Understanding the Domain of Counterproductive Work Behavior in China

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Abstract

Current conceptualizations of employee job performance in the Western literature include task performance, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and counterproductive work behavior (CWB). Limited research has investigated the cross-cultural generalizability of these categories or their content. Convergence and divergence theorists present competing perspectives on the cross-cultural applicability of Western management practices. The growing role of China in the world economy makes this culture an important one to consider. The present study contributes to job performance research in two important ways. First, Study 1 investigates whether CWB in China is described by similar or different behaviors as in the Western literature. Second, Study 2 examines the importance that Chinese managers place on task performance, OCB, and CWB. Findings indicate that Chinese managers are similar to North American managers in the content of CWB. Furthermore, Chinese managers value all three groups of behaviors when rating overall performance, placing greater emphasis on task performance and less emphasis on CWB than North American managers. The results suggest that cross-cultural research on job performance needs to take both convergence and divergence perspectives into account.

Understanding the Domain of Counterproductive Work Behavior in China

Over the past 30 years the globalization of the economy has proceeded at a faster pace than ever. Today, we live in a global community where money, products, and talent are flowing across borders with greater ease. Customers, suppliers, and employees often come from any part of the globe resulting in an increasingly diverse workforce and business environment. Managers commonly interact with and rate the performance of employees from diverse cultural backgrounds. These circumstances raise questions about whether the Western-based conceptualization of job performance generalizes to other cultures.

One country whose role is increasingly important in the world economy is China. Its sheer size and pace of growth over the last two decades make it a major player. Real GDP grew by 9.7 percent a year on average from 1990 to 2003; China currently accounts for almost four percent of world output (Krueger, 2005); most other countries' economies are linked to China's. The culture of China contrasts sharply with the Western cultures (Hofstede, 1991), thus it makes a viable site for cross-cultural research on job performance.

Research on job performance has been centered in North America. This research broadly defines job performance in terms of individuals' actions and behaviors that are under their control and that contribute to the goals of the organization (e.g., Campbell, 1990). This research also recognizes that job performance is multidimensional and includes task behavior, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), and counterproductive work behaviors (CWB). Furthermore, a body of research has investigated the extent to which North American managers are influenced by the three categories of behaviors when they form overall impressions about employees (e.g., Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). That is, how much weight is given to volunteering to serve on committees or helping coworkers compared to task performance in managers' ratings of

employee overall performance. Is it in employees' best interest to devote time and resources to OCBs? Or, to what extent is interpersonal or organizational deviance factored into these global ratings of performance compared to OCB. Research into the importance managers' place on task performance, OCBs, or CWBs answers some of these questions and provides useful information for employees and employers. There has been limited cross-cultural research on performance management. Therefore, questions remain as to what extent the Western conceptualization of job performance applies in other cultures.

There are two important questions in cross-cultural research on performance management. First, do members of non-Western cultures conceptualize job performance differently from how it has been described and measured in the Western cultures? That is, is job performance described by similar behaviors in different cultures? Second, even if the content of job performance generalizes to other cultures, do managers in other cultures value the different performance behaviors to the same degree as managers from Western cultures? The present paper was designed to address these two questions. Specifically, Study 1 seeks to examine how counterproductive work behavior is conceptualized in China using two independent samples of Chinese managers. Study 2 seeks to examine the similarities and differences between Chinese and North American mangers in the relative importance they endorse on task performance, OCB, and CWB using another two independent samples of Chinese managers and a sample of Canadian managers.

Theoretical Development: Convergence and Divergence Perspectives

Cross-cultural management research has been characterized by debates over the convergence and divergence perspectives – alternative predictions for the relationship between industrialization and the development of managerial values and behavior (e.g., Brislin, 1993;

Khilji, 2002; McGaughey & DeCieri, 1999; Pudelko, Fink, Carr, & Wentges, 2006; Vance, 2006). Convergence theorists argue that industrialization, technology, globalization, and the deregulation of economies are the primary driving forces behind the global merging of workplace attitudes and behaviors. They argue that industrialization necessitates certain managerial practices regardless of the culture in which it occurs. That is, industrial societies share common needs with respect to the economic, technological, coordination, and administrative demands that arise from industrialization and that are not dictated by a nation's culture. On the other hand, proponents of the divergence perspective argue that work and personal values are primarily the product of societal-cultural influences. They posit that despite globalization and any economic similarities between nations, individuals hold onto the nation's cultural values and hence management practices are deeply rooted in a nation's culture. They argue that a nation's culture influences the content of the functional areas within an organization, which makes it difficult for global organizations to apply consistent management practices across nations. Hence, they suggest that management practices should be and are adjusted to the local cultural context.

In an effort to address these competing perspectives on the cross-cultural applicability of Western-based management practices, the present study examines the content of counterproductive work behavior among Chinese managers and analyzes this content against the content that has been measured and described in the Western cultures. When analyzing the extent to which culture impacts organizational behavior, cross-cultural organizational psychologists have argued that culture influences those situations where interpersonal or organizational relationships are not constrained by technology or other contingent factors (see review by Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Applied to individual level job performance, workplace actions and behaviors that fall under CWB are based firmly on interpersonal relationships and hence they are

likely to be impacted by cultural differences. Research has already begun to explore the content of OCB in the Chinese context (e.g., Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997; Farh, Zhong, & Organ, 2004). To our knowledge no research has yet explicitly explored the content of CWB in China. Hence, our research on the Chinese conceptualization of job performance focused on CWB.

Job Performance in the Western Literature

Traditionally performance appraisal systems were comprised of statements related to the completion of tasks specific to one's job. During the industrial revolution where manufacturing dominated, jobs were defined primarily by a set of tasks bundled together to form a job (Fleishman & Quaintance, 1984). The emphasis at that time was rating employees on the completion of tasks. The eighties brought about total quality management, the emphasis on cross-functional teams, and the importance of communication. Increased competition and the shift from a manufacturing-based economy to an information-and-service based economy in the new millennium brought greater accountability for production deviance and unethical behavior and the necessity of sharing knowledge and building relationships. Thus, the modern workplace drew our attention to a category of behaviors that detract from the goals of the organization by harming the well-being of coworkers or the organization. Examples of these behaviors include absenteeism, production deviance, workplace aggression, theft, sabotage, or fraud. Various labels have been given to these behaviors: *counterproductive work behavior* (Gruys & Sackett, 2003), *professional deviant-adaptive behaviors* (Raelin, 1994), *workplace deviance* (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), *generic work behaviors* (Hunt, 1996), or *destructive/ hazardous behaviors* (Murphy, 1989). These conceptualizations have been based on research conducted using Western samples in Western social and cultural contexts.

Western Conceptualizations of Job Performance in China: Applicability and Constraints

Confucian philosophies, especially Ren (仁) (benevolence), Yi (义) (right conduct), Zhong (忠) (loyalty), and Li (礼) (propriety and good manners) have formed the foundation of the Chinese traditional culture, and these philosophies represent behavioral standards in Chinese societies (see reviews by Bond & Hwang, 1992; Sha, 2000). Specifically, the teachings of Confucian heritage emphasize the importance of controlling for selfish and greedy behaviors and the importance of spontaneous behaviors that are beyond the explicit role requirements but essential for the society. More than two thousand years ago, Confucian described an ideal commonwealth state, in which

"every man and woman has an appropriate role to play in the family and society. A sense of sharing displaces the effects of selfishness and materialism. A devotion to public duty leaves no room for idleness. Intrigues and conniving for ill gain are unknown. Villains such as thieves and robbers do not exist. The doors to every home need never be blocked and bolted by day or night. These are the characteristics of an ideal work, and commonwealth state" (The Record of Rites, 2004).

