performance ratings in an exploratory analysis. The authors found job demands to be unrelated to pro-social rule breaking and that, like Morrison (2006), when employees perceive others engaging in such behaviors, they in turn are more likely to do so as well. Also, they found that conscientiousness negatively predicts the performance of pro-social rule breaking such that those employees who are high in conscientiousness will be less likely to violate the organization's rules for prosocial reasons.

As low conscientiousness is also a predictor of destructive or traditional deviance, this finding suggests that there may be similarities such that employees who engage in one form of deviance may also be more likely to engage in the other. Considering the moderate but positive correlation found by Galperin (2012) between destructive and constructive deviance, it is likely that there may be some overlap in the conceptually distinct constructs. Indeed, the results of the study by Dahling et al., (2012) also found that pro-social rule breaking and counterproductive workplace

behaviors are positively related yet distinct. Finally, they found that pro-social rule breaking was negatively related to supervisor-reported performance.

Additionally, in their third study, Dahling and colleagues (2012) found that pro-social rule breaking is related to negative performance evaluations and higher perceptions of counterproductive workplace behaviors, both of which as assessed by coworkers. However, in contrast to their prior study, pro-social rule breaking was not related to supervisor-rated task performance. Additionally, pro-social rule breaking was not related to organizational citizenship behaviors targeted at individuals (OCBIs) as assessed by either the supervisor or coworkers.

Therefore, across the two studies, there is support for pro-social rule breaking as detrimental or non-impactful for the focal employee that commits the deviance. All of the significant findings were negative and indicate that task performance ratings, as assessed by the supervisor or coworkers can suffer and that perceptions of traditional deviance are higher in the eyes of coworkers. The authors also note that attributions can impact perceptions of constructive or destructive deviance such that the focal employee may feel situationally-constrained to engage in rule breaking behavior although an observer will be prone to making the fundamental attribution error (Heider, 1958) and be more likely to attribute the deviant behaviors to the employee rather than the context. Likewise they suggest that conflicting interest may create situations in which employees are torn between how to act. I seek to explore this concept through the implementation of role identity as a theoretical framework in the current study. Finally, the authors note the likely importance of organizational climate in predicting pro-social rule breaking, an important component of my model.

Dahling and colleagues (2012) referenced a study conducted by Mayer, Caldwell, Uhl-Bien, and Gresock (2007) which has not been published but was presented at the Academy of Management in which they also used scenarios to assess participants' reactions. In doing so, they found that an interaction predicts pro-social rule breaking such that employees who have higher quality relationships with their supervisors and who experience rules that they perceive as unnecessary or unfair, are most likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking by breaking these rules. Further, this relationship was mediated by perceived supervisor support. Therefore, while unpublished, the authors noted the importance of the quality of the relationship between the subordinate and the supervisor as well as the fairness of policies and rules in predicting pro-social rule breaking. I build upon these concepts by examining the impact of leader-member exchange and perceptions of organizational justice as distal antecedents of pro-social rule breaking.

I have consolidated and presented the findings of the known relationships with pro-social rule breaking from the above noted studies in Table 1.

Table 1 - Hypothesized and Found Relationships with Pro-social Rule Breaking

Construct	Study	Type of Hypothesized Relationship	Type of Found Relationship	Supported	Methodology
Job meaning	Study 3 (Morrison, 2006)	Antecedent	None	No	Scenarios
Autonomy	Study 3 (Morrison, 2006)	Antecedent	Positive	Yes	Scenarios
Empathy	Study 3 (Morrison, 2006)	Antecedent	None	No	Scenarios
Pro-active personality	Study 3 (Morrison, 2006)	Antecedent	None	No	Scenarios
Risk-taking propensity	Study 3 (Morrison, 2006)	Antecedent	Positive	Yes	Scenarios
Coworkers' pro-social rule breaking	Study 3 (Morrison, 2006); Study 2 (Dahling et al., 2012)	Antecedent	Positive	Yes	Scenarios
High quality relationships	(Mayer et al., 2007)	Antecedent	Positive	Yes	Vignettes
Unfairness of rule	(Mayer et al., 2007)	Moderator of high quality relationships	Strengthen	Yes	Vignettes
Supervisor support	(Mayer et al., 2007)	Mediator of high quality relationships	Positive	Yes	Vignettes

Construct	Study	Type of Hypothesized Relationship	Type of Found Relationship	Supported	Methodology
Conscientiousness	Study 2 (Dahling et al., 2012)	Antecedent	Negative	Yes	Field Study
Job demands	Study 2 (Dahling et al., 2012)	Antecedent	None	No	Field Study
Performance - supervisor rated	Studies 2 and 3 (Dahling et al., 2012)	Outcome	Negative in study 2, None in Study 3	N/A	Field Study
Performance - coworker rated	Study 3 (Dahling et al., 2012)	Outcome	Negative	N/A	Field Study
Organizational citizenship behaviors - supervisor rated	Study 3 (Dahling et al., 2012)	Outcome	None	N/A	Field Study
Organizational citizenship behaviors - coworker rated	Study 3 (Dahling et al., 2012)	Outcome	None	N/A	Field Study
Counterproductive workplace behaviors - supervisor rated	Study 3 (Dahling et al., 2012)	Outcome	None	N/A	Field Study
Counterproductive workplace behaviors - coworker rated	Study 3 (Dahling et al., 2012)	Outcome	Negative	N/A	Field Study

To date, these studies are the only published or presented findings regarding the antecedents and outcomes of pro-social rule breaking. As such, there is much left to learn. For example, scholars have only considered the dispositional individual differences in the published studies yet, as an interactionist construct, attention should also be given to contextual factors. Also, thus far the majority of the attention has been focused on the antecedents with only Dahling et al.'s (2012) few known outcomes

relating to performance, both in-role and extra-role. Finally, there has yet to be any attention given to the mediating mechanisms or the moderating boundary conditions.

Key Conceptual Models of Pro-social Rule Breaking and Constructive Deviance

Several conceptual models have been proposed to reflect the nomological network of pro-social rule breaking and constructive deviance. The majority of the attention of these models has focused on the establishment of likely antecedents with little attention given to the results or outcomes of engaging in such behaviors. Below I briefly summarize four of the most pertinent models.

Vardaman, Gondo, and Allen (2014) recognized the importance of the organizational climate in the likelihood of engaging in pro-social rule breaking. Specifically, by focusing on an ethical climate, the authors noted that pro-social rule breaking involves certain trade-offs between a deontological approach such that moral value is ascribed through following rules, and an utilitarian approach such that moral value is ascribed through the decision's consequences (Hooker, 2000; Waller, 2005). In this way, they suggest that pro-social rule breaking represents a utilitarian approach in seeking to maximize the outcomes in order to create the greatest good (Mill, 1863). A model was subsequently presented that suggests new dispositional factors for pro-social rule breaking comprised of Judge and colleagues' (1997) conceptualization of core self-evaluations that includes self-esteem, neuroticism, locus of control, and central to the current study, self-efficacy. Likewise, in an interactionist perspective the authors suggest that the organization's ethical climate type, as based on Victor and Cullen's (1988) typology, will have both a direct effect on pro-social rule breaking as well as an interactional effect on the impact of the known dispositional and relational antecedents

of pro-social rule breaking (autonomy, risk preference, coworker contagion – Morrison, 2006; conscientiousness – Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012) as well as the proposed impact of the components of core self-evaluations. In their model, Vardaman and colleagues (2014) suggest the central importance of individual self-efficacy and organizational climate in creating an environment that will impact pro-social rule breaking as well as the first interactionist perspective of its antecedents, both of which I seek to develop in the current study.

In seeking to extend pro-social rule breaking to the managerial level and to consider the possible subordinate as well as relational consequences, Bryant and colleagues (2010) proposed a model of managerial pro-social rule breaking. Through a bounded rationality perspective (Simon, 1957), the authors suggested that managers who engage in pro-social rule breaking may not be aware of all of the potential consequences of their actions. As such, managerial pro-social rule breaking is proposed to lead to reduced perceptions of organizational justice and attributions of management as well as increased perceptions of psychological contract violations. These attitudes, in turn, will result in reduced perceptions of organizational support, job satisfaction, and mistrust in management. While a conceptual model that needs to be empirically tested, there are important implications to pro-social rule breaking. Although Morrison (2006) found that pro-social rule breaking can have a contagious effect on an employee's coworkers, the model proposed by Bryant et al. (2010) is the first to suggest implications across the organizational levels (i.e. supervisor behaviors and subordinate implications). Also this is the first model to suggest negative outcomes or a dark side to the positive deviance of pro-social rule breaking. I hypothesize and examine such

potential negative outcomes while also adapting several of the variables in their proposed model (i.e., perceptions of organizational justice, psychological contract violations, and job satisfaction).

Parks, Ma, and Gallagher (2010) introduced a new construct which they called organizational expedience and defined it as "workers' behaviors that (1) are intended to fulfill organizationally prescribed or sanctioned objectives but that (2) knowingly involve breaking, bending, or stretching organizational rules, directives, or organizationally sanctioned norms" (p. 703). Therefore, the authors note important distinctions between organizational expedience and related behaviors including pro-social rule breaking such that pro-social rule breaking is focused on the intentions of the employee and the target is the organization or stakeholders while organizational expedience is focused on the actions and the target is the organizational rules and norms.

However, in their development of the new construct, they use the four most frequently considered perspectives of constructive deviance to create a conceptual model of the antecedents of rule-breaking behaviors, which they note includes organizational expedience as well as pro-social rule breaking. Specifically, they merge the prior proposed and supported findings from a trait-based approach (e.g., Dalal, 2005; Hershcovis et al., 2007), social exchange (e.g., Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993; Sacket & DeVore, 2001), social learning (e.g., Salin, 2003; Zey-Ferrell, Weaver, & Ferrell, 1979); and frustration-aggression (e.g., Berkowitz, 1989; Hulin & Judge, 2003; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). These antecedents, then, were compartmentalized into four categories – attitudes/perceptions, context/job factors, traits and demographics, and

states. Central to the current study, Parks, Ma, and Gallagher's (2010) model includes organizational justice, the behavior of leaders, organizational climate, as well as the personality dimension of openness to experience as suggested antecedents of rule breaking behaviors.

In a similar fashion, while recognizing a need to reconcile several of the divergent constructs that comprise the larger constructive deviance construct, Vadera, Pratt, and Pooja (2013) performed a thorough review of the literature and created an integrative framework of the factors predicting constructive deviance, under which pro-social rule breaking was specifically noted. In their skeletal framework, the authors suggest that three mechanisms drive the effect of the more distal antecedents on constructive deviance – intrinsic motivation, felt obligation, and psychological empowerment. In doing so, they suggest several antecedents that are central to the current study (i.e., leader-member exchange, organizational climate, organizational justice, self-efficacy, and proactive personality). Likewise, they noted that leader behaviors may prevent constructive deviance, an additional possibility that I explore.

Griffin and Lopez (2005), in their review of bad behaviors at work noted some key shortcomings to the research on workplace deviance. In which, they agreed with prior assertions (O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996; Robinson & Bennett, 1997) that while much attention has focused on the direct antecedents of deviance, the examination of the mediating mechanisms and moderating boundary conditions was sparse. Further, the authors noted that much attention has been given to the deviant behaviors without considering the intentionality behind the actions. This is especially problematic given the advances in deviance and related fields (e.g., ethics) that

recognize behaviors that are deviant or unethical but are intended to be helpful (e.g., constructive deviance – Warren, 2003; pro-social rule breaking, Morrison, 2006; unethical pro-organizational behavior – Umphress & Bingham, 2011; Umphress, Bingham, & Mitchell, 2010). Therefore, what may appear on the surface as detrimental may actually be done with beneficial intentions (Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008; Griffin & Lopez, 2005). I seek to provide the first hypothesized and empirically examined relationships that are not the direct effects of individual antecedents or outcomes and also expand the rigor of the analyses to include such mediators and moderators as Griffin and Lopez (2005) have suggested.

Constructs Related to Pro-social Rule Breaking

Several constructs have been developed that are related to pro-social rule breaking in one way or another. However, while similarities exist, suggesting that key antecedents and outcomes of the constructs may overlap, pro-social rule breaking has been found to be distinct from all constructs that it has been directly compared to (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012; Morrison, 2006). Further, important differences exist between the constructs. These differences are primarily based in one of a handful of areas.

First, the intentions of the behaviors are frequently different. As noted above, for example, destructive deviance is performed with the intent of harming the organization or its stakeholders while pro-social rule breaking is performed to help the same parties. Second, what is being deviated from is unique such that pro-social rule breaking focuses only on the violation of explicit organizational rules while constructs such as organizational misbehavior focus on norms, unethical pro-organizational behavior focus

on ethical codes and guidelines, and corporate crime or corruption focus on laws and statutes. Further still other constructs such as role innovation, exercising voice, and issue selling do not require any deviance at all but may produce similar outcomes. Third, pro-social rule breaking is limited to only the actions of employees of an organization while behaviors such as whistle-blowing can also be performed by people outside of the organization.

Fourth, pro-social rule breaking behaviors are intended to be helpful without negative externalities to other parties whereas constructs such as detrimental citizenship behavior and organizational-gain behaviors are performed to benefit the organization at the expense of another party. Alternatively, constructs such as noncompliant behaviors have the opposite effect and may be beneficial to a stakeholder while intentionally and negatively impacting the organization. Fifth, in order for the behaviors to be considered as pro-social rule breaking, they must be voluntarily and intentionally performed. This is in contrast to actions such as necessary evils which are required of the employee. Finally, pro-social rule breaking is focused on the intentions behind the behaviors while constructs such as organizational expedience focus on the actions themselves. In Table 2 I present the related constructs to pro-social rule breaking, their definitions, as well as primary ways in which they are different.

Table 2 - Constructs Related to yet Distinct from Pro-social Rule Breaking

Construct	Definition	Differences
Pro-social rule breaking	any instance when an employee intentionally violates a formal organizational policy, regulation, or prohibition with the primary intention of promoting the welfare of the organization or one of its stakeholders (Morrison, 2006)	
Bad behavior	"any form of intentional behavior that is potentially injurious to the organization and/or to individuals within the organization" (Griffin & Lopez, 2005, p. 988)	Conceptualized as negative behaviors and in line with traditional concepts such that it includes deviance, aggression, antisocial behavior, violence, dysfunctional behavior, abuse, incivility, and misbehavior
Constructive deviance	"behavior that deviates from the reference group norms but conforms to hypernorms" (Warren, 2003, p. 628)	Is the larger construct under which pro-social rule breaking lies but focuses on the violation of norms instead of rules
Corporate crime and corruption		
Counterproductive work behavior	"volitional acts that harm or are intended to hard organizations or people in organizations" (Spector & Fox, 2005, p. 151)	Is a larger, umbrella construct, the focuses that focuses on negative or harmful intentions instead of positive or beneficial intentions
Counter-role behavior	"neither a formal job description nor management's likely conception of the ideal employee…included under the rubric of counter-role behavior would be forms of deviance and dissent, ranging from vocal protests over the way a role is performed to the more quiet changes that people may introduce to revise or redirect their work roles" (Staw & Boettger, 1990, p. 535)	Can be self-interested and intended for harm

Construct	Definition	Differences
Courageous principled action	"when people must draw upon their intuitive, emotional, interpersonal, and cognitive resources in order to undertake actions in line with the highest goals of the organization but not of the accepted routine or status quo" (Worline & Quinn, 2003, p. 145)	Does not specify that rules must be broken or that the behaviors are done to benefit others
Detrimental citizenship behavior	"discretionary employee behavior that goes beyond reason and necessity to promote specific organizational goals and, in so doing, harms legitimate stakeholder interests. (Pierce & Aguinis, 2015, p. 71)	Places the goals of the organization above the welfare of others. The authors noted that constructive deviance does not fall within DCB but destructive deviance and destructive conformity do
Dysfunctional behavior	"motivated behavior by an employee or group of employees that is intended to have negative consequences for another individual and/or group, and/or the organization itself" (Griffin & Lopez, 2005, p. 1000)	Based on negative intentionality, in contrast to the positive intentions of pro-social rule breaking
Extra-role behavior	"behavior that is discretionary and which goes beyond existing role expectations" (Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995, p. 218)	While pro-social rule breaking falls under extra-role behaviors, they can also include behaviors that do not violate the rule as well as those done for self-interested reasons
Issue selling	"voluntary behaviors which organizational members use to influence the organizational agenda by getting those above them to pay attention to an issue" (Dutton & Ashford, 1993, p. 398)	May not violate the organization's rules, could be self-focused, and may be harmful to stakeholders
Necessary evils	"an individual must…perform an act that causes emotional or physical harm to another human being in the service of achieving perceived greater good or purpose" (Molinsky & Margolis, 2005, p. 247)	Non-voluntary behaviors that do not break organizational rules and are not intended to benefit others

Construct	Definition	Differences
Noncompliant behavior	"nontask behaviors that have negative organizational implications (e.g., those that present a negative image of the organization)" (Puffer, 1987, p. 615)	Counter to the beneficial intentions of pro-social rule breaking
Organizational expedience	"workers' behaviors that (1) are intended to fulfill organizationally prescribed or sanctioned objectives but that (2) knowingly involve breaking, bending, or stretching rules, directives, or organizationally sanctioned norms" (Parks, Ma, & Gallagher, 2010, p. 703)	According to the authors, the intentions are neutral. Also, can be achieved by simply bending or stretching the rules rather than breaking them. Also applies to norms which pro-social rule breaking does not
Organizational misbehavior	"any intentional action by members of organizations that defies and violates (a) shared organizational norms and expectations and/or (b) core societal values, more and standards of proper conduct" (Vardi & Weiner, 1996, p. 153)	Combines organizational norms and societal ethical standards instead of rules. Can be used for intended self-interests
Organizational retaliation behavior	"adverse reactions to perceived unfairness by disgruntled employees toward their employer" (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997, p. 434)	Is intended to harm in order to strike a balance. May or may not include violating the rules and is targeted at only the organization
Organization-gain issues	"the organization benefits while others outside the organization (e.g., customers, capital provides) are harmed" (Cullinan et al., 2008, p. 226)	In focused on benefitting the organization at the expense of others while pro-social rule breaking seeks to benefit both
Positive deviance	"intentional behaviors that depart from the norms of a referent group in honorable ways" (Spretizer & Sonenshein, 2003, p. 209)	Much like constructive deviance and is concerned with the violation of norms and not rules
Principled organizational dissent	the effort by individuals in the workplace to protest and/or change the organizational status quo because of their conscientious objection to current policy or practice…which violates [a] standard of justice, honesty, or economy (Graham, 1986)	Pro-social rule breaking does not require a conscientious objection based on justice, honesty, or economy, but rather could be driven through empathy or innovation

Construct	Definition	Differences
Productive nonconformity	"individual behavior that, when viewed over time, is in both an observed statistical and an inferred psychological sense independent of the prevailing social norms. Second, productive nonconformity also can be shown to make a positive and significant contribution to either the task accomplishment of a given group, organization, or society, or the task accomplishment of an individual in a particular social setting" (Pepinsky, 1960, p. 81)	Is focused on norms rather than rules and suggests that the individuals are independent of the norms while employees in pro-social rule breaking are cognizant of the rules but break them
Propensity to withhold effort	"the likelihood that an individual will give less than full effort on a job-related task" (Kidwell & Bennett, 1993 p. 429-430)	In contrast, employees engaging in pro-social rule breaking actually give more effort by enacting these proactive and discretionary behaviors
Role extension	"utilizing acquired behaviors from one role in a different role situation" (West, 1987, p. 83)	Focuses on carrying behaviors across roles, which is not required in pro-social rule breaking
Role innovation	"the introduction of significant new behaviors into a pre-existing role" (West, 1987, p. 83)	New behaviors may not violate the organizational rules
Tempered radicalism	"individuals who identify with and are committed to their organizations, and are also committed to a cause, community, or ideology that is fundamentally different from, and possibly at odds with the dominant culture of their organization" (Meyerson & Scully, 1995, p. 586)	Employees engaging in pro-social rule breaking do not need to identify with either their organization or a separate cause, they may not experience such cognitive dissonance, but they engage in actions that violate the rules
Unethical pro-organizational behavior	"actions that are intended to promote the effective functioning of the organization and its members (e.g., leaders) and violate core societal values, mores, laws, or standards of proper conduct" (Umphress & Bingham, 2011, p. 622)	The organizational rules are not being violated but rather ethical standards are in order to benefit the organization

Construct	Definition	Differences
Voice	"promotive behavior that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize" (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998, p. 109)	Can be beneficial and not violate the organizational rules
Whistle-blowing	"the disclosure by organization members (former or current) of illegal, immoral or illegitimate practices under the control of their employers, to persons or organizations that may be able to effect action" (Near & Miceli, 1985, p. 4)	Can be performed by people outside of the organization, is at the expense of the organization, and is done to benefit society - not one of the three primary groups for pro-social rule breaking
Workplace deviance	"voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556)	Focuses on norms instead or rules and threatens the well-being of the organization or its stakeholders instead of seeking to benefit them

Before advancing to the theoretical framework and development of the hypotheses for my primary study, I next discuss the development and results of a brief pilot study that was conducted with the primary intentions of replicating and extending the foundational work by Morrison (2006) in pro-social rule breaking. Additionally, the development of exemplar narratives of such behaviors were collected as well as open-ended responses in order to guide the development of my primary study.

Pilot Study

Prior to beginning the primary study, I conducted a short pilot study in which I collected demographic information and asked a series of open-ended questions. In doing so, I sought to replicate and extend the efforts made by Morrison (2006) in her initial conceptualization of pro-social rule breaking behaviors. Specifically, I undertook this pilot study in order to determine to what extent a different sample could recall pro-

social rule breaking experiences, whether these behaviors fall into the three categories that have been suggested, as well as the intentionality and outcomes of such behaviors. Morrison (2006) noted that, when asked to provide an example of engaging in workplace deviance, 60% of the narratives were prosocial in nature and 79% (19/24) of the respondents provided at least one example of such behaviors. In her second study, the respondents were asked only for examples of pro-social rule breaking, as derived from the results of the first study. The results indicated that 64% (51/80) of the respondents could provide an example of pro-social rule breaking. Therefore I seek to determine whether the frequency of such behaviors is relatively consistent across studies with various samples.

Next, Morrison (2006) developed the three categories of pro-social rule breaking after the first in her series of studies by conducting open-ended phone interviews with 24 people, 3 of whom could not think of a time that they had broken a rule for either self-serving or other-serving intentions. These 21 individuals provided 40 examples which were then independently rated first as self-focused or other-focused and then the other-focused examples were put into subcategories by two graduate students and confirmed by a third. This process led to the development of pro-social rule breaking behavior as intending to assist customers and coworkers as well as to increase organizational efficiency. For the second study, only these three categories were included and, ever since, the construct has been measured using the three categories. Dahling and colleagues (2012) subsequently developed the General Pro-Social Rule Breaking Scale based on this conceptualization and included within the scale three subscales for the three dimensions of pro-social rule breaking. Therefore, it is important

to explore whether a separate sample also provides support for these three dimensions or if others should be considered. Likewise, it is important to determine the frequency of each of the three dimensions to ensure that the construct is not actually driven by a unidimensional component such that one dimension dominates the other two.

To collect the necessary responses, MBA students were invited to participate in the study in exchange for extra credit. A total of 103 students agreed to participate. The average age of the respondents was 24.85, 59% were male, and 64% were Caucasian, 27% Asian, 5% African-American, 3% Hispanic, and 2% American Indian. As my study is focused on the impact of pro-social rule breaking within the organizational setting, I included a qualifier question regarding work experience. Those respondents that indicated that they had no work experience were sent a separate survey that included a battery of personality tests. Thirteen of the respondents were therefore eliminated due to no work experience. The remaining 90 respondents had approximately 7.01 years of working experience in 3.78 jobs.

The respondents were then asked a series of questions regarding the frequency in which they engage in various deviant behaviors and their subsequent outcomes. All questions were measured using a five-point Likert-style scale with anchors 1 = Never; 5 = Often. The first question asked "How frequently do you engage in deviant behavior at work? If you are not currently employed, how frequently did you engage in these behaviors in your past job?" Second, I asked "To what extent have you engaged in deviant behaviors seeking to benefit a coworker, customer, or your organization?" Third I asked "To what extent have you engaged in deviant behavior for self-serving purposes?" The fourth and fifth questions read, "To what extent have your deviant

behaviors resulted in negative (positive) outcomes for yourself?" Finally the sixth and seventh questions stated, "To what extent have your deviant behaviors resulted in negative (positive) outcomes for your customers, coworkers, or organization?" The results from these questions are shown in Table 3 and indicate the well-established low base-rate when measuring deviance (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998; Slora, 1989).

Table 3 - Frequency of Deviant Behaviors and Outcomes in Pilot Study

	M	SD	Quartiles		
			25th	50th	75th
Deviant behaviors					
Total deviance	2.12	0.97	1	2	3
Prosocial deviance	2.14	0.99	1	2	3
Self-focused deviance	1.94	0.81	1	2	2
Outcomes of deviance					
Negative for self	1.79	0.91	1	2	3
Positive for self	2.37	1.30	1	2	2
Negative for others	1.81	0.99	1	2	4
Positive for others	2.46	1.30	1	1.5	2

N = 90

Additionally, while attempts were made to help ensure anonymity of responses by collecting the responses from students in classes that I was not responsible for, an identifier was required in order to provide the promised extra credit that may have increased the social desirability of the responses. Nevertheless, an examination of the frequency statistics reveals that the respondents noted that they more frequently engage in prosocial deviant behaviors rather than self-serving versions and that their deviance is more likely to be beneficial for themselves as well as their organization or stakeholders. Further, t-tests of the means reveal that there are significant differences between the performance of other-focused versus self-focused ($t = 2.38$ (89), $p = .02$), as well as the beneficial versus detrimental outcomes for the employee ($t = 4.25$ (89), $p < .001$), and for the organization or its stakeholders ($t = 4.25$ (89), $p < .001$). These statistical differences all suggest increased performance of prosocial deviance and beneficial outcomes.

In the second section of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked a serious of open-ended questions surrounding a critical incident of pro-social rule breaking

behavior. Specifically, they were asked to describe (1) the behavior and the context it took place in, (2) the intentions behind the action, (3) the outcomes of the action, and (4) how they were treated afterward by their organization, coworkers, and customers. These responses were then coded by two trained coders based on the behaviors as well as the intentionality described to determine whether they fit within Morrison's typology. The coders reached agreement for 97% of the responses (87/90) and easily reached agreement on the other three after a brief discussion. The results supported Morrison's tri-dimensional conceptualization of the construct such that all responses fell within the categories of seeking to increase organizational efficiency or assisting a coworker or customer. From the 90 examples of pro-social rule breaking, 36 (40%) were deemed to have been performed to increase organizational efficiency, 28 (31%) to aid a coworker, and 26 (29%) to assist a customer. Therefore, I not only found support for the three dimensions of pro-social rule breaking but also that the construct is not dominated by one dimension overshadowing the other two. Exemplar examples of pro-social rule breaking from each of the three dimensions are included in Table 4.

Table 4 - Exemplar Narratives of Pro-social Rule Breaking

Dimension	Descriptions
Organizational efficiency	*I was working long hours and rarely took any breaks. My work started to get sloppy and slow so I knew I needed to take more breaks. By taking more breaks, it helped me get more energy so I could concentrate more on my work.* *Lying about hours worked or specifically allocating hours worked to tasks that were not worked on so that the budget would balance in the end for each project. This helped financial support balance get a better review and help co-workers accomplish their goals.* *A manager in my dad's restaurant will give out free food although the company policy forbids giving away food. The manager is hoping that he can bring my dad's restaurant more reputation and fame. Other employees started doing the same thing or even worse like taking products home for themselves. The manager got rewarded but would have to pay for the free products he gave out. Those employees who do not have the authority to do so got punished and some got dismissed.* *I went against my boss's orders and did the task my way instead of his because I could tell that his way would fall apart in the future. I did it my way and my boss ended up loving it.*
Coworker aid	*I let a co-worker leave early to allow them to have more time with family since they worked two jobs.* *Cooks would help out other staff members by giving them free food on long shits, even though the cooks were instructed not to do so. It heightened cohesion between the cooks and other staff members because the staff members appreciated the cooks making free meals.* *Rating employees higher than they deserved to get them pay increases and to help them out when they were going through tough times in their personal lives.*

Dimension	Descriptions
Customer assistance	*I was working in an electronics store and was told that I wasn't able to provide any technical assistance or advice because we charged customers extra for such information. However, I had a customer who had made several large purchases from me who had some basic installation questions. I quietly provided the answers to his questions in order to provide better customer service rather than make him feel like he was getting nickel and dimed. The customer commended me and appreciated what I did. He wanted to report my help to my boss so I would receive organizational recognition, but I asked him not to or else it would have actually gotten me in trouble.* *I gave a card member only sale to a person who was not a card member to demonstrate to that it does payoff to be a card member. The customer become a card member.* *I accepted a coupon that was expired. She had been living out of the country and came in to use the coupon right after she got back. She was doing mission work, and I thought she deserved the coupon. The customer was very excited but my manager was annoyed.* *When working at a wholesale, hardware supply store at times I would break quantity on a package of bolts/nuts/etc. to supply a walk-in customer with the exact (typically small) quantity they desired. Some of the customers returned, but they expected this policy to continue with all purchases. When their desired quantity was close to an actual stock, package quantity I would not break the package for them. Some were reasonable and accepted this while others were not.* *I'm a bartender and I closed out a regular customers tab to house account because their credit card was declined and I could tell they were very embarrassed. I was trying to help this person avoid the embarrassment of having to borrow money from his friends because they already give him a hard time for not having a lot of money. This behavior took away profit for that actual day but the customer came back the following day to pay the bar what they owed as well as an additional amount for my helping them out.*

Role Identity Theory

"I, who for the time have staked my all on being a psychologist, am mortified if others know much more psychology than I. But I am contented to wallow in the grossest ignorance of Greek. My deficiencies there give me no sense of personal humiliation at all. Had I 'pretensions' to be a linguist, it would have been just the reverse." James (1890, p. 309)

Work in role identities traces its lineage to the work of George Herbert Mead (1934, 1938, 1964) and other symbolic interactionists into what Stryker (1980) terms structural symbolic interactionism with the aim of understanding how social structures affect the self and how the self affects social behaviors (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Role identity theory (Burke, 1991; Burke & Tully, 1977; Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Burke, 2000), a microsociological theory, provides a lens to consider, explain, describe, and predict pro-social rule breaking in organizations as well as its antecedents and outcomes. It does so by seeking to explain role-related behaviors (Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995) as role identities "by definition, require action" (Callero, 1985, p. 205). Roles are sets of expectations by others regarding behaviors that are deemed appropriate (Calero, 1994; Simon, 1992) and have a rich history in the sociological literature of explaining self-society relationships (e.g., Sarbin, 1952; Piliavin, Grube, & Callero, 2002).

When an employee internalizes a role and adopts it as a component of the self, then an identity or role identity is created (McCall & Simmons, 1978; Piliavin, Grube, & Callero, 2002). Role identities are internal views of how an employee views him or herself within a certain role (Farmer, Tierney, & Kung-Mcintyre, 2003; Stryker, 1980). Through these self-views, an employee develops expectations regarding the types of behaviors that he or she believes are important and appropriate within the role (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Critical to role identities, then, is that they motivate employees to engage in behaviors that enact the roles in order to create self-verification (Markus & Wurf, 1987; Rosenberg, 1981) as well as identification and categorization by others (Burke,

1991). In this way, then, role identities are created and maintained through engaging in behaviors that are consistent with the role (McCall & Simmons, 1978) such that internal and external verification will enhance the role identity.

However, employees can have multiple identities (e.g., family identity, creative identity, diligent employee identity) for multiple roles. Social psychologists frequently suggest that an individual can have as many selves or identities as people or groups whom he or she interacts (Burke, 1980; Stryker, 1968, 1980; Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Wiley, 1991). Indeed, it has long been recognized that individuals hold multiple positions in multiple sets of social relationships and engage in diverse roles in accordance with those positions (Linton, 1936; Merton, 1957; Parsons, 1949). At a fundamental level, through role compartmentalization, an employee can behave in ways that are in agreement with separate and distinct roles for different situations by modifying the behaviors to reflect each role within the appropriate context.

Because different roles require different behaviors and since employees hold multiple roles, then such roles can conflict which causes dissonance between the corresponding identities (Gross, McEachern, & Mason, 1958; Hill, 1949; Stryker & Statham, 1985). Indeed, even similar role identities such as serving as a volunteer for many organizations versus serving as a volunteer for only one organization can conflict (Grube & Piliavin, 2000). For example, when a parent that was planning to attend a child's sporting event after work is requested to stay late to complete an important project, the identities as a parent and diligent work may conflict. The decision on the appropriate reaction has been suggested to stem from role salience. Role salience is the readiness to engage in behaviors that support an identity as a consequence of the

cognitive schema (Stryker, 1980). Therefore, role salience has been found to be related to the amount of discretionary time devoted to roles (Serpe & Stryker, 1993; Stryker & Serpe, 1982) as well as the activities within roles (Nuttbrock & Freudiger, 1991; Serpe, 1987; Serpe & Stryker, 1987).

As such, maintaining a diligent worker role identity may require an employee to be conscientious of his or her surroundings, helpful to coworkers, and polite to customers yet the employee may act entirely different outside of the office due to role compartmentalization. However, while initially role specific, over time such role identities can influence behaviors outside of the set roles through role embracement such that more salient role identities become more internalized and, as a result, the behaviors that reinforce the role identity may be displayed outside of the role leading to a role-person merger (Turner, 1978). When such a role-person merger exists, the following will be the result, (1) the employee will continue to behave in accordance with the role even when the role no longer applies, (2) the employee will maintain the role identity even when there are viable alternatives, and (3) the employee will acquire attitudes and beliefs that are in agreement with the role (Turner, 1978). In this case, an employee with a diligent worker role identity will not only maintain the behaviors described above, but may also engage in more discretionary prosocial behaviors, serve as an ambassador to his or her organization, and spend time away from work thinking of innovative ways to benefit the organization or keeping up with related news.

In order to determine the appropriate behaviors and to reassemble the multiple selves into an organized structure, the multiple identities are internalized within an identity hierarchy (McCall & Simmons, 1966). At the top of the identity hierarchy are

the role identities that are the most central or salient and therefore most likely to be enacted (McCall & Simmons, 1966; Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Serpe, 1994). The individual actor then "selectively perceives those social objects that are most relevant to currently salient roles; as he drives down the street, a hungry man is most likely to perceive an EAT or CAFÉ sign, and a man with a headache is most likely to perceive a DRUGS sign. A burglar appraises the same downtown street rather differently." (McCall & Simmons, 1978, p. 106-107). Therefore, in the example above, if the parent identity is higher in the employee's identity hierarchy, and therefore more salient, then he or she will forego staying late in order to attend the child's event. Alternatively, if the diligent worker identity is more salient, then missing the child's event will be the likely consequence. In this way, role identity salience has important implications for self-definition, social relations, and employee behavior (Callero, 1985). While the person can be thought of as a collection of roles and how well they are played, Turner (1978) described the person as "the roles that are still played when not called for and that color the way in which other roles are played" (p. 2).

Role identity theory is inherently an interactionist theory (Blumer, 1969; Burke & Tully, 1977; Farmer, Tierney, & Kung-McIntyre, 2003; Mead, 1934). While the identity has been suggested to be mostly an internalized view of one's self, the role is external (Burke & Tully, 1977; Stryker & Burke, 2000). Further, role identities can be either altered or reinforced through internal as well as external cues. A role identity, then, is created and reinforced through two forces – feedback from others and self-views which are reconciled to provide validity for the identity (Riley & Burke, 1995). Further, inherent in the construction of identities is the importance of retrospective

sensemaking (Weick, 1995) such that the focal employee will consider relevant information and stimuli when determining whether or not he or she internalizes a role. According to cognitive neuroscience researchers, by engaging in the decision-making process, humans are constantly searching for and structuring information or stimuli (Reynolds, 2006). The stimuli is categorized into schemata and can provide a prototype or internal identity standard of which to compare actual behaviors and develop a role identity over time (Farmer, Tierney, & Kung-McIntyre, 2003; Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Stryker, 1987).

