Counterproductive Work Behaviors toward Organization and Leader-Member Exchange: The Mediating Roles of Emotional Exhaustion and Work Engagement

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Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) refers to voluntary actions of employees that are negative and harmful to both the organizations and the employees (Spector & Fox, 2005). Examples include theft, fraud, vandalism, tardiness, sabotage, voluntary absenteeism, physical and verbal aggression, and shirking (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Carpenter, Rangel, Jeon, & Cottrell, 2017). As noted by Fox, Spector, Goh, Bruursema, and Kessler (2012, p. 200), what emerges consistently from this line of research is that these behaviors are “volitional (as opposed to accidental or mandated).”

These voluntary deviant acts are related to employees’ relationships with their supervisors, and threaten organizational success. Organizational deviance and ineffective supervision are related (Lian, Ferris, Morrison, & Brown, 2014); employees with abusive supervisors engage in more organizational deviance (Valle, Kacmar, Zivnuska, & Harting, 2018), their organizational commitment declines (Tepper, 2000; Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008), and turnover intentions increase (Greenbaum, Mawritz, Mayer, & Priesemuth, 2013; Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Piccolo, 2015). Further, not surprisingly, these behaviors come with a high annual cost in the range of billions of dollars to organizations (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Yet despite the obvious negative organizational and individual consequences threatening the organization’s well-being (Tepper et al., 2008), our understanding about what mediates the relationship between supervisory relationships and counterproductive work behavior is limited.

Attempting to explain and predict why CWB (workplace deviance) happens, researchers have investigated situational and individual-level variables (Hershcovis et al., 2007; Meurs, Fox, Kessler, & Spector, 2013). However, workplace deviance is complex with different forms. Because interpersonal deviance (e.g., CWB-I) focuses on individuals (e.g., gossip) and organizational deviance (e.g., CWB-O) focuses on organizational aspects, such as procrastinating required work tasks or stealing organizational property, they are correlated, yet different, and should be examined as two distinct factors (Berry, Ones, & Sacket, 2007). Employees conducting deviant behaviors that target the organization versus another person differ, and thus, this is theoretically relevant to organizational behavior research (Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

Our purpose in this article is to contribute to the organizational behavior literature by examining the mediating effects of work engagement and emotional exhaustion on the relationship between leader–member exchange and CWB-O. Workplace stressors in particular, such as interpersonal conflict and organizational constraints, have been associated with CWB (Hershcovis et al., 2007). In this article, we attempt to expand this line of research and explore the impact of leader–member exchange (LMX) on CWB-O. Specifically, we investigate the dynamics between LMX and CWB-O with a focus on the mechanisms that may change the direction and intensity of the relationship. The mechanisms we propose in our
model to connect LMX and CWB-O are work engagement and burnout, with an emphasis on its emotional exhaustion component.

Work engagement refers to a “positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind, characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Langelaan, Bakker, van Doornen, & Schaufeli, 2006, p. 522). Engaged employees exhibit higher levels of energy and dedication and commitment to their work (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). Both job resources and personal resources have been investigated as antecedents of work engagement; examples are social support, autonomy, feedback, goal setting, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and organization-based self-esteem, which all have shown a significant and positive relationship with work engagement (Bakker et al., 2008; Halbesleben, 2010; Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009). In extending this line of research, our article focuses on LMX as an antecedent of employee work engagement and utilizes the Conservation of Resources theory in developing the conceptual model used to test our hypotheses. Furthermore, we explore burnout—with a focus on the dimension of emotional exhaustion—as an outcome of work engagement. Hence, our article develops and empirically tests a model of antecedents of organizational CWB specifying work engagement and emotional exhaustion as mediators of the impact of LMX on CWB.

Conceptual framework and hypotheses

Our article draws upon the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 2011). The COR theory posits that organizations may suffer from lower levels of performance when key resources are not made available and accessible to employees. Employees are motivated to acquire and accumulate organizational, job-related, and personal resources that facilitate their behaviors such as productivity. Bakker and Demerouti (2007) asserted that job-related and personal resources impact work engagement, but that job demands may alter this relationship. Following this line of thought, the present study identifies leader–member exchange (LMX) as a job-related resource. As such, the absence of high-quality leader–member relationships is an indicator of scarcity of important job-related resources and is more likely to result in counterproductive work behaviors directed at an organization. Our theoretical model and corresponding hypothesized paths are depicted in Figure 1.