In addition to the influence of the traditional culture, the educational systems in Chinese schools, organizations, and society at large are characterized by active disseminations of "Hao Ren Hao Shi" (好人好事) (good people and good things) and open criticisms of "Huai Ren Huai Shi" (坏人坏事) (bad people and bad things). President Hu Jin Tao recently declared the importance of developing an "advanced socialist culture" at the Tenth National Meeting of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, China's political advisory body. Specifically, President Hu highlighted the importance of "eight honors" and "eight shames", and claimed that

they are the essence of the socialist value system (China Daily, 2006). Examples of these honors and shames are the honor of industrious labor, the shame of indolence; the honor of togetherness and cooperation, the shame of profiting at the expense of others; the honor of honesty and keeping one's word, the shame of abandoning morality for profit; the honor of discipline and obedience, the shame of lawlessness and disorder. Accordingly, there has been a nation-wide movement in China to learn and implement this value system.

Taken together, controlling for undesirable behaviors is a common characteristic of ruling classes or governments in any given society, including China. Taking the perspective of convergence theorists we argue that some basic content of CWB identified in the Western workplaces (e.g., "not to steal from the organization") would also apply in a culturally diverse environment such as China. However, taking the perspective of divergence theorists, people in different social and cultural contexts might have different conceptions about what behaviors constitute CWB. In other words, social and cultural context may shape, to a greater or lesser extent, the specific content of CWB.

Our understanding of the construct of CWB has been primarily led by the literature in North America, with few studies contributed from Europe (e.g., Marcus, Schuler, Quell, & Humpfner, 2002). There has been some comparative research between Chinese and North American employees on specific incidents of CWB such as absenteeism (e.g., Johns & Xie, 1998; Xie & Johns, 2000). Other research has considered how negative feedback from coworkers or supervisors impacts employee counterproductive behavior in China (Kwok, Au, & Ho, 2005). This research suggests that CWB is an important aspect of job performance in China. It also suggests that certain behaviors (i.e., absenteeism, tardiness, theft) are viewed by Chinese as

counterproductive just as they are viewed in the West. Nevertheless, this research has not examined the specific boundary or content of the construct of CWB across cultures.

Study 1 aimed at investigating the content of CWB among mainland Chinese. Consistent with the convergence theorists, we make a general prediction that similarity would exist in some basic content of CWB among North Americans and Chinese. Given the early stage of the cross-cultural research on CWB, we do not formulate specific hypotheses about what items or dimensions might generalize across cultures. Meanwhile, we remain open to the divergence perspective which would predict that Chinese will describe counterproductive work behaviors which are divergent from the Western literature, given the significant differences between North America and China in cultural, economic, social, and political environments. Chinese might describe incidents (i.e., behaviors) of a given dimension differently from those reported by Westerners, and they might even report indigenous dimensions of CWB. Thus, we asked the Chinese respondents to describe incidents of CWB, rather than constraining their thoughts with the Western instruments. This indigenous approach facilitated a careful exploration of the convergence and divergence perspectives as well as the Chinese-specific content of CWB.

Study 1

Study 1 serves two purposes. First, it helps identify the content and dimensions of CWB in China using two independent samples of Chinese managers from mainland China. Second, it paves the road for Study 2, as the incidents of CWB reported by the Chinese managers who participated in Study 1 form the indigenous instrument that was later used in Study 2 – the study of the importance of task, OCB, and CWB to overall performance ratings in China.

Establishing the content and dimensionality of CWB in China was accomplished using two steps. In the first step a group of Chinese managers was asked to list critical incidents that

they considered to be CWB. This step produced a variety of CWB incidents. However, it did not provide the dimensionality of these behaviors. Thus, in the second step a different group of Chinese managers was invited to sort the CWB incidents, derived from the first step, into different categories. Multi-dimensional scaling was used to derive the dimensionality of the Chinese items of CWB. This process is detailed below separately for each step.

Method

Step1: Generating Counterproductive Work Behavior Items in China

Participants for Step 1:

Participants were 160 Chinese managers and professionals enrolled in the Executive MBA programs of two universities located in Guangdong and Sichuan provinces of China. One hundred and thirty-two participants were male (82.5%). Most of the participants were managers (67%) and professionals (21%), and the remaining were sales-persons (6%) or public servants (6%). The respondents were on average 32.7 years old (SD = 5.62) and had worked at their current jobs for 4 years (SD = 3.60). They had completed an average of 17 years of formal education (SD = 1.74). The participants worked for organizations that represented the various organizational ownerships in China: 45% of the participants worked for state-owned enterprises, 13% for foreign enterprises, 20% for joint ventures, and the rest for private firms.

Sample representation has been a challenging issue for research in China, considering the size of the Chinese population and potential variation associated with geographic locations and other contextual factors. In pursuit of a better representation of Chinese managers, we selected the two research sites from Guangdong and Sichuan provinces, because these two provinces represent different levels of economic development and exposure to the Western influences. Guangdong is a coastal province and one of the most developed provinces in China. Most of the

Guangdong participants in the study were located in the city Shenzhen, which is the Special Economic Zone (the experimental field for the open door policy and economic reform) in China. Sichuan, on the other hand, is an inland and agricultural province, which had a slower start of the economic reform than Guangdong. The majority of the participants worked in Guangdong or Shenzhen. Twenty-two (14%) participants studied in either Guangdong or Sichuan on a part-time basis and worked in ten different provinces across the country.

Procedure for Step 1:

Participants were invited to participate in the study on a voluntary basis during the time they were enrolled in the Executive MBA programs in the respective provinces in China. Participants were presented with a broad definition of counterproductive work behavior followed by two examples of behaviors. The definition of CWB, taken from Rotundo and Sackett (2002), is "voluntary behavior that violates organizational norms and harms the well-being of the organization (p. 69)." This information was presented to the participants in Chinese. The conventional method of back-translation (Brislin, Lonner, & Thorndike, 1973) was used to translate the definition from English to Chinese.

The participants were then asked to describe five incidents of someone at work engaging in behavior considered to be CWB. The respondents wrote their responses in Chinese. The 160 respondents generated a total of approximately 800 CWB incidents. A four-step process was followed to analyze the incidents. First, the second author (a native Chinese) reviewed all incidents to ensure that they had clear meaning in the Chinese language and that the incidents referred to employee behavior. Any incident that was ambiguous or difficult to interpret was removed from further analyses. Second, the researchers reviewed each incident and grouped incidents that were clearly similar but provided by different participants together. For example,

incidents like “fraud organizational statistics” and “fraud organizational records” were grouped together under “fraud organizational documents”. After cleaning the 800 incidents, a total of 66 non-repeat behaviors remained. Table 1a presents an English version of these items and Table 1b presents the Chinese version of these items. A process of back-translation was followed to convert the items from Chinese to English in order to present them in Table 1a.

Insert Tables 1a and 1b about here

Table 2 presents an overview of the different forms of counterproductive work behavior that have been reported in the Western literature. A large number of the CWB incidents identified by the Chinese managers (see Tables 1a and 1b) appear to be similar to the CWB incidents reported in the Western literature (Table 2).

Insert Table 2 about here

Step 1 of the study provides useful insight into the types of behaviors that are perceived to be counterproductive by managers in China. Step 2 was undertaken to determine the dimensionality of the CWB items.