These prototypes and their subsequent role identities allow for reflexive decision making such that an employee will enact behaviors that are in alignment with his or her role identity without having to consciously think about it (Chen & Bargh, 1999). Therefore, prior experiences in empowerment positions, successfully managing empowerment roles, and receiving positive feedback on empowered tasks should strengthen an employee's empowerment role identity. In this way, role identity theorists relate to other symbolic interactionists (e.g., Cooley, 1902; Mead, 1934) by conceptualizing the self as comprised of a collection of identities, however these identities are experienced through the interactions with others (Stryker, 1968). Burke and Tully (1977) refer to this process as "the meanings a person attributes to the self as an object in a social situation or social role" (p. 883).

Identities, however, are not constant and are processes that are continuously reconfirmed or disconfirmed based on an ongoing feedback loop (Burke, 1991). Burke (1991) outlined the four components of the feedback loop in identity research. First is the standard. The standard serves as a set of self-meanings of the internalization of the

identity. Next is the input which is feedback from the environment, relevant others, and internal self-reflections. Then a process is enacted that compares the standard with the input to determine how closely the exemplar behaviors of the standard are actually enacted through the input. Finally, the output consists of the behaviors in agreement with the identity. Therefore, the components work together such that the output, or behaviors, are modified in an attempt to align the input with the standard, thereby seeking to hold the input constant. While the feedback loop usually helps to reconfirm an identity through the alteration of outputs, which then produces future inputs that are more closely in line with the standard (Swann & Hill, 1982), incongruence can also exist between the standard and input. When the standard and input are not in agreement, Zanna and Cooper (1976) argued that the employee will feel distressed, which only increases the incongruence.

Within their examination of volunteer identities, Grube and Piliavin (2000) found conflicting identities for volunteers within the American Cancer Society (ACS). Specifically, to hold a general volunteer identity, it was expected that individuals would donate much of their time and services to several organizations however to hold an ACS volunteer identity, they were expected to donate much of their time and services to the American Cancer Society. With time and energy as scarce resources, these identities become in conflict and the authors found that volunteers with more central or salient ACS volunteer identities donated fewer hours to other organizations.

Piliavin, Grube and Callero's (2002) conceptualization of role as a resource followes these findings by theorizing principled organization dissent through role identity theory. Principled organizational dissent is defined as "the effort by individuals

in the workplace to protest and/or to change the organizational status quo because of their conscientious objection to current policy or practice…which violates [a] standard of justice, honesty, or economy" (Graham, 1986, p. 1). Piliavin and colleagues (2002) use principled organizational dissent as an umbrella construct to include behaviors such as protests, whistle-blowing, advocacy, and radical democracy – behaviors that have also been suggested to fall within constructive deviance (Warren, 2003) and organizational bad behaviors (Griffin & Lopez, 2005). The authors suggest that when the organization violates the values associated with a general role identity that is more salient than a specific role identity, then an employee will be more likely to engage in principled organizational dissent.

Considering an example of whistle-blowing, if the organization violates the values (e.g., illegal polluting or corporate tax fraud) of a more general role identity such as being a good citizen, environmentalist, or patriot, and this general role identity is more salient than a more specific role identity such as working for the organization, then the employee will be more likely to engage in whistle-blowing activities. In many ways, then, this conceptualization of role as a resource mirrors Warren's (2003) development of the constructive deviance construct such that constructive deviance occurs when a local or organizational norm is in conflict with, and therefore disregarded, in order to abide by a societal hypernorm. Likewise, individuals with more salient specific role identities as members of a work team rather than the larger organization may be able to shield themselves from a cancerous organizational culture through the development of a positive subculture. Alternatively, due to the need to maintain a positive self-image, they may also fail to report errors or problems in their

team. Therefore, roles both limit as well as enable action in both positive and negative ways (Callero, 1994).

Role identity theory has been used to explain behaviors from several roles including those of empowerment (Zhang & Bartol, 2010), creativity (Farmer, Tierney, & Kung-McIntyre, 2003), helping and prosocial behaviors (Callero, Howard, & Piliavin, 1987), social work (Piliavin, Grube, & Callero, 2002), student (Burke & Reitzes, 1981), religious (Stryker & Serpe, 1982), and altruistic giving (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Piliavin & Callero, 1991). Callero, Howard, and Piliavin (1987) drew on Gergen's (Gergen 1984; Gergen & Gergen, 1983a, b) criticism of prior research on helping behaviors, arguing that more emphasis should be placed on the social structural context and the interactive history of the helping relationship such that helping can only be determined within a specific social context and that a positive and supportive history will lead to perceptions of helpful behaviors while a competitive history will produce the opposite perceptions. This conceptualization suggests a temporal and proximal impact of helping behaviors such that what is considered as helping behaviors in one context may not be in another and the ordering of the helping behavior and the prior relationship may alter perceptions of the behaviors as well. As such, while employees engage in pro-social rule breaking behaviors with the intent to benefit others (Morrison, 2006), these actions may or may not be perceived to be helping. From the organization's perspective, a violation of organizational rules may suggest that the behaviors are not perceived as helpful within the social context of the organization while customers and coworkers, having not played a part in creating the rules of the organization, perceive such actions as helpful.

Hypotheses Development

Empowerment Role Identity

> "Nothing can stop the man with the right mental attitude from achieving his goal; nothing on earth can help the man with the wrong mental attitude." – Thomas Jefferson

Empowerment is a motivational construct in which employees seek to craft their work roles and situations (Spreitzer, 1995). In doing so, it provides employees with more authority as well as responsibility for their work (Conger & Kanungo, 1988) and increases their motivation to be adaptive (Forrester, 2000; Spreitzer, 1995; 1996). Spreitzer (1995) defined psychological empowerment as, "intrinsic task motivation manifested in a set of four cognitions reflecting an individual's orientation to his or her work role: competence, impact, meaning, and self-determination" (p.1 443).

Empowerment has been found to be related to several employee-level outcomes including task and contextual performance, satisfaction, commitment, less strain, and reduced turnover intentions (Carless, 2004; Gregory, Albritton, & Osmonbekov, 2010; Seibert, Wang, & Courthright, 2011; Spreitzer, 1995). Additionally, empowerment is related to the ability to increase employee potential (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Employee empowerment can also be beneficial to organizations by increasing effectiveness (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

In general employee empowerment is perceived positively (Maynard, Gilson, & Mathieu, 2012; Spreitzer, 2008). However scholars have also suggested the potential of a dark side to empowerment (Mackey, Frieder, Perrewe, Gallagher, & Brymer, 2015; Maynard, Gilson, & Mathieu, 2012) such that highly empowered employees may seek

to shape their roles at the expense of the organization (Spreitzer, 2008) or their relationships with their supervisors (Spreitzer & Quinn, 1996).

Employees differ in the extent to which they see themselves as psychologically empowered or desiring of such empowerment (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Forrester, 2000). Indeed, researchers have suggested that empowerment is a continuum rather than an absolute or dichotomy (Ford & Fottler, 2005) such that organizational initiatives attempting to increase employee empowerment frequently fail because they approach such interventions with a single strategy rather than accounting for individual differences (Forrester, 2000; Randolph & Sashkin, 2002). Indeed, Hersey and Blanchard (1982) noted that employees should be managed in different ways and research findings suggest that leaders seek to empower their employees to different degrees (Forrester, 2000; Yukl & Fu, 1999). As such, the research in employee empowerment has shifted from an organization-wide approach to dyadic relationships between a leader and an employee (e.g., Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow, & Lawler, 2000). Therefore, individual differences must be considered in the empowerment processes (Menon, 2001).

Researchers have considered empowerment role identity as an explanation for these differences in desiring empowerment such that employees' empowerment role identities have been found to be a key factor in whether or not empowerment initiatives in organizations are successful (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Empowerment role identity has been conceptualized as the extent to which an individual wants to be empowered in a certain role and views him or herself accordingly (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). While employees with salient empowerment role identities feel capable of performing well in

empowering roles, Forrester (2000) suggested that other employees may not want or feel capable of being empowered, such that empowerment is viewed negatively.

However, employees that view being empowered positively will crave opportunities for self-control, working autonomously, and having an influence in decision making (Kirkman & Shapiro, 1997; Zhang & Bartol, 2010) because such behaviors are perceived to align with their internalized role identities (Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Burke, 2000). Therefore, an underlying mechanism that dives the success of employee empowerment is self-determination which increases employee interest and motivation (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989; Spector, 1986; Spreitzer, 1995).

Zhang and Bartol (2010) found that empowerment role identity moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment such that for employees with salient empowerment role identities, empowering leadership was successful in positively influencing their psychological empowerment, which in turn increased the creative process and subsequent employee creativity. Further, Ahearne and colleagues (2005) used a similar measure called employee empowerment readiness to determine how such readiness in sales representatives is able to impact the effect of leader empowerment on customer satisfaction and performance. Kirkman and Shapiro (2001) examined a countermeasure, employee's resistance to empowerment, and found it to be negatively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Likewise, Maynard, Mathieu, Marsh, and Ruddy (2007) also found resistance to empowerment to be negatively related to job satisfaction.

Several researchers have suggested a positive relationship between employee empowerment and the enactment of discretionary as well as prosocial behaviors (e.g.,

Alge, Ballinger, Tangirala, & Oakley, 2006; Morris, 1996; Wat & Shaffer, 2003). Morris (1996) noted that empowered employees will engage in more discretionary behavior because they have greater opportunities to do so. Alge and colleagues (2006) suggested that empowered employees are less constrained with routinized tasks and therefore are free to assist others. Finally, Wat and Schaffer (2003) stated that employees who perceive meaning, one of Spreitzer's (1995) four underlying cognitions of psychological empowerment, in their work will reciprocate such positive feelings through the performance of prosocial behaviors.

An employee's empowerment role identity is an important individual difference factor that will likely influence the engagement in pro-social rule breaking. Employees with salient empowerment role identities desire opportunities to meaningfully impact their organizations and work environments. In this way, they will seek to take matters into their own hands and to make more autonomous decisions. Further, according to role identity theory, employees with such salient role identities constantly seek to reaffirm their role identities through subsequent behaviors (Callero, 1985). Therefore, by engaging in the behaviors that are related to empowerment, behaviors that have been suggested to be both proactive as well as prosocial (e.g., Alge, Ballinger, Tangirala, & Oakley, 2006; Morris, 1996; Wat & Shaffer, 2003), these employees will seek out ways to engage in helpful discretionary behaviors. Such behaviors are in line with Morrison's (2006) definition of pro-social rule breaking and therefore I posit the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 1:* Empowerment role identity positively relates to pro-social rule breaking such that when employees hold central to their identities the ability to

make decisions and craft their jobs through adaptive behaviors, they will be more likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking.

Perceptions of Organizational Politics

> "One of the penalties for refusing to participate in politics is that you end up being governed by your inferiors." – Plato

Politics is a pervasive force (Nye & Witt, 1993) and a common place in almost every organization (Frost 1987; Harris, 2004; Kumar & Ghadially, 1989; Porter, Allen, & Angle, 1981). So much so that Robbins (1983) stated that all organizational behavior is inherently political and Ferris and Kacmar (1992) declared that it "is simply a fact of life" (p.93). Due to this frequency, Mintzberg (1985) has described the organizational setting as a political arena and several scholars have noted the need to further examine political behaviors as well as their antecedents and outcomes (e.g., Baum, 1989; Ferris, Fedor, Chachere, & Pondy, 1989; Mintzberg, 1983). However, organizational politics, much like deviance, is difficult to study due to the covertness of political behavior and differences in perceptions (Drory & Romm, 1988; Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989; Gandz & Murray, 1980; Kacmar & Ferris, 1991; Pfeffer, 1981).

Recognizing limitations in the rational perspective of organizational decision making, Allison (1979) made distinctions between the rational model in which value maximizing or optimizing is achieved through a set course of action with logical goals and objectives to evaluate alternatives, the organizational process model in which decisions are mostly left to pre-established routines and norms, and the political model in which decisions are made through conflict and power struggles between individuals or collectives concerned with their own self-interests (Drory, 1993). Organizational

politics have been defined as "actions by individuals which are directed toward the goal of furthering their own self-interests without regard for the well-being of others or their organization" (Kacmar & Baron, 1999, p. 4). In agreement with this definition, Drory and Romm (1990) noted that political behavior is not restricted to just individual employees but may also include groups and coalitions. Therefore, such behaviors are meant to influence others (Drory & Romm, 1988) and frequently result in feelings of uncertainty and unfairness (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989; Valle & Witt, 2001).

Researchers that examine organizational politics widely agree with Gandz & Murray (1980) that the construct should be studied through the perceptions of individual employees (e.g., Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Ferris et al., 1996; Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Gandz & Murray, 1980; Kacmar & Carlson, 1997; Kacmar & Ferris, 1991) such that employees who perceive a highly political organizational environment frequently experience negative outcomes. Indeed, employees' perceptions guide their subsequent behaviors (Lewin, 1936), even if such perceptions are heavily distorted (Porter, 1976).

While organizational politics was discussed beforehand, interest in the area was greatly enhanced by the work of Ferris and colleagues in their development of the Model of Organizational Politics Perceptions (Ferris, Russ, and Fandt, 1989) and subsequent measure with revisions (Kacmar & Ferris 1991; Kacmar & Carlson, 1997). In their model, Ferris, Russ, and Fandt (1989) proposed that the perceptions of organizational politics stem from a collection of organizational, personal, and job/work environment factors which influence employee perceptions. In turn, these perceptions impact a collection of outcomes including withdrawal behaviors, satisfaction,

involvement, and anxiety. Subsequent tests found support for several of the proposed relationships (e.g., Fedor, Ferris, Harrell-Cook, & Russ, 1998; Ferris et al., 1996; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Kacmar, Bozeman, Carlson, & Anthony, 1999).

Organizational politics have generally received a negative image in organizational research and have been found to be positively related to turnover and absenteeism and negatively related to commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, and job satisfaction (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Ferris, Brand, Rowland, Gilmore, Kacmar, & Burton, 1993; Ferris, Frink, Galang, Zhou, Kacmar, & Howard, 1996; Ferris & Judge, 1991; Kacmar & Baron, 1999; Nye & Witt, 1993; Witt, 1998). Meta-analytic findings support these relationships (Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009; Miller, Rutherford, & Kolodinsky, 2008). However, researches have also recognized that politics are essential for the functioning of the organization (Fedor, Maslyn, Farmer, Bettenhausen, 2008; Pfeffer, 1981) and can be beneficial to those who learn to play the game (Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Therefore, organizational politics should be considered in a more neutral perspective. This is especially true as some employees may enjoy or desire organizational politics while others loathe such tactics. By measuring organizational politics through employee perceptions, and examining it in light of related constructs, researchers can better assess whether political behaviors are considered favorably or unfavorably.

From their early theorizing, Ferris, Russ, and Fandt (1989) suggested that some employees may respond positively to increased perceptions of organizational politics when they perceive the politics as an opportunity stress (Schuler, 1980). When this happens, the employees will work harder as well as invest more time and effort into

their jobs (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005). While results have been mixed, researchers have found some instances of increased job involvement in the presence of political perceptions (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992).

One way that employees can increase their job involvement is through the enactment of prosocial behaviors. Kacmar and colleagues (1999) recognized the potential relationship between employees' perceptions of organizational politics and their subsequent engagement in both deviant as well as prosocial behaviors to the extent that they specifically called for such a research agenda. Therefore, employees that perceive their organization as highly political such that resources and awards are distributed in ways that favor employees in dominant coalitions rather than through fair or merit-based systems, may seek to gain control over their environment through the enactment of proactive behaviors that are either prosocial or deviant (Bennett, 1998; Tripp & Bies, 2010; Trip, Bies, & Aquino, 2007), or both.

While researchers recognize that organizational politics are not inherently negative, the fundamental conceptualizations, models, and scales all portray such an environment negatively. Additionally, the majority of the findings to date suggest that, on average, employees have negative perceptions of such an environment. However, unlikely behaviors may emerge in such a political environment. While perceptions of organizational politics are positively related to burnout and intentions to quit (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Huang, Chuang, & Lin, 2003), Halbelselben and Bowler (2007) found that employees experiencing emotional exhaustion, a dimension of burnout, engage in discretionary acts to help their coworkers. Indeed, employees may engage in more prosocial behaviors (Kacmar,

Bozeman, Carlson, & Anthony, 1999; Tripp & Bies, 2010) such that even though it may take a toll on the employees, they may still continue to seek to help others and change the political context. Further, a political environment suggests playing a game to succeed and being rewarded for social connections rather than merit or obedience. Therefore, employees may be more likely to engage in not only prosocial or deviant behaviors (Bennett, 1998; Tripp & Bies, 2010; Trip, Bies, & Aquino, 2007), but also prosocially deviant behaviors such that the rules are likely to be more ambiguous and the consequences for not following them are less defined.

Hypothesis 2: Perceptions of organizational politics positively relate to pro-social rule breaking such that employees who perceive that their organization is highly political will not adhere to the rules in seeking to change the organizational environment by engaging in pro-social rule breaking.

Antecedents of Empowerment Role Identity

> "What lies behind you and what lies in front of you pales in comparison to what lies inside of you." – Ralph Waldo Emerson

In order to extend the nomological network of pro-social rule breaking I next suggest possible antecedents to empowerment role identity. In doing so, I consider these variables as distal predictors and having indirect effects on pro-social rule breaking. Further, they also serve as critical influencers in determining the salience of an employee's identity to desire empowerment.

Proactive Personality

> "There are three kinds of people: Those who make things happen, those who watch things happen, and those who ask, "What happened?"" – Casey Stengel.

Personality traits that help an employee adapt to change have been suggested to drive employee success and be a competitive advantage to organizations in the changing and chaotic workplace environment (Fugate, Kiniki, & Ashforth, 2004; Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999). Indeed, arguments have been made that the advantages and success of organizations rely on these proactive behaviors from their employees (Crant, 2000; Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zimpel, 1996; Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006; Parker, 2000; Seiling, 2001). Therefore, it is paramount for employees to engage in such proactive behaviors.

However, attempting to assign such a proactive role does not guarantee that employees will engage in the desired behaviors (Cummings & Anton, 1990; Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006; Seiling, 2001). Therefore, individual differences likely exist that describe what types of employees will engage in proactive behaviors. A proactive personality is just this kind of personality trait and has been described by Bateman and Crant (1993) as "one who is relatively unconstrained by situational forces, and who effects environmental change" (p. 105). Proactive personality has been characterized as a stable and reliable dispositional factor (Bateman & Crant, 1993) as well as the trait component of personal initiative (Rank, Pace, & Frese, 2004).

Proactive personality is positively related to overall performance (Chang, 2006), task performance (Thompson, 2005), and sales performance (Crant, 1995). Additionally, proactive personality has been found to be related to four of the Big Five personality dimensions – conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and openness to experience (Crant & Bateman, 2000; Fuller & Marler, 2009; Major, Turner, & Fletcher, 2006), although Crant (1995) noted that proactive personality explains more variance in

job performance than any of the Big Five personality dimensions. In a recent meta-analysis, Fuller and Marler (2009) found that proactive personality was related to subjective and objective career success and job performance. They also found support for relationships between proactive personality and leader-member exchange, locus of control, self-monitoring, learning goal orientation, and entrepreneurial cognitions.

Employees with such a personality are more likely to search for opportunities as well as show initiative and persistence (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Therefore, employees with proactive personalities are likely to engage in job crafting (Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006; Wrzeskniewski & Dutton, 2001) such that they will actively attempt to shape their work environment through actions that may challenge the status quo and break organizational rules. Crant (2000) described such actions as "taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones" (p. 436). Indeed, proactive employees do not simply play the hand they were dealt (Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran (2010) but rather they change their hand, the rules of the game, or the game itself. Therefore, through job crafting, employees with proactive personalities will seek to remove obstacles that they do not perceive to be beneficial (Erdogan & Bauer, 2005).

In line with role identity theory's focus on symbolic interactionism and how social structures influence identities which influence society (Callero, 1994), proactive personality is also closely related to interactionism such that "situations are as much a function of the person as the person's behavior is a function of the situation" (Bowers, 1973, p. 327). This perspective is also held by social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) such that the person and environment are constantly influencing each other. Seibert and

colleagues (2001) argued that employees with proactive personalities should be more likely to engage in prosocial behaviors for the benefit of others. Proactive personality has been found to be related to other forms of constructive deviance such as whistle-blowing (Miceli, Vanscotter, Near, & Rehg, 2001), and voice (Crant, Kim, & Wang, 2011). Also, several scholars have suggested that proactive personality should be an antecedent of pro-social rule breaking (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012; Morrison, 2006) or related constructs such as positive deviance (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003). However, Dahling and colleagues (2012) as well as Morrison (2006) attempted to find support for employee proactive personality predicting pro-social rule breaking but their results were not significant.

Proactive employees are self-starters. They seek out opportunities and implement them without waiting to be given instruction. Additionally proactive personality is a relatively stable dispositional factor that influences the enactment of employee behaviors, some of which have been found to be prosocial. Therefore, a proactive personality is likely related to empowerment role identity such that employees with proactive personalities desire the chance to impact change and to enact the opportunities that they recognize, which requires a level of empowerment such that they have the control and autonomy to do so.

Hypothesis 3a: Proactive personality positively relates to empowerment role identity such that self-starting employees who look for opportunities will identify with, and desire to be in, empowering positions.

Role Breadth Self-efficacy

"They can because they think they can." – Virgil

Organizations are dependent on employees who are both willing and able to assume broader roles (Buchanan & McCalman, 1989; Crant, 2000; Dean & Snell, 1991; Lawler, 1994; Parker, 1998; Parker, William, & Turner, 2006). Parker (1998) noted that such employees are needed in order to perform prosocial behaviors such are organizational citizenship behaviors (Organ, 1988), contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), proactive behaviors (Bateman & Crant, 1993), intrapraneurship (Hisrish, 1990), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992; Katz, 1964), and personal initiative (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996). However, in order to accomplish such tasks, an employee must be confident in his or her abilities, and therefore must have self-efficacy (Gist & Mitchell, 1992).

Self-efficacy has been defined as the "belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1986, p. 3). In this way, then, it is not about the skills possessed by the employee but rather about his or her judgments regarding what is possible with whatever skills one does have (Bandura, 1986). Employee self-efficacy is related to employee behaviors such that when an employee believes in his or her abilities to complete a task, he or she will be more likely to attempt it (Azjen, 1991; Bandura & Locke, 2003; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Wood & Bandura, 1989). However, self-efficacy is not only related to the enactment of behaviors (Barling & Beattie, 1983), but also the persistence of such behaviors (Bandura, 1997; Gecas, 1989; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Lent, Brown, & Larkin, 1987; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) as well as the ability to cope with change (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Hill, Smith, & Mann, 1987; McDonald & Siegall, 1992). Also, employees

with high levels of belief in their abilities focus on available opportunities rather than the inherent risks (Krueger & Dickson, 1994).

Therefore, self-efficacy is an important tool for employees such that it allows for the confidence needed to perform the role-required behaviors. As opposed to more stable personality traits (e.g., proactive personality, openness to experience), self-efficacy is ever-fluctuating such that performance in a certain task will impact an employee's self-efficacy for that task. As such, self-efficacy is largely drawn from prior experiences performing the same or related tasks and suggests that employees with high levels of self-efficacy for a certain task are more likely to attempt and accomplish the task, which will in turn increase their self-efficacy. Indeed, Wood and Bandura (1989) recognized the likelihood of such a self-fulfilling cycle when they noted that employees "are motivated to exercise fully their personal efficacy, which enhances their likelihood of success. Experiences of success, in turn, provide behavioral validation of personal efficacy" (p. 374). Self-efficacy can be influenced, either positively or negatively, through feedback such as encouragement after successful behaviors (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000; Conger, 1989).

Role breadth self-efficacy has been defined as "the extent to which people feel confident that they are able to carry out a broader and more proactive role, beyond traditional prescribed technical requirements" (Parker, 1998, p. 835). As such, while traditional definitions and explorations into self-efficacy have focused on employee perceptions regarding their abilities on individual tasks or specific task capabilities (Brockner, 1988), researchers of role breadth self-efficacy instead focus on a general belief in one's abilities across a number of tasks (Parker, 1998). Therefore, as compared

with general self-efficacy, role breadth self-efficacy should be more stable and reflect an employee's more universal belief in his or her abilities.

Organizational roles require employees to be proactive and use initiative (e.g., Buchanan & McCalman, 1989; Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996) in order to be self-directed and assume responsibility as well as decision-making authority (Kolodny & Stjernberg, 1986; Parker, 1998; Parker, Mullarky, & Jackson, 1994). Speier and Frese (1997) suggested that highly efficacious employees are more likely to show initiative without the need for encouragement. Support was found such that, as a motivation-related construct, role breadth self-efficacy has been linked to proactive personality (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Parker, 1998), proactive behaviors (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker & Collins, 2010; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006), initiative (Hornung & Rousseau, 2007; Speier & Frese, 1997), and constructive deviance (Galperin, 2012).

Additionally, general self-efficacy have been suggested to predict positive deviance (Spretizer & Sonenshein, 2003) and other proactive behaviors (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006) such that it enables employees to perform such behaviors and overcome the potential risks associated from attempting to change their environment and the consequences thereof (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). Indeed, self-efficacy has been found to be related to several forms of constructive deviance including voice (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Withey & Cooper, 1989), taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), creative performance (Liao, Liu, & Loi, 2010; Tierney & Farmer, 2011), and whistle-blowing (Chiu, 2003). Likewise, as a component of core self-evaluations (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997), self-efficacy has

been suggested to impact an employee's likelihood of engaging in pro-social rule breaking (Vardaman, Gondo, & Allen, 2014).

Several researchers have recognized the fundamental relationship between self-efficacy and empowerment (e.g., Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Leach, Wall, & Jackson, 2003; Maynard, Mathieu, Marsh, & Ruddy, 2007). So much so that Leach and colleagues (2003) stated that the "central aspect of psychological empowerment…namely self-efficacy" (p. 28) (as quoted in Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005, p. 946). Role breadth self-efficacy and empowerment role identities are both based on the impact and evaluation of prior experiences and their subsequent responses (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000; Burke, 1991; Conger, 1989; Farmer, Tierney, & Kung-McIntyre, 2003). In this way, both have been described as self-fulfilling such that prior accomplishments in a role will increase self-efficacy (Wood & Bandura, 1989) as well confirm a role identity (Burke, 1991). Therefore, in order to be effective in empowerment roles and have the desire to do so, an employee must have confidence in his or her abilities in such roles. Employees that do not feel confident in such roles will view empowerment negatively (Forrester, 2000) and therefore avoid empowerment opportunities. As such, I suggest that role breadth self-efficacy is a critical mechanism that drives employees' desire for empowerment opportunities, and therefore enhances their empowerment role identities.

Hypothesis 3b: Role breadth self-efficacy positively relates to empowerment role identity such that employees with high beliefs in their abilities will identify with, and desire to be in, empowering positions.

Openness to Experience

> "People are very open-minded about new things – as long as they're exactly like the old ones." – Charles Kettering

Openness to experience is one of the Big Five personality components (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa & McCrae, 1992). Employees high in openness to experiences have broad interests, are imaginable, and prefer intellectual pursuits (Digman, 1990; Furnham, 2008). Additionally, they can recognize opportunities and possibilities that others cannot (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Further, openness to experience, along with extraversion, comprises what Ones and colleagues (2005) has termed factor beta to represent personality characteristics for getting ahead. Also, Fuller and Marler (2009) found that openness to experience is positively related to proactive personality.

Therefore, openness to experience is frequently considered a positive individual personality trait as well as beneficial for organizations. Yet recognizing opportunities and being imaginable may also result in unexpected consequences. Furnham (2008) described employees that are open to new experiences as not only curious but also less bound by rules. Further, Liao, Joshi, and Chuang (2004) noted that openness to experience should impact an employee's willingness to violate norms at the organizational level and meta-analytic support was found for the impact of openness to experience in predicting counterproductive workplace behaviors (Saldago, 2002). However, research into the impact of personalities on constructive deviance has been inconclusive, which led Vadera, Pratt, and Pooja (2013) to note that their effect is still unclear and warrants additional research.

Ahearne, Mathieu, and Rapp (2003) suggested that an employee's personality, and specifically openness to experience, would likely predispose him or her to welcome empowerment in their study on empowerment readiness, a construct closely related to empowerment role identity. Further, employees with such personalities should desire empowerment in order to be imaginative, adapt to change, and to test new ideas. Since they are less constrained by organizational rules and norms, they will be more likely to break the rules and engage in deviance. In as much, I suggest that employees that are open to new experiences, a relatively stable personality component, will be more likely to hold salient empowerment role identities.

Hypothesis 3c: Openness to experience positively relates to empowerment role identity such that employees that are more imaginative and less constrained will be predisposed to identify with, and desire to be in, empowering positions.

Antecedents of Perceptions of Organizational Politics

"I don't claim to have control of events, but confess plainly that events have control of me." – Abraham Lincoln

As with empowerment role identity, in the following subsections I hypothesize the potential antecedents of perceptions of organizational politics. In doing so, I remain consistent by focusing on organizational or situational factors in order to consider why the organization's environment may lead to pro-social rule breaking. Should the hypotheses be supported, these suggested antecedents of perceptions of organizational politics and distal antecedents of pro-social rule breaking could provide levers in which to impact employees' organizational perceptions and subsequent behaviors.

Climate for Initiative

> "A lot of people never use their initiative because no-one told them to." – Banksy

Organizational and situational factors influence employees' attitudes and behaviors (Trevino, 1986). While proactive behaviors, such as pro-social rule breaking, are partly influenced by individual differences such as personalities (e.g., proactive personality), Parker and colleagues (2010) noted that the organizational environment will likely influence the amount of proactive behaviors as well. Indeed, the organization's climate is known to impact employee behaviors (Turnipseed, 1988) such that a supportive environment in which employees are encouraged and feel safe to try new things should increase proactive behaviors. No single type of work climate exists in organizations but rather examples of organizational climates that have been studied include service, safety, ethics, and innovation (Schneider, 1975; Victor & Cullen, 1988). Further, while a dominant climate is likely in organizations, more than one climate type may exist (Victor & Cullen, 1987).

An organizational climate is the personality of the organization which influences member behaviors (James & Jones, 1974; Spreitzer, 1996) and helps employees to make sense of their organizational experiences as well as shapes expected attitudes and behaviors (Joyce & Slocum, 1984). The organizational climate has traditionally been conceptualized in one of two ways (Glick, 1988; Baer & Frese, 2003). Some have considered it an aggregated psychological climate such that the individual perceptions of how work is valued and appraised are considered (e.g., James, 1982; James, Joyce, & Slocum, 1988; Schneider, 1975). Rather than necessitating a level of individual

agreement for a climate to exist, Glick (Glick, 1985, 1988) suggests that an organization's climate is more objective and representative of organizational-level variables such as interpersonal practices (Schneider, 1985). While I tend to agree with Glick's conceptualization, I am hypothesizing how an individual employee will react to what he or she views as the organization's climate. As such, I am focused on an employee's perceptions rather than an objective reality of the climate.

As an organizational climate is established, it narrows the acceptable workplace behaviors (Feldman & Pentland, 2003; Moran & Volkwein, 1992; Schminke, Arnaud, & Kuenzi, 2007) in much the same way as organizational rules. Therefore, the organizational climate can either support or deter employee behaviors as well as impact decision making (Deshpande, George, & Joseph, 2000; Fritzsche, 2000; Trevino, Butterfield, & McCabe, 1998). Additionally, an organization's climate can impact change and development through process innovations (Detert, Schroeder, & Mauriel, 2000; Douglas & Judge, 2001; Emery, Summers, & Surak, 1996). Such process innovations recognize the human component in organizational innovation such that employees need to feel safe when taking risks, encouraged in new ideas, and welcome to discuss problems. Baer and Frese (2003) suggest this is why Harmon (1992) noted that many attempts at innovation fail when developed in an 'off the shelf' fashion. Therefore, in order for employees to feel empowered to be innovative, the organizational environment much be conducive for an active or proactive approach to work (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996).

The research on climate for initiative was adopted and modified from the individual-level variable of personal initiative (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996;

Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, Tag, 1997) by Baer and Frese (2003). A climate for initiative is defined as, "formal and informal organizational practices and procedures guiding and supporting a proactive self-starting, and persistent approach to work" (Baer & Frese, 2003, p. 48). An organizational climate for initiative has been found to be related to firm performance and goal achievement such that when the climate for initiative is low, employees feel helpless and no longer attempt innovative new ideas (Baer & Frese, 2003). In fact, researchers have found that companies with high process innovativeness but low climate for initiative actually perform worse than had they never innovated (Baer & Frese, 2003).

In their assessment of individual and organizational antecedents of perceptions of organizational politics, O'Connor and Morrison (2001) found support for Drory's (1993) argument that organizational politics may be the result of the organization's climate such that the organizational climate had the strongest relationship with such perceptions, accounting for 39% of the variance in political perceptions. Likewise, researchers have found that the organizational climate predicts both destructive deviance (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004; Peterson, 2002; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998) as well as related forms of constructive deviance including whistle-blowing (Rothwell & Baldwin, 2007; Xu & Ziegenfuss, 2008) and voice (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001). Likewise, Vardaman, Gondo, and Allen (2014) proposed that the organization's climate will impact an employee's likelihood of engaging in pro-social rule breaking.

The relationship between an organization's climate and employees' perceptions of organizational politics is well-established (O'Connor & Morrison, 2001). However,

there are myriad types of organizational climates and the direct relationship between a climate for initiative and perceptions of organizational politics has yet to be examined. Climate for initiative has been described as providing the environment in which proactive employees can succeed (Baer & Frese, 2003) by allowing them to experiment with new ideas in ways that do not lead to negative reactions or retaliations if such ideas fail. Therefore, employee's working in such a climate are likely to feel that they are treated fairly and that the allocation of resources are distributed appropriately, feelings that lie in contrast to those of being in a political organization.

> *Hypothesis 4a:* The organization's climate for initiative negatively relates to perceptions of organizational politics such that when the informal rules and norms of the organization are restrictive and prohibitive from trying new things, employees will perceive the context to be political.

Leader-member Exchange

> "A cardinal principle of Total Quality escapes too many managers: you cannot continuously improve interdependent systems and processes until you progressively perfect interdependent, interpersonal relationships." – Stephen Covey

Of the resources available to employees, their supervisors are one of the most important (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Wilhelm, Herd, & Steiner, 1993; Witt, 1995). Researchers have considered the relationship that a subordinate may have with his or her supervisor and the resulting access to resources through leader-member exchange. As central to the relational perspective of leadership, leader-member exchange recognizes that a leader does not have one identical relationship with all subordinates but rather separate and unique individual

relationships. In this way, leader-member exchange is a relational construct that focuses on the dyadic interactions between a supervisor and a subordinate (Dienesch & Liden, 1996; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993) as well as the employee's perceptions of resource exchanges and discretionary support (Sparrowe, Liden, Wayne, & Kraimer, 2001).

The quality of the individual relationships between a supervisor and each of his or her subordinates will vary such that some will be high-quality, and reflect admittance into an ingroup, while others will be low-quality as part of the outgroup (Graen, 1976). This designation between being placed in the ingroup or outgroup is made quickly and remains relatively constant over time (Liden & Graen, 1980). In high-quality relationships, leaders are more supportive, trusting, willing to provide additional resources and share information with their subordinates (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Fairhurst, 1993; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Harris, 2004). Further, ingroup members perceive more fairness (Sias & Jablin, 1995; Vecchio, Griffin, & Hom, 1986) and are part of the decision-making process (Wayne, Liden, & Sparrowe, 1994), thereby being able to influence the resource allocation process and to limit perceptions of organizational politics (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Kacmar, Bozeman, Carlson, & Anthony, 1999; Witt, 1995).

Using role theory and social exchange theory, researchers have begun exploring the implications of relationship quality in leader-member exchange (e.g., Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Leader-member exchange has been found to be related to in-role performance as well as prosocial behaviors such as citizenship behaviors (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden,

1996; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). In addition to these behaviors, leader-member exchange has also been found to be positively related to several key workplace attitudes including satisfaction and commitment (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Vandenberghe, Bentein, & Stinglhamber, 2004). Further, leader-member exchange has been positively related to some forms of constructive deviance such as voice (Botero & Van Dyne, 2011; Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008; Van Dyne, Kamdar, & Joireman, 2008), creative performance (Liao, Liu, & Loi, 2010; Tierney & Farmer, 2011), and whistle-blowing (Bhal & Dadhich, 2011).