**LMX, work engagement, and CWB-O**

The LMX concept is essentially based on social exchange theory (e.g., DeConinck, 2010), focusing on reciprocity, trust, and fairness between the leader and the employee. One of the main tenets of social exchange theory is the concept of reciprocity; accordingly, when the leader and follower interact, they form a reciprocal relationship striving to reach a state of balance encountered through multiple exchanges (Smircich & Morgan, 1982). The LMX concept, first originating in the late 1980s (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Vecchio, Griffeth, & Hom, 1986), asserts that a leader forms different, unique relationships with each individual employee based on the congruence between the leader’s and the individual employee’s values, attitudes, behaviors, and personality (Seo, Nahrgang, Cater, &
These distinct relationships can range from one of high mutual trust and respect (high-quality LMX) to one that is more of a transactional or contractual nature limited to the formal job description (low-quality LMX) (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982). Leaders allocate resources consistent with their perceptions of employees’ abilities, skills, and performance (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2005).

The LMX literature clearly indicates that leader–member relationships affect employee experiences on the job (e.g., Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). For example, high-quality exchange relationships between the leader and the employee lead to higher employee job satisfaction, competence, commitment, job performance, satisfaction with supervision, and role clarity, and less role conflict (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Ang, & Diefendorff, 2015). Considering also the evidence that work engagement is positively related to work productivity (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011), we can expect a positive relationship between LMX and work engagement.

Conservation of Resources theory asserts that accessing, acquiring, and managing key important resources enhances one’s ability to maximize strengths and potential at work (Hobfoll, 1989). Resources can be objects, conditions, personal characteristics, and energy. “Conditions” can be job related, people related, or organization related. There is empirical evidence that engagement is predominantly predicted by resource availability on the job (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). High-quality LMX can be viewed as a job-related “conditions” resource for employees because the resources emerging from the leader–employee relationship are job based. For example, Volmer, Spurk, and Niessen (2012) examined a job autonomy as a resource condition in the LMX relationship. They found that job autonomy strengthened the positive relationship between LMX and creative work outcomes. Yet LMX is also a person-related resource because it originates from a reciprocity relationship between two people (leader and employee). Bakker and Demerouti (2007) showed that both job-related and personal resources impact work engagement. Job resources include support from colleagues and supervisors, performance feedback, skill variety, and autonomy. High-quality LMX functions as a job resource when leaders interact with, trust, respect, and empower those employees more than those in low-quality LMX relations. The resources acquired or made available to the employee as a result of high-quality LMX are the outcome of the relationship. Hence, employees in high-quality LMX relationships will have more access to the leader and more support in their jobs. They will also have more opportunities for personal growth, learning, and development (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Such job-based resources emanating from the leader impact employee work engagement positively by playing an instrumental role in both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

An engaged employee brings a sense of personal investment, emotional attachment, dedication, and cognitive focus to the job. Engagement engenders a willingness to invest personal, cognitive, and physical resources into work (Kahn, 1990). Most studies investigating consequences of engagement have focused on task and contextual performance (for a meta-analysis, see Christian et al., 2011). Although research shows that work engagement is positively related to job performance (Christian et al., 2011; Demerouti & Bakker, 2006), little, if any, research seems to exist investigating the potential impact of high work engagement on counterproductive work behaviors.

Counterproductive behaviors at work include a wide range of behaviors that are intended to harm the organization and/or individuals. Despite the general attention that CWB has received throughout the years, disagreement exists on exactly what behaviors are included under the CWB umbrella and how these behaviors should be categorized (Marcus, Taylor, Hastings, Sturm, & Weigelt, 2016). In conceptualizing CWB, research has focused on aggression (Fox & Spector, 1999), deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), and retaliation and revenge (Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) as specific work-related behaviors. In this article, we use the most commonly used and well-established Bennett and Robinson (2000) CWB model, which provides a distinction between organizational deviance and interpersonal deviance. Interpersonal deviance involves behaviors such as insulting someone about their performance, ignoring someone at work, starting an argument, or making fun of someone’s personal life. Organizational deviance includes behaviors such as wasting supplies on purpose or coming to work late without permission or calling in sick when one isn’t (Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010).