Step 2: Uncovering the Dimensionality of Counterproductive Work Behavior in China

Participants for Step 2:

Participants for Step 2 were a different group of 30 Chinese managers enrolled in the MBA program of a Canadian university. These participants are appropriate for this step because they were all born, raised, and worked as managers in China prior to entering the MBA program and had been studying in Canada for only three to four months when they completed the sorting

task. The participants were 47% male, had an average age of 33 years (SD = 3.67), had on average 9.15 (SD = 3.25) years of full-time work experience and 4.19 (SD = 2.47) years experience as a manager. They had worked for various types of Chinese organizations: 40% of the participants worked for state-owned enterprises, 27% for foreign enterprises, 17% for joint ventures, and the rest for private firms.

Procedure for Step 2:

Participants were invited to participate in this step on a voluntary basis. Participants were presented with a set of instructions in which they were asked to sort the 66 CWB incidents into different categories based on the similarity of the behaviors. The participants were not given any category labels. The CWB incidents were written on cards in Chinese, and Chinese was the participants' native language. The participants were instructed to read each behavior carefully and to place it into the category that they believe it belongs to based on the similarity of the behaviors. The instructions stated that they would likely create anywhere from 5 to 12 categories. This range was chosen based on a review of prior studies that used a similar procedure and a review of the CWB literature (e.g., Borman & Brush, 1993). After each participant completed the sorting task, a research assistant recorded the number of categories that each participant used to sort the CWB incidents and which items were placed in each category. This information served as the basis for the analyses.

We analyzed these data using multidimensional scaling (MDS). MDS is a useful technique for representing the underlying structure of objects/stimuli from information about the similarity/dissimilarity among the objects (Schiffman, Reynolds, & Young, 1981). We followed the procedure recommended by Schiffman, et al. (1981). The researcher presents the participant with the full set of objects/stimuli and asks the participant to sort them into groups based on their

similarity (Schiffman, et al., 1981). After each participant completes the sorting task, the researcher prepares a square dissimilarity matrix (66 X 66) in which the cell entries are coded as 1 if the participant sorts the two stimuli into a different group and 0 if the two stimuli are sorted into the same group. This process is repeated for all possible pairs of stimuli, resulting in a square matrix. A separate matrix is computed for each of the 30 Chinese managers. Then, a final matrix is computed across all participants based on the sum of the individual matrices. MDS is applied to the final summed dissimilarity matrix.

Results

The 30 Chinese managers sorted the counterproductive work behaviors into between 5 and 11 categories (M = 7.5). The ALSCAL MDS program was applied to the summed dissimilarity matrix to determine the underlying structure and dimensions of the CWBs. The goodness of fit indices (e.g., stress test and squared correlations) determines the number of dimensions that best fit the data. Solutions for one to six dimensions were produced based on these indices. The squared correlation ranged from .94 for the six-dimension solution to .41 for the one-dimension solution. The stress indexes ranged from .07 for the six-dimension solution to .48 for the one-dimension solution. These indexes were plotted. The index made a considerable drop and the largest drop from the one to the two-dimension solution and began to level off thereafter. The squared correlation was .76 for the two-dimension solution. Thus, these results suggest that the two-dimension solution provides a good and parsimonious fit with the data. Figure 1 presents the two-dimensional solution from Multidimensional scaling of CWB in China.

Insert Figure 1 about here

A review of the items that have positive loadings on Dimension 1 (Quadrants 1 and 4) reveals that these counterproductive behaviors directly interfere with task completion regardless of whether they are directed at coworkers or the organization. That is, these behaviors (e.g., being absent or late and not cooperating with other's work) impede one's task completion and/or make it difficult for coworkers to perform their jobs and the organization to achieve its goals. In contrast, the items that have negative loadings on Dimension 1 (Quadrants 2 and 3) are also counterproductive but these behaviors do not link directly to one's day-to-day job activities. That is, these behaviors are clearly counterproductive to the interests of coworkers or the organization. However, they do not arise necessarily from the completion of job-related tasks. Examples of items that have very high and negative loadings on Dimension 1 include sexual harassment, theft, and corruption. The consequences of these actions are broader than the items that have positive loadings on Dimension 1. Thus, we labeled Dimension 1 as Task-Relevance. A dimension similar to this one was reported in a Western study by Gruys and Sackett (2003).

The items that have positive loadings on Dimension 2 (Quadrants 1 and 2) are all interpersonal and directed toward coworkers or others (e.g., conflict with colleagues, sexual harassment, do not cooperate with others). In contrast, the counterproductive work behaviors that have high and negative loadings on Dimension 2 (Quadrants 3 and 4) are directed toward the organization (e.g., waste organization resources, disobey organization rules, leaves work station during work time, tardiness). Thus, we label Dimension 2 as Interpersonal-Organizational. This dimension was also reported in Gruys and Sackett (2003) and Bennett and Robinson (2000).

Discussion

As the first study of the conceptions of CWB in China, Study 1 provided insightful information concerning the content and dimensions of CWB among Chinese managers.

Consistent with convergence theorists, the results suggest that managers in China conceptualize CWB in ways similar to managers from the Western cultures. Specifically, many of the CWBs reported by the Chinese participants are comparable to what has been reported in the Western literature: conflict, low cooperation, harassment, absenteeism, abuse of organization time, fraud, break organization rules, and theft and dishonesty. To conclude, the dimensions and utility of the Chinese items are largely consistent with the findings in the Western literature.

Study 1 identified the content and dimensions of counterproductive work behavior in China using two independent samples of Chinese managers. The results provide a basis for item-level instruments that measure CWB among Chinese managers. Building on the results of Study 1, Study 2 investigates the extent to which a sample of Chinese managers and a comparable sample of Canadian managers value task performance, OCB, and CWB when rating overall performance. Thus, the item-level data gathered in Study 1 are validated in Study 2.

Study 2

There has been a general interest among Western researchers in demonstrating that task performance, OCB, and CWB is uniquely valued by managers. Thus, a body of Western research examined the unique contribution of these behaviors to ratings of overall job performance, effectiveness, and rewards. A majority of this research focused on the importance of task performance and OCB. This research employed a wide range of methodologies, some studies measured relative weights or importance while others measured incremental variance explained by each performance component. Generally, this research reported that task performance and OCB independently contribute to ratings of overall performance. Limited research has considered the relative importance of all three performance dimensions, namely task performance, OCB, and CWB to ratings of overall performance. In a within-rater policy-capturing study Rotundo and

Sackett (2002) found that all three components were taken into consideration when Western managers rated overall performance, but that managers varied in the weights they gave to each component.

Study 2 investigates the relative importance that Chinese managers place on task performance, OCB, and CWB. Consistent with the prior discussion of the importance that Chinese government and organizations have endorsed on controlling for CWB and promoting OCB, we predicted that Chinese managers should share a tendency with North American managers to give significant weights to all three groups of behaviors in ratings of overall performance of their employees.

Consistent with the convergence perspective, China's active participation in globalization, especially her participation in the World Trade Organization, has aroused a nation-wide movement to learn Western technology and philosophy of modern management. During this learning process China has significantly reformed almost every aspect of management, ranging from the national laws and policies for international trade and taxation to various management practices within organizations (see Child, 1996). This reform has brought the Chinese managerial practices and philosophies closer to that of the industrialized Western world than ever before. For example, prior to the economic reform, the performance management in Chinese organizations had focused on political ideologies but not on task performance because of the "Iron Bowl System" (i.e., a system based on life-time employment and the norm of equality in resource allocation). Over the last two decades, however, Chinese organizations have massively redesigned their human resource management systems to facilitate competition, effectiveness, and efficiency. In particular, they reformed the performance management system to reinforce behaviors that directly facilitate organizational effectiveness and efficiency (Chen,

2001). This tendency is likely to have increased the similarities between Chinese and Western management practices and have motivated Chinese managers to endorse values on all categories of behavior in evaluating employee performance.