The impact of leader-member exchange on perceptions of organization politics has long been suggested with empirical results providing support for the relationship. Ferris, Russ, and Fandt (1989), in their Model of Organizational Politics Perceptions suggested that one way that such perceptions may be influenced is through interactions with others. Ferris and Kacmar (1992) later noted that such interactions can be with supervisors as well as coworkers and found that the quality of an employee's relationship with his or her supervisor is significantly and negatively related to perceptions of organizational politics such that employees with low-quality relationships and, as such, part of the outgroup with limited access to resources, were more likely to foster perceptions of organizational politics. More directly, Kacmar and colleagues (1999) tested the relationship and found that leader-member exchange negatively relates to perceptions of organizational politics and is considered a predictor of such political perceptions. Likewise, Andrews and Kacmar (2001) also found a predictive relationship between leader-member exchange and perceptions of organizational politics.

Therefore, I seek to replicate the prior findings (e.g., Kacmar, Bozeman, Carlson, & Anthony, 1999) by hypothesizing that employees who have low-quality relationships with their supervisors will be more likely to perceive that their organization is highly political.

Hypothesis 4b: Leader-member exchange negatively relates to perceptions of organizational politics such that when employees perceive that they have low quality relationships with their supervisors, resulting in outgroup membership and access to fewer resources, they will perceive a more political environment.

Perceptions of Organizational Justice

> "Throughout history, it has been the inaction of those who could have acted; the indifference of those who should have known better; the silence of the voice of justice when it mattered most; that has made it possible for evil to triumph." – Haile Selassie

Organizational justice refers to employees' perceptions of the fairness, equity, and impartiality within the organization (Greenberg, 1987). Three primary forms of justice are studied in the management literature: distributive - how resources are allocated, procedural - the fairness in the processes to determine the distribution of resources, and interactional - the individual treatment of employees (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Folger & Greenberg, 1985; Greenberg, 1987; Jawahar, 2002; Parker, Baltes, & Christiansen, 1997; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Tekleab, Takeuchi, & Taylor, 2005; Tyler & Lind, 1992).

Organizational justice has often been considered in relation to organizational politics (e.g., Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Cropanzano & Kacmar, 1995; Dulebohn, 1997; Ferris, Frink, Beehr, & Gilmore, 1995; Nye & Witt, 1993; Shore & Shore, 1995).

Further, the constructs have been found to predict several key individual outcomes such as job satisfaction (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; McFarline & Sweeney, 1992), organizational commitment (Cleveland & Shore, 1992), job involvement (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997), organizational citizenship behaviors (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Shore & Wayne, 1993), job performance (Cleveland & Shore, 1992), absenteeism (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986), and turnover (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997). Indeed, the strong and negative correlations between perceptions of justice and politics have led some researchers to suggest that they represent opposite poles of a single construct (e.g., Nye & Witt, 1993; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999). However, while recognizing the underlying theme of fairness in both constructs, Andrews and Kacmar (2001) found support for their discriminant validity as unique constructs related to overlapping but not identical variables.

Perceptions of organizational justice have also frequently been found to predict various forms of destructive as well as constructive deviance. In agreement with the model of workplace deviance by Robinson and Bennett (1997), researchers have used equity theory (e.g., Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999; Greenberg, 1990) as a reason that employees engage in deviant behaviors. Colquitt and colleagues (2002) found that a strong justice climate negatively predicts absenteeism. Regarding constructive deviance, McAllister and colleagues (2007) as well as Moon et al. (2008) found that perceptions of organizational justice are related to taking charge while Victor and colleagues (1993) found similar results with the impact of organizational justice on whistle-blowing. Further, Bryant, Davis, Hancock, and Vardaman, (2010), in their conceptual model,

suggested that perceptions of organizational justice should be related to pro-social rule breaking behaviors, as did Vadera, Pratt, and Pooja (2013) in their conceptual model of antecedents of constructive deviance.

Employees who recognize the unfair allocation of organizational resources, and thereby a reduced perception of organizational justice, are likely to be resentful of the biased system (Parker, Dipboye, & Jackson, 1995). After perceiving that they were treated unjustly, employees will engage in a sensemaking process (Weick, 1995) to determine the reasons for the unfair treatment. As organizational justice relates to fairness across employees, organizational injustice is an indication of favoritism or a pursuit of self-interests in securing resources and positive career outcomes. Therefore, employees are likely to perceive their organization as more political when they feel they were not given a fair opportunity to resources. Indeed, researchers have long noted that the distribution of resources is rife with political behavior (e.g., Drory & Romm, 1990; Frost & Hayes, 1979; Harvey & Mills, 1970; Pettigrew, 1973; Pfeffer, 1981; Wildavsky, 1964) such that Ferris and Buckley (1990) suggested that it is likely the most political aspect of organizational life. In support of this claim, Parker, Dipboye, and Jackson (1995) found that the fairness of rewards is a strong negative predictor of perceptions of organizational politics. As such, I suggest that employees who perceive a lack of justice such that resources are not allocated fairly will be more likely to develop perceptions of their organization as a political environment.

> *Hypothesis 4c:* Perceptions of organizational justice negatively relate to perceptions of organizational politics such that when employees perceive that the allocation of resources, the processes governing them, and the interactions

with others within the organization are unfair or unjust, they will perceive the context to be political.

Leader Encouragement of Creativity

> "The role of a creative leader is not to have all the ideas; it's to create a culture where everyone can have ideas and feel that they're valued." – Ken Robinson

Creativity refers to the formation of new, novel, and useful ideas by an individual or collection of people (Amabile, 1988; Madjar, Oldham, & Pratt, 2002; Shalley, Gilson, & Blum, 2000; Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Zhou & Shalley, 2003). Creativity, by definition, is a form of deviance in order to give up what was for something new (Zhou & George, 2001). Further, a leader can create a supportive environment (Wu & Parker, in press) in which creativity can flourish by serving as a secure base for support (Davidovitz, Mikulincer, Shaver, Izsak, & Popper, 2007; Mayseless, 2010; Mayseless & Popper, 2007; Popper & Mayseless, 2003; Wu & Parker, 2015, in press) in which employees feel encouraged to try new things without concern for obstacles (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). The role of leaders has been compared to that of parents in guiding and protecting those dependent on them (Popper and Mayseless, 2003) as well as the most salient representative of the organization in defining roles and providing information (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1975).

Therefore, in order for employees to thrive creatively within an organization, their managers or leaders must support and promote such new ideas (Shalley & Gilson, 2004; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Zhang and Bartol (2010) defined leader encouragement of creativity as "the extent of a leader's emphasis on being creative and on actively

engaging in processes that may lead to creative outcomes" (p. 112). As such, leaders that promote and advocate their employees' creative endeavors will help to direct behaviors as well as set goals and provide meaning in ways that seek to produce new and novel ideas (Carson & Carson, 1993; Scott & Bruce, 1994; Shalley, 1991, 1995; Speller & Schumacher, 1975; Wyer & Srull, 1980).

In addition to creativity, supportive leaders impact various employee attitudes and behaviors including empowerment (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Keller and Dansereau, 1995; Kim & Kim, 2013; Spreitzer, De Janesz, & Quinn, 1999), and therefore likely the impact of their underlying empowerment role identities. Also, leaders can influence employees' proactive behaviors through support which increases self-determination (Oldham & Cummings, 1996) and feelings of competence (Parker & Wu, 2014). In this way, leader support has been found to be positively related to several types of proactive behaviors including idea implementation (Axtell, Holman, Unsworth, Wall, Waterson, & Harrington, 2000), personal initiative (Ohly, Sonnentag, & Pluntke, 2006), environmental initiative (Ramus & Steger, 2000), and creative performance (Madjar, Oldham, & Pratt, 2002). However, only some proactive behaviors seem to be positively related to leader support or encouragement. For example, other forms, such as idea suggestions (Axtell, Holman, Unsworth, Wall, Waterson, & Harrington, 2000; Frese, Teng, & Wijnen, 1999), proactive problem solving (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006), and innovation (Ohly, Sonnentag, & Pluntke, 2006; Oldham & Cummings, 1996) have been found to be unrelated to leader support. Likewise, it may be possible that some proactive behaviors are negatively impacted by leader support such that supportive leaders provide alternatives or substitutes to these behaviors.

Pro-social rule breaking may be just such a proactive behavior. While prior scholars (e.g., Morrison, 2006; Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012) conceptualized the construct as beneficial behaviors enacted to help others that may also reflect a personal cost in breaking the rules, I envision a slightly different meaning behind pro-social rule breaking behaviors such that they are performed by good employees who perceive themselves within a bad situation. An important distinction, then, is that while prior researchers have noted the benefits to pro-social rule breaking as a recommendation to not punish or even welcome such constructively deviant behaviors, I instead perceive such behaviors as an outcry against the system that should be recognized as a red flag or indicator of situational issues that should be addressed. In this deviation, then, I see pro-social rule breaking as a last ditch effort to better the situation from positive employees in negative environments. In accordance with the definition of proactive behaviors, they are seeking to change their surroundings (Grant & Ashford, 2008) the only way that they feel they can. Therefore, employees that engage in pro-social rule breaking do so because they want to do good, to help others, or to change the environment and the restrictive rules stand in their way. If given the choice, they may not break the rules but they feel that it is the only way to make an impactful difference.

Therefore, if support is received such that other alternatives exist for proactive and prosocial behaviors, many "prosocial deviants" would probably opt for this alternative. Doing so would still be in agreement with their salient empowerment role identities but would no longer require feeling constrained and needing to break the organization's rules. Leaders can directly impact the rules and permitted behaviors of

employees (Ouchi, 1980). For example, in his path-goal theory of leadership, House (House, 1971, 1996) envisioned that the primary roles of a leader are to set goals, remove obstacles, and get out of the way. Such obstacles can include unnecessarily restrictive organizational rules and, by removing them, engaging in the same behaviors would no longer be classified as pro-social rule breaking but rather another form of prosocial helping behaviors. Another obstacle could be a lack of psychological safety that restricts creativity and innovation (Baer & Frese, 2003).

An underlying tenant of role identity theory states that employees will have a commitment to their role identities, especially those they hold most salient (Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995). However, when employees perceive that a role identity is not valued, they will become distressed (Burke, 1991) and withhold enacting the behaviors associated with the role identity in order to preserve their positive identity (Farmer, Tierney, & Kung-McIntyre, 2003). Therefore, outside influences will likely have an impact on internal identities. The interaction of outside influences, in the form of leadership, and individual differences has received much attention (e.g., Evans, 1970; Fielder, 1967; Kerr & Jermier, 1978; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Ahearne, & Bommer, 1995; Yukl, 1998) and the examination of the interaction between leadership behaviors and employees' desire for empowerment has also begun to be explored (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

Following, then, my conceptualization of pro-social rule breaking as behaviors by good employees lashing out to change their environment, it may be that a better environment may lead these employees to shift from pro-social rule breaking behaviors to prosocial behaviors within the organizational rules. Leader encouragement of

creativity is hypothesized to be the catalyst for such a change. By encouraging creative ideas and processes, leaders support their subordinates' endeavors for change (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). With such encouragement, employees with empowerment role identities may still be more likely to engage in proactive and prosocial behaviors, although their creative behaviors will now take place within the organizational rules rather than outside of them. Therefore, I hypothesize that leader encouragement of creativity negatively moderates, or weakens, the positive relationship between empowerment role identity and pro-social rule breaking such that employees with high empowerment role identities will perform less pro-social rule breaking in the presence of a leader that encourages creativity than they will with a leader that does not provide such support.

> *Hypothesis 5a:* Leader encouragement of creativity weakens the relationship between empowerment role identity and pro-social rule breaking such that employees with salient empowerment role identities will perform less pro-social rule breaking when overseen by a leader that encourages their creativity than by a leader who does not.

Three-way Interaction

> "Social psychology is especially interested in the effect which the social group has in the determination of the experience and conduct of the individual member." – George Herbert Mead

Researchers have frequently considered an interactionist perspective in predicting variables when they observe individual or dispositional as well as contextual or organizational factors (e.g., Trevino, 1986). Pro-social rule breaking as well as constructive deviance merit consideration of an interactionist perspective and I seek to advance this perspective. To do so, I have hypothesized that an individual difference

(empowerment role identity) as well as an organizational factor (perceptions of organizational politics) predict pro-social rule breaking. Further, I have hypothesized that a relational factor (leader encouragement of creativity) moderates that relationship between empowerment role identity and pro-social rule breaking.

A true interactionist perspective does not simply suggest separate direct effects from personal and situational factors but rather that they should influence, either positively or negatively, the other's direct effect. This perspective is also in agreement with the basic tenants of role identity theory as being created from the social interactionist movement. Therefore, I seek to extend this perspective by considering how perceptions of organizational politics may impact the moderated relationship of empowerment role identity and leader encouragement of creativity on pro-social rule breaking. As proposed in Hypothesis 5a, employees with salient empowerment role identities and overseen by leaders that do not encourage creativity will engage in more pro-social rule breaking. Likewise, I've hypothesized that employees that perceive their organization to be highly political will also be more likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking. However, hypothesizing these relationships separately may not consider the full perspective. That is, individual, relational, and situational factors are likely to interact and influence each other when predicting employee behaviors. Therefore, I have hypothesized a three-way interaction between empowerment role identity, leader encouragement of creativity, and perceptions of organizational politics such that employees with salient empowerment role identities in political organizations and with leaders that do not encourage their creativity will be most likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking.

Researchers of role identity theory suggest that employees with central or salient role identities, through the process of role-identity merger, will no longer compartmentalize their behaviors in each role but rather will begin to enact the behaviors that reaffirm their salient identities across roles (Turner, 1978). In this way, an employee with a salient empowerment role identity will desire empowerment in multiple roles and will enact the congruent behaviors across different roles as well. However, this role identity will still be impacted by situational or relational factors. Farmer, Tierney, and Kung-McIntyre (2003) noted this potential impact such that, as a role-identity merger forms, the role and its corresponding behaviors become more central to the employee's identity and sense of self. Therefore, in situations that warrant the enactment of the related behaviors, the employee will engage in more of them.

As such, employees with salient empowerment role identities are suggested to engage in more pro-social rule breaking behaviors. Also, leadership behaviors will impact the enactment of these behaviors across employees such that leaders that do not encourage creativity will not provide opportunities for employees within the tolerated parameters, and therefore the employees will be forced to break the rules through pro-social rule breaking. However, the organizational environment also likely impacts an employee with a salient empowerment role identity's decision to engage in pro-social rule breaking. Specifically, employees that desire empowerment and autonomy are actively seeking ways to take ownership of their work and increase its meaningfulness. Political organizations are less likely to recognize and reward employees based on merit (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997), thereby making empowerment-seeking activities

particularly difficult to do within the confines of the rules. This difficultly is only exacerbated in the presence of an unsupportive leader.

Therefore, it is likely that the individual, relational, and organizational factors interact with each other such that employees will be more willing to engage in pro-social rule breaking when they have a salient empowerment role identity within political organizations and overseen by leaders that do not support their creativity. Together, the interaction of these variables is central to my view of pro-social rule breaking as the reactionary behaviors of employees who actively seek and desire to impact meaningful and positive change in an environment that they perceive to be negative, as determined by a political organization and an unsupportive leader.

Hypothesis 5b: A three-way interaction exists between empowerment role identity, leader encouragement of creativity, and perceptions of organizational politics in predicting pro-social rule breaking such that employees with salient empowerment role identities in organizations that they perceive to be highly political and with leaders that do not encourage their creativity will engage in more pro-social rule breaking behaviors.

Responses to Pro-social Rule Breaking

"We all need people who will give us feedback. That's how we improve." – Bill Gates

Proactive behaviors, such as pro-social rule breaking, are not always welcomed because they can challenge that status quo (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker, Bindl, & Straus, 2010). Social systems are designed in order to protect and maintain the status quo and, to do so, organizational rules and norms function to control employee attitudes

and behaviors (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003). Further, proactive behaviors are inherently risky including both resistance from others as well as reputational damage if unsuccessful (Wu & Parker, in press).

Recently, Reynolds, Shoss, and Jundt (2015) developed a multi-stakeholder perspective for organizational citizenship behaviors (a form of prosocial behaviors) and counterproductive work behaviors (which can include deviance such as breaking organizational rules), both of which are discretionary in nature like pro-social rule breaking. Traditionally researchers have held a symmetric perspective of these two types of behaviors such that prosocial behaviors are beneficial and deviant behaviors are detrimental (Reynolds, Shoss, & Jundt, 2015; Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010). However, researchers have begun to consider their asymmetric outcomes as well (e.g., Bolino, Klotz, Turnley, & Harvey, 2013; Bolino, Valcea, & Harvey, 2010; Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010; Spector & Fox, 2010). For example, Bergeron (2007) and colleagues (2013) suggested and found that time spent on organizational citizenship behaviors negatively impacted career outcomes when task performance was controlled while Bolino and Turnley (2005) found that individual initiative was related to role overload, stress, and work-family conflict.

Researchers have also suggested that counterproductive behaviors can help employees feel in control (Bennett, 1998) and even the score to restore justice (Jones, 2009; Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010; Tripp & Bies, 2010; Trip, Bies, & Aquino, 2007). Further, Krischer and colleagues (2010) found that certain forms of deviance help employees to manage emotional exhaustion. Likewise, Galperin (2012) noted that

employees may break organizational rules in order to be more efficient by eliminating delays and inefficient procedures.

However there has been a general lack of focus on for whom these behaviors may be positive or negative (Reynolds, Shoss, & Jundt, 2015). Further, through the interconnected systems that exist within organizations, uninvolved individuals may be impacted by the behaviors of another (Van de Van, Delbecq, & Koenig, 1976). Recent calls to consider outcomes for stakeholders other than management (Lefkowtiz, 2013; Wright & Wright 2002; Wright, 2003) as well as the contextual impact in determining the implications of employee behaviors (Bamburger, 2008; Hulin, 2002; Johns, 2006) suggest that there is a growing awareness and need for such insight.

The attributions of others will impact the outcomes of the behavior enacted (Grant & Ashford, 2008). For example, prosocial behaviors that are perceived as misguided and insincere (Eastman, 1994), conducted for personal gains (Bolino, Varela, Band, & Turnley, 2006), or stemming from negative affect and non-prosocial motives (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009) may lead to not being rewarded (Johnson, Erez, Kiker, & Motowidlo, 2002), reprimand (Bateman & Crant, 1999), or negative performance reviews (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009). Alternatively, mild forms of deviance may be tolerated and observers may make allowances for such behaviors if they are aware of extenuating circumstances that may be leading to the employee's actions (Griffin & Lopez, 2005). Employees who engage in counterproductive or deviant behaviors may even be considered a hero (Tripp, Bies, & Aquino, 2002) if the deviance is a retaliation against mistreatment (Ferris, Spence, Brown, & Heller, 2012) or the retaliation is attributed to situational forces (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001).

Through her early work in the development of pro-social rule breaking, Morrison (2006) defined the construct as behaviors intended to benefit the organization or stakeholders. Therefore, a multi-stakeholder perspective is appropriate to consider the responses to the engagement in such behaviors as it should provide a deeper understanding of how different parties react. Further, pro-social rule breaking has been developed with the emphasis on three groups of potential beneficiaries – the organization, customers, and coworkers (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012; Morrison, 2006). Each of these groups may respond differently to pro-social rule breaking behaviors. However, another important characteristic of pro-social rule breaking is in the intentional and volitional violation of the organization's rules. Workplace rules are used to restrict and normalize employee performance in order to create consistent performance across employees (Barnard, 1938; Milgram, 1974). To engage in pro-social rule breaking then suggests a violation of these expected behaviors to provide a benefit to another party.

In this way, each of the potential beneficiaries should be considered in light of their role in the rule creation process. Specifically, organizational leaders have a direct influence in the development and maintenance of the organization's rules. As rules are a top-down phenomenon (Ouchi, 1980), organizational leaders create the rules based on what they perceive to be the most appropriate collection of behaviors for the organization's functioning. Therefore, when employees violate these rules, even for prosocial reasons, the organization will likely respond negatively. However, customers and coworkers are likely not part of rule creation process. Employees are instead subjects to the rule creation from the organization and the customers are relatively free

from the implications of the organization's rules on employee behaviors. Therefore, when pro-social rule breaking is performed by an employee, coworkers and customers will be likely to respond more positively.

Hypothesis 6: Employee engagement in pro-social rule breaking (H6a) negatively relates to the organizational response and positively relates to the (H6b) coworker and (H6c) customer responses such that the organization perceives that breaking the rules, even constructively, is bad while coworkers and customers, having not created the rules, respond favorably to the assistance provided through pro-social rule breaking.

Likelihood of Engaging in Future Pro-social Rule Breaking

> "In the type of temporary inhibition of action which signifies thinking, or in which reflection arises, we have presented in the experience of the individual, tentatively and in advance and for his selection among them, the different possibilities or alternatives of future action open to him within the given social situation—the different or alternative ways of completing the given social act wherein he is implicated, or which he has already initiated." – George Herbert Mead

Central to role identity theory is not only the self-view which internally accepts a certain role identity, but external implications through the feedback from others that categorizes the employee in the specific role and validates the identity (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Further, employee role identities are categorized within a hierarchy such that the salience of each role identity is reflected in its place in the order (McCall & Simmons, 1966). In this way, employees will engage in behaviors that enact the role identities that they hold most salient. However, when the situational demands are inconsistent and the actions that confirm a salient role identity are not valued, the employee may feel distressed as the identity will be threatened (Burke, 1991). These

salient role identities are central to the view of self and, as such, the employee will seek to protect the identity by not enacting role-reaffirming behaviors (Farmer, Tierney, & Kung-McIntyre, 2003).

Therefore, before engaging in behaviors that will reconfirm a role identity, the employee assesses what the response will likely be from relevant external parties (Drazin & Schoonhoven, 2000; Ford, 1996). Likewise, if the behaviors are enacted and met with a negative response or feedback, then this may weaken or discredit a prior held role identity. As noted by Farmer and colleagues (2003), "when the acting out of strong role identities is met with negative reactions, individuals will be motivated to avoid role-consistent performance in the same setting as a means of protecting, or hiding, a core part of themselves" (p. 626). Therefore, an employee's actions gather meaning from the reactions of others (Mead, 1934).

As such, responses received after enacting role-confirming behaviors will influence an employee's willingness to engage in similar behaviors in the future. Burke (1991) detailed this process in his feedback loop for role identities in which an employee will alter his or her behaviors (output) in order to receive feedback (input) that more closely matches the prototypical standard for the role. Specifically, positive feedback will suggest that the behaviors are closely aligned with the prototype and therefore encourage similar behaviors in the future while negative feedback will have the opposite effect. Based on the prior hypothesis that employees' pro-social rule breaking will lead to a negative response from the organization and a positive response from coworkers and customers, then these responses, in the form of feedback, should carryover to impact the likelihood of engaging in similar behaviors in the future. As

such, I suggest that the negative feedback from the organization will decrease the likelihood of engaging in similar behaviors while the positive responses from coworkers and customers will increase the enactment of future pro-social rule breaking.

Additionally, as past behaviors is a well-known predictor of future behaviors (e.g., Aarts, Verplanken & Van Knippenberg, 1998; Albarracin & Wyer, 2000; Ouellette & Wood, 1998; Verplanken & Orbell, 2003), it is therefore important to consider a direct relationship for a temporal connection between similar behaviors. That is, while feedback from external sources does help to validate or disconfirm a role identity, such validation can happen internally as well such that internal reflections and self-verification are also a type of input according to Burke (1991). Indeed, Farmer, and colleagues (2003) found that an employee's self-view of past creative behaviors is a significant predictor of a creative role identity. As such, while feedback should encourage or discourage an employee's empowerment role identity, an employee that has broken the rules of the organization in the past should be more likely to do so in the future as well.

> *Hypothesis 7:* Pro-social rule breaking positively relates to the likelihood of engaging in future pro-social rule breaking (H7a) such that employees behave consistently and in confirmation of their role identities. Further, the organizational response (H7b) to employee pro-social rule breaking negatively relates to the likelihood of engaging in similar behaviors in the future while the coworker (H7c), and customer (H7d) responses positively relate to performing similar behaviors in the future.

Psychological Contracts

"A verbal contract isn't worth the paper it's written on." – Samuel Goldwyn

While psychological contracts date to Argryis (1960), Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl, and Sooley (1962), and Shein (1980), much of the recent interest is due to the work by Rousseau (1989; 1990, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). A psychological contract has been defined as "individual beliefs, shaped by the organization regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organization" (Rousseau, 1995, p. 9). Therefore, the psychological contract is considered an important framework in which to consider the employment relationship (Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994; Shore et al., 2004; Talyor & Tekleab, 2004) such that is an unwritten agreement that an employee believes to set the guidelines of his or her social exchange with the organization and provides the obligations that the organization is expected to uphold (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Rousseau 1989; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993). Such contracts help to set the expectations in the workplace as well as enhance confidence and devotion (Morrison, 1994). In this way, an employee will devote effort toward tasks with the expectations that the organization will compensate these efforts (Valentine, Godkin, & Lucero, 2002).

Employees accept and keep jobs largely because of the rewards promised and provided to them in return for their work, time, and talent (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Simon, 1951; Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, 1997). Perceptions of psychological contract breaches take place when the employee perceives that the organization has not fulfilled these committed obligations or promises (Rousseau, 1995). As psychological contracts are subjective and based on the perceptions of the employee, the return that

the organization is expected to reciprocate may change over time (Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994). Further, while the psychological contract is considered to be between the organization and an employee, the actions of a supervisor will directly impact perceptions of the fulfillment or breach of such contracts such that the supervisor is an agent of the organization (Suazo, Turnley, & Mia-Dalton, 2008).

Research on psychological contracts has frequently been applied through a social exchange perspective (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Rousseau, 1995) to consider how perceived violations from the organization may result in various reciprocal behaviors from the employee. As confirmed though meta-analytic findings (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007), perceptions of psychological contract breaches are negatively related to job satisfaction (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994), organizational citizenship behaviors (Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2006, 2007; Robinson & Morrison, 1995), trust (Robinson, 1996), and performance (Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2006; Turnley, Bolino, Lester, & Bloodgood, 2003), as well as positively related to absenteeism (Deery, Iverson, & Walsh, 2006), intentions to quit (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Turnley & Feldman, 1999), and anticitizenship behaviors (Kickul, Neuman, Parker, & Kinkl, 2001).

Bordia, Restubog, and Tang (2008) found that perceptions of violations in psychological contracts predicts workplace deviance. Further, Bryant and colleagues (2010) suggested psychological contract violations to be an outcome of pro-social rule breaking. I seek to test this proposition by considering the relationship between pro-social rule breaking and perceptions of psychological contract fulfillment. Psychological contracts are based on social exchange (Blau, 1964) and the norm of

reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). Because the reciprocation within social exchanges is not immediate but rather occurs in the future (e.g., an employee works for two weeks in expectancy of being compensated at the end of that time period), such social exchanges require mutual trust. Therefore, the implicit or explicit promises initially offered become the obligations that each party is expected to uphold.

However, research in realistic job previews (e.g., Weitz, 1956; Weitz & Nuckols, 1955; Wanous, 1973, 1978) and expectation lowering procedures (e.g., Buckley et al., 1998, 2002) suggests that promises are frequently not upheld, a position that is supported by research in psychological contracts (e.g., Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Indeed, these interventions are part of the larger realistic recruitment construct that was developed specifically to counter the seduction method of recruitment such that the positive aspects of a job are exaggerated while the negatives are minimized (Baur, Buckley, Bagdasarov, & Dharmasiri, 2014). The recruitment period is also when psychological contracts are frequently first developed (Rousseau, 1990) although, unlike formal contracts of employment, psychological contracts are created and revised in an ongoing process through the entire tenure of an employee within an organization (Rousseau & Parks, 1993).

A frequent way that such psychological contracts can be violated in the recruitment process is by exaggerating a supportive environment, empowerment and innovative opportunities, or a merit-based culture. Likewise, through the espoused language of the organization via channels such as mission statements and codes of ethics, psychological contracts can be created when employees perceive that they are encouraged to, and likely will be rewarded for, working hard, helping others, being

creative, and providing high quality service. These expectations, whether during the recruitment period or after, create implicit contracts between the employee and the organization such that the employee will believe that by engaging in behaviors that are congruent with such expectations, they will be valued by the organization. However, when the employee attempts to enact such behaviors and, in doing so, must violate the rules such that it is impossible to both meet the expectations and also abide by the rules, then the employee is likely to perceive that psychological contracts were not fulfilled. These perceptions are expected to take place regardless of the direction or source of feedback. As such, I offer the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 8:* Pro-social rule breaking negatively relates to perceptions of psychological contract fulfillment (H8a) such that employees who break the organization's rules for prosocial intentions are more likely to perceive that their organization has not upheld the unwritten agreement. Further, the responses to these behaviors from the organization (H8b), coworkers (H8c), and customers (H8d) negatively relate to psychological contract fulfillment such that, despite the direction or party that the response is received from, breaking the rules to create beneficial change will lead to perceptions of psychological contract violation.

Job Satisfaction

> "There are some days when I think I'm going to die from an overdose of satisfaction." – Salvador Dali

Job satisfaction is defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal on one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). Locke

(1969, 1976) suggested that job satisfaction is the outcome of an evaluation of the differences between what an employee wants from the job and what it actually offers. Therefore, to the extent that the job meets the employee's needs (Locke, 1976), either through the actual work (Davis & Lofquist, 1984) or through goal attainment (Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995), job satisfaction should be increased.

Robinson and Rousseau (1994) as well as McLean and Kidder (1994) found that psychological contract violations are negatively related to job satisfaction and these findings have been supported meta-analytically (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007). Further, these results appear to be relatively consistent across various types of employees such as full-time and temporary workers (Conway & Briner, 2002). Bryant and colleagues (2010) also considered subordinate job satisfaction as an outcome of managerial pro-social rule breaking such that when managers engage in these behaviors, their subordinates will perceive psychological contract violations and, in turn, reduced job satisfaction. I posited in Hypothesis 8 that employees who engage in pro-social rule breaking are likely to perceive violations in such psychological contracts. As a result, I suggest that they will also experience reduced job satisfaction such that the absence of perceived violations of psychological contracts, or their fulfillment, is positively related to job satisfaction.

> *Hypothesis 9:* Perceptions of psychological contract fulfillment positively relate to job satisfaction such that employees that believe that their organization has abided by the unwritten agreements will be more satisfied with their jobs.

Person-organization Fit

> "Human tragedies: We all want to be extraordinary and we all just want to fit in. Unfortunately, extraordinary people rarely fit in." - Sebastyne Young

Person-organization fit is frequently considered the perceptions an employee holds regarding the congruence of his or her personal values with the values of the organization (Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1989; Kristof-Brown, 2000; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). When a fit is perceived between the employee and organization, the employee begins to partly define him or herself in terms of the organization and its broader mission (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Because measures of fit are frequently measured based on the employee's perceptions, these perceptions may be misguided but still represent the subjective reality for the employee. Such perceptions of fit have been suggested to be more proximal as well as more accurate predictors of employee behaviors than objective measures (Cable & Judge, 1997; Endler & Magnusson, 1976; Kristof, 1996). Indeed, perceptions of fit likely mediate the relationship between actual fit and important organizational outcomes (Cable & Judge, 1996; Judge & Cable, 1997).

Such assessments of fit have been found to be important in a variety of stages of decision making within the career cycle including selecting organizations to apply to (Judge & Cable, 1997; Saks & Ashforth, 1997), selection of applicants for employment (Cable & Judge, 1997; Kristoff-Brown, 2000), and whether to remain employed in the organization (Cable & Judge, 1996). Further, researchers have found that perceptions of person-organization fit are positively related to job satisfaction, extra-role behaviors, organizational commitment, job choice intentions, organizational identification, and perceived organizational support as well as negatively related to intentions to quit

(Cable & DeRue, 2002; Cable & Judge, 1996; Lauvier & Kritof-Brown, 2001; Saks & Ashforth, 1997).

Reynolds, Shoss, and Jundt (2015) discussed concerns for fit within their multi-stakeholder perspective of prosocial and deviant behaviors. In doing so, they note the work of Erdogen and Bauer (2005) who found that employees engaging in proactive behaviors experience reduced satisfaction and person-organization fit. As the results from other studies suggest (e.g., Bolino, Varela, Band, & Turnley, 2006), engaging in proactive or prosocial behaviors that are not in alignment with, or acknowledged by, one's supervisor or organization may not deliver the expected outcome. Such findings support Campbell's (2000) conceptualization of the "initiative paradox" such that engaging in proactive behaviors will only produce positive results when they are in alignment with the organization's goals, otherwise they will be more likely to lead to negative results (Reynolds, Shoss, & Jundt, 2015).

While the relationship between pro-social rule breaking and person-organization fit has not yet been examined, Vardaman and colleagues (2014) suggested that there will likely be important implications to the perceptions of fit from employees seeking to help others by violating the organization's rules. In Hypothesis 8, I proposed that engaging in pro-social rule breaking will result in perceptions of psychological contract violations. Extensive research has been conducted to examine how psychological contract violation or fulfillment can impact perceptions of fit. Valentine, Godkin, and Lucero (2002) found that an organization's ethical context predicts perceptions of person-organization fit. The development of such an ethical context is built on the management of psychological contracts (Sims, 1991) as well as related behaviors. More

directly, Bocchino Hartman, and Foley (2003) found that perceived psychological contract violations negatively predict person-organizational values congruence in which person-organization congruence is based on the compatibility between the values of the individual and organization (Chatman, 1991). Such subjective person-organization congruence is identical to Kristof's (1996) perceived person-organization fit (Bocchino, Hartman, & Foley, 2003) and is based on the subjective perceptions of the employee when assessing value congruence. Such subjective perceptions which Harris and Mossholder (1996) noted are more appropriate measures than objective person-organization congruence. Therefore, as I have argued that engaging in pro-social rule breaking will lead to perceptions of psychological contract violations and since such violations have been found to decrease person-organization fit, I offer the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 10:* Perceptions of psychological contract fulfillment positively relate to perceptions of person-organization fit such that employees that perceive that their organization has not abided by the unwritten agreements will also perceive that there is not a strong fit between themselves and their organization.

METHODOLOGY

Sample and Design

A large Midwestern publishing company that produces myriad communications in multiple forms (i.e., print, audio, and visual) was solicited for inclusion in the project. It was determined that the company was an appropriate fit for the study for two reasons. First, the organization's espoused values include having a "customer focus" and "challenging tradition." These values are in direct alignment with the definition of pro-

social rule breaking as a collection of behaviors that deviate from the status quo by breaking the rules of the organization in order to provide a greater service to its stakeholders, such as customers, or to increase organizational efficiency. Second, the publishing industry is going through important changes. With an increased focus on newer technology, the need for circulated print media has dramatically decreased. As such, organizations in the industry are actively seeking to reinvent themselves by adopting the technology in the form of audible books, mobile device apps, and social media news feeds. Therefore, the organizational leaders are encouraging new and innovative ideas from their employees and seeking to create a climate that welcomes the experimentation, creativity, development, and advancement that may be possible through pro-social rule breaking.

Traditionally, the study of workplace deviance has relied on self-reported, cross-sectional designs (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Fox & Spector, 2005; Griffin & Lopez, 2005). However, the study consisted of a multi-wave, multi-source design comprised of questionnaires that were distributed electronically via organizational email addresses. Due to the large number of questions being asked of the focal employees, I decided to use the multi-wave approach (e.g., Effelsberg, Solga, & Gurt, 2014; Miao, Newman, Yu, & Xu, 2013) while also ordering the measures to prevent priming and to attenuate the impact of survey fatigue. Further, almost all items were components of established and validated scales, several of which included reverse-coded items or varying scale end-points and formats that were varied to detect survey fatigue and reduce common method bias (Podskoff & Organ, 1986; Spector, 1987). Additionally, while some have suggested that common method bias in not a significant problem in

self-reported data (e.g., Spector, 1987), collecting the responses from multiple sources at multiple periods in time has also been suggested to reduce its impact on the data (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).

Self-reported responses are appropriate because collecting measures such as pro-social rule breaking requires the focal employees to report their behaviors which can frequently be clandestine or secretive and therefore difficult to observe (Conway & Lance, 2010; Sackett, Berry, Wiemann, & Laczo, 2006; Spector & Fox, 2002; Umphress, Bingham, & Mitchell, 2010). Further, such self-reports have been found to have the needed validity to be meaningful in the deviance literature (Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 1993). Additionally, self-reports are appropriate because several measures (e.g., leader encouragement of creativity, person-organization fit, organizational justice and organizational politics) are based on individual attitudes or perceptions (Mackey, Frieder, Perrewe, Gallagher, & Brymer, 2015; Parker, 1998). Lewin (1936) recognized that employee behaviors are guided by their perceptions rather than an objective reality, a position supported by other researchers as well (e.g., Bandura, 1989; Spreitzer, 1996; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). To this point, Porter (1976) noted the need to study perceptions rather than realities, even if those perceptions may appear to be misguided.

Additionally, social desirability bias may be an issue whenever seeking to measure a construct such as deviance, especially if the respondents are concerned that their responses may be viewed by their supervisor (Greenberg & Folger, 1988). Often employees desire to be seen favorably (Crowne & Marlow, 1960), and therefore may

alter their responses in the direction that they perceive an observer may deem as correct. However, like similar constructs (e.g., unethical pro-organizational behavior), the oxymoronic nature of pro-social rule breaking as both beneficial to others while deviating from the rules of the organization, does not provide an obvious "correct" answer such that the respondents face a moral dilemma in weighing the benefits of helping others against the costs of breaking the rules in seeking to make sense of the items and determine their answers (Effelsberg, Solga, & Gurt, 2014). Also, in addition to having a prior relationship with the organization, I expressed to the respondents the precautions taken to ensure anonymity of their responses, which has been suggested to reduce the social desirability bias in deviance research (Fisk, Grove, Harris, Keefe, Reynolds, & Russell-Bennett 2010; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

As such, every employee of the publishing company that had an organizational email address received the first wave of questionnaires. Some employees, such as freelancers, work for the organization as independent contractors rather than employees and therefore do not have an organizational email address and were not included in the study. The focal employees received four distinct questionnaires that were distributed in three-week intervals. Only the employees who completed the first survey were sent the second and so forth. Additionally, their direct supervisors were asked to complete a questionnaire assessing various components of the employee's performance (i.e., pro-social rule breaking, organizational citizenship behaviors, and task performance) after the completion of the four employee surveys. All supervisors were asked to assess the performance of all of their subordinates, regardless of whether or not the employees completed their four questionnaires, in order to help ensure at there were no

organizational benefits or costs to the employees for participating. Finally, I also received performance information from the organization as reported on the performance evaluations from both the prior year as well as the current year.

This design resulted in an initial distribution to 414 employees, of which 303 completed the initial questionnaire, reflecting a 73.2% response rate. For the second survey, 296 of the 303 employees completed the survey for a response rate of 97.7%. For the third survey, 284 of the 296 employees completed the survey for a response rate of 95.9%. Finally, in the fourth survey distributed to the focal employees, 272 of the 284 employees completed the survey, reflecting a 95.8% response rate. Therefore, across the four waves of questionnaires, I achieved a final response rate from the focal employees of 65.7% (272/414). Additionally, the 414 employees reported to a total of 83 supervisors of which 79 completed the supervisor's survey, representing a supervisor response rate of 95.2% and providing supervisor assessments of 398 of the 414 employees (96.1%) including all 272 employees that self-selected into the study. In examining the potential impact of missing data, I found that two of the respondents had missing data that equated to 10% or more of the items. Rather than confound the data by replacing the missing responses with the mean or median, an approach that has been suggested to be inappropriate (Arbuckle, 1996; Bentler, 2010), I simply removed these two respondents, thereby producing a final sample size of 270 (N = 270).

Of the respondents, there was an almost equal distribution of men (51%) and women (49%) with an average age of 45.87 years (standard deviation = 10.93). The respondents averaged 8.58 years of experience in their current role (standard deviation = 8.92) and 13.72 years within the organization (standard deviation = 11.25). A review

of the respondents' ethnicities indicates that 82.2% are White Non-Hispanics, 5.9% are Black or African-American, 4.4% are Hispanic or Latino, 3.3% are American Indian or Alaska Native, 1.5% are Asian, and the remaining .7% are Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander. The respondents also varied regarding their highest level of education with 8.5% having a high school diploma, 19.2% some college, 6.3% a two-year college degree, 53.5% a four-year college degree, 10.3% a master's degree, .7% a doctoral degree, and .7% a professional degree.

While the response rates I received are relatively high, I believe that there are three reasons why they are so. First, as outlined above, the ongoing challenges to the industry and the alignment of the study with the organization's values, provided a direct benefit to the organization. Further, messages were circulated prior to the start of the project that sought to decrease the frequent concerns regarding anonymity of the responses and, having collected data from the organization for prior studies, the employees were familiar with the design and expectations. Also, organizational leaders sought to consistently stress the importance of the project to the employees and supervisors. Second, the organizational executives were personally vested in the project and helped to ensure that their employees had every opportunity to participate including giving time for the questionnaires and providing additional access in a computer lab. Third, I designed the study in a way to keep the employees engaged. To do so, I had a pilot group of employees complete the questionnaires in advance to provide feedback regarding the clarity and appropriateness of the questions as well as the average expected time for completion. I found that of the four surveys sent to the employees, the first took approximately 15 minutes to complete while the remaining three each took 5

minutes. Therefore, I was able to set realistic expectations for the employees by asking for 15 minutes upfront and 5 minutes every three weeks. Likewise, I found that the supervisors' survey took approximately two minutes to complete for search subordinate with the average supervisor overseeing five employees (414/83).

Measures

With the exception of those variables specifically noted below, all variables were measured on a five-point Likert-type scale with the anchor points of 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. Each measure is described below along with sample items as well as the results of the calculation of Cronbach's alpha coefficients (Cronbach, 1951) for all variables with multiple items.

Pro-social Rule Breaking

I measured pro-social rule breaking using the 13-item General Pro-Social Rule Breaking Scale (GPSRBS) developed and validated by Dahling and colleagues (2012). The GPSRBS was created from Morrison's initial conceptualization of the pro-social rule breaking construct and is comprised of three subscales – a five-item scale for organizational efficiency, and four-item scales for coworker assistance as well as customer assistance. This measure was used to reliably measure the focal construct in a way that is consistent with the prior findings. Sample items include, "I ignore organizational rules to "cut the red tape" and be a more effective worker" (organizational efficiency), "When another employee needs my help, I disobey organizational policies to help him/her" (coworker aid), and "I give good service to clients or customers by ignoring organizational policies that interfere with my job" (customer assistance). The three subscales collapsed into one factor, producing a

reliable measure with a Cronbach's α = .96. This level of reliability is in line with Dahling and colleague's (2012) validation of the scale in which they found alpha levels ranging from .86 to .96.

Proactive Personality

Proactive personality was measured using the nine-item instrument developed by Seibert and colleagues (1999) and used by other researchers (e.g., Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006). Sample items from the scale include, "I am always looking for better ways to do things," and "Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality." The resulting examination of reliability produced a Cronbach's α = .83.

Role Breadth Self-efficacy

We measured role breadth self-efficacy using the 10-item scale developed by Parker (1998) in which respondents indicate their confidence in performing various tasks. The respondents are first primed with the following question, "How confident would you feel doing the following?" to which they respond on a five-point Likert-style scale with anchors 1 = not at all confident, and 5 = very confident. Sample items include, "Making suggestions to management about ways to improve the working of your section," and "Visiting people from other departments to suggest doing things differently." The 10-item scale produced a Cronbach's α = .94.

Openness to Experience

Openness to experience was measured using the Big Five Inventory scale by John and Srivastava (1999) which includes the following opening statement: "Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please write a number

next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement." Within the scale, openness to experience is assessed with 10 items that include "I see myself as someone who is original, comes up with new ideas," and "I see myself as someone who is inventive." One question was removed due to a poor loading (.28) on the composite factor, as recommended when below .30 (Acock, 2013). Further, the test of reliability indicated that it should be removed. The resulting nine-item subscale produced a Cronbach's $\alpha = .87$.

Leader-member Exchange

Leader-member exchange was measured using the seven-item scale by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). Each item within the leader-member exchange scale has its own five-item Likert-style response scale with anchors such that one always indicates the lowest leader-member exchange and five always indicates the highest (e.g., 1 = rarely, not a bit, extremely ineffective; 5 = very often, a great deal, extremely effective). Sample items from the scale include, "How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?" and "Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?" The leader-member exchange measure produced a Cronbach's $\alpha = .90$.

Climate for Initiative

We assessed the employee's perceptions regarding his or her organization's climate for initiative using the seven items by Frese and colleagues (1997). The climate for initiative scale was created in order to examine the cultural norms in place within an organization that may allow an employee to experiment and try new ideas or processes

versus norms that may subdue such behaviors. The items were adapted by Baer and Frese (2003) to assess initiative at the organization-level. Sample items include, "People in our company usually do more than they are asked to do," and "People in our company take initiative immediately – more often than in other companies." An examination of the reliability of the measures produced a Cronbach's $\alpha = .90$.

Perceptions of Organizational Justice

We assessed the overall justice perceptions within the organization using the six-item scale by Ambrose and Schminke (2009). The six-item scale is comprised of two, three-item subscales representing personal justice experiences and general fairness of the organization, both of which were measured on a seven-point, Likert-style scale with anchors 1 = strongly disagree, and 7 = strongly agree. A sample item from the personal justice experiences subscale is "In general, the treatment I receive around here is fair." A sample item from the general fairness of the organization subscale is "For the most part, the organization treats its employees fairly." The two subscales collapsed into one factor which produced a reliable measure with a Cronbach's $\alpha = .93$.

Empowerment Role Identity

To measure empowerment role identity, I used the four-item scale developed by Zhang and Bartol (2010), as adapted from the prior work by Callero (1985) on donor role identity and Farmer, Tierney, and Kung-Mcintyre (2003) on creative role identity. Sample items include, "Having a certain degree of power and discretion is an important part of my identity," and "I have a clear concept of myself as an employee who wants to have greater decision-making power." The empowerment role identity scale produced a Cronbach's $\alpha = .62$ and, while low, may have been partially confounded by having only

four items as the measure for Cronbach's α is impacted by the number of items in the scale.

Perceptions of Organizational Politics

The respondents' perceptions of organizational politics were measured with the 15-item Perceptions of Organizational Politics Scale (POPS; Kacmar & Carlson, 1997; Kacmar & Ferris, 1991). The scale, as developed and validated by the authors and as used in several subsequent studies is comprised of three sub-scales – general organizational politics, going along to get ahead, and pay and promotion policies. The organization in which the data was collected requested that I did not use the pay and promotion policies subscale and, as such, I asked the employees to respond to the remaining nine items. However, within the initial exploratory factor analysis of the variables in the model, one item did not load on any factors, even when the number of factors was not constrained. Therefore, it was removed. Sample items from the retained scales include, "People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down," and "Telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth." The resulting eight-item subscale produced a Cronbach's α = .84.

Responses to pro-social rule breaking

Scales were developed to assess the perceptions of the focal employee as to how the potential beneficiaries of pro-social rule breaking typically respond to such behaviors. Therefore, a three-item scale was developed and was identical in assessing the typical responses from the organization, customers, and coworkers. The items are as follows, "When an employee breaks the rules in my organization, his or her coworkers/customers/organization are(is) supportive if it was done to help others,"

"When an employee breaks the rules in my organization, his or her coworkers/customers/organization are(is) supportive if doing so made the organization more efficient," and "When an employee breaks the rules in my organization, his or her coworkers/customers/organization are(is) supportive if the intent of the actions was to be helpful."

As such, I sought to measure pro-social rule breaking behaviors targeted at individuals, the organization, and in general. The three-item scale for the organizational response to pro-social rule breaking produced a reliable measure with a Cronbach's α = .89 while the customer and coworker responses to pro-social rule breaking collapsed into one factor which produced a Cronbach's α = .80. Similar to other forms of prosocial behaviors (e.g., organizational citizenship behaviors), pro-social rule breaking was conceptualized as behaviors that target the organization and other individuals. Morrison (2006) found that two categories of pro-social rule breaking toward individuals emerged – those geared toward coworkers and those toward customers. Therefore, it is reasonable that that two groups of individual beneficiaries may respond similarly, as I hypothesized them to do so.

Likelihood to Engage in Future Pro-social Rule Breaking Behaviors

A three-item scale was developed to measure an employee's likelihood to engage in future pro-social rule breaking behaviors. The items were developed from the three categories of such behaviors as conceptualized by Morrison (2006) and are as follows: "I am likely to engage in actions that break organizational rules to help the organization in the future," "I am likely to engage in actions that break organizational rules to help a coworker in the future," and "I am likely to engage in actions that break

organizational rules to help a customer in the future." The resulting factor produced a reliable measure with a Cronbach's α = .92.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured using the three-item scale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1979). A sample item from the measure is "All in all, I am satisfied with my job." The scale for job satisfaction was reliable with a Cronbach's α = .91.

Person-organization Fit

Person-organization fit was measured using the three-item scale by Cable and DeRue (2002). A sample item from the scale is "My personal values match my organization's values and culture." The reliability analysis produced a Cronbach's α = .92.

Perceptions of Psychological Contract Fulfillment

Robinson and Morrison's (2000) five-item scale was used to measure the degree to which the focal employee's perceptions that psychological contracts with the organization were fulfilled. A sample item is, "Almost all the promises made by my employer during recruitment have been kept." This scale produced a reliable measure with a Cronbach's α = .93.

Leader Encouragement of Creativity

In order to measure leader encouragement of creativity, I used the six-item scale by Zhang and Bartol (2010) that was adapted from the prior work by Scott and Bruce (1994). Sample items include, "My manager allows employees to try to solve the same

problems in different ways," and "My manager will reward employees who are creative in doing their job." The scale produced a Cronbach's $\alpha = .90$.

Control Variables

Control variables, or covariates, are important to consider within the development of a model when prior relationships have been established. In this way, I seek to explain variance in the outcome variables of the current model above and beyond what has already been found. In prior studies, scholars have found that an employee's personality and job design influence his or her likelihood of engaging in pro-social rule breaking. Specifically, employees with high levels of conscientiousness are less likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012) while employees high in risk-taking propensity and in highly autonomous roles, will be more likely to engage in similar behaviors (Morrison, 2006).

As such, I controlled for conscientiousness using the same Big Five Inventory by John and Srivastava (1999), as described above for openness to experience. Conscientious employees are responsible, achievement oriented, dependable, persistent, self-disciplined, and achievement striving (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount, & Strauss, 1993; Major, Turner, & Fletcher, 2006; Smith, Hanges, & Dickson, 2001). Sample items include, "I see myself as someone who perseveres until the task is finished," and "I see myself as a reliable worker". The nine-item scale for conscientiousness produced a Cronbach's $\alpha = .81$.

Morrison (2006) used a scenario-based methodology and therefore manipulated autonomy in the statements given to the participants. As hypothesized by several researchers (e.g., Morrison, 2006; Spreitzer, 1995) and empirically supported by

Morrison (2006), employees with high levels of autonomy have more opportunities to engage in pro-social rule breaking behaviors because they have a greater sense of control over their behaviors. For the current field study, I measured autonomy using the 10-item Factual Autonomy Scale by Spector and Fox (2003). The Factual Autonomy Scale is comprised of two subscales, the first provides the following question before a series of seven items, "In your present job, how often do you have to ask permission to do the following events?" to which sample items include, "to take a rest/break," and "to change the hours you work". This section is measured on a five-point Likert-style scale with anchors 1 = never, and 5 = all of the time. The second section comprises three items and asks the following question before the items, "How often do the following events occur in your present job?" for which a sample item is, "How often does someone tell you how you are to do your work?" This section is also measured with a five-point Likert-style scale but with anchors 1 = never, 5 = every day. The Factual Autonomy Scale produced a Cronbach's $\alpha = .81$ and, of note, a higher score suggests less autonomy.

Risk-taking propensity involves an employee's tendency to overestimate the likelihood of success in risky situations (Sitkin & Pablo, 1992). Risk-taking propensity was measured using the four-item scale developed by Gomez-Mejia and Balkin (1989) and is the same scale used by Morrison (2006) in her prior study. A sample item of the risk-taking propensity scale is, "I prefer a job with low risk and high security with a steady salary over a job that offers high risks and high rewards" (reverse coded). The measure of risk-taking propensity produced a Cronbach's $\alpha = .63$ which, like the

empowerment role identity measure, may have been partially confounded by the few items in the scale.

Finally, several demographic variables were included as controls – gender, as Morrison (2006) found that men engage in more pro-social rule breaking than women. Also, age, tenure within the organization, and tenure within the role were included as typically younger employees engage in more deviant behaviors (Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008; Carstensen, 1992) and having more experience will likely make the employees more aware of the rules and punishments for violating them. Morrison (2006) did not find that work experience predicted pro-social rule breaking, however rather than replicate her measure of overall work performance, I exam just the experience within the organization and current role as these are likely to be more important to the violation of organization-specific rules. Prior meta-analytic results suggest that gender and work experience predict workplace deviance (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007) such that being male and having less work experience makes an employee more inclined to deviate from the rules and norms of the organization. Age, tenure within the organization, and well as tenure within the role should be positively correlated and provide multiple indicators of work experience.

However, within constructive deviance, the results for these frequently used control variables has been mixed. Being male has been found to be significantly related to whistle-blowing (Miceli & Near, 1988), voice (Detert & Burris, 2007; Gao, Janssen, & Shi, 2011; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998), creative performance (Zhang & Bartol, 2010; Zhou, 1998), prosocial behaviors (Lee, 1995), and extra-role behaviors (Bowling, 2010). However, others have found no relationship (e.g., Moon, Kamdar, Mayer, &

Takeuchi, 2008; Morrison, 2011; Van Dyne, Kamdar, & Joireman, 2008), or even a negative relationship (e.g., Hall & Ferris, 2011). Age has also been found to be positively (e.g., George & Zhou, 2007; Farmer, Tierney, & Kung-McIntyre, 2003; Madjar, Greenberg, & Chen, 2011; Tucker, Chmiel, Turner, Hershcovis, & Stride, 2008; Zhang, Chiu, & Wei, 2009) or not related (Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, & Staw, 2005; Mueller & Kamdar, 2011; Perry-Smith, 2006; Tierney & Farmer, 2011) to constructive deviance. Likewise, tenure has been found to be positively (Liao, Liu, & Loi, 2010; Mellahi, Budhwar, & Li, 2010), negatively (Stansbury & Victor, 2009), or not related (George & Zhou, 2007; Madjar, Greenberg, & Chen, 2011; Moon, Kamdar, Mayer, & Takeuchi, 2008) to constructive deviance. Table 5 provides a list of all variables that are included in the model, how they are used, as well as the time period at which they were collected and from which source.

Table 5 - Summary of Data Collection

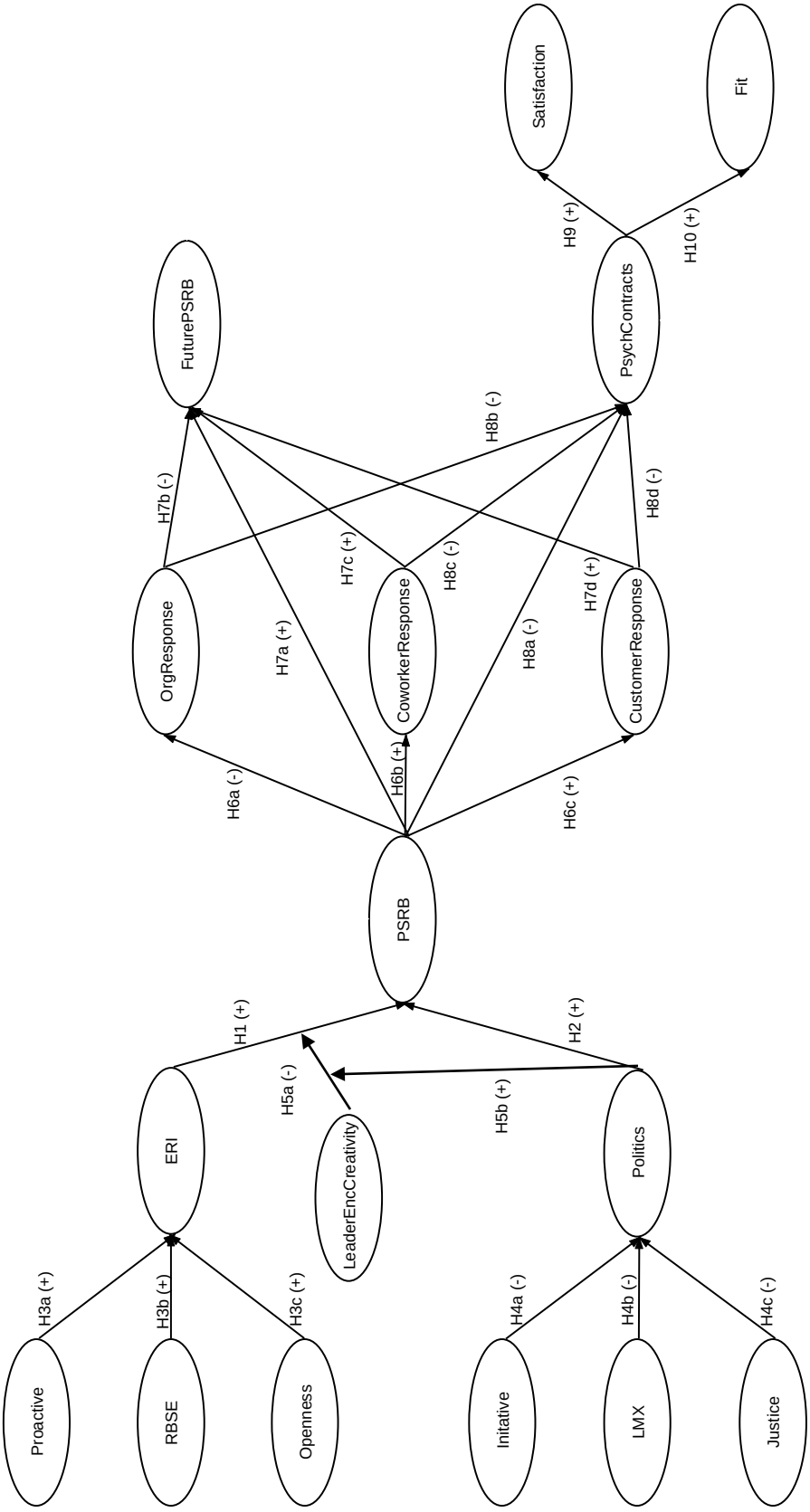
Variable	Use	Source	Time Period
Tenure in role	Control variable	Organizational records	One
Tenure in organization	Control variable	Organizational records	One
Gender	Control variable	Organizational records	One
Age	Control variable	Focal employee	One
Conscientiousness	Control variable	Focal employee	One
Autonomy	Control variable	Focal employee	One
Risk-taking propensity	Control variable	Focal employee	One
Proactive personality	Antecedent	Focal employee	One
Role-breadth self-efficacy	Antecedent	Focal employee	One
Openness to experience	Antecedent	Focal employee	One
Climate for initiative	Antecedent	Focal employee	One
Leader-member exchange	Antecedent	Focal employee	One
Perceptions of organizational justice	Antecedent	Focal employee	One
Empowerment role identity	Mediator	Focal employee	Two
Perceptions of organizational politics	Mediator	Focal employee	Two
Leader encouragement of creativity	Moderator	Focal employee	Two
Prosocial rule-breaking	Focal Construct	Focal employee	Three
Organizational response to PSRB	Mediator	Focal employee	Three
Coworker response to PSRB	Mediator	Focal employee	Three
Customer response to PSRB	Mediator	Focal employee	Three
Future PSRB	Outcome variable	Focal employee	Four
Satisfaction	Outcome variable	Focal employee	Four
Person-organization fit	Outcome variable	Focal employee	Four
Psychological contract fulfillment	Outcome variable	Focal employee	Four
Perceptions of PSRB	Supplemental analysis	Supervisor	Five
Organizational citizenship behaviors	Supplemental analysis	Supervisor	Five
Performance	Supplemental analysis	Supervisor	Five

Analyses

Structural equation modeling (SEM) through Stata 13 was used to examine the hypothesized paths in the model. Whereas pathways between variables have been traditionally considered through regression models in piecemeal approaches (e.g., Baron & Kenny, 1986; MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002), SEM is able to simultaneously test the entire hypothesized model, thereby decreasing the inflation of standard errors and biased parameter estimates (Byrne, 1994; Iacobucci, Saldanha, & Deng, 2007). Maximum likelihood estimation was selected because it is both scale free as well as scale invariant while providing replicable results in samples greater than 200 (Kline, 2011). Hierarchical regression using the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2014) in SPSS 21 was used to examine the proposed interaction effects in Hypothesis 5a and b.

Consistent with the recommendation by Anderson and Gerbing (1998), I utilized a two-step approach to test the hypothesized pathways in my study, as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1 - Hypothesized Model



In the first step, a confirmatory factor analysis was developed in the measurement model. Next, based on the results of the measurement model, I performed structural equation modeling to assess the parameter estimates and fit of the theoretically-driven hypothesized model to the data. I then compared the hypothesized model with four alternative models to determine the most accurate structural representation for the data, through which I compared the fit statistics and significance of the variable relationships.

To provide transparency in the assessment of the fit of the model, methodologists have noted the need to report multiple fit indices (e.g., Bollen, 1989; Schumacker & Lomax, 2005). As such I relied on the most commonly recommended and reported goodness-of-fit statistics – chi-square (χ^2), comparative fit index (CFI), the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) (Acock, 2013; Bagozzi, 2010; Iacobucci, 2010).

The chi-square test assess the absolute fit of the model by comparing it to a saturated model with no degrees of freedom as well as a null model in which all relationships are constrained to zero (Acock, 2013). The chi-square test is the only inferential goodness-of-fit statistic (Iacobucci 2010) and is actually a badness-of-fit test such that the corresponding p value associated with the chi-square test is desired to be greater than .05 for a good fit. Unfortunately, the chi-square test is sensitive to the size of the sample (Anderson & Gerbing, 1984; Bagozzi & Yi, 2012) and will frequently be less than .05, indicative of a poor fit, for studies with even a modest sample size (Iacobucci, 2010). In order to attenuate the improper inflation of the chi-square test, researchers have begun to consider the model to be of adequate fit if the chi-square

statistic, as adjusted for its degrees of freedom, does not exceed 3 (Kline, 2011). As such, I report this supplemental statistic as an addendum to my reporting of the chi-square test. Next, the comparative fit index (CFI: Bentler, 1990) directly compares the model to the data as related to similar models. Therefore, it accounts for parsimony in the model (Iacobucci, 2010) and has been considered the best approximation of the population value such that values greater than .90 suggest a good fit (Medsker, Williams, & Holahan, 1994; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). The standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) is calculated by standardizing the average covariance residuals such that it evaluates the differences between the data and the model (Kline, 1998). Therefore, when the model is clean with high factor loadings, the residuals decrease and the SRMR is lowered (Anderson & Gerbing, 1984; Iacobucci 2010). Scores of .1 or below on the SRMR are considered representative of a good fitting model to the data. Finally, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Browne & Cudeck, 1993) and its corresponding pclose number is the last goodness-of-fit statistic reported for the current study. The RMSEA is an assessment of the average standardized residual per degree of freedom such that a good fit is found when the score is .08 or below (Browne & Cudeck, 1989). The pclose number represents the probability that the RMSEA is below .05, and therefore representative of a strong fit. As such, the higher the pclose, the more certain the fit statistic can be interpreted.

Importantly, while the chi-square test can be biased to the sample size, the cutoffs in the other goodness-of-fit statistics are more field norms or rules of thumb rather than defined practices. For example, Hu and Bentler (1998, 1999) recommend more conservative reports in assessing goodness-of-fit such that the model should only

be considered a good fit to the data if CFI > .95, SRMR < .08, and the RMSEA < .06. Likewise, Bagozzi and Yi (2012) recommend cutoffs of CFI > .93, SRMR < .07, and RMSEA < .07. Upon the recommendations of methodologists (e.g., Bagozzi, 2010), I adopt these more conservative cutoffs although others have suggested that such dichotomous cutoff scores are overly simplistic (e.g., Fabrigar & Wegener, 2009) and have suggested instead multiple categories (e.g., good, acceptable, marginal, and poor; Fabrigar, Porter, & Norris, 2010) such that a CFI < .90 and SRMR > .10 is deficient, CFI .90 - .95 and SRMR .08 - .10 is acceptable and CFI > .95 and SRMR < .08 is excellent (Maynard, Mathieu, Marsh, & Ruddy, 2007)

Results

Tests for Non-response Bias

In order to examine the possibility of non-response bias, one-way between subject ANOVAs across a number of characteristics were conducted to compare differences that may exist between those employees who volunteered to participate and those who self-selected out of the study. No significant differences were found in the employees' positions within the organization [$F(1, 388) = .75$, $p = .39$]. I also explored differences in the responses from the supervisors, who were asked to complete evaluations on all employees without knowledge of which employees participated in the study. I examined the employees' performance evaluations, and confirmatory factor analyses were conducted for the measures of pro-social rule breaking and organizational citizenship behaviors. There were significant differences between the respondents and the nonrespondents regarding the assessment of their performance from their direct supervisor [$F(1, 335) = 5.54$, $p = .02$].

The 13 items from the general pro-social rule breaking scale (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012), following Kaiser's criterion (Kaiser, 1960), loaded onto one factor which explained 76.40% of the variance and had a Cronbach's $\alpha = .97$. The use of one factor was further substantiated upon inspection of the scree plot (Cattell, 1966). All items loaded onto the factor at .79 or above, well above the .5 cutoff (Kaiser, 1974) and the factor was in the great ratings (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999) for the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) (Kaiser, 1970). Finally, the factor was also highly significant ($p < .001$) in Bartlett's test of spherecity. There were no significant differences between the employees who participated in the study and those who did not regarding how they were evaluated by their direct supervisors for pro-social rule breaking [$F (1, 393) = .00$, $p = .97$].

Likewise, the 16 items from the subscales of organizational citizenship behaviors targeted at customers (5 items – Bettencourt & Brown, 1997), coworkers (5 items – Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990) and the organization (6 items – Williams & Anderson, 1991) were combined in one factor analysis. Using the same determinants as listed above for the evaluation of the factor analysis for pro-social rule breaking, the organizational citizenship behavior items all loaded onto one factor which explained 55.94 of the variance and had a Cronbach's $\alpha = .94$. While the factor was again in the great ratings on the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and while the factor was again highly significant ($p < .001$) in Bartlett's test of spherecity, one item within the subscale that measures organizational citizenship behaviors targeted at the organization loaded onto the factor lower than the .5 cutoff. The item which states, "The focal employee adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order" loaded

on the factor at .46. There were significant differences regarding the supervisors' assessment of their subordinates organizational citizenship behaviors between those employees who participated in the study and those who did not [$F (1, 393) = 13.97$, $p < .001$].

Interestingly, while I did not find any significant differences between the respondents and nonrespondents regarding their positions within the organization or, importantly, their pro-social rule breaking behaviors, I did find that their direct supervisors rated the respondents higher than the nonrespondents in task performance (respondents mean = 3.73, standard deviation = .61; nonrespondents mean = 3.56, standard deviance = .44) as well as organizational citizenship behaviors (respondents mean = 4.52, standard deviation = .56; nonrespondents mean = 4.27, standard deviation = .68). Intuitively it makes sense that the employees who are rated higher in organizational citizenship behaviors will be more likely participate in a voluntary study, such as the current one, since doing so is neither rewarded nor is it recognized due to the anonymity of the responses.

Correlations and Descriptive Statistics

Table 6 provides descriptive statistics and correlations for all of the variables within the study as well as scale reliabilities for all multi-item measures. Examination of these measures was conducted pursuant to the recommendations by Bedeian (2014). For example, no correlation exceeds its maximum potential as the product of the square roots of the variables' reliability estimates and all means and standard deviations are within the range to conclude significant variance exists, without exceeding the scale measures. Further, no unexpected sign reversals were found and I addressed the issue of

missing data prior to examining the correlations. Additionally, I did not find any indication of common method bias such that the proportion of significant correlates was not higher among the variables collected by the focal employees than they were in those collected by other measures. Further, I did not find that the variables collected by the focal employees within the separate waves of surveys exhibited any hint of common method bias. However, I did find two correlations greater than the absolute value of .70, suggesting 50% or greater shared variance between the variables and the potential for collinearity that may bias the results and lead to Type I errors if the highly correlated variables are both predictors of another variable (Bedeian, 2014; Tu, Kellett, Clerehugh, & Gilthorpe, 2005). These issues are not problematic in the current study as the high correlations between past and future performance (pro-social rule breaking and the likelihood of engaging in future pro-social rule breaking, .77) and in various leadership perceptions (leader-member exchange and leader encouragement of creativity, .75) are to be expected. Further, the correlated variables are not included in the hypothesized model or any alternative model as dual predictors of an outcome variable.

Table 6 - Descriptive Statistics and Correlations of Study Variables

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Age	45.87	10.93	(NA)			
2. Gender (Male = 0; Female = 1)[b]	1.49	0.50	-.13*	(NA)		
3. Tenure - Role	8.58	8.92	.48**	-.10	(NA)	
4. Tenure - Organization	13.72	11.25	.64**	-.12*	.63**	(NA)
5. Conscientiousness	4.16	0.46	.13*	.08	.06	.06
6. Autonomy	2.29	0.74	-.12	.02	-.10	-.14*
7. Risk-taking propensity	3.49	0.63	-.03	-.17**	-.12*	-.13*
8. Proactive personality	3.77	0.50	-.17**	.05	-.15*	-.26**
9. Role-breadth self-efficacy	3.87	0.90	.03	-.16**	-.13*	-.09
10. Openness to experience	3.88	0.57	-.21**	-.07	-.14*	-.26**
11. Climate for initiative	3.44	0.71	-.01	.02	-.04	-.06
12. Leader-member exchange	3.81	0.79	-.06	.03	-.05	-.07
13. Perceptions of organizational justice	5.25	1.19	-.01	-.01	-.13*	-.11
14. Empowerment role identity	3.79	0.60	-.08	-.04	-.11	-.12
15. Perceptions of organizational politics	2.80	0.70	-.01	-.03	.11	.14*
16. Leader encouragement of creativity	3.92	0.73	-.13*	-.01	-.08	-.11
17. Prosocial rule-breaking	2.61	0.80	-.05	-.10	.01	-.02
18. Organizational response to PSRB	2.68	0.66	-.04	.01	.03	.03
19. Customer/coworker response to PSRB	2.86	0.64	-.03	-.10	-.04	-.02
20. Likelihood to engage in future PSRB	2.62	0.88	-.08	-.09	-.01	-.02
21. Satisfaction	3.98	0.76	.10	.11	-.03	-.02
22. Person-organization fit	3.50	0.87	.16**	.06	-.04	-.04
23. Psychological contract fulfillment	3.35	0.90	-.04	.04	-.15*	-.13*

Note. $N = 270$.

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

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

[a] Cronbach's alpha (α) reliability coefficient.

[b] Point-biserial correlation.

Variables	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age						
2. Gender (Male = 0; Female = 1)[b]						
3. Tenure - Role						
4. Tenure - Organization						
5. Conscientiousness	(.81)[a]					
6. Autonomy	-.00	(.81)[a]				
7. Risk-taking propensity	.15*	-.02	(.63)[a]			
8. Proactive personality	.35**	.11	.29**	(.83)[a]		
9. Role-breadth self-efficacy	.21**	-.03	.35**	.41**	(.94)[a]	
10. Openness to experience	.16**	.21**	.21**	.39**	.29**	(.87)[a]
11. Climate for initiative	.15*	-.19**	.06	.20**	.13*	-.01
12. Leader-member exchange	.15*	-.10	.15*	.21**	.13*	.08
13. Perceptions of organizational justice	.14*	-.15*	.07	.10	.18**	-.01
14. Empowerment role identity	.00	.05	.16*	.27**	.25**	.38**
15. Perceptions of organizational politics	-.15*	.15*	-.21**	-.20**	-.18**	-.02
16. Leader encouragement of creativity	.16**	-.06	.11	.26**	.12*	.17**
17. Prosocial rule-breaking	-.23**	.03	.04	-.14*	-.01	.05
18. Organizational response to PSRB	.08	.05	-.19**	.11	-.04	.10
19. Customer/coworker response to PSRB	-.16**	.02	-.04	-.16**	-.07	-.11
20. Likelihood to engage in future PSRB	-.14*	-.02	.01	-.14*	-.00	.03
21. Satisfaction	.21**	-.12	.12*	.15*	.24**	-.03
22. Person-organization fit	.21**	-.17**	.11	.27**	.25**	-.09
23. Psychological contract fulfillment	.14*	-.20**	.14*	.12*	.14*	.01

Note. $N = 270$.