Divergence theorists may predict that the cultural differences between China and the West would lead to different weights on task performance, OCB, and CWB in performance evaluation. Hofstede's (1991) dimensions of individualism and collectivism have been recognized as the most powerful components of value differences across cultures. Collectivist cultures are characterized by attitudes that favor interdependence, norms that favor embeddedness, and values that favor security, obedience, duty, harmony, and personalized relationships. Individualistic cultures are characterized by attitudes that favor independence, and values that favor pleasure, achievement, competition, freedom, autonomy, and fairness.

Cross-cultural research has designated Chinese culture as being highly collectivist (Chen, 2001; Earley, 1994; Hofstede, 1991) whereas the North American cultures as being highly individualist. Specifically, the US and Canadian cultures were ranked at 1st and 4th positions respectively on the scale of individualism in Hofstede's (1991) multinational study. Thus it is plausible to predict that Chinese are more likely to engage in and pay attention to workplace behaviors that influence the well-being of their group than North Americans.

Chen (2001) argued that Chinese have a holistic perspective of management. They tend to believe that all things in the universe (the self, the family, a business unit, or a nation) contain competing tendencies that must be balanced and harmonized. Chinese tend to focus on group harmony and shared accomplishment, qualitative and subjective measures, a people orientation, and economic and social concerns in performance management (Chen, 2001). Given that OCB is

likely to fuel up shared accomplishment and concerns for social well-being, we predict that Chinese would endorse higher values on OCB than North Americans.

Cross-cultural research on human resource management practices provides support for both the convergence and divergence perspectives. Zhou and Martocchio (2001) compared Chinese and American managers' compensation award decisions using a policy-capturing approach. They found that in comparison with the American managers, the Chinese managers tended to put less emphasis on work performance and more emphasis on the personal needs of the employees when making bonus decisions and on relationship with managers and coworkers when making non-monetary decisions. These results are broadly supportive of the collectivist orientation of the Chinese culture and of the divergence perspective. However, using a sample of employees from mainland China, Chen (1995) found that Chinese respondents demonstrated preferences for individual-based reward allocation, similar to North American counterparts.

The present study attempts to integrate the perspectives of convergence and divergence theorists in exploring the emphasis managers' place on task performance, OCB, and CWB when rating overall job performance. Taking a convergence perspective, we predict that Chinese and Canadian managers will share a tendency to give significant weights to all three groups of behaviors in evaluating their subordinate's performance. Taking from the divergence perspective, we predict that Chinese managers will endorse higher values, than Canadian managers, to OCB in rating of overall performance.

Hypothesis 1: Chinese and Canadian managers will independently give significant weight to task performance in ratings of overall performance.

Hypothesis 2: Chinese and Canadian managers will independently give significant weight to organizational citizenship behaviour in ratings of overall performance.

Hypothesis 3: Chinese and Canadian managers will independently give significant weight to counterproductive work behaviour in ratings of overall performance.

Hypothesis 4: Chinese managers will give a higher weight to OCB than Canadian managers in ratings of overall performance.

Policy Capturing Design

A rating of overall job performance involves managers integrating a wealth of performance related information into an overall evaluation of the employee. This overall performance rating represents their judgment about how the employee performed. The process of integrating information to make an overall judgment is complex and often not readily observable to outsiders. One approach to obtaining the rater's information processing strategy is known as policy capturing. It involves inferring the weights managers place on different pieces of information from the pattern of their responses to various cues or stimuli (Hobson & Gibson, 1983). Applied to the present study, a rater is presented with various descriptions of employees' performance. The independent variables (e.g., task performance, OCB, and CWB) are manipulated in the descriptions to reflect different levels of performance. The rater is asked to read each description and to rate the overall performance (dependent variable) of the employee who is described. A regression equation is computed for each rater where the regression coefficients reflect the importance they place on the different stimuli. The end product is a statistical equation or "captured rating policy" for each rater (Hobson & Gibson, 1983).

There are several advantages to the policy capturing approach. It is especially useful when researchers are interested in knowing whether people differ in their judgments (Hobson & Gibson, 1983). Furthermore, performance ratings are influenced by raters' perceptions of employees which are subject to rater errors and biases. Therefore, an approach that presents

different raters with the same stimuli permits the researcher to control for factors that are known to bias raters' judgments of employee performance (Hobson, Mendel, & Gibson, 1981; Zedeck & Kafry, 1977).

Method

Job performance survey: Canadian survey

Employee level job performance was presented to managers via hypothetical profiles in which task performance, OCB, and CWB were manipulated. The hypothetical job profiles in this study were taken from Rotundo and Sackett (2002) for the job of administrative assistant. A brief review of the steps involved in the development of the profiles is presented in the Appendix. A more detailed review can be found in Rotundo and Sackett (2002).

Job performance survey: Chinese survey

A separate survey was created for the sample of Chinese managers who participated in Study 2. The development of the Chinese version of the survey followed the same three steps as noted above for the Canadian survey. The job was also administrative assistant. A summary of the three steps is presented in the Appendix.

Sample and procedure: Canadian survey

Canadian sample. A total of 120 executives were invited to participate in the study and a total of 117 completed the survey, yielding a response rate of 97%. Three surveys were not useable (i.e., incomplete responses or random responding). Most respondents were White (79%) with an average age of 40 years (SD = 7.94) and 17 years of work experience (SD = 7.44). Approximately 43% was male and 33% had a master's degree.

Procedure. The participants were invited to complete the survey as part of a half day session on performance management offered through executive programs at a large Canadian

university. The participants were emailed a link to the online survey two weeks prior to the session. A cover letter, which stated that participation was on a voluntary basis and all responses were confidential, served as part of the email. Completion of the survey indicated consent to participate. The survey consisted of two sections and required approximately 30 minutes to complete. In the first section subjects were presented with the 32 hypothetical job profiles and asked to rate the overall job performance of the employee depicted within the profile on a five-point Likert scale (1= low overall performance and 5 = high overall job performance). Information about the tenure and work experience of the hypothetical employees was held constant and included in the introduction of the survey. The second section of the survey requested demographic and background information of the participants (e.g., age, education, race, work experience, gender, occupational title, and prior experience in performance evaluation).

Sample and procedure: Chinese survey

Chinese sample. A total of 198 executives from 3 provinces in China volunteered to participate in the study and provided useable complete surveys. This sample is independent from the two samples that participated in Study 1 and the sample that participated in the development of the Chinese survey (See Appendix for the information concerning a separate Chinese sample that participated in Step Two of the development of job performance profile). The participants were an average age of 33.5 years (SD = 5.68). Approximately 64.5% were male and 20.2% had a master's degree.

Procedure. The Chinese participants were managers who enrolled in the Executive and regular MBA programs at three Chinese universities located in Shanghai, Sichuan province, and Zhejinag province. For the same reason presented in Study 1, we selected the three research sites in pursuit of better representation of Chinese managers. Participation in the study was voluntary.

Research assistants at the three universities posted an invitation for participation, along with an introduction of the project and a cover sheet of the questionnaire, in the Executive MBA offices and classrooms. They also presented the objectives and procedures of the project verbally to the potential participants before classes. In the introduction it was clearly specified that the survey should be completed by those who had administrative assistant(s) working for them, and had experience evaluating the performance of their administrative assistant(s). Like the Canadian sample and procedure, the Chinese participants completed a survey that consisted of two sections that required approximately 30 minutes to complete.