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

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

[a] Cronbach's alpha (α) reliability coefficient.

[b] Point-biserial correlation.

Variables	11	12	13	14	15	17
1. Age						
2. Gender (Male = 0; Female = 1)[b]						
3. Tenure - Role						
4. Tenure - Organization						
5. Conscientiousness						
6. Autonomy						
7. Risk-taking propensity						
8. Proactive personality						
9. Role-breadth self-efficacy						
10. Openness to experience						
11. Climate for initiative	(.90)[a]					
12. Leader-member exchange	.46**	(.90)[a]				
13. Perceptions of organizational justice	.60**	.49**	(.93)[a]			
14. Empowerment role identity	-.04	-.06	-.11	(.62)[a]		
15. Perceptions of organizational politics	-.51**	-.44**	-.60**	.07	(.84)[a]	
16. Leader encouragement of creativity	.50**	.75**	.45**	.04	-.35**	(.90)[a]
17. Prosocial rule-breaking	-.15*	-.04	-.12*	.20**	.16*	-.12*
18. Organizational response to PSRB	-.07	-.14*	-.23**	-.06	.18**	-.05
19. Customer/coworker response to PSRB	-.15*	-.09	-.09	.16*	.10	-.08
20. Likelihood to engage in future PSRB	-.16**	-.02	-.07	.18**	.14*	-.01
21. Satisfaction	.44**	.45**	.46**	-.19**	-.39**	.40**
22. Person-organization fit	.64**	.44**	.67**	-.05	-.55**	.45**
23. Psychological contract fulfillment	.49**	.41**	.62**	-.11	-.57**	.37**

Note. $N = 270$.

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

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

[a] Cronbach's alpha (α) reliability coefficient.

[b] Point-biserial correlation.

Variables	18	19	20	21	22
1. Age					
2. Gender (Male = 0; Female = 1)[b]					
3. Tenure - Role					
4. Tenure - Organization					
5. Conscientiousness					
6. Autonomy					
7. Risk-taking propensity					
8. Proactive personality					
9. Role-breadth self-efficacy					
10. Openness to experience					
11. Climate for initiative					
12. Leader-member exchange					
13. Perceptions of organizational justice					
14. Empowerment role identity					
15. Perceptions of organizational politics					
16. Leader encouragement of creativity					
17. Prosocial rule-breaking	(.96)[a]				
18. Organizational response to PSRB	-.30**	(.89)[a]			
19. Customer/coworker response to PSRB	.58**	-.29**	(.80)[a]		
20. Likelihood to engage in future PSRB	.77**	-.33**	.55**	(.92)[a]	
21. Satisfaction	-.18**	-.13*	-.14*	-.19**	(.91)[a]
22. Person-organization fit	-.23**	-.17**	-.15*	-.20**	.54**
23. Psychological contract fulfillment	-.18**	-.19**	-.21**	-.14*	.58**

Note. $N = 270$.

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

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

[a] Cronbach's alpha (α) reliability coefficient.

[b] Point-biserial correlation.

Variables	23	24
1. Age		
2. Gender (Male = 0; Female = 1)[b]		
3. Tenure - Role		
4. Tenure - Organization		
5. Conscientiousness		
6. Autonomy		
7. Risk-taking propensity		
8. Proactive personality		
9. Role-breadth self-efficacy		
10. Openness to experience		
11. Climate for initiative		
12. Leader-member exchange		
13. Perceptions of organizational justice		
14. Empowerment role identity		
15. Perceptions of organizational politics		
16. Leader encouragement of creativity		
17. Prosocial rule-breaking		
18. Organizational response to PSRB		
19. Customer/coworker response to PSRB		
20. Likelihood to engage in future PSRB		
21. Satisfaction		
22. Person-organization fit	(.92)[a]	
23. Psychological contract fulfillment	.53**	(.93)[a]

Note. $N = 270$.

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

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

[a] Cronbach's alpha (α) reliability coefficient.

[b] Point-biserial correlation.

I examined the data for the possible confounding impact of kurtosis such that the data may not be normally distributed on a bell curve but rather may have a high peak in the middle of the curve suggesting the respondents are very similar in their responses or may be lower in the middle of the curve, creating a flatter curve, and suggesting that the respondents are strongly varied in their responses. Unsurprisingly, kurtosis was found to be high for the age and role tenure control variables suggesting that the respondents were similar in regards to these demographics.

Piecewise Model Building

I performed piecewise model building (Bollen, 1989) by examining the unidimensionality of the scales to identify potential sources of misspecification (Anderson & Gerbing, 1982). In doing so, I followed the precedent set by scholars looking at many of the same variables of interest (e.g., leader-member exchange, organizational politics, and organizational justice; Andrews & Kacmar, 2001) by estimating the parameter for each equation separately rather than simultaneously (Sethi & Carraher, 1993). The fit indices for each latent variable in the model is shown in Table 7 with the exception of those variables for which there are three-items scales, as noted in the table, as this provides a saturated model and biases the goodness-of-fit statistics.

Table 7 - Fit Statistics from Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Scale	CFI	SRMR
Proactive Personality	0.98	0.03
Role breadth self-efficacy	0.98	0.03
Openness to experience	0.99	0.02
Empowerment role identity	0.97	0.02
Leader encouragement of creativity	0.99	0.02
Leader-member exchange	0.99	0.02
Climate for initiative	0.99	0.02
Perceptions of organizational justice	0.99	0.02
Perceptions of organizational politics	1.00	0.03
Pro-social rule breaking	0.97	0.03
Organizational response to PSRB[a]	1.00	0.00
Customer/coworker response to PSRB[a]	1.00	0.00
Satisfaction[a]	1.00	0.00
Likelihood to perform PSRB[a]	1.00	0.00
Person-organization fit[a]	1.00	0.00
Psychological Contracts	1.00	0.01
Autonomy	0.99	0.07
Risk-taking propensity	1.00	0.02
Conscientiousness	0.94	0.05

[a] saturated models with three-item scales

Researchers (e.g., Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Judge & Bretz, 1994) have used this procedure to also examine the internal reliability for scales with low Cronbach alphas. One of the focal variables, empowerment role identity ($\alpha = .62$) and one of the control variables, risk-taking propensity ($\alpha = .63$) had reliability estimates lower than the conventionally accepted .70 cutoff (Nunnally, 1978). As such, further examination of these variables is needed before proceeding further. The results of the confirmatory factor analyses suggest that the empowerment role identity factor fit the data (CFI = .97, SRMR = .02) with all paths statistically significant ($p < .001$) and adequate standardized path loadings .68 on average). Likewise, risk-taking propensity also had strong fit

statistics (CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .02) with all paths statistically significant ($p < .001$) and standardized path loadings that averaged .69. Therefore, the measures are suggested have adequate reliability to be included and interpreted in the hypothesized model.

While the conceptual model was developed through a consistent theoretical framework and with hypotheses that were tested from the sample above, I split the model in two. Below, I first provide the results from the front half of the model in which I explore the hypothesized antecedents of pro-social rule breaking – Hypotheses 1 – 5. Next, I examine the results of the back half of the model which contain the outcomes of pro-social rule breaking in the suggested relationships from Hypotheses 6 – 10. The model was intentionality split into two sections in order to provide for a quick subsequent separation for the submission of independent manuscripts, as titled below, to scholarly journals.

Spoiling the Good Apple in a Rotten Barrel: An Interactionist Examination of the Antecedents of Pro-social Rule Breaking

Measurement Model (Antecedents)

In the measurement model, the first step in Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach to structural equation modeling, I performed a confirmatory factor analysis of all the variables. The first item for each proposed latent variable was constrained to 1. The results of the goodness-of-fit analyses suggest that the measurement model fit the data well ($\chi^2[2519] = 4{,}103.23$, $p < .001$; χ^2 adjusted for degrees of freedom = 1.63; CFI = .97; SRMR = .07; RMSEA = .05, pclose = .88). These results provide support for the adequacy of the data in advancing to the examination of the structural model.

I also checked for the possible impact of common method bias, as well as the required underlying assumptions of the data – linearity and multicollinearity. While I sought to limit the possibility of common method bias by collecting data from multiple sources and at different periods in time (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Williams, Cote, & Buckley, 1989), much of the data was collected from the focal employees. As such, I created a common latent factor (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) to test whether the items from the variables in the model would load onto it, thereby indicating the potential presence of common method bias as designed in the Harmon one-factor test. This process has been commonly used (e.g., Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Conger, Kanungo, & Menon, 2000; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Paine, 1999; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Sanchez & Brock, 1996) to identify the presence of common method bias such that if all items load onto the single factor, then there is indication of such. Further, a benefit of this procedure is that it assesses systematic variance in the individual items rather than the latent variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). The common latent factor produced a poor fitting model for the data: ($\chi^2[2555] = 11764.55$, $p < .001$; χ^2 adjusted for degrees of freedom = 4.60; CFI = .25; SRMR = .17; RMSEA = .12, pclose = .00). Further, the measurement model produced a significantly better fit ($\Delta\chi^2$ (17) = 7450.61, $p < .001$). Therefore, I did not find evidence of common method bias.

To test for linearity, I conducted a curve estimation between the variables in each hypothesized pathway in the model. The F-tests for the linear relationships between the variables were all significant and approximately twice as strong as the f-

values for any other type of relationship. Therefore, I determined that all relationships were sufficiently linear in order to be modeled using the covariance-based structural equation modeling techniques such as the one used in the Stata program. Finally, I tested the data for multicollinearity by running collinearity diagnostics whenever more than two variables were predicting another. Such a design appeared only twice in my model for the predictors of empowerment role identity and perceptions of organizational politics. Collinearity can bias the results by increasing the parameter variance estimates (Besley, Kuh, & Welsch, 1980; Greene, 1993). The variance inflation factor (VIF) statistic is the inverse of the tolerance statistic. Several rules of thumb exist to determine appropriate cutoff points such as five (Menard, 1995), but frequently the considered cutoff value is 10 in the rule of 10 (e.g., Chatterjee & Price, 1991; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Kennedy, 1992; Marquardt, 1970; Mason, Gunst, & Hess, 1989). However, other researchers (e.g., O'Brien, 2007) have begun to question these somewhat arbitrary values and have noted that other factors should be considered such that VIFs of 10, 20, or even 40 may not be directly indicative of collinearity issues. Fortunately these concerns are moot in the present study as the VIFs for the predictors of empowerment role identity ranged between 1.08 and 1.20 while the VIFs for the predictors of perceptions of organizational politics ranged between 1.23 and 1.45, thereby suggesting that multicollinearity is not a concern (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006).

Structural Model (Antecedents)

Each of the constructs was represented by a single factor score in order to minimize the parameter estimates and to provide better interpretation of the effects

(Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005). The results of the goodness-of-fit analyses suggest that the hypothesized model fit the data well ($\chi^2[15] = 20.27$, $p = .16$; χ^2 adjusted for degrees of freedom = 1.35; CFI = .97; SRMR = .03; RMSEA = .04, pclose = .70). Table 8 summarizes the fit indices for all models of the antecedents and Figure 4 presents the hypothesized model with the corresponding path coefficients. All paths with a solid line were statistically significant while those with a dashed line were not.

Table 8 - Summary of Model Fit Indexes (Antecedents)

Model Test[a]	χ^2	*df*	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$
1. Hypothesized model	20.27	15	0.97	0.03	0.04	174.25***[f]
2. Alternative model 1[b]	194.52	24	0.00	0.13	0.16	N/A
3. Alternative model 2[c]	0.00	0	1.00	0.00	0.00	20.27[g]
4. Alternative model 3[d]	243.29	29	0.56	0.12	0.17	-223.02[g]
5. Alternative model 4[e]	35.64	15	0.91	0.04	0.07	15.37[g]

[a] CFI = comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root-mean-square residual. N = 270.

[b] Null model

[c] Saturated model

[d] Mediators and predictors were switched

[e] Role breadth self-efficacy and empowerment role identity were switched as were perceptions of organizational justice and perceptions of organizational politics

[f] Model fit compared with the null model (Alternative model 1)

[g] Model fit compared with the theoretical model

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

In addition to the six predictor variables, as suggested in Hypotheses 3 and 4, the seven covariates were added as exogenous variables with suggested relationships on the endogenous pro-social rule breaking. Six of the seven control variables were not significantly related to pro-social rule breaking, including the demographic variables age (β = -.04, p = .57), gender (β = -.06, p = .31), tenure within the role (β = .06, p -.43), and tenure within the organization (β = -.02, p = .81). Additionally two of the covariates that were added to the model based on prior findings were also not significantly related to pro-social rule breaking: risk-taking propensity (β = .08, p = .22) and autonomy (β = .00, p = .95). Methodologists (e.g., Becker, 2005) have argued for the removal of control variables that are not significant as they may create spurious suppression effects and bias the results. I follow this suggestion, as well as the precedent set by other researchers (e.g., Cole, Walter, & Bruch, 2008; Effelberg, Solga,

& Gurt, 2014), by removing these six control variables from subsequent analyses. Further, this step is warranted as a primary goal of structural equation modeling is to find a theoretically-driven model that fits the data well but is also parsimonious. Importantly, conscientiousness ($\beta = -.22$, $p < .001$) was found to be strongly and negatively related to pro-social rule breaking, which replicated the prior findings by Dahling and colleagues (2012).

It was suggested in Hypothesis 1 that empowerment role identity predicts pro-social rule breaking such that employees with high empowerment role identities are more likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking behaviors. The results of the structural equation modeling supported this hypothesis ($\beta = .17$, $p < .01$, 95% confidence interval .06, .29). In Hypothesis 2, I stated that perceptions of organizational politics would also impact pro-social rule breaking such that when an employee perceives high levels of organizational politics, he or she will be more likely to break the rules with prosocial intentions. Support ($\beta = .12$, $p = .04$, 95% confidence interval .004, .23) was found for Hypothesis 2. With Hypothesis 3a-c, I sought to determine predictors of empowerment role identity as proactive personality, role breadth self-efficacy, and openness to experience, respectively, such that employees with personalities that are proactive and open to new experiences and that have confidence in their abilities will be more likely to have an empowerment role identity. The results of the path analysis found no support for proactive personality ($\beta = .08$, $p = .22$, 95% confidence interval -.05, .20) but there was support for role breadth self-efficacy ($\beta = .15$, $p = .01$, 95% confidence interval .03, .27) as well as openness to experience ($\beta = .25$, $p < .001$, 95% confidence interval .14, .37). Therefore, I found that role breadth self-efficacy and openness to experience

positively relate to empowerment role identity, which in turn positively impacts pro-social rule breaking. As such Hypotheses 3b and 3c were supported. Finally, I stated in Hypothesis 4a-c that perceptions of a climate of initiative, leader-member exchange, and perceptions of organizational justice negatively predict an employee's perceptions of organizational politics such that when he or she perceives the organization is fair and encouraging of innovation as well as has a high quality relationship with his or her supervisor, then the employee will be less likely to perceive the organization as political. Support was found for all three predictors such that perceptions of a climate of initiative ($\beta = -.23$, $p < .001$, 95% confidence interval -.35, -.11), leader-member exchange ($\beta = -.15$, $p < .01$, 95% confidence interval -.27, -.04), and perceptions of organizational justice ($\beta = -.31$, $p < .001$, 95% confidence interval -.43, -.19) are all negatively related to perceptions of organizational politics. As such, an employee's perceptions of a climate for initiative and organizational justice as well as leader-member exchange are negatively related to perceptions of organizational politics, which in turn is positively related to pro-social rule breaking, thereby providing support for Hypothesis 4a-c.

Following the recommendation by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) and others, I also tested four alternative models that were nested within each other in order to conduct a sequential chi-square difference test (SCDT). First, Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggested that a null model be examined as well as a saturated model. In the null model all parameters are constrained to zero which serves as a baseline to compare the results of the chi-square tests for the subsequent models. As expected the null model produced poor fit statistics ($\chi^2[24] = 194.52$, $p < .001$; χ^2 adjusted for degrees of

freedom = 8.11; CFI = .00; SRMR = .13; RMSEA = .16, pclose = .00). The chi-square difference test between the hypothesized model and the null model provides support for the fit of the hypothesized model to the data ($\Delta\chi^2$ 174.25(9); $p < .001$). Next, the comparison between the hypothesized model and the saturated model provides additional support for the hypothesized model such that allowing all parameters across all constructs to be estimated in the saturated model did not provide a better fit ($\Delta\chi^2$ 20.27(15); p = n.s.).

Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggest that the final two alternative models be the "next most likely" (p. 418) alternatives from the hypothesized model. Iacobucci, Saldanha, and Deng (2007) argued that researchers evaluating mediation or indirect effects in structural equation modeling should test a model in which the mediator(s) and predictor(s) are reversed such that M→X→Y. To follow this argument, the model was redesigned such that empowerment role identity predicts proactive personality, role breadth self-efficacy, and openness to experience while perceptions of organizational politics predicts climate for initiative, leader-member exchange, and perceptions of organizational justice. In turn, the six original distal predictors of pro-social rule breaking are now suggested to be directly related to the prosocially deviant behaviors. Overall the model was a poor fit to the data $\chi^2[29] = 243.29$, $p < .001$; χ^2 adjusted for degrees of freedom = 8.39; CFI = .56; SRMR = .12; RMSEA = .17, pclose = .00). Additionally, five of the six proposed relationships with pro-social rule breaking were not significant – openness to experience (p = .06), role breadth self-efficacy (p = .24), climate for initiative (p = .16), leader-member exchange (p = .20), and perceptions of

organizational justice ($p = .34$). The results of the chi-square test suggest that the hypothesized model is a much better fit for the data ($\Delta\chi^2$ 223.02(14); $p < .001$).

The last model was theoretically-driven. While the third alternative model was a logical step providing support for indirect effects, it was implausible for my data. Personality components are relatively stable and, as such, it is difficult to suggest that an employee's proactive personality or openness to experience is significantly predicted by his or her role identity. However, it is plausible that an employee's personality and empowerment role identity may provide him or her with increased role breadth self-efficacy since a belief in one's abilities is ever-changing. Likewise, an employee's perceptions of organizational politics and justice have frequently been discussed as being related (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandy, & Toth, 1997; Cropanzano, Kacmar, & Bozeman, 1995; Nye & Witt, 1993) and it is likely that an employee who has a low-quality relationship with his or her supervisor and perceives a highly political organization that doesn't promote initiative may foster perceptions of injustice. Therefore, in the final model I consider the most likely alternative mediators to empowerment role identity and perceptions of organizational politics by switching role breadth self-efficacy and empowerment role identity as well as switching perceptions of organizational justice with perceptions of organizational politics. In doing so, I then tested the final alternative model which suggested that the impact of proactive personality, empowerment role identity, and openness to experience on pro-social rule breaking was mediated by the employee's role breadth self-efficacy while the similar relationships between climate for initiative, leader-member exchange, and perceptions of organizational politics on pro-social rule breaking was mediated by

perceptions of organizational justice. The fit statistics of the model were within the acceptable range ($\chi^2[15] = 35.64$, $p = .002$; χ^2 adjusted for degrees of freedom = 2.38; CFI = .91; SRMR = .04; RMSEA = .07, pclose = .11). In examining the results, openness to experience did not predict role breadth self-efficacy ($p = .06$). Additionally, more central to the model, neither role breadth self-efficacy ($\beta = .07$, $p = .28$) nor perceptions of organizational justice ($\beta = -.10$, $p = .09$) were related to pro-social rule breaking. Since the alternative model and the hypothesized model used the same number of degrees of freedom, only an observation of the chi-squared values is needed to determine better fit. The hypothesized model had a better fit for the data ($\Delta\chi^2 = 15.37(0)$).

The sequential chi-square deviance tests unanimously provide support for the selection of the hypothesized model as the best fit to the data. The fit statistics of all models are shown in Table 8.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis (Antecedents)

Scholars have attempted to measure interaction effects in numerous ways. For example, some (e.g., Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005) have added the interaction term and potential moderator into structural models as additional exogenous variables, as recommended by methodologists (e.g., Iacobucci, 2010). However, others (e.g., Bagozzi, 2010) have argued that this is not probative such that testing interaction effects in structural equation modeling requires reparametizing the model to account for nonlinear parameter estimates, as conducted by Bagozzi and colleagues (Bagozzi, Moore, & Leone, 2004). Another option to test moderating effects in SEM is to use multiple groups but doing so requires continuous variables to be limited by

transforming them into dichotomous, categorical variables (e.g., low, high). A concern with this approach is the limited information available in the data such that, if an interaction is not found, researchers cannot rule out the possibility that it is present (Bagozzi, 2010).

Therefore, I follow the recent precedent set by others investigating role identities through role identity theory by examining moderating effects after the completion of the primary structural equation modeling through hierarchical regression (e.g., Farmer, Tierney, & Kung-McIntyre, 2003; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Unlike adding interaction effects into SEM models, hierarchical regression allows for the ability to restrict the order in which the variables are entered into the regression model (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Empowerment role identity, and the leadership and contextual variables in the interaction hypotheses were mean-centered before the interaction terms were created in order to attenuate issues of multicollinearity and improve interpretability (Aiken & West, 1991).

To test the hypothesized interactions, I used the PROCESS macro in SPSS 21 developed by Hayes (2014). PROCESS was developed to provide a more reliable analysis of moderation, mediation, moderated-mediation, and mediated-moderation such that, for example, it considers the entire mediational pathway at one time rather than the multi-step approaches (e.g., Baron & Kenny, 1986) and also provides bootstrapping confidence intervals. In moderation, the macro automatically builds the interaction terms, orders the variables into the model, and provides the standard fit statistics (R^2).

Model 3 of Table 9 provides the results of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses in testing Hypothesis 5a. I entered the control variables in the first step of the regression model, followed by the main effects in the second, and finally the hypothesized two-way interaction effect in the third. As predicted, I found that leadership behaviors interact with the focal employee's empowerment role identity when predicting pro-social rule breaking behaviors. Specifically I found the interaction term for empowerment role identity and leader encouragement of creativity ($\beta = -.13$, $p = .02$, $R^2 = .11$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$) to be significant in the hypothesized direction. Therefore, support was found for Hypothesis 5a. I graphed the interaction in Figure 2 at one standard deviation above and below the mean for visual interpretation (Harris, 2004; Stone & Hollenbeck, 1989).

Table 9 - Moderating Effects on the Relationship between Empowerment Role Identity and Pro-social Rule Breaking

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Control variables				
Conscientiousness	-.26***	-.24***	-.24***	-.25***
Autonomy	-.02	-.03	-.02	-.01
Risk-taking propensity	.05	.03	.03	.03
Age	-.08	-.08	-.09	-.08
Gender	-.07	-.07	-.06	-.07
Role tenure	.06	.06	.07	.07
Organizational tenure	-.00	.00	.01	.01
Main effects				
Empowerment role identity		.13**	.13**	.09
Leader encouragement of creativity		-.03	-.03	-.01
Perceptions of organizational politics				-.01
Two-way interaction effects				
Empowerment role identity x leader encouragement of creativity			-.10*	-.04
Empowerment role identity x perceptions of organizational politics				.02
Leader encouragement of creativity x perceptions of organizational politics				.01
Three-way interaction effect				
Empowerment role identity x leader encouragement of creativity x perceptions of organizational politics				-.10*
ΔR^2		.03	.02	.01
F for ΔR^2		3.83*	6.40*	4.25*
R^2	.12	.14	.17	.18
F	5.05***	4.87***	5.12***	3.98***

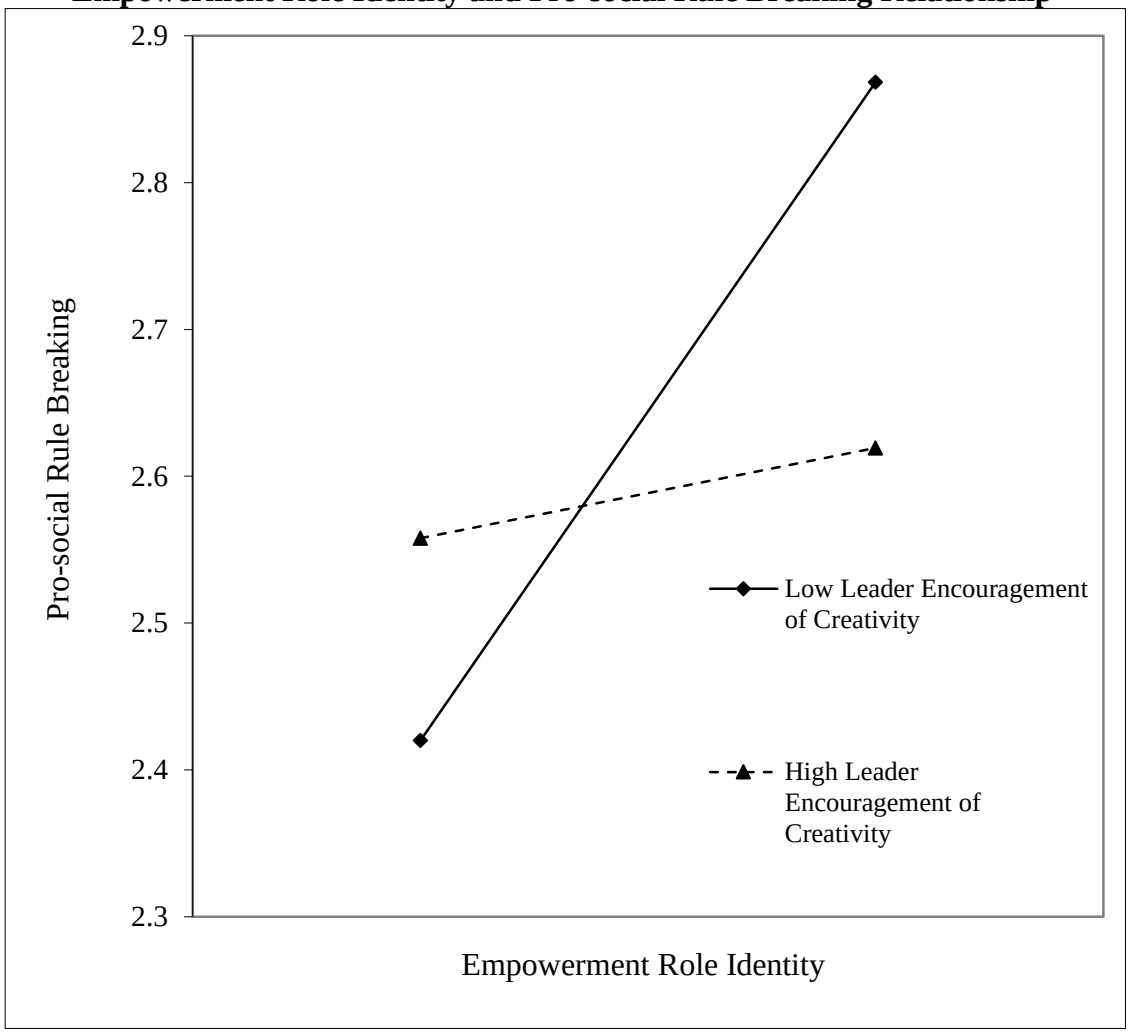
N = 270. Values are standardized coefficients.

* p < .05

** p < .01

*** p < .001

Figure 2 - Moderating Effects of Leader Encouragement of Creativity on the Empowerment Role Identity and Pro-social Rule Breaking Relationship



The plot in Figure 2 indicates that a leader's encouragement of creativity moderates the relationship between empowerment role identity and pro-social rule breaking. While the main effect for employee's high in empowerment role identity is significant such that they tend to engage in more of these behaviors, as confirmed in the structural modeling, leaders who encourage their subordinates to be creative help buffer against these deviant behaviors such that employees with empowerment role identities and leaders who encourage creativity perform less pro-social rule breaking behaviors than those who do not have such leadership. A simple slopes test (Dawson & Richter,

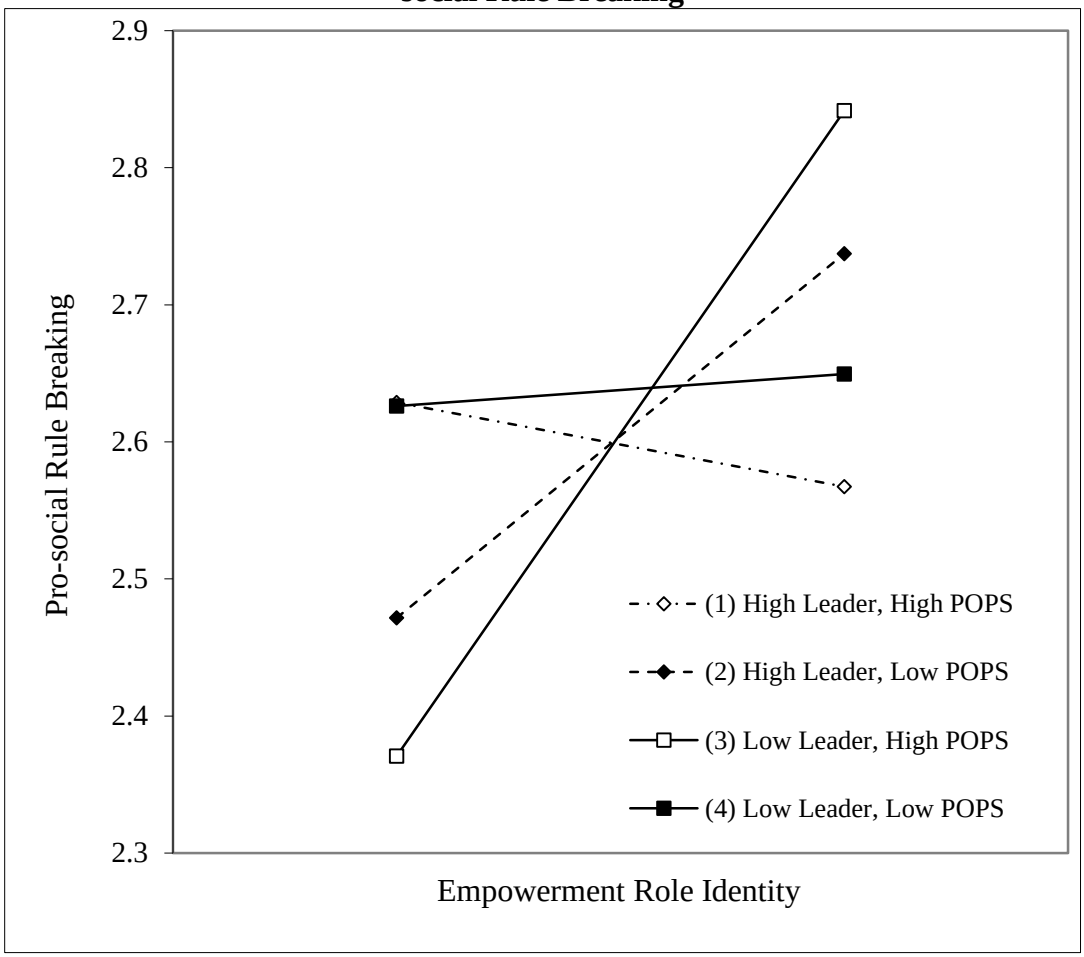
2006) confirmed that both slopes are significant but that the high leader encouragement of creativity slope ($t = 5.07$, gradient of slope = .03, $p < .001$) is much less steep than the low leader encouragement of creativity slope ($t = 62.67$, gradient of slope = .19, $p < .001$).

To examine the hypothesized three-way interaction between empowerment role identity, leader encouragement of creativity, and perceptions of organizational politics, as suggested in Hypothesis 5b, I again used the PROCESS macro in SPSS 21. Conscientiousness ($\beta = -.32$, $p < .001$) is the only control variable that was found to be significant. Further, none of the main effects nor the two-way interaction terms produced significant results however the hypothesized three-way interaction was significant in the hypothesized direction ($\beta = -.12$, $p = .04$). Further, the overall model fit was also significant ($R^2 = .18$, $F = 4.02$, $p < .001$) and the three-way interaction explained a significant amount of variance in pro-social rule breaking behaviors above and beyond that explained by the control variables, main effects, and two-way interactions ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $F = 4.25$, $p = .04$). As such, support was found for Hypothesis 5b. Model 4 in Table 9 shows the results of the test of the hypothesis. Using the graphing tool to plot three-way interactions by Dawson (2014), I provide visual support for the interaction in Figure 3.

Finally, the simple slopes test suggests that the significance in the three-way interaction is driven by the focal combination of the moderators (high empowerment role identity and perceptions of organizational politics and low leader encouragement of creativity) such that the slope of the line is significant (gradient = .24, $t = 3.40$, $p = .001$) while the slopes of the other three combinations are not significant. Therefore, support

was found for Hypothesis 5b. I provide a summary of all hypotheses and their results in Table 10.

Figure 3 - Three-way Moderation Between Empowerment Role Identity, Leader Encouragement of Creativity, and Perceptions of Organizational Politics on Pro-social Rule Breaking



Several arguments have been made regarding the importance of relatively low changes in the r-squared fit when interaction terms are added to a model such that a change in r-squared of .01 or .02 is still important considering that the term must explain variance above and beyond that of any covariates as well as the main effects of both the predictor and moderator (e.g., Bozeman, Perrewe, Hochwarter, & Brymer, 2001; Champoux & Peters, 1987; Chaplin, 1991; Evans, 1995; Harris, 2004; Witt,

Andrews, & Kacmar, 2000). Further, significant interaction effects have been suggested to be particularly difficult to find in field-survey data (McCelland & Judd, 1993).

Figure 4 - Structural Equation Modeling and Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results (Antecedents)

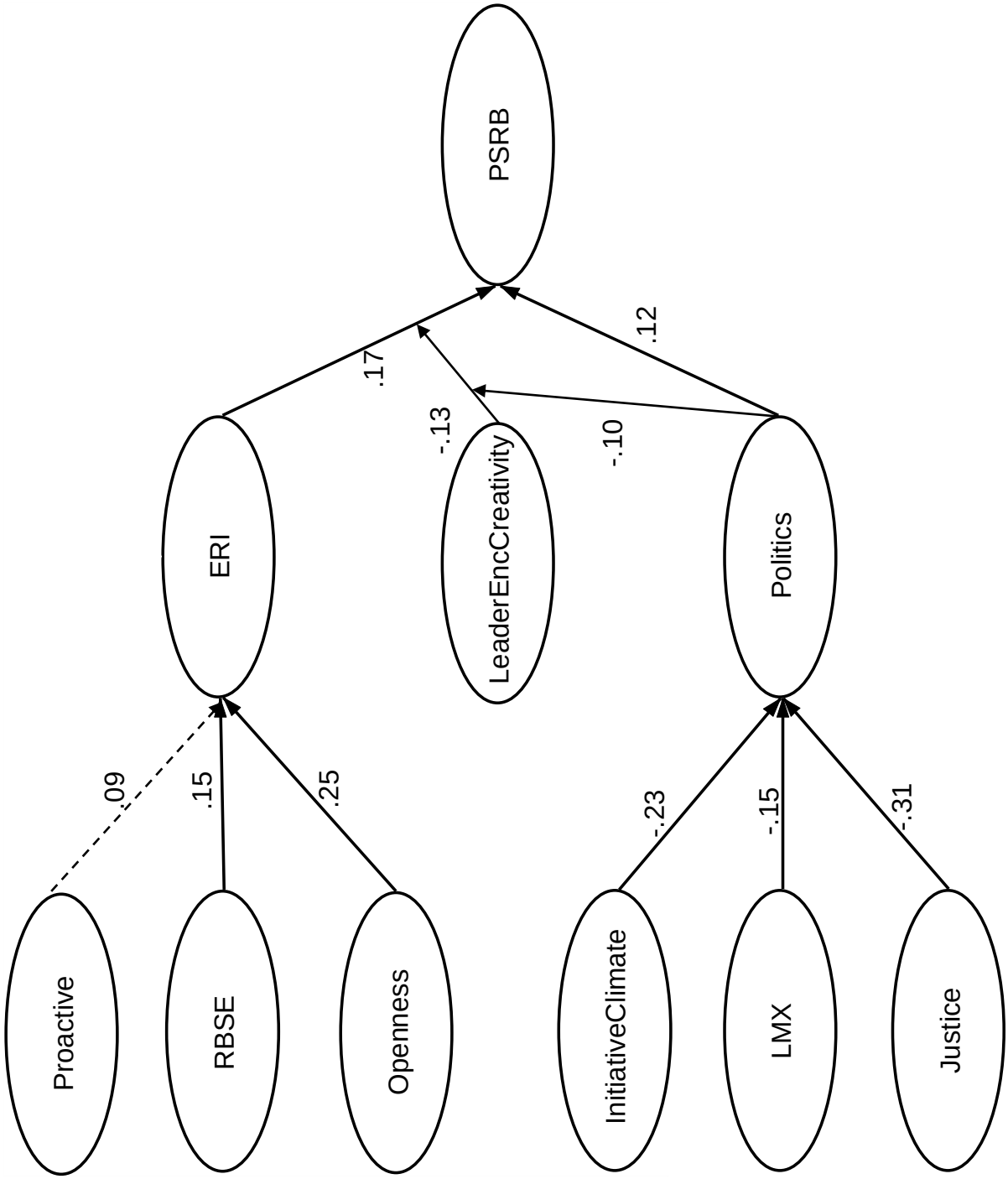


Table 10 - Summary of Hypothesized Findings (Antecedents)

	Variables	Hypothesized Direction of Relationship	Results	Supported
H1	Empowerment role identity → prosocial rule-breaking	Positive	$\beta = .17$, $p < .01$	Yes
H2	Perceptions of organizational politics → prosocial rule-breaking	Positive	$\beta = .12$, $p = .04$	Yes
H3a	Proactive personality → empowerment role identity	Positive	$\beta = .08$, $p = .22$	N.S.
H3b	Role-breadth self-efficacy → empowerment role identity	Positive	$\beta = .15$, $p = .01$	Yes
H3c	Openness to experience → empowerment role identity	Positive	$\beta = .25$, $p < .001$	Yes
H4a	Perceptions of climate for initiative → perceptions of organizational politics	Negative	$\beta = -.23$, $p < .001$	Yes
H4b	Leader-member exchange → perceptions of organizational politics	Negative	$\beta = -.15$, $p < .01$	Yes
H4c	Perceptions of organizational justice → perceptions of organizational politics	Negative	$\beta = -.31$, $p < .001$	Yes
H5a	Leader encouragement of creativity moderates → prosocial rule-breaking	Negative (weakens)	$\beta = -.10$, $p = .01$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$	Yes
H5b	Perceptions of organizational politics and leader encouragement of creativity moderate empowerment role identity → prosocial rule-breaking	Leaders encouraging creativity weakens and perceptions of organizational political strengthens	$\beta = -.12$, $p = .04$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$	Yes

Of note, the presence of significant interaction effects has been suggested to be further indication of a lack of common method bias (e.g., Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Fisher & Smith, 2004; Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006; Harris, 2004; Mackey, Frieder, Perrewe, Gallagher, & Brymer, 2015; Wall, Jackson, Mullarkey, & Parker, 1996; Witt, Andrews, & Kacmar, 2000; Wu & Parker, in press). Specifically, while common method bias has been thought to impact all variables in the same direction, interaction effects require variables to move in different and unique ways. Indeed, the results of a Monte Carlo study led Evans (1985) to conclude that "the results are clear-cut. Artifactual interactions cannot be created; true interactions can be attenuated" (p. 305). This view is also held by other methodologists (e.g., Busemeyer & Jones, 1983; Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010).

Therefore, in addition to the multi-wave, multi-source methodology, the non-significant common latent factors in the measurement modeling, and the presence of multiple significant interaction effects, the results of the current study should be considered with minimal concern for common method bias. Importantly common method bias in the data suggests that noise in the data will likely trend in the same direction, thereby creating correlations that are relatively consistent between variables. Through my efforts to reduce the impact of common method bias, any noise in the data will likely reduce the correlations between the variables. As such, researchers who have actively sought to reduce the impact of common method bias recommend considering the found correlations as the lower boundaries of the relationships (e.g., Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, & Tag, 1997).

Measurement Model (Outcomes)

The measurement model was conducted in an identical fashion to that in the examination of the predictors of pro-social rule breaking. The goodness-of-fit statistics suggest an adequate fit ($\chi^2[474] = 732.36$, $p < .001$; χ^2 adjusted for degrees of freedom = 1.55; CFI = .97; SRMR = .04; RMSEA = .05, pclose = .91). As noted above, while the chi squared statistic is statistically significant, it is impacted by the sample size (Kline, 2011). Further, while the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) (.06) is just outside of the conservative cutoff of .05, it is within the recommended .08 by Hu and Bentler (1998, 1999) and the .10 by Kline (2011). Therefore, the confirmatory factor analysis performed within the measurement model provides support to continue the examination of the structural model.

Further, my check for common method bias using a single common latent factor indicated no signs of such bias. The common factor fit the data poorly: ($\chi^2[495] = 3944.28$, $p < .001$; χ^2 adjusted for degrees of freedom = 7.97; CFI = .54; SRMR = .18; RMSEA = .16, pclose = .00) and the chi-square difference test indicated that the measurement model was significantly better at fitting the data ($\Delta\chi^2$ (21) = 3211.92, $p < .001$). The curve estimations to test for linearity produced strong and significant F-tests that were approximately twice as high as all other suggested relationships for all hypothesized pathways. Finally, as I have no suggested pathways such that three or more variables predict another, I did not run the collinearity diagnostics to test for multicollinearity.

Structural Model (Outcomes)

Each construct was again represented by a single factor score for interpretability (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005). The goodness-of-fit statistics suggest an adequate fit ($\chi^2[10] = 20.45$, $p = .03$; χ^2 adjusted for degrees of freedom = 2.05; CFI = .98; SRMR = .04; RMSEA = .06, pclose = .27). Again the chi squared statistic is statistically significant but likely as a result of the sample size and the adjusted chi square is well below the suggest cutoff of 3 (Kline, 2004). Table 11 summarizes the fit indices for all models of the outcomes of pro-social rule breaking and Figure 5 presents the hypothesized model with the corresponding path coefficients. All paths with a solid line are statistically significant.

Table 11 - Summary of Model Fit Indexes (Outcomes)

Model Test[a]	χ^2	*df*	**CFI**	**SRMR**	**RMSEA**	$\Delta\chi^2$
1. Hypothesized model	20.45	10	0.98	0.04	0.06	530.62***[f]
2. Alternative model 1[b]	551.07	21	0.00	0.26	0.31	N/A
3. Alternative model 2[c]	0.00	0	1.00	0.00	0.00	20.45*[g]
4. Alternative model 3[d]	20.35	9	0.98	0.04	0.07	0.10[g]
5. Alternative model 4[e]	19.61	7	0.98	0.03	0.08	0.84[g]

[a] CFI = comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root-mean-square residual. N = 270.

[b] Null model

[c] Saturated model

[d] Psychological contract fulfillment is proposed to predict future PSRB

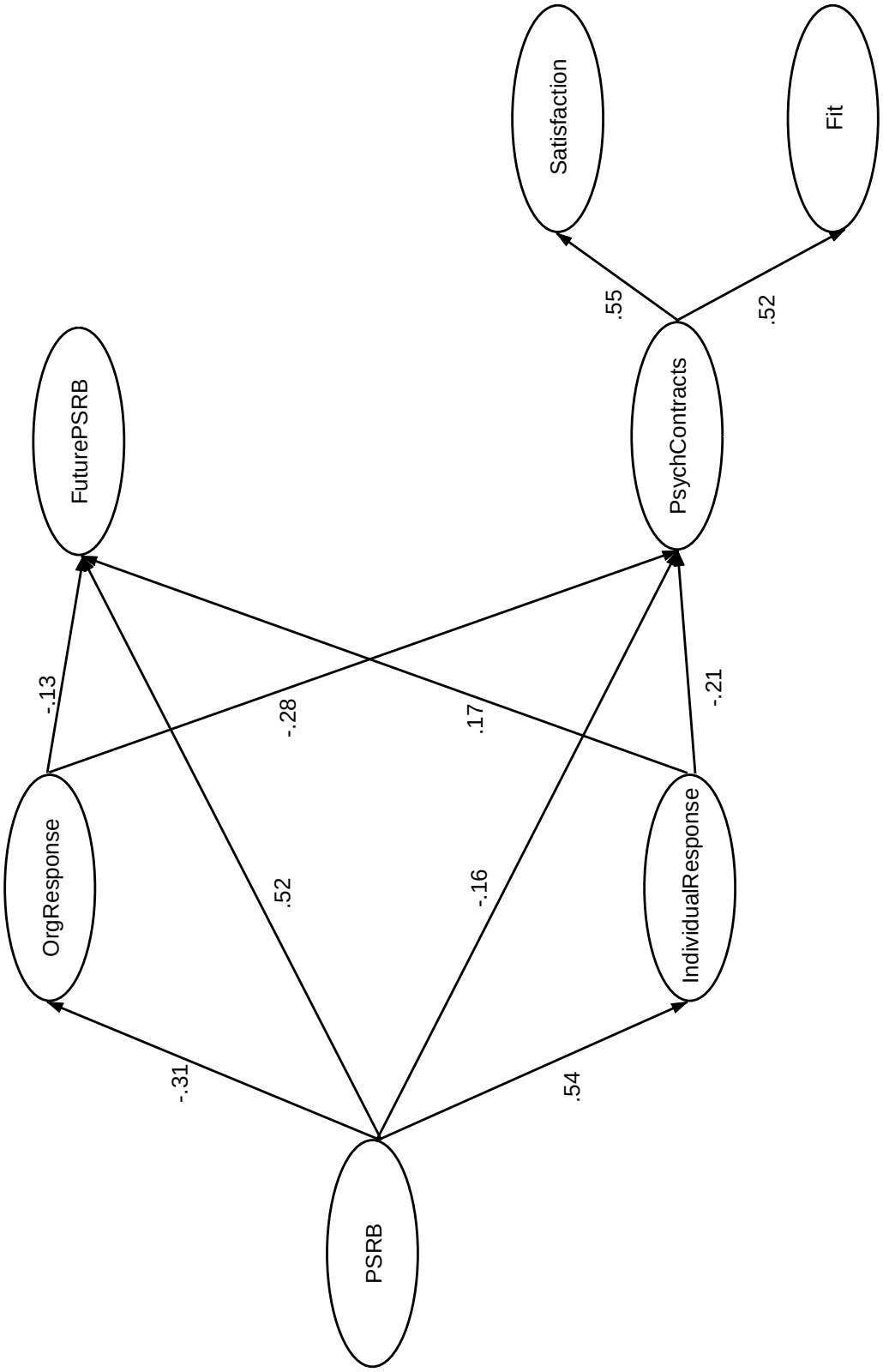
[e] Rather than the hypothesized outcomes, satisfaction and fit are proposed to predict psychological contract fulfillment

[f] Model fit compared with the null model (Alternative model 1)

[g] Model fit compared with the theoretical model

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

Figure 5 - Structural Equation Modeling Results (Outcomes)



As the prior findings focused on the predictors of pro-social rule breaking, and their results were incorporated into the front half of the model, I did not include them in the back half of the model in which I sought to explore potential outcomes of the constructively deviant behaviors. In Hypothesis 6a-c, I predicted that engaging in pro-social rule breaking behaviors would elicit responses from the potential beneficiaries such that pro-social rule breaking would lead to a positive response from coworkers and customers but a negative response from the organization. The items for customers and coworkers collapsed into one factor in the preliminary confirmatory factor analysis within the piecewise model building and this combined factor was retained in the structural modeling. Therefore, H6b and H6c are collapsed together as well. The results of the structural equation modeling support the hypothesized relationships in the suggested directions such that pro-social rule breaking evokes a negative response from the organization ($\beta = -.31$, $p < .001$) but a positive response from coworkers and customers ($\beta = .54$, $p < .001$).

Next, in Hypothesis 7 I predicted pro-social rule breaking would be positively related to the likelihood of engaging in similar behaviors in the future (H7a) and that the responses would also impact future behaviors such that the negative organizational response will make the focal employee less likely to engage in similar future behaviors (H7b) while the positive coworker (H7c) and customer (H7d) responses will have the opposite effect. Support was again found for the hypothesized relationships in the suggested directions such that a direct effect from pro-social rule breaking on future pro-social rule breaking behaviors was found ($\beta = .52$, $p < .001$). Further, the organizational response is negatively ($\beta = -.13$, $p = .01$) related and the

customer/coworker response is positively ($\beta = .17$, $p = .001$) related to the likelihood of engaging in future pro-social rule breaking behaviors. Therefore, support was found for the suggested relationships in Hypotheses 7a, 7b, as well as the combined 7c and d.

In Hypothesis 8(a-d), I suggested that pro-social rule breaking should have a significant and negative direct effect on perceptions of psychological contract fulfillment (H8a) and that the responses from the organization (H8b), coworkers (H8c), and customers (H8d) should likewise be negatively related to perceptions of psychological contract fulfillment. Significant and negative relationships were found as hypothesized from pro-social rule breaking ($\beta = -.16$, $p = .02$), the organizational response ($\beta = -.28$, $p < .001$), and the customer/coworker response ($\beta = -.21$, $p = .002$) in relating to perceptions of psychological contract violations providing support for Hypotheses 8a, b, and the combination of c and d.

The remaining two hypotheses stated that perceptions of psychological contract fulfillment would be significantly and positively related to job satisfaction (H9) and perceptions of person-organization fit (H10). Support was found for these hypotheses such that employees who perceive that their organization had honored unwritten agreements were more likely to be satisfied with their job ($\beta = .55$, $p < .001$) and perceive a better fit within their organization ($\beta = .52$, $p < .001$). Summaries of the hypotheses and their findings are reflected in Table 12.

Table 12 - Summary of Hypothesized Findings (Outcomes)

	Variables	Hypothesized Direction of Relationship	Results	Supported
H6a	Pro-social rule breaking → organizational response	Negative	β = -.31, p < .001	Yes
H6b	Pro-social rule breaking → coworker response	Positive	β = .54, p < .001	Yes
H6c[a]	Pro-social rule breaking → customer response	Positive		N/A
H7a	Pro-social rule breaking → likelihood of future PSRB	Positive	β = .52, p < .001	Yes
H7b	Organizational response → likelihood of future PSRB	Negative	β = -.13, p = .005	Yes
H7c	Coworker response → likelihood of future PSRB	Positive	β = .17, p = .001	Yes
H7d[a]	Customer response → likelihood of future PSRB	Positive		N/A
H8a	Pro-social rule breaking → psychological contract fulfillment	Negative	β = -.16, p = .02	Yes
H8b	Organizational response → psychological contract fulfillment	Negative	β = -.28, p < .001	Yes
H8c	Coworker response → psychological contract fulfillment	Negative	β = -.21, p = .002	Yes
H8d[a]	Customer response → psychological contract fulfillment	Negative		N/A
H9	Psychological contract fulfillment → job satisfaction	Positive	β = .55, p < .001	Yes
H10	Psychological contract fulfillment → person-organization fit	Positive	β = .52, p < .001	Yes

[a] The customer and coworker response items collapsed into a single factor during the CFI in the measurement model. To reduce confusion, I only report their findings once in this table.

I again tested four alternative models, with the first two again being a null model and a saturated model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The results of the null model suggest a poor fit to the data ($\chi^2[21] = 551.07$, $p < .001$; χ^2 adjusted for degrees of freedom = 26.24; CFI = .00; SRMR = .26; RMSEA = .28, pclose = .00). Further,

through the chi-squared difference test, I found support for the hypothesized model such that it was a significantly better fit to the data than the null model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 530.62(11)$, $p < .001$). Next I compared the fit of the hypothesized model to that of the saturated model. The result suggested that the saturated model provides a better fit than the hypothesized model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 20.45(10)$, $p < .05$) however the chi-square fit statistic is widely accepted to be biased by the sample size (Kline, 2011).

In the final two alternative models, I tested two plausible adaptations of the hypothesized model. First, in my hypothesized model, I argued for and found that psychological contract fulfillment is positively related to job satisfaction and person-organization fit while the likelihood of engaging in future pro-social breaking behavior is a separate outcome independent of perceptions of psychological contracts fulfillment. However, it could be that these constructs are related as well. I focused on prior behaviors as a predictor of similar future behaviors with the direct effect between pro-social rule breaking and the likelihood of future pro-social rule breaking as well as the positive and negative feedback through the responses from the various stakeholders as reaffirming a role identity. However, an employee may engage in pro-social rule breaking and not perceive a violation of psychological contracts if there was never an unwritten agreement such that the actions that are deemed as pro-social rule breaking were not allowed. Therefore, perceptions of psychological contract fulfillment may also impact the decision to engage in future pro-social rule breaking and therefore a direct effect between the constructs in the proposed direction was examined. While the additional relationship between perceptions of psychological contract fulfillment and future pro-social rule breaking was not significant ($\beta = .01$, $p = .76$), the model still

produced acceptable fit statistics ($\chi^2[9] = 20.35$, $p = .02$; χ^2 adjusted for degrees of freedom = 2.26; CFI = .98; SRMR = .04; RMSEA = .07, pclose = .19). However, as the chi-square test seeks to deliver the best fitting but also most parsimonious model, the chi-square difference test suggests that the hypothesized model is the better fit to the data ($\Delta\chi^2 = .10(1)$, p = n.s.).

Finally, I considered the possibility of a reciprocal relationship between perceptions of psychological contract violations and job satisfaction as well as person-organization fit. In the hypothesized model, I suggested that when employees engage in pro-social rule breaking, according to my larger perception of such employees as good employees in restrictive or negative environments, that they will perceive that psychological contracts have been violated because they perceive that they need to break the rules of the organization in order to perform their jobs better or to provide a greater service. Therefore, the employees are likely to feel that their organization is not setting the rules of the game in a way to help them succeed but rather is restricting progress, which is likely not in line with how they perceive the organization should act. These feelings of psychological contract violation in turn are likely to produce feelings of reduced satisfaction and fit in my hypothesized model.

However, the perceptions of psychological contract violations could also be a reaction to the attitude changes in satisfaction and fit. Therefore, my final alternative model considers satisfaction and fit as predicting psychological contract fulfillment rather than being predicted by it. The fit statistics of the model ($\chi^2[7] = 19.61$, $p = .006$; χ^2 adjusted for degrees of freedom = 2.80; CFI = .98; SRMR = .03; RMSEA = .08,

pclose = .10), while still within the acceptable range, suggest that the hypothesized model fits the data better than the alternative model ($\Delta\chi^2 = .84(3)$, p = n.s.).

Taken together, then, the examination of alternative models resulted in several models that fit the data within the acceptable range. If the alternative models are, as suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), the next best options and are driven by theory, then they should result in an adequate fit such that they should predict relationships that are likely to exist. However, in seeking to use not only a well-fitting model but also a parsimonious one, I conducted the sequential chi-square difference tests. This examination is an advantage of the two-step approach to structural equation modeling suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) and advances the research beyond just a model that is significant or with significant relationships but also to the best fitting model amongst a collection of plausible alternative options. The results, in general, provide support for the hypothesized model. As noted, the hypothesized model fit the data better than the null model and the two theoretical alternative models. The saturated model was found to possibly be a slightly better fit but is likely due in part to biases from the sample size. The fit statistics for all models are shown in Table 11.

Post-hoc Analyses

Supervisor Ratings

The results from prior studies suggest that different raters (e.g., self, coworker, and supervisor) can rate or assess proactive behaviors differently (e.g., Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996; Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988). Further, problems may arise when using observer ratings to measure behaviors such as counterproductive workplace behaviors, deviance, and

interpersonal aggression (Fox & Spector, 2005; Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010; Tepper & Henle, 2011) such that these behaviors are frequently performed secretly and in a clandestine manner (Mackey, Frieder, Perrewe, Gallagher, & Brymer, 2015). Therefore, while it is important to collect the responses from the most appropriate group of respondents, even in the potential threat of common method bias (Conway & Lance, 2010), I also seek to explore how the measurements from one group compare to those of another. Additionally, recent empirical (e.g., Joosten, van Dijke, Van Hiel, & De Cremer, 2014) as well as meta-analytic (e.g., Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012) results suggest that there is a strong correlation between self-reported and observer-reported measures of workplace deviance that, if true, would suggest additional data collection opportunities.

The oxymoronic nature of pro-social rule breaking suggests that it is both beneficial (prosocial) as well as detrimental or deviant (rule-breaking). Therefore, while I used the scale that was developed and validated through a series of studies in prior research by Dahling and colleagues (2012), respondents may have engaged in some social desirability bias in their responses to the items. For example, they may have perceived the items as beneficial in seeking to help others of the organization, and therefore responded more positively by indicating that they engaged in the behaviors more frequently. Alternatively, they may have perceived the items as detrimental in violating or breaking the rules, and therefore responded more negatively by indicating that they engaged in the behaviors less frequently. Social desirability is difficult to control and detect (Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, & Tag, 1997), especially with the proclivity to underreport negative behaviors (Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012).

As such, while I follow Dahling et al.'s (2012) precedent by collecting my primary responses from the focal employees and agree with other researchers that this is likely the most appropriate group to collect the responses from (e.g., Mackey, Frieder, Perrewe, Gallagher, & Brymer, 2015), as an exploratory addendum to the primary study, I am also interested to see how supervisors respond to their subordinates' engagement in pro-social rule breaking. In doing so, I extend the General Pro-Social Rule Breaking Scale's (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012) reach by utilizing the first attempt to measure pro-social rule breaking from a source other than the focal employee. A comparison, then, of the responses from the employees as well as from their supervisors regarding pro-social rule breaking can help to glean insight into the familiarity of such organizational behaviors as well as biases that might impact such responses.

For example, if the employees indicate that they engage in more pro-social rule breaking than their supervisors acknowledge, then it may be, in fact, that such behaviors are rather clandestine or that the employees perceive the construct positively and therefore report higher amounts. Alternatively, if the employees report less pro-social rule breaking than their supervisors give them credit for then the employees may perceive the construct as negative or are concerned with anonymity of their responses. A potential other implication may be biases on behalf of the supervisors. Performance evaluations are notoriously political (Longenecker, Sims, & Gioia, 1987). As such, supervisors that perceive the construct as positive may report that their subordinates engage in high levels of pro-social rule breaking in order to be perceived as an

empowering and innovative supervisor. Supervisors that perceive the construct as negative may report the opposite.

It is also important to consider the discriminant validity of the scale. Pro-social rule breaking is a proactive and prosocial collection of behaviors but is certainly not the only one. Employees can seek to go above and beyond their in-role behaviors to assist the organization or other individuals (e.g., coworkers) by engaging in other prosocial behaviors that do not violate the rules of the organization, such as organizational citizenship behaviors (Organ, 1988) or contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Therefore, it is imperative to determine whether supervisors perceive pro-social rule breaking behaviors as distinct from other prosocial behaviors. To this aim, then, I asked supervisors to complete measures of pro-social rule breaking as well as organizational citizenship behaviors for their subordinates.

Organizational citizenship behaviors were originally conceptualized as discretionary behaviors that are not recognized or rewarded but that benefit the organization (Organ, 1988). There has since been a revision to the definition in order to note that such behaviors may be recognized and rewarded (Organ, 1997). Much like the constructs of workplace deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995) and pro-social rule breaking (Morrison, 2006), organizational citizenship behaviors are targeted at either the organization (OCBO) or its individual stakeholders (OCBI) (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983).

There has been extensive interest in the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviors and counterproductive workplace behaviors or deviance (e.g. Bennett & Robinson, 2002; Bennett & Stamper, 2001; Dalal, 2005; Fisher & Locke,

1992; Hunt, 1996; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Spector & Fox, 2002). While early suggestions treated organizational citizenship behaviors and counterproductive workplace behaviors as opposite ends of the same spectrum, Dalal (2005) noted that they are unique with discriminant validity and should be treated as two separate variables that share a modestly negative relationship.

The goal of this supplemental analysis is three-fold. First I seek to determine whether there are statistically significant differences in the levels of pro-social rule breaking reported by the focal employees (subordinates) and those from their supervisors. Second, I examine if supervisors discriminate in the assessment of their subordinates' pro-social rule breaking and organizational citizenship behaviors. Pro-social rule breaking and organizational citizenship behaviors, in addition to both being prosocial behaviors, were both conceptualized as having two intended targets for the behaviors – the organization and individuals. Therefore, I measure both using validated scales for the behaviors targeted at the organization, coworkers, and customers.

Finally, I also seek to explore the implications of pro-social rule breaking on performance ratings. To date, the relationship between pro-social rule breaking and supervisor-rated performance has been mixed with Dahling and colleagues (2012) finding a negative relationship in one study and no relationship in another. Therefore, I asked supervisors to assess the overall job performance of each of their subordinates. However, I supplemented this performance measure with data I received from the organization from the formal performance evaluations for each employee for the year before the study as well as the current year. This allowed me to triangulate the measures of performance in order to explore the potential of a leniency bias in the survey-reported

measure of performance in comparison to the official organizational measures of performance. This approach can also help to determine if an overall leniency bias by the supervisors may have impacted their measures of subordinate pro-social rule breaking as well as organizational citizenship behaviors. Further, I seek to improve the methodology within the deviance literature that has relied heavily on self-reported, cross-sectional data (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Fox & Spector, 2005) as well as answer specific calls to vary the collection of data in deviance research from multiple raters (Joosten, van Dijke, Van Hiel, & De Cremer, 2014) as well as organizational archives (Griffin & Lopez, 2005).

Results of Supervisor Ratings

I entered the 16 items from the scales to measure supervisor-rated perceptions of employees' organizational citizenship behaviors (5 – coworker; 5 – customer; 6 – organization) as well as the 13 items from the General Pro-Social Rule Breaking Scale (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012) as completed by the supervisors (4 – coworker; 4 – customer; 5 – organization) into an exploratory factor analysis. Allowing the items to load freely and using principal components analysis produced a two-factor solution as assessed with an Eigenvalue cutoff > 1. The solution measured highly on the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (.95) and explained 62.76% of the variance. Further, the items loaded uniformly with all of the items for organizational citizenship behavior loading onto the first factor and the items for pro-social rule breaking loading onto the second. The correlation between the two factors was very low and not significant (-.01), suggesting that supervisors do perceive a difference between the two types of prosocial behaviors.

I next turned my attention to the three subscales for each of the two constructs. While the General Pro-Social Rule Breaking Scale includes three subscales for rule breaking behaviors intended to help coworkers, customers, and to increase organizational efficiency, I drew from three separate scales for organizational citizenship behavior to measure extra-role behaviors to help coworkers (Podskoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), customers (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997), and the organization (Williams & Anderson, 1991). When all of the organizational citizenship behavior measures were entered into the exploratory factor analysis and allowed to load freely, a two-factor solution was produced such that the items to assist customers and coworkers loaded onto the same factor while those to assist the organization loaded onto the second. The two factors explained 62.38% of the variance and also rated highly on the KMO measure - .95. This finding gives support to the traditional conceptualization of organizational citizenship behavior being targeted either at the organization (OCBO) or an individual (OCBI) (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) without the distinction of the individuals as either customers or coworkers. However, since I am seeking to determine whether supervisors recognize differences in employees' pro-social rule breaking and organizational citizenship behavior, I then created factors for each of the three subcategories for both of the variables. The factors for organizational citizenship behaviors targeted at coworkers (KMO = .86, 71.92% of variance, Cronbach's $\alpha = .90$), customers (KMO = .90, 81.91% of variance, Cronbach's $\alpha = .94$), and the organization (KMO = .82, 49.67% of variance, Cronbach's $\alpha = .79$) all produced usable factors. Likewise, when allowed to load freely, all 13 items of the pro-social rule breaking scale loaded onto the same item, (KMO = .97, 73.73% of variance,

Cronbach's α = .97). The underlying three subscales for coworkers (KMO = .85, 80.51% of variance, Cronbach's α = .92), customers (KMO = .86, 84.50% of variance, Cronbach's α = .94), and organizational efficiency (KMO = .89, 75.22% of variance, Cronbach's α = .92) all produced usable factors. The descriptive statistics and correlations for these measures, as well as for the self-reported measures of pro-social rule breaking from the employees, are reflected in Table 13.

Table 13 - Descriptive Statistics and Correlations of Prosocial Measures

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3
1. Employee PSRB overall	2.61	0.80			
2. Employee PSRB coworker	2.61	0.84	.95**		
3. Employee PSRB customer	2.71	0.87	.95**	.84**	
4. Employee PSRB organization	2.53	0.81	.96**	.87**	.88**
5. Supervisor PSRB overall	2.77	0.81	.19**	.16**	.19**
6. Supervisor PSRB coworker	2.75	0.83	.21**	.17**	.21**
7. Supervisor PSRB customer	2.90	0.89	.17**	.14*	.16**
8. Supervisor PSRB organization	2.69	0.82	.19**	.16**	.18**
9. Supervisor OCB overall	4.14	0.56	-.01	.02	-.02
10. Supervisor OCB coworker	4.11	0.65	.01	.05	-.02
11. Supervisor OCB customer	4.22	0.68	-.04	-.02	-.05
12. Supervisor OCB organization	4.11	0.57	.03	.04	.03

Note. $N = 270$.

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

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

Variables	4	5	6	7	8
1. Employee PSRB overall					
2. Employee PSRB coworker					
3. Employee PSRB customer					
4. Employee PSRB organization					
5. Supervisor PSRB overall	.20**				
6. Supervisor PSRB coworker	.21**	.96**			
7. Supervisor PSRB customer	.18**	.95**	.87**		
8. Supervisor PSRB organization	.20**	.97**	.90**	.89**	
9. Supervisor OCB overall	-.01	-.01	-.03	.05	-.07
10. Supervisor OCB coworker	.00	.03	.02	.06	-.03
11. Supervisor OCB customer	-.04	.01	-.01	.07	-.06
12. Supervisor OCB organization	.04	-.09	-.11	-.03	-.11

Note. $N = 270$.

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

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

Variables	9	10	11
1. Employee PSRB overall			
2. Employee PSRB coworker			
3. Employee PSRB customer			
4. Employee PSRB organization			
5. Supervisor PSRB overall			
6. Supervisor PSRB coworker			
7. Supervisor PSRB customer			
8. Supervisor PSRB organization			
9. Supervisor OCB overall			
10. Supervisor OCB coworker	.93**		
11. Supervisor OCB customer	.92**	.80**	
12. Supervisor OCB organization	.80**	.65**	.59**

Note. $N = 270$.

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

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

A review of the correlation matrix suggests that the self-reported and supervisor-reported measures of pro-social rule breaking are positively correlated at both the construct as well as the dimension levels however the correlations within the self- and

supervisor-ratings are stronger than those across the two ratings. Additionally, supervisor-reported measures of organizational citizenship behaviors are positively correlated amongst themselves but are not significantly correlated with measures of pro-social rule breaking from either the employee or the supervisor.

Having found that the scales and subscales produce reliable measures, all of which were validated in prior studies, I next sought to determine how self-reported pro-social rule breaking relates to supervisor-rated pro-social rule breaking and supervisor-rated organizational citizenship behavior. In order to explore these conditions, I performed paired samples t-tests first at the construct level, next at the dimension level, and finally at the item level.

Results from the construct level tests of the means suggest that all three measures are significantly different from each other however employee and supervisor-rated pro-social rule breaking are significantly correlated (.20, $p = .001$) while organizational citizenship is not significantly correlated with either employee or supervisor assessments of pro-social rule breaking. At the dimension level, employee and supervisor-rated pro-social rule breaking as well as organizational citizenship behaviors are again all significantly distinct from each other and again the only significant correlations are between employee and supervisor assessed pro-social rule breaking for coworkers (.17, $p = .005$), customers (.16, $p = .007$), and organizational efficiency (.20, $p = .001$). The results of the t-tests at the construct and dimension levels are reflected in Table 14.

Table 14 - Comparison of Means Between Pro-social Rule Breaking and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors Constructs and Dimensions

Variables	M	SD	95% Confidence Interval		t	p
			Lower	Upper		
Constructs						
Self-reported PSRB - Supervisor-reported OCB	-1.53	0.98	-1.65	-1.41	-27.80	< .001
Self-reported PSRB - Supervisor-reported PSRB	-0.16	1.02	-0.28	-0.04	-2.55	0.01
Supervisor-reported OCB - Supervisor-reported PSRB	1.37	1.00	1.25	1.49	22.60	<.001
Dimensions						
Self-reported coworker PSRB - supervisor-reported coworker OCB	-1.50	1.03	-1.63	-1.38	-23.86	<.001
Self-reported coworker PSRB - supervisor-reported coworker PSRB	-0.14	1.08	-0.27	-0.01	-2.11	0.04
Supervisor-reported coworker OCB - Supervisor-reported coworker PSRB	1.36	1.04	1.24	1.49	21.45	<.001
Self-reported customer PSRB - supervisor-reported customer OCB	-1.50	1.13	-1.64	-1.37	-21.82	<.001
Self-reported customer PSRB - supervisor-reported customer PSRB	-0.18	1.14	-0.32	-0.05	-2.66	0.01
Supervisor-reported customer OCB - Supervisor-reported customer PSRB	1.32	1.08	1.19	1.45	19.97	<.001
Self-reported organizational PSRB - Supervisor-reported organizational OCB	-1.58	0.98	-1.69	-1.46	-26.54	<.001
Self-reported organizational PSRB - Supervisor-reported organizational PSRB	-0.15	1.03	-0.28	-0.03	-2.45	0.02
Supervisor-reported organizational OCB - supervisor-reported organizational PSRB	1.42	1.05	1.30	1.55	22.32	<.001

Finally, at the item level, I compared the means of the responses for each of the 13 items in the General Pro-Social Rule Breaking Scale as evaluated by the focal employee as well as his or her supervisor. All but two of the items reflected significant

correlations of .12 (p = .05) or higher. Of the two for which the responses were are significantly correlated, one is a measure of coworker assistance ("when another employee needs his or her help, he or she disobeys organizational policies to help him/her"), and the other is of organizational efficiency ("violates organizational policies to save the company time and money"). Further, the employees and their supervisors provided significantly different results for only five of the 13 items. Of note, in every instance of significantly different means between the employee and supervisor-rated pro-social rule breaking, the supervisor rated the employee higher than the employee rated him or herself. These results are shown in Table 15.

Table 15 – Comparison of Means Between Self- and Supervisor-rated Items of Pro-social Rule Breaking

Variables	M	SD	95% Confidence Interval		t	p
			Lower	Upper		
Items						
Self-reported - Supervisor reported coworker item 1	-0.11	1.25	-0.27	0.04	-1.50	0.13
Self-reported - Supervisor reported coworker item 2	-0.14	1.26	-0.29	0.01	-1.79	0.07
Self-reported - Supervisor reported coworker item 3	-0.21	1.16	-0.35	-0.07	-2.98	<.001
Self-reported - Supervisor reported coworker item 4	-0.09	1.24	-0.24	0.06	-1.22	0.22
Self-reported - Supervisor reported customer item 1	-0.08	1.30	-0.24	0.07	-1.03	0.30
Self-reported - Supervisor reported customer item 2	-0.36	1.21	-0.50	-0.21	-4.83	<.001
Self-reported - Supervisor reported customer item 3	-0.14	1.25	-0.29	0.01	-1.89	0.06
Self-reported - Supervisor reported customer item 4	-0.16	1.36	-0.32	0.01	-1.88	0.06
Self-reported - Supervisor reported organizational item 1	-0.19	1.28	-0.34	-0.03	-2.38	0.02
Self-reported - Supervisor reported organizational item 2	-0.16	1.27	-0.31	0.00	-2.01	0.05
Self-reported - Supervisor reported organizational item 3	-0.13	1.23	-0.28	0.02	-1.73	0.08
Self-reported - Supervisor reported organizational item 4	-0.19	1.21	-0.33	-0.04	-2.57	0.01
Self-reported - Supervisor reported organizational item 5	-0.11	1.25	-0.26	0.04	-1.46	0.15

Note $df = 269$.