Analyses

Two sets of analyses were conducted. First, individual regression equations were computed for each rater to assess the importance of the three performance components to ratings of overall performance. Since the independent variables (i.e., task performance, OCB, and CWB) were approximately orthogonal, the standardized regression coefficients are interpreted as weights. Second, independent t-tests were conducted to compare the performance weights between the Canadian and Chinese managers.

Results

Captured Rating Policy

A regression equation was computed for each participant separately within the Chinese and Canadian samples. Thus, each manager had a set of standardized regression coefficients which represented their weights on task performance, OCB, and CWB. The results averaged across participants are presented in Table 3. Hypotheses 1 to 3 predicted that the Chinese and Canadian managers would give significant weights to task performance, OCB, and CWB respectively in overall performance ratings. Table 3 shows that on average Chinese and Canadian

participants use information about all three performance components when forming overall ratings of employees, thus providing support for Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. Furthermore, the incremental $\underline{R}^2$ provides evidence to suggest that raters in this study took the task seriously when they rated the profiles.

Insert Table 3 about here

Hypothesis 4 predicted that Chinese managers would place higher weight on OCB than Canadian managers. Independent samples t-tests were run to test whether the mean standardized regression coefficients on OCB were significantly different between the Canadian and Chinese samples. The mean regression weights for OCB were not significantly different between the two samples. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was not supported. However, independent t-tests comparing the mean weights on task and CWB indicated significant differences. More specifically, the mean regression weight on task performance in the Canadian sample was significantly smaller ($\underline{p} < .01$) than in the Chinese sample [$\underline{t}(334) = -10.08$], while the mean regression weight on CWB was significantly larger in the Canadian sample [$\underline{t}(334) = -10.62$, $\underline{p} < .01$].

Discussion

The results of Study 2 provide clear evidence for the similarities between Chinese and Canadian managers in the relationships between the three performance components and the ratings of overall job performance. Task performance, OCB, and CWB formed important domains of job performance for managers from both cultural groups. Moreover, a significant proportion of the respondents from both cultures gave large weights to task performance and CWB (Table 3).

The results yielded from Study 2 are supportive of Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 about the importance of task performance, OCB, and CWB in performance evaluation among Chinese managers. However, inconsistent with our prediction that Chinese managers would place higher importance on OCB in performance evaluation than Canadian managers, the results indicated that Chinese managers placed significantly more weight on task performance than Canadian managers, while Canadian managers placed significantly higher weight on CWB.

General Discussion

The present study was designed to address two research questions: (1) Will Chinese conceptualize the content and dimensions of counterproductive work behavior similarly or differently from the conceptualizations reported in the West? (2) Are Chinese and Canadian managers similar or different in the relative importance they endorse on task performance, OCB, and CWB in overall performance ratings? The essence of these questions is whether some of the existing knowledge of job performance may generalize across cultural boundaries.

The results of both studies fuel the ongoing debate among the convergence and divergence perspectives. Our study found noticeable similarities between Chinese and Canadian managers in conceptualizations of job performance. The similarities are illustrated in three aspects. First, the Chinese respondents who participated in Study 1 reported many items and dimensions of counterproductive work behavior that are similar to those found in the Western culture. Second, the Chinese managers from Study 1 sorted the counterproductive work behaviors into categories that produced two dimensions (i.e., task-relevance and interpersonal-organizational) that have also appeared in the Western literature. Third, Study 2 found that task performance, OCB, and CWB significantly predicted the ratings of overall job performance for Chinese as well as Canadian managers. Furthermore, the participants in both Chinese and

Canadian samples placed high weights on task performance. Considering the significant variation in the cultural, economic, social, and political contexts between China and Canada, the identified similarities between Chinese and Canadian managers provide important insights for further research on what constitutes generalizable knowledge of job performance.

Like Canadian managers, the Chinese managers who participated in Study 2 gave the largest weights to task behaviors in performance evaluation. Convergence theorists would argue that when it comes to performance certain work-related behaviors are necessary to perform a job whether you are in one country or another. This might also suggest that the role the traditional culture plays in the performance appraisal process is not as large as that of the social and economic contexts in contemporary China. Having been reformed from a centralized and planned economy to a decentralized and market-oriented economy within 20 years, the speed and magnitude of the social changes that occurred in China are unprecedented. It is possible that the increasingly competitive environment has fueled organizations and managers to pay much attention to completion of tasks in order to survive and succeed. Future research is needed to further explore how social and cultural contexts might jointly affect managerial conceptions of job performance in China.

The cross-cultural psychology literature has well documented that Chinese tend to share more collectivistic values whereas North Americans tend to hold more individualistic values (Bond, 1992; Hofstede, 1991). We integrated this literature in developing Hypothesis 4, in which we predicted that Chinese managers would endorse higher values on OCB than Canadian managers. Nevertheless, the research that forms the foundation of our beliefs about the differences between Chinese and North Americans on individualism and collectivism was conducted years ago and prior to the major social, political, and economic changes that define

contemporary China. Hence, one can't help but wonder if these same cultural differences on individualism and collectivism would emerge today between Chinese and North Americans. This question, however intriguing, is beyond the scope of the present study and requires careful consideration and investigation.

Nevertheless, we measured the cultural values held by the Chinese and Canadian respondents in Study 2 in an exploratory manner and for descriptive purposes using Hofstede's measure. A comparison of the item-level mean scores between the Chinese and Canadian respondents suggests that the Chinese managers who participated in Study 2 are not typically collectivistic, and that they might be even more individualistic than the Canadian respondents in certain respects. For example, the Chinese managers scored higher than the Canadian managers on the typical individualism items such as "challenging work" "recognition you deserve" "freedom to adapt" "opportunity for advancement" and "use own skill and ability". They tied with the Canadian managers in the typical collectivism item such as "work with people who cooperate". These results suggest that the lack of support for Hypothesis 4 might be partially due to the individualistic values held by the Chinese respondents. Although these results are inconclusive, they indicate that culture is dynamic and changing. It is possible that Chinese people have generally become more individualistic during the process of industrialization and modernization, which supports the convergence theory. It is also possible that the Chinese managers who participated in Study 2 are particularly individualistic because they are young, well educated, and belonging to the leading class of the economic reform. Taken together, the results cast light on the complexity of cross-cultural research on performance management. They call attention to capture the cultural values held by the individual respondents in the tests of culture-related hypotheses.

The Canadian respondents who participated in Study 2 demonstrated very similar rating patterns with the American respondents in Rotundo and Sackett's (2002) study (see Table 3). These results suggest that there might be some typical patterns of responses that North Americans share in evaluating the relative importance of the three components of performance.

The present study is among the first investigations of the content and dimensions of counterproductive work behavior among mainland Chinese. Although our results are preliminary, they provide useful insights on what constitutes CWB in China. Canadian managers who participated in Study 2 gave almost identical and large weights to CWB and task performance, while most Chinese managers gave CWB a lower weight than task performance. The underlying reasons for this variation are likely to be complex. We speculate that economic and cultural contexts might have jointly facilitated the tendency that Chinese respondents gave high weights to task performance and relatively lower weights to CWB. As noted, China's economy is undergoing a critical stage of reform and downsizing to increase profitability and productivity (China's SEO Reform, 2004). Consistent with the convergence perspective, the pressure of "produce or perish" has forced Chinese organizations to place a greater emphasis on productivity and task performance than ever before. Meanwhile, in line with the divergence perspective saving face for oneself and that of others is so deeply rooted in the Chinese culture that Chinese often choose not to be critical of others' undesirable behaviors for protecting face and maintaining relationships (see Bond, 1992; Chen, 2001).