Lastly, I collected three measures of performance. Two of the measures were from the organizational archives and reflected the assessments of the employees' performance from their annual performance evaluations during the prior and current years. The third measure was collected from the supervisors during the field study. To test whether the performance measures were consistent, I again ran t-tests between the three measures. While all three were significantly correlated at .43 ($p < .001$) or better, the results of the analysis suggest that the two archival measures of performance were

statistically the same ($t = -.117$ (269), $p = .91$) while the supervisor-reported measure is distinct from the prior year's measure ($t = -11.82$ (269), $p < .001$) as well as the current year's measure ($t = -14.21$ (269), $p < .001$). The mean of the collected performance measure (4.31) was significantly higher than the prior (3.79) or current (3.79) annual measures such that there was likely some leniency bias during the collection of the field data by the supervisors. This may have impacted the supervisors' reporting of pro-social rule breaking as well since they rated the employees' behaviors higher than the employees rated themselves.

While speculative, some bias may be attributed by the supervisors' desire to appear effective in their roles by leading high-quality subordinates. Additionally, the supervisors' questionnaire was distributed after the multiple waves of questionnaires were collected from the employees. The resulting timeline created a situation in which the responses from the supervisors coincided with end of the year responsibilities as well as the holiday season which frequently includes social gatherings and increased goodwill. It could be, then, that managers were overcome by a warm glow. Likewise, and in reverse of traditional intuition, it could be that the managers were concerned with anonymity such that their assessments of their subordinates may be seen by the employees. When employees evaluate their supervisor, the ratings are frequently collected from multiple employees and averaged to indicate the supervisor's performance. This process helps to diffuse the responsibility across the subordinates. However, supervisor ratings of subordinates, because of the pyramidal organizational hierarchy, are frequently reversed such that multiple ratings of performance are collected from a single supervisor, who is solely responsible for each assessment.

Finally, I examined the impact of the supervisor-rated measure of pro-social rule breaking on the three performance measures. Prior findings suggest either a negative or null relationship between pro-social rule breaking and performance ratings, but these relationships were only examined with self-reported measures of pro-social rule breaking and coworker or supervisor-ratings of performance (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012). I extend the exploration of this relationship by using measures of pro-social rule breaking as assessed by the supervisors as well as supervisor and organizational performance ratings. Due to the lack of independence in the supervisor-rated measures of pro-social rule breaking, random coefficients modeling was performed using hierarchical linear modeling (HLM 7) with robust standard errors (Raudenbusch & Byrk, 2002). An exploratory examination of the direct effect of supervisor-rated pro-social rule breaking is not significant in seeking to predict performance measured by the supervisor (B = .29, p = .07), or the annual evaluations from the prior year (B = .12, p = .21), or the current year (B = .09, p = .39). However, the direction of the coefficients tends to trend in the positive direction. I provide these results in Table 16.

Table 16 - Results of Pro-social Rule Breaking Predicting Performance[a]

	Performance		
Pro-social rule breaking	**Prior year**	**Current year**	**Supervisor-reported**
Supervisor-reported[b]	.12	.09	.29†

[a] all coefficients reported are unstandardized

[b] Level 1 *N* = 269, Level 2 *N* = 72

† p < .10

* p < 05

** p < .01

Discussion

The results of the study add to what we know about pro-social rule breaking in several important ways. First, support for an interactionist perspective of pro-social rule breaking was found that had frequently been called for but yet unexplored in prior studies. The simultaneous consideration of dispositional individual differences and contextual variables is important in understanding the relationships that suggested antecedents may have both amongst each other and in regards to their impact on pro-social rule breaking. Within the pro-social rule breaking and constructive deviance literatures, several calls have been made to consider how individual differences and organizational variables may interact such that the presence of one will moderate the other (e.g., Morrison, 2006; Vardaman, Gondo, & Allen, 2014). Further, researchers exploring empowerment role identities and empowerment readiness in organizations have found support for the interaction between employees' desire for empowerment and relational factors such as leadership behaviors (e.g., Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). I have sought to expand upon this approach by using role identity theory to hypothesize and test the presence of a three-way moderation of individual, relational, and organizational factors. As such, by finding support for the hypothesized three-way interaction between employee empowerment role identity, leader encouragement of creativity, and perceptions of organizational politics in predicting pro-social rule breaking, I am able to develop a deeper understanding of how these variables impact positively deviant behaviors individually as well as in combination with each other.

The direction of the relationships also provide additional insight and support my conceptualization of pro-social rule breaking as the actions of good employees seeking to better what they perceive to be a negative environment. Specifically, I find that the presence of the three-way moderation is driven by the only line with a significant slope, as graphed in Figure 3. This relationship suggests that the decision to engage in pro-social rule breaking is influenced by the three variables such that an employee will be more likely to engage in these behaviors when he or she desires empowerment and therefore the opportunity to help shape or craft one's job, however is constrained in an organization that is perceived to be highly political and overseen by a leader that does not encourage creativity. Further, as empowerment role identity has been suggested and found to be related to openness to experience and role breadth self-efficacy, we are able to learn more about the types of employees that are likely to have such a role identity such that they are less bound by rules in discovering new opportunities and desiring the empowerment to enact these opportunities while confident in their capabilities to do so.

In accordance with role identity theory, an employee with a salient empowerment role identity will seek to maintain that identity as it becomes part of the self (McCall & Simmons, 1978). Further, the higher that a role identity ascends up the identity hierarchy, the more that it is internalized and the behaviors that reflect the identity are enacted reflexively through the collection of prior schemata (Chen & Bargh, 1999; McCall & Simmons, 1966; Stryker, 1987). Additionally, when a role identity merger takes place, the employee will engage in behaviors that are consistent with the role identity even in situations where other actions should be considered as preferred (Turner, 1978). Therefore, in the presence of a system that is not just and that does not

support initiative as well as being overseen by a leader that does not support creativity, with which low-quality relationships exist, employees with empowerment role identities will seek to craft a better situation by engaging in behaviors that are in alignment with the role identity such that they will autonomously act to exploit opportunities by engaging in prosocial behaviors to help others.

Another important consideration is the impact of the more distal outcomes of pro-social rule breaking. Despite the best intentions of organizational leaders, rules may be inaccurate, outdated, or too restrictive as they become institutionalized (Zhou, 1993) such that employees seeking to maximize their efficiency or assistance to others must make the decision whether to abide by the rules or attempt to create positive change through their violation. Additionally, if the organization is perceived as unjust or highly political, then the rules are likely shrouded in ambiguity such that they only apply to certain employees or in certain situations (Colquitt & Jackson, 2006). Employees may then find the rules to be restricting them from engaging in corrective action to steer the organization on the course that they believe to be correct. As such, it is important to again consider the more neutral development of deviance (e.g., Sherif & Sherif, 1953) as well as Warren's (2003) argument that deviant behaviors should be viewed in light of what they are deviating from.

Therefore, while engaging in such behaviors may damage the career outcomes of the employee such that performance ratings suffer (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012), my results suggest that the tradeoff between helping others and hurting one's self may be more complicated. Indeed, I find that employees who engage in pro-social rule breaking may likely develop negative attitudes about their organization such

that, regardless of how others respond, they will have perceptions of psychological contract violations which will lead to a lack of satisfaction and fit from having to engage in such behaviors and violate the rules to try to make a better environment for the organization, their customers, and their coworkers. As such, while remaining consistent with a role identity of empowerment may damage performance ratings when the organization and leadership does not promote such creativity or initiative, such an employee may have higher priorities that supersede such performance reviews that suggest things either need to shape up or they will ship out as reduced job satisfaction and person-organization fit as well as psychological contract violations are all antecedents of intentions to quit.

Further, as hypothesized, the decision to engage in future pro-social rule breaking is dependent on several factors. As prior behaviors predict future behaviors (e.g., Aarts, Verplanken & Van Knippenberg, 1998; Verplanken & Orbell, 2003), employees who have engaged in pro-social rule breaking in the past will be more likely to do so again in the future. However, the decision is also impacted by the feedback received. A central tenant of role identity theory states that meaning is gained from others (Mead, 1934) such that employees will seek out validity in the responses from important referent groups (Stryker & Burke, 2000). In doing so, such feedback is compared to the prototypical expectations (Burke, 1991) such that behaviors will likely be repeated with positive feedback and decreased with negative feedback (Farmer, Tierney, & Kung-McIntyre, 2003). As such, the organizational responses, which were found to be negative, decreased the likelihood of future pro-social rule breaking while

the responses from coworkers and customers, which were found to be positive, had the opposite result.

The overall lack of significant relationships between the control variables and pro-social rule breaking is another important takeaway. Only conscientiousness was found to be related to pro-social rule breaking both in the employees' self-rated as well as the supervisor-rated measures. The negative relationship in these findings replicates those by Dahling and colleagues (2012) as well as support the claim by Sackett and DeVore (2001) that low conscientiousness is a dispositional predictor of employee deviance. The four demographic control variables were found to not be significantly related to pro-social rule breaking. While it was suggested that younger male employees with less experience within their roles and within their organization would be more likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking, the results suggest that these demographics may be unrelated to the performance of such behaviors. As noted within the measures subsection of the methods section above, the impact of demographics on various forms of deviance and constructive deviance have been mixed with positive, negative, and null results.

Two of the control variables, risk taking propensity and autonomy, were found to be important predictors of pro-social rule breaking by Morrison (2006). One plausible reasons for the lack of replication in the current study is the difference in study design. Morrison relied on scenarios and manipulated autonomy within the scenarios and then measured risk-taking propensity from the same scale by Gomez-Mejia and Balkin (1989) as I did. Therefore, the scenario-based design may not have replicated actual attitudes and behaviors from the respondents such that reading about

autonomy in a scenario is different than actually having autonomy in the workplace and acting upon it to break the rules of the organization to help others. Additionally, autonomy and empowerment are related (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). Spreitzer's (1995) four dimensions of psychological empowerment – competence, impact, meaning, and self-determination – require certain levels of autonomy. Empowerment role identity is based on an employee's desire to be empowered and belief in his or her abilities in empowerment positions (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Therefore, it may be that pro-social rule breaking is predicted less by actual autonomy or empowerment, but instead by the desire to be empowered. Further, while the same scale was used to measure risk-raking propensity, my results produced a less than ideal reliability estimate (.63). While slightly higher, Morrison's reliability estimate (.72) was just above the .70 cutoff norm (Nunnally, 1978). Therefore, while using the same scale, the respondents from the two studies may have been responding in a way that the same latent construct was being perceived differently.

Results of the post-hoc exploratory examination of the supervisors' responses provide several important implications. First, I find support for Berry and colleagues (2012) recognition that self-reported and other-reported deviant behaviors are strongly correlated. This is a critical advancement for the measurement that has traditionally relied on only self-reported data due to the assumption that such behaviors may not be easily seen and are performed secretly (Sackett, Berry, Wiemann, & Laczo, 2006; Spector & Fox, 2002). Other sources of collecting such data could extend the findings as well as reduce the potential for common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Additionally, I find that supervisors do differentiate between various

forms of prosocial behaviors such that pro-social rule breaking and organizational citizenship behaviors were only weakly correlated.

Also, through the triangulation of three separate performance measures, I was able to explore the potential for a leniency bias from the supervisors. Researchers frequently express concern for biases in the responses from the focal employees, primary of which in deviance research is that of social desirability. One factor that is widely suggested to increase the likelihood for social desirability is a concern for the anonymity of responses such that one's supervisor may be made aware of the responses (Fisk et al., 2010). However, I find that a similar issue may exist when collecting data from supervisors such that the collected measure of supervisor-rated subordinate performance was significantly higher than either of the organizational measures and that they rated their subordinates higher in pro-social rule breaking than the subordinates rated themselves. Therefore, while observer ratings can be a viable alternative to self-ratings, caution should still be given to the possibility of leniency bias in the ratings from supervisors as an attempt to maintain relationships (Longenecker, Sims, & Gioia, 1987) or to make themselves look better as the manager of better employees (Kane, Bernardin, Villanova, & Peyrefitte, 1995).

Why Pro-social Rule Breaking for Customers is Good for the Organization in the Long Run

Pro-social rule breaking has been hypothesized, and support was found, to lead to positive responses from customers. That is, when an employee violates the rules of his or her organization to help a customer, the customer will appreciate the gesture which will likely lead to increased customer satisfaction. Several of the open-ended

responses from my pilot study suggest this to be true. However, I also found that such behaviors elicit a negative response from the organization. While it can be true that performing pro-social rule breaking behaviors for customers, and to a certain extent for coworkers, may come at the direct expense of the organization (e.g., giving away free products or information), customer-relationship theory suggests that it still may be beneficial to the organization in the long run. Pro-social rule breaking can increase customer satisfaction (Parks, Ma, & Gallagher, 2010) and customers tend to spend more at organizations that they are satisfied with (Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1994; Jones & Sasser, 1995) as well as make more repeat purchases (Grewal & Sharma, 1991). Further, such satisfaction can also lead to increased word-of-mouth recommendations to people within the customer's social network (Maxham, 2001; Maxham & Netemeyer, 2003).

Additionally, instrumental stakeholder theory (IST) (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Jones, 1995) suggests that stakeholders will reciprocate the actions of a firm. Therefore, stakeholders, such as customers, will respond positively to perceptions of being treated well from employees engaging in pro-social rule breaking targeted at the customers. However, they can only reciprocate behaviors that they are aware of (Rowley & Berman, 2000) and therefore will reciprocate favorably to the organization based on the actions of the rule breaking employees because they will likely be less aware of any punishments the employee may face internally from the organization for doing so.

However, customers also expect consistency from employees within organizations. As noted in one of the responses from my Pilot Study in Table 4, an

employee that engaged in pro-social rule breaking by opening larger quantity packaging in order to sell customers only the amount of the item that were desired received appreciation from the customers, however customers then came to expect such behaviors. Therefore, pro-social rule breaking can be a slippery slope such that a little deviance to help others may then become expected. In this way, pro-social rule breaking may be similar to other discretionary prosocial behaviors such that going above and beyond to help others may become expected through job creep (Van Dyne & Ellis, 2004). While organizational rules are created to build more consistency in the behaviors across organizational employees (Barnard, 1938; Milgram, 1974), pro-social rule breaking is likely enacted based on individualized considerations. The respondent of the above referenced example noted that when the customer needed a quantity of an item that was near in size to the packaged amount, he or she would not break up the package. Therefore, it was only when the rule was perceived to be the most unnecessarily restrictive (i.e. when the customer only needed a few of the items that were packaged in the bundle), did the employee engage in pro-social rule breaking. However, there is a contagion effect that can take place such that on the next visit, the customer may want more of the item yet still request it to be broken up. Likewise, if another customer saw the employee break the packaged quantity for the first customer, then the second may demand the same service regardless of how many units were desired for purchase.

I experienced just these types of responses when I worked at an amusement park during summers while in high school. The park had rules that specified how tall the visitors had to be in order to ride certain rides. Unfortunately, these rules were not well advertised before paying for admittance into the park and therefore some families were

disappointed to learn that their child(ren) could not ride many, if any, rides. Further, the height requirements varied for each ride and, rather than advertise the required height for each ride near the beginning of the line, it was shown right before the visitors actually got on the ride. This meant that families may wait in line for an hour only to be turned away because of a restriction that they were not aware of. Working as an attendant for the rides, there were times when I perceived the rule was particularly restrictive such that the ride was very calm and the child was only an inch or two below the requirement. When this occurred, I would let the family on the ride. Unfortunately, these occasions were also sometimes followed by a family with a child well below the height requirement that would demand to also be allowed on the ride because I let the first child on. Additionally, sometimes the family that I allowed on the ride would come back repeatedly throughout the day and expect the same treatment.

Using Pro-social Rule Breaking to Understand Employee Behaviors

The purpose of this section is to examine the brief narratives of employee behaviors provided at the beginning of this dissertation. In doing so, I seek to explain why these behaviors should be considered as pro-social rule breaking and how the perspective provided by role identity theory as well as the findings from this study are supported in such behaviors. Therefore, I show that the hypothesized model has origins in the real world (Dubin, 1976) as well as seek to increase the dialogue between researchers and practitioners (Cascio & Aguinis, 2008) in a form similar to that by Pierce and Aguinis (2015) in their creation of the detrimental citizenship behaviors construct.

Restaurant Employee's Providing Free Food

Joe Koblenzer, the Cracker Barrel employee that was fired for giving free condiments to a homeless man stated that he violated the rules of the organization intentionally and voluntarily to help another person. For this action, he was terminated. According to the formal definition of pro-social rule breaking, this action could be considered to fall within the construct as the homeless person could be considered a stakeholder of the restaurant. However, Morrison's (2006) approach to categorizing the behaviors, as used in the subsequent creation of the scale measure by Dahling and colleagues (2012) focuses just on increasing organizational efficiency or aiding a customer or coworker. In this perspective, then, the homeless person may be considered to not fall within the classification as a customer as he did not purchase a good or service.

Expanded upon, though, taking care of less fortunate individuals could benefit the restaurant's reputation and, in turn, provide goodwill from customers to support the organization. Additionally, should the homeless man have created a scene or interrupted the restaurant's functioning, then giving him the requested items could be cheap insurance to also providing a better service to the actual customers. However, while his actions may be suggested to benefit both the organization as well as actual customers, these are more likely externalities to the actual intentions to simply help another individual.

The responses from the various parties provide support for my model. The response from the organization was negative as the decision was made to fire Joe. However, customers and potential customers, as measured through the societal

responses, provided a much more favorable view on the actions. Therefore, I find a real-world example of the determination between destructive and constructive deviance as being in the eye of the beholder.

My Working on Unpermitted Files

While working at a law firm, I was often not allowed to help a coworker due to prior contractual agreements with clients regarding the employees that were allowed to bill time on the files. As the law firm used the billable hours to both track the employees' performance as well as collect the revenue from clients, the billable hours were central to the functioning of the firm and therefore were well regulated. As such, in order to provide assistance to a coworker, I had two options – first I could bill my time to an incorrect file or second I could work my full required billable hours and then help the coworker. While I generally chose the latter option, undoubtedly some employees may have opted for the former. Such behaviors would be deemed as pro-social rule breaking in that the rules were intentionally broken with the intended effect to provide a greater assistance to a coworker. Of course, it could be further suggested that, by helping a coworker, I was also helping the customer and in turn helping the organization. Interestingly, this deviance mirrors one of the responses from the pilot study in the development of the typology of pro-social rule breaking behaviors in Table 4 such that the respondent noted that hours would be billed to the wrong files in order to help balance the books for the annual review.

I would engage in these behaviors for several reasons that are supported by my model. For example, to an administrative assistant or paralegal, the types of employees that would engage in such behaviors, the rule that we were not allowed to help each

other seemed unusually restrictive and confining. Further, in related to organizational martyrdom, we knew that by helping others we could likely be punished. Therefore, without a belief in my ability to productively help a coworker (role breadth self-efficacy) as well as a desire to do so (empowerment role identity), I would not have broken to rules. Additionally, law firms are notoriously political such that the power within the organization is heavily centralized within a dominant coalition of partner attorneys, department heads, and the managing member. Therefore, as a paralegal I often felt like I did not have a voice to be heard and that there was an obvious disconnect such that the group making the rules were not always required to abide by them. In this political context, then, I was able to justify violating the rules of the organization.

My Borrowing of Supplies

When projects required certain supplies and those supplies were not in stock or readily available, we would "borrow" from each other. Such reallocation of resources frequently took place without the resource holder's awareness due to different working shifts or in afterhours rushed deadlines. However, the intention behind such behaviors was to provide a better service to the customers by providing them with high-quality and expedited work. Indeed, during my time within the firm there were several occasions when customers called to recognize the services that we were able to deliver such that, in one occasion in particular while working on a national project, we completed the work for the two states that we were assigned before firms responsibility for any other states were able to complete their tasks. This early completion resulted in a six-figure bonus for the firm as well as the gratitude of the customer.

This example is particularly interesting as it casts behaviors such as theft in a more positive light. Theft has traditionally been conceptualized as destructive deviance such that Robinson and Bennett (1995), in their typology of deviant workplace behaviors, noted that theft or stealing from the organization or customers should be considered under the label of property deviance while stealing from coworkers should be considered personal aggression. Of note, these two classifications are at the most severe end of the authors' continuum of deviant behaviors. Greenberg (1990), using equity theory as a framework, suggested that employee theft can be a retaliation from perceptions of being undervalued and therefore is an attempt to seek retribution and balance the scales. However, even this conceptualization suggests that the deviance is done to benefit the self rather than others and is based on feelings of being taken advantage of. My example of pro-social rule breaking suggests that employee theft can be done to benefit others such that securing the needed materials and resources was done to benefit customers.

In line with the current model, it would have been easier to simply recognize that the materials needed were not readily accessible and use that as justification for not completing the task on time. Instead, in order to help the customer, I would proactively search for the materials. Further, frustration existed toward the person in charge or ordering and maintaining an adequate supply of the needed resources. The supervisor in charge of this task would rarely ask for my input or seek my advice, suggesting a low quality relationship (leader-member exchange). Likewise, to be expected to produce my work in an efficient and timely manner while not having the needed resources, and then being evaluated on my ability to meet deadlines was not fair and reduced my

perceptions of organizational justice, therefore making me more likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking.

My Evaluations of Employees

As the manager of a title company, I had to evaluate my employees' annual performance. To do so, I was expected to provide an unbiased review of each employee. However, rather than assess them on the limited criteria that was to serve as the basis for the evaluations, I also considered personal factors such as need and family issues. Therefore, while violating the rules of the organization for the performance evaluations, I did so to better help the employees in the organization. While pro-social rule breaking in organizations can be conducted by any employee, the potential beneficiaries have been restricted to the organization, customers, or coworkers, with coworkers being considered as peers, but do not directly note such behaviors performed to benefit supervisors or, in this case, subordinates.

Bryant, Davis, Hancock, and Vardaman (2010) recently developed a conceptual model of the possible subordinate-level outcomes when their supervisor engages in pro-social rule breaking. Two contrasting perspectives could be used. Social learning would suggest that the subordinates would recognize and mimic the behaviors of the supervisor such that a contagion effect is likely to take place and that the subordinates will begin to also engage in pro-social rule breaking. Alternatively, through a power-distance perspective, the subordinates will recognize that the supervisor has the positional power and authority to break the rules while they are forced to abide by them.

However a third option also exists. As long as the supervisor acts in ways that are still fair and just, especially if the subordinates receive a benefit from such

behaviors, then they may be satisfied with the supervisor's actions. Indeed, the results of the current study suggest that customers and coworkers that benefit from pro-social rule breaking tend to respond to the actions favorably. Further, this perspective is in line with the more recent revisions to equity theory such that favorable inequity may not result in the same cognitive dissonance as negative inequity which leads to a desire for fairness.

In this example, I chose to look out for my employees and my relationships with them, even though such evaluations were biased. Such biased evaluations are likely relatively common based on prior research (e.g., Longenecker, Sims, & Gioia, 1987) as well as reflected in the post-hoc analysis of supervisor-rated performance in the current study. Additionally, multiple respondents from my pilot study referenced similar behaviors, one of which is noted in Table 4.

Contributions to Theory

> "Unlike a drop of water which loses its identity when it joins the ocean, man does not lose his being in the society in which he lives." – B. R. Ambedkar

This dissertation includes several important contributions to theory that should be considered. First, role identity theory is an important sociological theory but that has not been frequently applied to the organizational sciences. Indeed, much of the research using the theory to date has focused on how an individual identifies in various roles in society including as a student (Burke & Reitzes, 1981), in a religious context (Stryker & Serpe, 1982), or as a volunteer or donor (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Piliavin & Grube, 1991). However, recently researchers have begun to more actively consider the importance of role identity in organizations by considering creative role identities

(Farmer, Tierney, & Kun-McIntyre, 2003) as well as empowerment role identities (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). The authors of both of these studies explored how role identities impact employee creativity. Therefore, while creativity has sometimes been considered as a form of deviance (Zhou & George, 2001), it is frequently perceived to be valuable to the organization while intentionally and voluntarily breaking the rules, even to help others, is perceived more negatively, as supported by the found negative organizational response to pro-social rule breaking. In this way, I seek to bring role identity theory more directly to the deviance literature.

In doing so, I provide a new lens in which to view deviance, which has commonly been studied through the application of social exchange, equity, social learning, and individual differences. Therefore, I am able to consider the behaviors of organizational deviants through a different framework as well as develop and test unique hypotheses to explain and predict such behaviors. Further, the theory is built on an interactionist perspective, a perspective that has been widely suggested but rarely explored in the deviance literature.

Also, I seek to advance the understanding of role identities in the workplace by expanding upon their nomological network and considering role identities in a different way. Farmer and colleagues (2003) suggested that a creative role identity is developed from internal and external expectations as well as the exposure to creative environments and that such a role identity would predict creativity. Empowerment role identity was used by Zhang and Bartol (2010) to moderate the impact of empowering leadership on psychological empowerment which eventually predicted employee creativity. Therefore, very little is known about empowerment role identity other than it is

important in determining psychological empowerment. Further, the antecedents of role identities, as found by Farmer and colleagues (2003) suggest that role identities are essentially externally determined. My examination of the antecedents of empowerment role identity provide a more balanced perspective by suggesting that, in accordance with role identity theory, role identities are both internally and externally developed (Burke & Tully, 1977; Stryker & Burke, 2000) such that the personality component of openness to experience as well as the dispositional factor of role breadth self-efficacy, which is based on a combination of self-reflection and external feedback, drive empowerment role identities.

Additionally, researchers have not yet explored how role identities guide employee behaviors in various situations. For while a role identity is theorized to predict corresponding behaviors that support the identity (Callero, 1985), situational changes may complicate these behaviors. Therefore, I extend the research into role identity to consider the impact of an organizational environment as well as leadership behaviors that are likely to not encourage the performance of behaviors that are congruent with an empowering role identity. Burke (1991) suggested that employees will not engage in identity reaffirming behaviors when they perceive that such behaviors will not be valued. Likewise, Farmer and colleagues (2003), in their examination of creative role identities stated, "our results support the possibility of a paradox: in their diligence to hide their creative side from feedback that would devalue an important aspect of self, employees with strong creative role identities will be less creative than those who give little thought to being creative but may still be minimally creative owing to other factors" (p.626-627).

However, much like there is more than one way to be creative, there is also more than one way to engage in empowering behaviors. Therefore, through the use of role identity theory, I suggested and found that when leaders encourage their employees to be creative that the employees will engage in less pro-social rule breaking than when leaders do not encourage such creativity. In doing so, I suggest that there is more than one way to try to be empowered much like there is more than one collection of prosocial and discretionary behaviors. As such, while Farmer et al. (2003) found that overall creativity decreased when employees perceived that is was not valued, I found that empowering behaviors, as measured by pro-social rule breaking are increased when a leader does not support creativity and when an environment is perceived to be non-supportive or highly political. This finding supports my conceptualization of pro-social rule breaking as a good apple in a rotten barrel and suggests that employees with role identities need not hide their role-congruent behaviors but rather simply enact them in different ways.

Further, while researchers have frequently applied role identity theory to explain specific employee behaviors (e.g., Farmer, Tierney, & Kung-McIntyre, 2003; Zhang & Bartol, 2010), I adopt the theory to guide my entire model. Therefore, I seek to support several of the key assumptions of the theory. First, the role-identity merger (Turner, 1978) is suggested to be based on the external role and internal identity (Burke & Tully, 1977; Stryker & Burke, 2000). My findings on the antecedents of an empowerment role identity support this assumption such that external and internal factors both contribute to the development of such a salient role identity. Second the importance of role identities is in seeking to explain employee behaviors (Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995)

such that role identities require actions that seek to support or sustain the role identities (Callero, 1985; McCall & Simmons, 1978). Through the examination of employee behaviors, I found that employees with salient empowerment role identities are more likely to engage in the identity reaffirming behaviors of pro-social rule breaking. Third, as developed, role identity theory is based on the inherent interactions between individuals and societies (Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Burke, 2000). Adapted for the organizational sciences, I examined and found support for the interactions between employees and their organizations such that leadership behaviors and the organizational setting impact employee behaviors to enact their role identities.

I also extended the support for role identity in the development of the hypothesized outcomes of pro-social rule breaking. Specifically, while behaviors are enacted in support of a salient role identity, the role identity is ever-changing and therefore requires both internal self-verification (Markus & Wurf, 1987; Rosenberg, 1981) as well as validity from others through identification and feedback (Burke, 1991; Riley & Burke, 1995). As such, I found that the suggested stakeholders of pro-social rule breaking – the organization, coworkers, and customers – provide feedback through their responses to the behaviors that reaffirm an empowerment role identity. Finally, the results support Burke's (1991) suggested feedback loop process in confirming or disconfirming a role identity such that feedback from others, in the form of an input, is compared to the standard or prototypically expectations in the role and behaviors are then impacted either to strengthen toward the prototype for confirmation or away from the prototype in disconfirmation. Indeed, I found that when employees with salient empowerment role identities behave in ways in accordance with their role identity by

engaging in pro-social rule breaking, they are more likely to engage in similar behaviors in the future when they receive positive feedback and less likely when they receive negative feedback.

Therefore, my hypothesized model creates a full exploration of role identity theory such that the enactment of pro-social rule breaking from employees with empowerment role identities will lead to responses by others. These responses either confirm or disconfirm the role identity such that they impact the likelihood of engaging in future behaviors in line with the role identity. In this way, then, the responses are also likely to impact the self-fulfilling cycle of self-efficacy (Wood & Bandura, 1989), which was found to be the partially externally-driven antecedent of an empowerment role identity, thereby providing the mechanism through which the salience of the empowerment role identity is either enhanced or reduced in a cyclical process.

Finally, there are important implications from the current study regarding the conceptualization of role as a resource. Researchers have considered the likelihood that roles can serve as resources (e.g., Baker & Faulkner, 1991; Callero, 1994), a conceptualization that Piliavin, Grube, and Callero (2002) extended such that roles can be resources to others outside of the role holders. Further, a role can be used by different parties for different reasons. Indeed, Piliavin and colleagues (2002) suggested that the role of a professor can be used negatively as an absentminded professor can be used by movie theaters for entertainment, by students to manipulate the grades they desire, and by legislators to rationalize not increasing university budgets. However it can also be used positively by administrators to exemplify the development of knowledge, and by marketers to improve the university's reputation. The results of the

study suggest that employees with salient empowerment role identities are more likely to break the rules of the organization. Therefore, on the surface this finding could suggest support for the recent considerations of a dark side of empowerment (e.g., Mackey, Frieder, Perrewe, Gallagher, & Brymer, 2015; Maynard, Gilson, & Mathieu, 2012). Indeed, researchers have suggested that highly empowered employees may be so concerned with shaping their roles that it may come at the expense of their organization (Spreitzer, 2008) or their relationships (Spreitzer & Quinn, 1996). However, I have argued that these employees engage in pro-social rule breaking when they do not perceive other alternatives due to unsupportive leaders and a political environment. Further, the results of the hypothesized interaction between empowerment role identity and leader encouragement of creativity suggest that employees who desire to be empowered will likely find other alternatives to pro-social rule breaking when given the opportunity. Therefore, such a role identity, and the development of empowerment roles, could be considered as an important resource within organizations.

Limitations and Their Directions for Future Research

> "Statistics show that of those who contract the habit of eating, very few survive." – George Bernard Shaw

The results of the current study should be considered in light of the tradeoffs in the design. First, as this was a large study that examined the relationships between several variables, it required a large data collection effort. Therefore, I was unable to implement a longitudinal design to control for base rates of outcome variables and examine changes from subsequent attitudes and behaviors. Engaging in such a design would help to determine the directionality of the model such that while my current

model is theoretically driven, I am unable to rule out reverse or reciprocal relationships from the path analysis. Iacobucci (2009) noted that researchers using structural equation modeling must develop hypothesized models that are guided by strong theory and offer alternative models. While I sought to follow this recommendation, I cannot make claims of causality within the model. Using an experimental or quasi-experimental design has frequently been suggested to be the best, if not only, way to find causal rather than correlated relationships (e.g., Bagozzi, 2010; Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Fabrigar, Porter, & Norris, 2010) and future research should seek to substantiate the findings of the current study in such a fashion.

Researchers, in addition to replicating the current findings and extending the nomological network of pro-social rule breaking, should also implement different methodological designs. Every design has limitations such that the current field study, although collecting data from multiple sources and in multiple waves, can still be artificially impacted through biases such as social desirability from the focal employees and leniency from their supervisors. Likewise, the scenarios and vignettes implemented by Morrison (2006) and Mayer et al. (2007) can be biased as they portray paper people rather than actual people and do not reflect actual behaviors. Therefore, while I began the collection of observers' perceptions of pro-social rule breaking and supplemented Dahling and colleagues (2012) prior work of collecting performance data from coworkers and supervisors by also collecting performance measures from the organization, more archival data could help to improve understanding regarding the actual incidents of pro-social rule breaking and their implications on organizations.

Further, while I relied primarily on validated scales that produced appropriate reliability estimates, there were a few measures that should be addressed. First, as no prior scale was available to measure responses to pro-social rule breaking, I designed a straightforward three-item scale for each of the responses from the organization, coworkers, and customers that was guided by Morrison's (2006) dimensions of pro-social rule breaking which was also used by Dahling and colleagues (2012) in the creation of the General Pro-Social Rule Breaking Scale. The customer and coworker responses collapsed into a one-factor solution and the reliability estimates of the customer/coworker response (.80) as well as the organizational response (.89) suggested that the items for each subscale were tapping the same latent construct. Likewise, I built the scale for the likelihood to engage in future pro-social rule breaking in the same way – three items, one for the likelihood of violating rules in the future for each type of pro-social rule breaking. These items produced a reliable scale ($\alpha = .92$). As the responses were a critical step within the path analysis that linked the pro-social rule breaking to the outcome variables, researchers should seek to replicate these findings with another scale and see if the results still hold.

Next, two scales were adapted using only subscales of the original versions. One item from the 10-item scale for openness to experience by John and Srivastava (1999) was eliminated due to a poor loading (.28). Further, the reliability analysis supported its removal, and the remaining nine items produce a Cronbach's α of .87. Also, perceptions of organizational politics was adapted due to the host organization's concerns regarding the third subscale for promotion policies. Therefore, only the subscales for general organizational politics and going along to get ahead were provided to the respondents.

Additionally, one item within the going along to get ahead subscale did not load onto any factors within the development of the measurement model and was thus discarded. The resulting final eight-item subscale produced a strong reliability estimate ($\alpha = .84$). As perceptions of organizational politics emerged as a critical antecedent of pro-social rule breaking, this finding should be interpreted in respect to the subset of scale items that were included. Specifically, I found that the perceptions of the overall politics and their influence on interpersonal encounters are related to pro-social rule breaking but I am unable to suggest a similar relationship with the politics in the career outcomes (pay and promotions). Researchers have noted that the most political experiences in organizations are frequently the distribution of resources such as pay and promotion (e.g., Ferris & Buckley, 1990; Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick, & Mayes, 1980). As such, the impact of the pay and promotions subscale may have an even stronger relationship with pro-social rule breaking but future research is needed to make such an assessment.

Two scales also produced lower reliability estimates than are preferred according to the .70 cutoff (Nunnally, 1978). The Cronbach's alphas for empowerment role identity (.62) and risk-taking propensity (.63) suggest that the items of the underlying scales may not be tapping the same latent construct as strongly as I would prefer. These results may be partially influenced by the size of the scales. Both measures were four-item scales and the Cronbach's alpha estimation is biased by larger scale sizes (Kline, 2011) such that the equation for the alpha estimate multiples k times the average interitem correlation and divides it by 1 plus the multiplied term of the average interitem correlation and k – 1 in which k is the number of items in the scale

(Cronbach, 1951; Peterson, 1994) or the multiplication term of N^2 with the mean interitem covariance divided by the sum of all of the elements within the variance/covariance matrix in which N^2 is the square of the items within the scale (Cortina, 1993). In either case, the size of the scale has a direct and positive influence on the resulting alpha.