The findings of the study have a number of potential implications for cross-cultural management in performance evaluation. The most obvious is that they cast light on the similarities shared by the Canadian and Chinese managers in their conceptualization of the content of counterproductive work behavior. Considering the magnitude of the differences in the

political, economical, and cultural contexts between Canada and China, the identified similarities provide important insights for management. It is possible that certain behaviors such as stealing from organizations, mistreating co-workers, and absence from work are considered as being counterproductive uniformly across cultural boundaries. Should managers strive to reduce CWB, they would likely receive support from most employees because the detriments of CWB appear to be commonly recognized in the workplace.

The results of the study suggest that Canadian and Chinese managers assign differential weights to task performance and CWB when rating the overall performance of employees. That is, raters' cultural backgrounds might influence the emphasis they place onto task, OCB, or CWB components in evaluating other's performance. In other words, an employee might receive different messages about the extent to which task behaviors are rewarded or CWBs are penalized on the job because of different preferences held by different managers. This raises important questions about the potential inconsistencies that may surface when employees are rated. Our results suggest that the different preferences held by managers are at least partially shaped by their culture. It is important to note that managers are unlikely to be aware of their own preferences, because one's cultural values and its impacts on behavior are not frequently discussed. Therefore, organizations should anticipate and address the potential for evaluation inconsistency. One possible strategy is to facilitate open discussions among managers concerning the potential causes for systematic rating biases inherent in performance evaluation. Another possible strategy is to place more emphasis on objective measures in performance ratings and thus reduce the reliance on subjective evaluations. This potential implication is important not only for multinational corporations, but also for organizations of all sizes, because the labor forces in many countries are becoming more and more culturally diverse.

Limitations and Future Direction

One limitation of this study is that the data collected in Study 2 were for only one job (i.e., administrative assistant), a job that is low in complexity. This raises questions about whether the pattern of findings reported here generalizes to other jobs. Hence, future research should examine the generalizability of the findings across different jobs and different cultures.

George and Jones (1997) argued that contextual factors, such as industry, technology, and job function, might play an important role in formatting OCB. Organ and Ryan's (1995) meta-analysis, however, found no evidence for the moderating effects of such contextual factors. The results of our study suggest that there are similarities as well as differences in managerial conceptions of performance management cross-culturally. Moreover, what behaviors are attributed to OCB or CWB in a given society are not only led by man-made contextual factors such as cultural values, but also influenced by the physical or natural environments in which the individuals or organizations are embedded. To explore all of the mysteries inherent in performance and behaviors, our field has just started a first step in a journey of a thousand miles.

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Table 1a

Study 1: The List of Counterproductive Work Behaviors Described by Chinese Managers

(English version)

Counterproductive Work Behavior	
1. Do not protect organizational image in public.	34. Use work time to do things for self.
2. Do not pay attention to well present the organization.	35. Chat during work time.
3. Destroy organizational interests with others	36. Do not complete assigned tasks.
4. Destroy facility.	37. Do not complete task on time.
5. Destroy organizational reputation.	38. Do not work hard.
6. Not faithful to the organization.	39. Do not take work responsibility seriously.
7. Waste organizational resources.	40. Talk about colleague behind their back.
8. Fraud organizational documents.	41. Make small alliance.
9. Fraud receipts.	42. Make or distribute rumors.
10. Fraud statistical figures.	43. Attack colleague by making secretive report to supervisor.
11. Fraud.	44. Intentionally belittle colleague.
12. Leak organizational confidential information.	45. Attack others verbally in public.
13. Use organizational name to cheat others.	46. Play politics with colleagues.
14. Corruption.	47. Create conflict among colleagues.
15. Disobey organizational rules and regulations.	48. Conflict/fight with colleagues.
16. Deviance from occupational ethics.	49. Cannot control emotion and argue with colleague.
17. Take advantage of imperfect org regulations for self.	50. Create obstacles for others work.
18. Take rebate for self.	51. Bad attitude toward client/customer.
19. Deviance from contract.	52. Do not cooperate with others' work.
20. Gain personal benefit through unethical means.	53. Low sense of cooperation with others.
21. Openly against organizational leadership.	54. No respect for others.
22. Use public facility to make personal gain.	55. Mistreat subordinates.
23. Stealing.	56. Inconsistent behavior in front of vs. in the back of manager.
24. Tell lies.	57. Do not obey superior's work arrangement.
25. Sleep during work hours.	58. Put personal interests above organizational interests.
26. Smoke, eat or make noise in public.	59. Complaints that affect work morale negatively.
27. Come to work after drink alcohol.	60. Inconsistency between what the person says and does.
28. Deviance from dressing code.	61. Boast about one's abilities but fail to demonstrate it.
29. Do not pay attention to public hygiene.	62. Take credit for self.
30. Tardiness.	63. Deny responsibility.
31. Absence or lateness from work.	64. Say hoarse words.
32. Absence without prior report.	65. Sexual harassment.
33. Leave work station during work time.	66. Rudeness.

Table 1b

Study 1: The List of Counterproductive Work Behaviors Described by Chinese Managers

(Chinese version)

Counterproductive Work Behavior	
1. 在公共场合不维护企业形象.	34. 上班时间干私活儿.
2. 不注意自身代表公司的形象.	35. 工作时间聊天嬉戏.
3. 与他人串通损坏公司利益.	36. 不完成指定的工作.
4. 破坏办公设备.	37. 不按时完成工作.
5. 损坏公司名誉.	38. 出工不出力.
6. 不忠于企业.	39. 对工作不负责任.
7. 浪费公司资源.	40. 背后讲同事闲话.
8. 伪造公司文件.	41. 拉帮结派.
9. 虚报财务发票.	42. 谣言惑众.
10. 虚报统计数据.	43. 给上级打小报告，以打击同事.
11. 弄虚作假.	44. 有意贬低同事.
12. 泄漏公司机密.	45. 公众场合当面指责他人.
13. 利用公司名义招摇撞骗.	46. 与同事勾心斗角.
14. 贪污腐败.	47. 在同事间制造矛盾.
15. 不遵守公司规章.	48. 与同事发生纠纷，打架斗殴.
16. 违反职业道德.	49. 与同事争吵，不控制情绪.
17. 钻规章制度的空子，为己牟利 .	50. 干扰他人工作.
18. 拿回扣 .	51. 对顾客态度不好.
19. 违反合同.	52. 不配合他人的工作.
20. 不正当手段谋利.	53. 合作意识差.
21. 公开反对领导.	54. 不尊重他人.
22. 利用公共设施谋私利.	55. 不善待下属.
23. 偷窃.	56. 对领导当面一套背后一套.
24. 说谎 .	57. 不服从上级安排.
25. 上班睡觉.	58. 个人利益至上.
26. 在办公场所抽烟，喧哗，饮食.	59. 发牢骚，影响士气.
27. 酒后上班.	60. 言行不一.
28. 不按规范着装。	61. 言出行不济.
29. 不注意公共卫生.	62. 好大喜功.
30. 消极怠工.	63. 推卸责任.

31. 迟到早退	64. 讲粗话.
32. 旷工.	65. 性骚扰.
33. 工作时间离岗.	66. 行为粗鲁.

Table 2

A Summary of CWB-related Dimensions in the Western Literature

Author	Dimension	Behavioral Incident
Katz & Kahn (1978)	Joining/staying with the organization	Low turnover and absenteeism.
Murphy (1989)	Destructive or hazardous behaviors Down-time behaviors	Violating security and safety; destroying equipment, accidents. Substance abuse; illegal activities.
Campbell (1990)	Maintaining personal discipline	Avoid negative or adverse behaviors (e.g., substance abuse).
Borman & Brush (1993)	Useful personal behavior	Working within the guidelines and boundaries of the organization.
Raelin (1994)	Professional Deviant/ Adaptive	Work-scale (e.g., unethical practices, absenteeism, work-to-rule, bootlegging). Self-scale (e.g., flaunting of external offers, rationalization, alienation, apathy). Career-scale (e.g., premature external search, external performance emphasis).
Robinson & Bennett (1995)	Employee Deviance	Property deviance (e.g., damage property). Production deviance (e.g., violate norms about quality or quantity of work). Political deviance (e.g., putting others at personal or political disadvantage). Personal aggression (e.g., aggressive or hostile behavior towards others).
Hunt (1996)	Generic Work Behaviors	Adherence to confrontational rules (e.g., follow rules when pressured not to). Industriousness (e.g., find other tasks to work on when finished with regular work). Thoroughness (e.g., keep workplace tidy). Schedule flexibility (e.g., work flexible hours and offer to stay late). Attendance (e.g., late or absent). Off-task behavior (e.g., use work time to conduct personal affairs). Unruliness (e.g., threaten coworkers, blame others for own mistakes). Theft (e.g., steal). Drug misuse (e.g., drink during work time).
Gruys & Sackett (2003)	Counterproductive Work Behavior	Theft and related. Destruction of property. Misuse of information. Misuse of time and resources. Unsafe behavior. Poor attendance. Poor quality work. Alcohol use. Drug use. Inappropriate verbal actions. Inappropriate physical actions.

Table 3

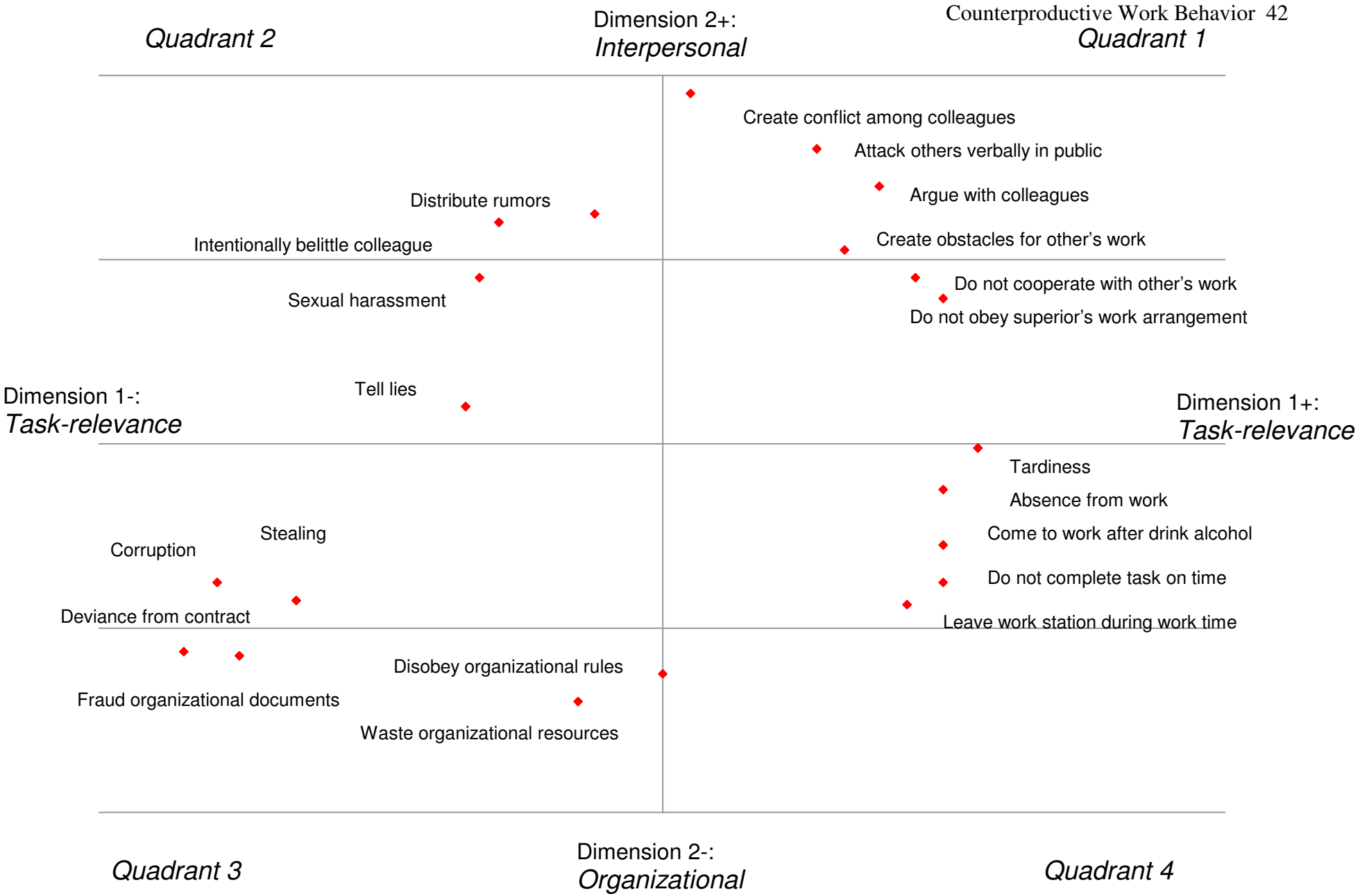
Mean Standardized Regression Coefficients on Task performance, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, and Counterproductive Work Behavior and Multiple R-Squared in Study 2

	China Study 2	Canada Study 2	U.S. [a] Rotundo & Sackett (2002)
Task			
M	.65	.54	.55
SD	.10	.12	.12
Range	.33 to .82	.24 to .79	.20 to .79
Mean % variance explained	41	32	32
OCB			
M	.22	.24	.20
SD	.11	.12	.09
Range	.00 to .52	-.05 to .55	.01 to .46
Mean % variance explained	6	6	4
CWB			
M	-.43	-.53	-.55
SD	.13	.13	.13
Range	.00 to -.71	-.10 to -.83	-.21 to -.80
Mean % variance explained	19	29	32
Overall Job Performance[b]			
M	2.52	2.28	2.37
SD	1.18	1.14	1.08
$R^{2\backslash}$			
M	.63	.65	.67
SD	.10	.09	.09
Range	.41 to .83	.44 to .88	.40 to .87
N	198	114	155

[a] Represents the results for the job of administrative assistant. [b] Represents the mean rating of overall job performance across raters.

Figure Caption

Figure 1. Two-dimensional solution from Multidimensional scaling of counterproductive work behaviors in China.