Further, methodologists have noted that Cronbach's alpha is frequently a conservative measure and, unless the items are redundant, will produce a reliability estimate that is lower than it truly is such as when the items measure difference aspects of a variable (Shrout, 1998). Indeed, it has frequently been considered as the lower bound of reliability in scales (e.g., Kristoff, 1974; Novick & Lewis, 1967; Ten Berge, & Zegers, 1978). Also, the established cutoff of .70 by Nunnally (1978) is more a rule-of-thumb than statistical factuality as others have suggested different cutoffs as low as .5 (Davis, 1964) or .6 (Murphy & Davidshofer, 1988). Nunnally himself even suggested a .5-.6 cutoff in his earlier work (Nunnally, 1967).

Therefore, in order to explore the reliability of these constructs, in particular empowerment role identity which was hypothesized and found to be an important antecedent of pro-social rule breaking while risk-taking propensity was a control variable having a known relationship with pro-social rule breaking from Morrison's (2006) earlier findings, I also used piecewise model building (Bollen, 1989) which has been used to explore the reliability of constructs with low coefficient alphas (e.g., Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Judge & Bretz, 1994). The confirmatory factor analyses of the two variables produced strong results for both empowerment role identity (CFI = .97, SRMR = .02) as well as risk-taking propensity (CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .02) with all

items loading onto their corresponding factors at significant ($p < .001$) levels. Nevertheless, researchers should seek to replicate the found relationships using these constructs in other samples to compare the reliability estimates and confirm or refute the current findings.

The impact of biases in the responses is also a concern. Some common method bias may exist in the current study. I took steps to incorporate different techniques into the design of the study such as collecting data from different sources and at different times as well as ordering the items to reduce priming which are suggested to decrease common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Likewise, I also sought to reduce common method bias by using primarily validated scales (Spector, 1987), reverse-coded items, and different scale formats and end-points (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Further, I took steps to detect common method bias in the early stages of my analyses. I did not find evidence of common method bias such that the variables from the focal employees were not more strongly and frequently correlated than those from other sources (Bedeian, 2014). Additionally, I tested a Harmon one-factor solution using a common latent factor (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) within the measurement models and found that they produced poor fit statistics, indicating that there is not a strong presence of common method bias. Finally, I also found two statistically significant interactions, the presence of which has been suggested to be interpretable as a lack of common method bias (Evans, 1985). Yet even with such caution in the design and approaches to examine the analyses, I relied on the fallible responses from employees and supervisors for the majority of the items. Therefore,

while I sought to reduce the impact of common method bias, eliminating all such biases would result in eliminating all biased respondents, a difficult task within a field study in the organizational sciences.

Another bias to consider in the research of workplace deviance is the possibility that social desirability may have confounded some results. Deviance researchers have frequently found low base-rates of self-reported deviance and the results of my pilot study suggest similar findings. One issue may have been the need to identify the respondents within the pilot study in order to provide the extra credit offered for being a participant. Social desirability is related to a desire to be seen favorably (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) that can be especially prevalent when the respondents are concerned that their supervisors may see the responses (Greenberg & Folger, 1988). For the primary data collection effort, I sought to decrease social desirability bias by ensuring the anonymity of responses (Fisk et al., 2010) and also collecting the responses within an organization that I had recently collected other data from and therefore had a relationship with the organization and had demonstrated my trustworthiness in the prior study. Further, pro-social rule breaking entails a tradeoff to be made between obeying the rules or seeking to help others and be more efficient. Therefore, as compared with self-focused destructive deviance, questions regarding pro-social rule breaking do not provide an easily interpretable good, positive, or correct answer which should decrease social desirability bias (Effelsberg, Solga, & Gurt, 2014). However, despite my attempts to ensure that the responses would be anonymous and that the organization would only receive summary information, social desirability bias is always a concern in deviance

literature as it is hard to detect and to control (Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, & Tag, 1997).

Within my exploratory pot-hoc study which focused on the supervisors' evaluations of pro-social rule breaking, organizational citizenship behavior, and performance, I found that there might have been a leniency bias in their evaluations such that the measure of employee performance was significantly higher than the organizational measures of the same employees' performance from the prior as well as current years. This same bias may have also carried over to their evaluations of pro-social rule breaking such that the supervisors rated their subordinates higher in pro-social rule breaking than the subordinates rated themselves. However, of the three measures collected from the supervisors for pro-social rule breaking, organizational citizenship behaviors, and performance, none were significantly related to each other which suggests that common method bias was likely not a strong factor but leniency bias may have been.

Through a multi-stakeholder perceptive, I found that the prosocial nature of the focal behaviors are truly in the eye of the beholder. The respondents reported that their organization typically responds negatively to occasions of pro-social rule breaking while customers and coworkers respond positively. While indeed important as perceptions drive behaviors, researchers should explore actual responses. Further, by designing a study that links responses from the organization, customers, and coworkers as well as the intentions behind specific incidents of pro-social rule breaking, a more exacting model of pro-social rule breaking could be created such that behaviors that are intended to benefit different stakeholders are likely to produce different responses. For

example, accepting an expired coupon may evoke a positive response from the customer, a negative response from the organization, and no response from a coworker who is unaware of the action. Likewise, implementing a new experimental process to expedite organizational processes may evoke no response from customers, a positive response from the organization, and a negative response from coworkers who oppose change.

Dahling and colleagues' (2012) scale to measure pro-social rule breaking includes subscales to measure Morrison's (2006) three suggested groups of beneficiaries. By using the scale, I sought to split apart the three subscales to examine such inconsistencies however I found that all of the items for the three subscales were highly correlated and loaded onto one factor. Further, when forcing a split between the three, the subscales produced results that replicated each other. Using a different method or a more qualitative-based design could help to parcel out the differences between the forms of pro-social rule breaking.

I found support for pro-social rule breaking as an interactionist construct such that situational and relational factors interact with the frequently-researched dispositional factors in predicting the behaviors. In doing so, I am able to advance and extend what is known about pro-social rule breaking. However, researchers should continue the exploration of other variables that may be related to pro-social rule breaking through theoretically-derived models. For example, conscientiousness and openness to experience have been found to predict pro-social rule breaking. However, the Big 5 personality components are intercorrelated (Barrick, Stewart, Neubert, & Mount, 1998; Bradley, Klotz, Postlethwaite, & Brown, 2013) and therefore

consideration should be given to the remaining three components. I suggested above that the decision to engage in pro-social rule breaking is likely a unique decision that is made separately for every possibly incident based on several determining factors including the perceived severity of the restrictiveness of the rule to be broken. Therefore, employees who are low in emotional stability are likely to have larger swings in their emotions such that high peaks or low valleys may make them more susceptible to engaging in pro-social rule breaking. Likewise, extraversion is related to openness to experience such that they form a composite component for getting ahead (Ones, Viswesvaran, & Dilchert, 2005), and may impact pro-social rule breaking such that extraverts are more willing to take the lead rather than wait for agreement (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

An unexpected result from the current study was the non-significant relationship between proactive personality and empowerment role identity. Role identity theory suggests a likely relationship between the constructs that was not revealed in the current study. Null findings can be found for various reasons. The first could be that the relationship truly does not exist. Morrison (2006) hypothesized a direct effect of proactive personality on pro-social rule breaking and also found a non-significant relationship. Therefore, it may very well be that pro-social rule breaking is not impacted by an employee's proactive personality. However, given that pro-social rule breaking is a form of proactive behaviors and further given that proactive behaviors are widely found to be driven in part by proactive personality, then the repeated null results are indeed perplexing. So apparent is this suggested relationship that several authors have proposed a relationship between proactive personality and pro-social rule breaking

specifically (e.g., Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012; Morrison, 2006) and constructive deviance in general (e.g., Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003). Further, proactive personality has been found to predict related forms of constructive deviance including voice (Crant, Kim, & Wang, 2011) and whistle-blowing (Miceli, Vanscotter, Near, & Rehg, 2001).

A second plausible reason for the lack of significance in the results could be characteristics specific to the sample itself or the validity of the measure. However, the samples were very distinct with Morrison (2006) collecting responses from 168 MBA students that averaged 28.4 years of age with 5.37 years of work experience and 61% male. Alternatively, I sampled 270 organizational employees that average 45.9 years of average and were more seasoned with 8.58 years of experience in their roles and 13.72 years within the organization. Also, my sample was almost evenly split between the genders (51% male). Further, the measures that were used were different as well such that Morrison relied on the 17-item measure by Bateman and Crant (1993) while I utilized a 9-item scale by Seibert, Crant, and Kramer (1999). The reliability estimates from both studies suggest an acceptable loading of the items (.88 for Morrison, .83 for the current study). Another possibility could be limitations in the method and design of the studies. Though yet again there were differences such that Morrison relied on a scenario-based design of pro-social rule breaking while I conducted a multi-wave, multisource field study and used the validated General Pro-Social Rule Breaking Scale.

Another option could also be that I did not have enough power in the current study to find a significant relationship that may be present. Although support was found for several significant relationships from my hypothesized model, smaller effect sizes

require large sample sizes in order to detect. Therefore, I conducted a power analysis on the relationship between proactive personality and pro-social rule breaking which produce an observed power of .75, which is slightly below the ideal .80. As such, a relationship between proactive personality and pro-social rule breaking may exist such that the current sample does not have the adequate power to detect the relationship. In this case, the null finding would be representative of a type II error. Therefore, the counterintuitive non-significant relationship between proactive personality and pro-social rule breaking remains for the time. However, researchers should continue to explore whether this relationship truly does not exist or if there may be other intervening variables that may either suppress the effect of proactive personality or be required to provide an indirect effect.

While the focus of pro-social rule breaking is on the intentionality of the behavior, as independent of the outcomes, intentions are determined and maintained primarily internally. Therefore, if the acting employee intended to help his or her organization or its stakeholders by violating the rules, then the behaviors are considered by researchers as prosocial but may not receive the same recognition from observers. Attribution theory suggests that the employee's behavior will either be attributed to the employee or the situation. Further, the fundamental attribution error (Heider, 1958) suggests that the behavior will more likely be attributed to the employee by observers. These attributions could have significant implications on the responses from others as well as the outcomes for the focal employee. As I have conceptualized and found support for, pro-social rule breaking may indeed be performed by employees with seemingly ideal personality and dispositional characteristics (i.e., open to new

experiences, confident in their abilities, and desiring to be empowered), yet these employees feel constrained by their negative environments. In seeking to better such an environment, they may violate the organization's rules yet their actions could be attributed to a dispositional deviance rather than a political or unjust workplace. Such attributions, then, can incorrectly portray a negative impression of the employee rather than the situation, with subsequent implications. Dahling and colleagues (2012) found that coworkers as well as supervisors perceived pro-social rule breaking negatively as reflected by lower performance ratings for the focal employee. In this way, while the intentionality of pro-social rule breaking as other-focused is starkly in contrast to the self-focused intentions of destructive deviance, the performance evaluations for employees engaging in the opposing behaviors appear the same. Therefore, while pro-social rule breaking is focused on the intentionality, the outcomes may be determined by the behaviors themselves.

To date the results are bleak for employees that engage in pro-social rule breaking. Dahling and colleagues (2012) examined the only known outcomes of pro-social rule breaking when they measured performance ratings. Those ratings suggest that employees that engage in pro-social rule breaking receive lower performance evaluations. The results of the current study also suggest that they will perceive more violations of psychological contracts which will result in less satisfaction and fit within their organization. Therefore, a question that should be addressed is why an employee would engage in such behaviors. Piliavin and colleagues (2002) raised a similar question when they asked researchers to consider why an individual would accept the role as the dissenter. I have begun to consider this in my description of pro-social rule

breaking as an outcry or a last ditch effort to change the situation. Indeed, I compare these behaviors to organizational martyrdom such that an important difference between pro-social rule breaking and other prosocial behaviors is the direct negative implications for the employee. Therefore, by sacrificing their own performance evaluations and experiencing lower job attitudes, employees are desperately seeking to help others or to change the organizational environment. However, researchers should continue the exploration of the outcomes of such behaviors, outcomes which have largely been ignored to date.

In doing so, it may be particularly important to learn of any positive individual outcomes of engaging in pro-social rule breaking or if it is purely driven in a utilitarian fashion to provide the greatest good to others at one's own expense. Other job attitudes should be explored in that a sense of self-determination or control could be an important intrinsic motivator such that employees who have a greater sense of control and are able to enact empathetic behaviors for the benefit of others may perceive these characteristics of their work more important than performance ratings. Additionally, as psychological contract violations as well as low satisfaction and perceptions of fit are established antecedents of turnover, intentions to quit and continuance commitment may be related such that employees who do not expect to be in the organization for a long time may be more concerned with helping others in the short-term than they are with the assessments of their performance.

Additional insight regarding why an employee may seek to engage in behaviors to help others at his or her own expense may be found by considering the various perspectives within several theories of motivation. For while expectancy theory (Lawler

& Suttle, 1973; Vroom, 1964) suggests that employees will assess the pro-social rule breaking in a three-stage process, the likely negative individual outcomes of these behaviors may dissuade such action. In contrast, Hackman and Oldham (1976), in their Job Characteristics Model, suggested that several key aspects of pro-social rule breaking should be motivational included increasing meaningfulness by attempting to make a significant difference that requires a variety of skills, the autonomy or empowerment to be responsible for outcomes, as well as a feedback loop. Likewise, autonomy or empowerment is central to the development of the self-determination model of work motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Gagne & Deci, 2005) such that employees are driven to maintain their autonomy. Further, extrinsic rewards will actually decrease intrinsic motivation such the pro-social rule breaking, the resulting behaviors from an empowerment role identity, should increase feelings of autonomy and empowerment.

Adams' (1963, 1965) equity theory could be used to develop arguments both for as well as against the enactment of pro-social rule breaking. As equity theory is based on comparisons of fairness with referent others, seeking to help a coworker, especially if these behaviors are likely to harm the focal employee, would decrease the employee's outcomes to inputs while raising that of the coworker. The result would be a decreased ratio in the comparison between self and other and therefore would likely result in demotivation for pro-social rule breaking. However, if the focal employee perceives him or herself as an observer rather than a party to the comparison for equity, then seeking to help a coworker who is experiencing negative inequity through pro-social rule breaking could reduce such unfairness.

Finally, Grant's (2007) model of relational job design offers several important considerations for pro-social rule breaking. First, employees are more likely to engage in prosocial behaviors when they have interactions with the potential beneficiaries that are frequent and in depth. Considering that the suggested beneficiaries of pro-social rule breaking are the organization, coworkers, and customers, an employee likely has such relationships with these beneficiaries. Second, an employee will be more likely to engage in prosocial helping behaviors when there is a strong perceived impact on the beneficiary. This proposition supports my view of pro-social rule breaking as independent actions and that are determined based on the perceived severity of the restrictiveness of the rule to be broken and mirrors the narratives of the employee in the hardware store that would open bulk items for customers as well as my experiences in the amusement park to let families with children only slightly below the height requirement to ride the rides. Finally, Grant (2007) also suggested that by engaging in prosocial behaviors, the focal employee's feelings of competence, social worth, and self-determination would increase. Such outcomes mirror the self-fulfilling processes within my model such that competence is related to role breadth-self efficacy while social worth and self-determination are related to an empowerment role identity.

Practical Implications

In addition to the implications for researchers and theory, the current study holds several important implications for practicing managers and employees alike. Indeed, much like related constructs, pro-social rule breaking is a very practical collection of behaviors and one that has been suggested to be a frequent occurrence in the workplace (Morrison, 2006). Therefore, I seek to continue the conversation between researchers

and practitioners that has been enhanced through the studies of unethical pro-organizational behavior (Umphress & Bingham, 2011) and detrimental citizenship behavior (Pierce & Aguinis, 2015). In doing so, I seek to bridge the divide between science and practice (Cascio & Aguinis, 2008).

First, I offer a perspective of pro-social rule breaking that is unique and somewhat in contrast to those offered by others (e.g., Morrison, 2006; Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012). Using the same conceptualization and validated measurement tool as used in prior studies, I applied a different theoretical framework than what has been suggested in the past. While the collection of literature in pro-social rule breaking, and positive and constructive deviance as a whole, is still emerging, it has roots in the positive organizational scholarship movement (Spreitzer & Sonenshen, 2003, 2004). As such, there tends to be an underlying positive perspective of such behaviors that are done to benefit others. Yet the prior findings suggest that the employees that engage in such behaviors are high in risk-taking (Morrison, 2006) and low in conscientiousness (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012), which may not be an ideal personality prototype for employees in organizations.

By extending the focus to also include contextual factors that predict pro-social rule breaking, I am able to provide a more well-rounded perspective of the interactional effects that may be in play in organizations. Further, by empirically examining several variables that have been suggested to predict pro-social rule breaking in conceptual models and as directions for research in prior empirical studies, I am able to provide a clearer understanding of the characteristics of employees that are likely to violate the rules for the benefit of others. Indeed, my results suggest that pro-social rule breaking

may be performed by employees as an outcry against an organizational context that they do not like. Employees who desire to be empowered and to take an active role in the decision making process as well as design of their jobs are more likely to perform pro-social rule breaking behaviors. Likewise, employees who perceive a highly politicized organizational environment are more likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking. Further, employees with leaders who are not supportive of their creativity are more likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking. Therefore, the engagement in such behaviors creates a more complex situation than initially perceived. Specifically, pro-social rule breaking can be the actions of engaged workers who do not perceive that they are receiving the support that they need.

However, it is widely accepted that the primary differentiation between constructive and destructive deviance is the intentionality of the behaviors as either self- or other-focused (Galperin, 2012). Further, these constructs were designed to focus on the intent of the behaviors as independent of the outcomes (Bryant, Davis, Hancock, & Vardaman, 2010). In doing so, intending to help may not actually provide the intended benefit and what is beneficial to one party may not be beneficial to another (Reynolds, Shoss, & Jundt, 2015). I find that this is a common perception such that customers and coworkers tend to respond favorably to pro-social rule breaking behaviors while the organization's response is negative. These mixed responses suggest that the organization may be more focused on the rules it created while the customers and coworkers are more focused on the potential benefits of the behaviors.

The results also shed light on how empowerment can be enhanced as well as perceptions of organizational politics decreased. Specifically, organizations that want to

empower their employees must recognize that not all employees desire to be empowered (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005). Employees that hold personality traits that make them open to new experiences as well as have confidence in their abilities will desire to be empowered. Indeed, it is likely role breadth self-efficacy creates the willingness to be empowered and that openness to experience is the ability. Importantly, as role breadth self-efficacy is partially driven through a self-fulfilling cycle (Wood & Bandura, 1989), managers can help their subordinates to increase their self-efficacy by placing them in situations to succeed. In doing so, self-efficacy can be an important lever that managers can use in not only increasing employee confidence, but also their desire for empowerment. Alternatively, in order to reduce the negative outcomes of perceptions of organizational politics, managers should focus on increasing the perceptions of justice and the climate for initiative within the organization as well as the quality of relationships between subordinates and supervisors.

In accordance with role identity theory, I also find that the feedback from others is critical in the performance, sensemaking processes, and continuation of behaviors. Employees engage in behaviors that are in alignment with their role identities such that employees who have high empowerment role identities will behave in ways that support their desire for empowerment such as engaging in job crafting, having greater control, participating in the decision making, and performing behaviors that are not directly told to them – all of which can contribute to pro-social rule breaking. However, role identity theory was developed by social interactionists who recognized that in order to maintain a role identity, reinforcement from reference groups is needed (Burke, 1991). Therefore, positive feedback will confirm and strengthen while negative feedback will disconfirm

and weaken the identity. As such, practicing managers should not rely just on formal organizational rules to guide employees' behaviors but also recognize their ability to influence the employees through the use of feedback.

The results also support that, in addition to feedback given after the enactment of behaviors, leaders can also play an important proactive role in regulating pro-social rule breaking. Leader encouragement of creativity was found to be a significant boundary condition in determining whether employees with high empowerment role identities engage in pro-social rule breaking. Employees with empowerment role identities are more likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking regardless of the actions of their leader, however such employees who have leaders that encourage their creativity engage in less pro-social rule breaking than those with leaders who do not support them. Leaders that encourage creativity in their subordinates are developmental and recognize successes while forgiving failures (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010; Wu & Parker, in press). Further, as the agent and frequently most available representative of the organization (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1975), a leader that encourages subordinates' creativity may signal that the organization does so as well. Therefore, by encouraging creativity and providing opportunities for employees to develop new and innovative ideas, the benefits of pro-social rule breaking in helping others may be achieved without the need to break the rules. As such, encouraging leaders are likely to provide alternatives for employees that desire empowerment to explore new ideas and processes within the parameters of the organization's rules. In this way, then, employees will no longer perceive such a negative context and will be able to engage in more traditional forms of prosocial behaviors that do not violate the

rules of the organization such as contextual performance and organizational citizenship behavior.

Conclusion

I sought to provide a more well-rounded examination of the antecedents as well as the critical outcomes associated with employees' pro-social rule breaking. In doing so, I adopted an interactionist multi-stakeholder perspective which revealed that the employees that break the rules for the benefit of others do so as an effort to change their workplace environment which is characterized as highly political and overseen by leaders that do not encourage their creativity. In a role identity theory framework, I found that pro-social rule breaking can be the behaviors that are enacted in seeking to affirm an empowerment role identity. Additionally, I found support for an interactionist model such that employees with salient empowerment role identities that are overseen by leaders that do not support their creativity within organizations that are perceived to be highly political are more likely to engage in pro-social rule breaking.

Further, I found that pro-social rule breaking is truly in the eye of the beholder such that customers and coworkers respond more favorably than the organization and that these responses impact the decision to engage in similar behaviors in the future. Yet regardless of the responses, having to violate organizational rules in order to perform one's job more efficiently or to provide a greater benefit to others will have negative implications on the focal employee including feelings that the organization has violated the unwritten psychological contracts which, in turn, leads to reduced job satisfaction and perceptions of fit within the organization.

Additionally, through the use of a pilot study as well as post-hoc exploratory analyses, I was able to replicate the dimensions of pro-social rule breaking as well as support the use of observer-rated measures of deviance and the designation between various prosocial behaviors. Further, I considered how biases from different sources may impact the results and suggested ways that they can be reduced. In doing so, then, I believe that the current study greatly advances my understanding of pro-social rule breaking as the actions of good apples seeking to cleanse a rotten barrel.

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Appendix A: Pilot Study Measures

Age

Response scale:
Open-ended

Item:
What is your current age?

Gender

Response scale:
0 = Male
1 = Female

Item:
What is your gender?

Ethnicity

Response scale:
1 = American Indian or Alaska Native
2 = Asian
3 = Black or African-American
4 = Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
5 = Hispanic or Latino
6 = White Non-Hispanic
7 = Other (please specific)

Item:
1. Please describe your race/ethnicity.

Employment History

Response scale:
0 = No
1 = Yes

Item:
1. Have you ever been employed?

Response scale:
Open-ended

Items:
1. If yes, how many years have you been employed?
2. How many jobs have you held?

Frequency of Deviance

Response scale:
1 = Never
2 = Rarely
3 = Every Once in a While
4 = Sometimes
5 = Often

Items:
1. How frequently do you engage in deviant behavior at work? If you are not currently employed, how frequently did you engage in these behaviors in your past job?
2. To what extent have you engaged in deviant behaviors seeking to benefit a coworker, customer, or your organization?
3. To what extent have you engaged in deviant behavior for self-serving purposes?
4. To what extent have your deviant behaviors resulted in negative outcomes for yourself?
5. To what extent have your deviant behaviors resulted in positive outcomes for yourself?
6. To what extent have your deviant behaviors resulted in negative outcomes for your customers, coworkers, or organization?
7. To what extent have your deviant behaviors resulted in positive outcomes for your customers, coworkers, or organization?

Critical Incident of Pro-social Rule Breaking

Response scale:
Open-ended

Now please think of a time that you engaged in deviant behavior to help a co-worker, customer, or your organization.
Items:

1. Please describe the behavior that was engaged in and the context that surrounded it.
2. What were your intentions for engaging in this particular deviant behavior?
3. What were the outcomes of the deviant behavior (e.g., individual, team, supervisor, organization)?
4. How were you treated after this particular behavior by your organization?
5. How were you treated after this particular behavior by your coworkers?
6. How were you treated after this particular behavior by your customers?

Appendix B: Primary Study Survey 1 Measures

Proactive Personality (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999)

Response scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Items:
1. I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.
2. Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force of constructive change.
3. Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.
4. If I see something I don't like, I fix it.
5. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.
6. I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.
7. I excel at identifying opportunities.
8. I am always looking for better ways to do things.
9. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.

Leader-Member Exchange (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995)

Response Scale:
1 = Rarely
2 = Occasionally
3 = Sometimes
4 = Fairly Often
5 = Very Often

Item:
Do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with your work?

Response Scale:
1 = Not a Bit
2 = A Little
3 = A Fair Amount
4 = Quite a Bit
5 = A Great Deal

Item:
How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?

Response Scale:
1 = Not at All
2 = A Little
3 = Moderately
4 = Mostly
5 = Fully

Item:
How well does your leader recognize your potential?

Response Scale:
1 = None
2 = Small
3 = Moderate
4 = High
5 = Very High

Item:
Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/ her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his/ her power to help you solve problems in your work?

Response Scale:
1 = None
2 = Small
3 = Moderate
4 = High
5 = Very High

Item:
Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out," at his/ her expense?

Response Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Item:
I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/ her decision if he/she is not present to do so?

Response Scale:
1 = Extremely Ineffective
2 = Worse than Average
3 = Average
4 = Better than Average
5 = Extremely Effective

Item:
How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?

Climate for Initiative (Baer & Frese, 2003)

Response Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Items:
1. People in our company actively attack problems.
2. Whenever something goes wrong, people in our company search for a solution immediately.
3. Whenever there is a chance to get actively involved, people in our company take it.
4. People in our company take initiative immediately – more often than in other companies.
5. People in our company use opportunities quickly in order to attain goals.
6. People in our company usually do more than they are asked to do.
7. People in our company are particularly good at realizing ideas.

Overall Justice Perceptions (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009)

Response Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Slightly Disagree
4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
5 = Slightly Agree
6 = Agree
7 = Strongly Agree

Items:
Personal justice experiences
1. Overall, I'm treated fairly by my organization.
2. In general, I can count on this organization to be fair.
3. In general, the treatment I receive around here is fair.

Fairness of the organization generally
1. Usually, the way things work in this organization are not fair.*
2. For the most part, this organization treats its employees fairly.
3. Most of the people who work here would say they are often treated unfairly.*

Note: * is used to denote items which were reverse scored.

Conscientiousness (John & Srivastava, 1999)

Response Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neutral
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

I see myself as someone who:
Items:
1. Does a thorough job.
2. Can be somewhat careless.*
3. Is a reliable worker.
4. Tends to be disorganized.*
5. Tends to be lazy.*
6. Perseveres until the task is finished.
7. Does things efficiently.
8. Makes plans and follows through with them.
9. Is easily distracted.*

Note: * is used to denote items which were reverse scored.

Openness to Experience (John & Srivastava, 1999)

Response Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neutral
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

I see myself as someone who:
Items:
1. Is original, comes up with new ideas.
2. Is curious about many different things.
3. Is ingenious, a deep thinker.
4. Has an active imagination.
5. Is inventive.
6. Values artistic, aesthetic experiences.
7. Likes to reflect, play with ideas.
8. Has few artistic interests.*
9. Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature.

Note: * is used to denote items which were reverse scored.

Risk Taking Propensity (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 1989)

Response Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Items:
1. I am not willing to take risks when choosing a job or a company to work for.*
2. I prefer a job with low risk and high security with a steady salary over a job that offers high risks and high rewards.*
3. I prefer to remain on a job that has problems that I know about rather than take risks of working at a new job that has unknown problems even if the new job offers greater rewards.*
4. I view risk on a job as a situation to be avoided at all costs.*

Note: * is used to denote items which were reverse scored.

Autonomy (Factual Autonomy Scale (FAS) – Spector & Fox, 2003)

Rating Scale:
1 = Never
2 = Rarely
3 = Sometimes
4 = Often
5 = All the Time

In your present job, how often do you have to ask permission to do the following events?
Items:
1. To take a rest/break.
2. To take a lunch/meal break.
3. To leave early for the day.
4. To change the hours you work.
5. To leave your office or workstation.
6. To come late to work.
7. To take time off.

Rating Scale:
1 = Never
2 = Once or Twice
3 = Once or Twice per Month
4 = Once or Twice per Week
5 = Everyday

How often do the following events occur in your present job?
Items:
1. How often does someone tell you what you are to do?
2. How often does someone tell you when you are to do your work?
3. How often does someone tell you how you are to do your work?

Role Breadth Self-Efficacy (Parker, 1998)

Response Scale:
1= Not at All Confident
2 = Slightly Confident
3 = Somewhat Confident
4 = A Good Bit of Confidence
5 = Very Confident

How confident would you feel doing the following?
Items:
1. Analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution.
2. Representing your work area in meetings with senior management.
3. Designing new procedures for your work area.
4. Making suggestions to management about ways to improve the working of your section.
5. Contributing to discussions about the company's strategy.
6. Writing a proposal to spend money in your work area.
7. Helping to set targets/goals in your work area.
8. Contacting people outside the company (e.g., suppliers, customers) to discuss problems.
9. Presenting information to a group of colleagues.
10. Visiting people from other departments to suggest doing things differently.

Age

Response Scale:
Open-ended

Item:
What is your current age?

Appendix C: Primary Study Survey 2 Measures

Empowerment Role Identity (Zhang & Bartol, 2010)

Rating Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Items:
1. I often think about having greater control over my job.
2. I have a clear concept of myself as an employee who wants to have greater decision-making power.
3. Having certain degree of power and discretion is an important part of my identity.
4. I would feel a loss if I have no discretion at all in my job.

Leader Encouragement of Creativity (Zhang & Bartol, 2010)

Response Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Items:
1. My manager encourages and emphasizes or reinforces creativity by employees.
2. My manager respects employees' ability to function creatively.
3. My manager allows employees to try to solve the same problems in different ways.
4. My manager allows employees to deal with problems in different ways.
5. My manager will reward employees who are creative in doing their job.
6. My manager will publicly recognize those who are creative.

Perceptions of Organizational Politics Scale (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997)

Response Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Items:
General Political Behavior
1. People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down.
2. There has always been an influential group in this department that no one ever crosses.

Go Along to Get Ahead
1. There is no place for yes-men around here; good ideas are desired even if it means disagreeing with superiors.*
2. Agreeing with powerful others is the best alternative in this organization.
3. It is best not to rock the boat in this organization.
4. Sometimes it is easier to remain quiet than to fight the system.
5. Telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth.
6. It is safer to think what you are told than to make up your own mind.

Note: * is used to denote items which were reverse scored.

Appendix D: Primary Study Survey 3 Measures

Pro-Social Rule Breaking (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012)

Response Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Items:
Organizational Efficiency
1. I break organizational rules or policies to do my job more efficiently.
2. I violate organizational policies to save the company time and money.
3. I ignore organizational rules to "cut the red tape" and be a more effective worker.
4. When organizational rules interfere with my job duties, I break those rules.
5. I disobey company regulations that result in inefficiency for the organization.

Coworker Aid
1. I break organizational rules if my coworkers need help with their duties.
2. When another employee needs my help, I disobey organizational policies to help him/her.
3. I assist other employees with their work by breaking organizational rules.
4. I help out other employees, even if it means disregarding organizational policies.

Customer Aid
1. I break rules that stand in the way of good customer service.
2. I give good service to clients or customers by ignoring organizational policies that interfere with my job.
3. I break organizational rules to provide better customer service.
4. I bend organizational rules so that I can best assist customers.

Perceptions of Organizational Response to Pro-Social Rule Breaking

Rating Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agee nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Items:
1. When an employee breaks the rules in my organization, the organization is supportive if it was done to help others.
2. When an employee breaks the rules in my organization, the organization is supportive if doing so made the organization more efficient.
3. When an employee breaks the rules in my organization, the organization is supportive if the intent of the actions was to be helpful.

Perceptions of Coworkers' Response to Pro-Social Rule Breaking

Rating Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agee nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Items:
4. When an employee breaks the rules in my organization, his or her coworkers are supportive if it was done to help others.
5. When an employee breaks the rules in my organization, his or her coworkers are supportive if doing so made the organization more efficient.
6. When an employee breaks the rules in my organization, his or her coworkers are supportive if the intent of the actions was to be helpful.

Perceptions of Customers' Response to Pro-Social Rule Breaking

Rating Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agee nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Items:
1. When an employee breaks the rules in my organization, his or her customers are supportive if it was done to help others.
2. When an employee breaks the rules in my organization, his or her customers are supportive if doing so made the organization more efficient.
3. When an employee breaks the rules in my organization, his or her customers are supportive if the intent of the actions was to be helpful.

Appendix E: Primary Study Survey 4 Measures

Job Satisfaction (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979)

Response Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Items:
1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I like my job.
3. In general, I like working here.

Likelihood to Engage in Future Pro-Social Rule Breaking

Response Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Items:
1. I am likely to engage in actions that break organizational rules to help the organization in the future.
2. I am likely to engage in actions the break organizational rules to help a coworker in the future.
3. I am likely to engage in actions that break organizational rules to help a customer in the future.

Psychological Contract Fulfillment (Robinson & Morrison, 2000)

Response Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Items:
1. Almost all the promises made by my employer during recruitment have been kept.
2. I feel that my employer has come through in fulfilling the promises made to me when I was hired.
3. My employer has done an excellent job of fulfilling its promises to me.
4. I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions.*
5. My employer has broken many of its promises to me even though I've upheld my side of the deal.*

Note: * is used to denote items which were reverse scored.

Person-Organization Fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002)

Response Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Items:
1. The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organization values.
2. My personal values match my organization's values and culture.
3. My organization's values and culture provide a good fit with the thing that I value in life.

Appendix F: Measures Collected from the Organization

Prior Year Employee Performance Assessment

Rating Scale:
1 = Below Expectations
2 = Near Expectations
3 = Achieves Expectations
4 = Above Expectations
5 = Far Above Expectations

Current Year Employee Performance Assessment

Rating Scale:
1 = Below Expectations
2 = Near Expectations
3 = Achieves Expectations
4 = Above Expectations
5 = Far Above Expectations

Position in Organizational Hierarchy

Department

Gender

Reporting Supervisor

Appendix G: Supervisor-reported Measures

Pro-Social Rule Breaking (Dahling, Chau, Mayer, & Gregory, 2012)

Rating Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Please read the following comments regarding the focal employee and indicate to what level you agree with each.

Items:
Organizational Efficiency
1. Breaks organizational rules or policies to do his or her job more efficiently.
2. Violates organizational policies to save the company time and money.
3. Ignores organizational rules to "cut the red tape" and be a more effective worker.
4. When organizational rules interfere with his or her job duties, he or she breaks those rules.
5. Disobeys company regulations that result in inefficiency for the organization.

Coworker Aid
1. Breaks organizational rules if his or her coworkers need help with their duties.
2. When another employee needs his or her help, he or she disobeys organizational policies to help him/her.
3. Assists other employees with their work by breaking organizational rules.
4. Helps out other employees, even if it means disregarding organizational policies.

Customer Aid
1. Breaks rules that stand in the way of good customer service.
2. Gives good service to clients or customers by ignoring organizational policies that interfere with his or her job.
3. Breaks organizational rules to provide better customer service.
4. Bends organizational rules so that he or she can best assist customers.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (Coworker - Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990)

Response Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Please read the following comments regarding the focal employee and indicate to what level you agree with each.

Items:
1. Helps others who have been absent.
2. Helps others who have heavy workloads.
3. Helps orient new people even though it is not required.
4. Willingly helps others who have work related problems.
5. Is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (Customer - Bettencourt & Brown, 1997)

Response Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Please read the following comments regarding the focal employee and indicate to what level you agree with each.

Items:
1. Voluntarily assists customers even if it means going beyond job requirements.
2. Helps customers with problems beyond what is expected or required.
3. Often goes above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.
4. Willingly goes out of his/her way to make a customer satisfied.
5. Frequently goes out the way to help a customer.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Organization - Williams & Anderson, 1991)

Rating Scale:
1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

Please read the following comments regarding the focal employee and indicate to what level you agree with each.

Items:
1. Attendance at work is above the norm.
2. Gives advance notice when unable to come to work.
3. Takes undeserved breaks.*
4. Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations.*
5. Complains about insignificant things at work.*
6. Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order.

Note: * is used to denote items which were reverse scored.

Current Employee Performance Assessment
Rating Scale:
1 = Poor
2 = Needs Improvement
3 = Adequate
4 = Good
5 = Superior

Item:
1. How would you rate the focal employee's overall job performance?