Quadrant 2
Dimension 2+:
Interpersonal
Quadrant 1
Create conflict among colleagues
Attack others verbally in public
Argue with colleagues
Distribute rumors
Create obstacles for other's work
Intentionally belittle colleague
Do not cooperate with other's work
Sexual harassment
Do not obey superior's work arrangement
Tell lies
Dimension 1-:
Task-relevance
Dimension 1+:
Task-relevance
Tardiness
Absence from work
Stealing
Come to work after drink alcohol
Corruption
Do not complete task on time
Deviance from contract
Leave work station during work time
Disobey organizational rules
Fraud organizational documents
Waste organizational resources
Quadrant 3
Dimension 2-:
Organizational
Quadrant 4

Appendix. Steps Involved in the Development of the Profiles in Study 2

Job performance survey: Canadian survey

Development of the hypothetical job performance profiles. Three steps were involved in the development of the hypothetical profiles. First, a separate list of behaviors was compiled for each performance component. The behaviors for task performance were taken from the Dictionary of Occupational Titles for the job of administrative assistant (U.S. Department of labor, 1991) and from the extent literature of OCB and CWB. The task items include: answers telephone calls, schedules appointments, composes and types routine correspondence, takes dictation, transcribes notes, files correspondence, arranges travel schedule. The OCB items include: helps coworkers, informs others before initiating actions that affect them, speaks positively about organization, attends functions that promote well-being of organization, makes constructive suggestions about processes, and volunteers to serve on committees. The CWB items include: fights with colleagues, spreads false rumors, blames others for his/her mistakes, theft, falsifies documents, and makes unwanted sexual advances.

Second, the behaviors were scaled to ensure that the behaviors that represented each performance component reflected on average comparable levels of performance. This step is important because it confirms that no performance component was manipulated to be stronger than the others. For example, it would be problematic if only high task performance was reflected in the survey (across all profiles) and only low OCB or high CWB and vice versa. It is necessary that the behaviors included in the survey represent comparable levels of all three performance components (when averaged). The equivalent standard deviations on the final pool of items included in the survey for each of task performance, OCB, and CWB indicate that this criterion was satisfied [Descriptive statistics for the pool of task, OCB, and CWB behaviors in the final

Canadian survey are: task M = 3.51, SD = 1.91; OCB M = 3.81, SD = 2.21; CWB M = 3.38, SD = 2.00].

Third, the hypothetical profiles were created by randomly sampling one item each from the pool of task performance, OCB, and CWB. Thus, the three performance components were uncorrelated (i.e., the correlations between the performance components were 0.01, -0.01, and 0.05). This process resulted in a total of 32 unique hypothetical job profiles. The within-subject analyses (e.g., regression analyses) include three independent variables (i.e., task, OCB, and CWB). Thus, 32 unique profiles is a sufficient number to satisfy the recommended profile-to-cue ratio (Nunnally, 1978).

Job performance survey: Chinese survey

Development of the hypothetical job performance profiles. The same three steps were followed to develop the profiles.

Step One: Profile Development. A list of behaviors was generated separately for task performance, OCB, and CWB. For the task performance items, we collected job descriptions for the job of an administrative assistant from four large Chinese organizations, including a state-owned, a foreign enterprise, a joint venture, and a government organization. The job descriptions were written in the Chinese language and were reviewed by subject matter experts for accuracy. These subject matter experts were individuals who were employed in the respective job. They reviewed the task statements to verify that they reflected what their job actually entailed. We then carefully reviewed and compared the contents of the job descriptions. The results of the review process suggest that the tasks performed by administrative assistants are very similar across different Chinese organizations. Moreover, these tasks are highly consistent with those described in the Western research (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). A literature review published in

China lends further support to this similarity. In this review the content of an administrative assistant's job includes: answers telephone calls, handles mail, greets visitors, schedules appointments, arranges meetings and business trips, files and drafts documents, assists with negotiations, and collects information (Che, Lin, Zhang, & Qiao, 2004). Given that these elements are almost identical with those used in the Canadian survey we decided to adopt the same task items to form the instruments of the task performance for the Chinese survey.

The CWB incidents derived in Study 1 were used to generate a list of behaviors for this performance domain. Hence, these behaviors were already written in the Chinese language and did not require translation. Examples of CWB included in the China survey are: fights with colleagues, gossips about others, spreads rumors about colleagues, denies responsibility for actions, theft, falsifies organizational documents, sexual harassment, and attacks colleagues verbally in public. These items are almost identical to those used in the Canadian survey.

As noted, research has already considered the content and dimensionality of OCB in China (Farh et al., 1997; 2004). Hence, we included the following OCB items which were common to both the mainland Chinese and Western cultures: assists colleagues in work settings, shows concern about colleagues, enhances superior-subordinate communication, protects organizational image, participates in events organized by the company, improves self by constant learning, makes constructive suggestions about work, and takes tasks beyond one's job responsibility. These behaviors are virtually identical with the items in the Canadian survey.

Step Two: Scaling OCB and CWB Items. The purpose of this step was to scale the behaviors to ensure distributional equivalence (Cooper & Richardson, 1986). Each of the eight behaviors from Step One was modified to reflect high, medium, and low levels of performance

(e.g., never complains about the organization to coworkers, always participates in events organized by the company), producing a total of 24 behaviors for each performance component.

A total of 90 students enrolled in an Executive MBA program at a university in the Zhejiang province of China volunteered to complete the survey. This sample of managers is independent of the two samples that participated in Study 1. A total of 19 questionnaires were excluded from the data analysis. These questionnaires were either completed by people who had no prior experience rating administrative assistants or did not complete the questionnaires correctly. Eighty percent of the participants were male. The participants were on average 29 years old (SD = 2.21), had 17 years of formal education (SD = 1.35), and had worked at their current jobs for 3.3 years (SD = 2.08). A total of 67% of the respondents were managers and 26% were professionals. Fifty-two percent of the respondents worked for state-owned enterprises, 25% for foreign enterprises, 13% for joint ventures, and the rest for private organizations. Approximately 50% of the respondents worked in Shanghai and Jiangsu province, and the rest worked in 15 different provinces.

In the survey, the managers were provided with the definition of each performance component, asked to read each behavioral statement, and rate the level of performance it reflected using a seven-point Likert scale (e.g., the Likert scale for task performance was anchored by 1 = low task performance and 7 = high task performance). Item level statistics were computed for each behavior. The item had to satisfy three criteria in order to be selected for use in the final survey. First, any item with a standard deviation larger than 1.5 was eliminated (Landy, Rastegary, Thayer, & Colvin, 1991). Second, the aggregate mean and variance for the final set of behaviors had to be similar across performance components. Third, the performance components had to be approximately normally distributed. Items were eliminated until these

three conditions were satisfied. The final set of behaviors included 16 items in each performance component. The means and standard deviations on the final set of behavioral items are as follows: task performance M = 3.52, SD = 1.45; OCB M = 3.89, SD = 1.37; CWB M = 3.65, SD = 1.35.

Step Three: Instrument Development. The final step involved the creation of the hypothetical profiles. One behavior was randomly selected without replacement from each set of task, OCB, and CWB, producing 16 unique profiles. This step was repeated to obtain another set of 16 profiles, yielding a total of 32 unique profiles satisfying the recommended profile to cue ratio (Nunnally, 1978). This procedure resulted in independent performance components. The correlations among the performance components ranged from -0.01 to 0.05. The performance components were randomly ordered within each profile to ensure that primacy or recency effects were not confounded with the importance weights. Chinese names were randomly added to each profile. A few sample profiles are included below:

Example of hypothetical profiles:

Xiao Zhang always makes constructive suggestions about how to improve the organization. She sometimes gossips about others. She often makes errors when scheduling appointments that result in double booking clients.

Xiao Liu never informs others before initiating actions or changes that may affect them. He is accurate when taking dictation in shorthand or transcribing notes onto a word processor. He occasionally makes unwanted sexual advances toward coworkers.

Xiao Ji never blames others for her mistakes. She composes and types routine correspondence of poor quality containing grammatical errors. She sometimes helps other administrative assistants with their work when they have been absent.