We focus on the organizational dimension of deviance to stay consistent with the social exchange theory assumption of reciprocity to explain the impact of one-on-one relationships in the workplace. Research has found that supervisor perceptions impact deviant behavior. In conceptualizing abusive supervision as
CWB, Aryee, Chen, Sun, and Debrah (2007) found that perceptions of injustice for authoritative supervisors results in deviant behavior. As higher levels of engagement deplete resources such as individual time and energy, it becomes more likely for individuals to engage in organizational CWB as a way to counteract the experienced stress and pressure. Higher levels of engagement may also lead to a decline in occupational health due to experienced stress and may further be associated with counterproductive work behaviors. We also expect high-quality LMX to affect negatively CWB-O, as LMX is a job-based resource for the employee where there is perceived scarcity and hence improve employee work engagement. Through employee work engagement, signified by vigor, dedication, and absorption in work, one can observe the CWB-O to decline.

Hypothesis 1a: LMX is positively related to work engagement.
Hypothesis 1b: Work engagement is negatively related to CWB-O.
Hypothesis 1c: LMX is negatively related to CWB-O
Hypothesis 1d: Work engagement will mediate the LMX–CWB-O relationship such that the negative impact of LMX on CWB-O will pass through work engagement.

LMX, emotional exhaustion, and CWB-O

“The role of leadership processes in burnout has received only scant research attention” (Thomas & Lankau, 2009, p. 419). However, leaders are key players in influencing the employees’ mood and emotions (Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010). For example, Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) describe how a difficult and demanding supervisor can cause an employee to feel angry and disgruntled and how these feelings can eventually lead to CWB. Employees who do not receive preferential and positive treatment from their leaders may suffer from emotional burden and subsequently emotional exhaustion. Social exchange processes between a leader and an employee may have both positive and negative outcomes for both parties. If the quality of LMX is low, and hence the outcomes are generally negative for employees, the resulting emotions could be anything from sadness and disappointment to anger (Tse, Troth, Ashkanasy, & Collins, 2018).

Low-quality LMX results in a lack of resources acquired or made available to the employee as an outcome of the relationship. Hence, LMX affects employees’ psychological health, which includes emotional exhaustion (Schermuly & Meyer, 2016).

Emotional exhaustion is the “strain” dimension of the burnout construct. Burnout construct also encompasses depersonalization and personal accomplishment (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007; Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Depersonalization refers to a loss of empathy and dehumanization in relationships. Personal accomplishment refers to a person’s assessment of oneself rather negatively and self-doubt regarding own past, present, and future achievements. Emotional exhaustion, which is our focus, is a general sense of feeling emotionally overloaded and overextended (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Individuals who are emotionally exhausted may be more likely to engage in behavior that is counterproductive toward the organization. This assertion can be explained by the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) in that CWB may be an outcome of emotionally exhausted employees’ attempts to conserve their organizational resources. In parallel, there is evidence that emotionally exhausted employees exhibit CWB more frequently (Banks, Whelpley, Oh, & Shin, 2012). If job resources are limited, such as with low-quality LMX, emotional exhaustion may lead to behaviors that are counterproductive in the workplace as a means to preserve scarce resources and exercise control over the environment. We expect high-quality LMX to affect negatively organizational CWB by providing job-based resources to the employee where there is a perceived scarcity and hence also negatively impact emotional exhaustion, even though previous empirical evidence (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) suggests that the main predictor of emotional exhaustion is job demands with a weaker relationship between lack of resources and emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 2a: LMX is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.
Hypothesis 2b: Emotional exhaustion is positively related to CWB-O.
Hypothesis 2c. Emotional exhaustion will mediate the LMX–CWB-O relationship such that the negative impact of LMX on CWB-O will pass through emotional exhaustion.

Work engagement, emotional exhaustion, and CWB-O

Emotional exhaustion is one of the three dimensions of burnout, with the other two being cynicism—referring to an indifferent attitude toward work—and professional efficacy—referring to occupational accomplishments (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Employees who feel emotionally worn out and extended tend to suffer from health issues and generally poor well-being (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).
Research has further shown that those employees experiencing emotional exhaustion have lower levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance, and higher levels of turnover and absenteeism (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003). While emotional exhaustion seems to have negative implications for work outcomes, work engagement is associated with positive outcomes such as high energy levels, liveliness, determination, a positive mind set, and dedication (Bakker et al., 2008). In fact, even though burnout and engagement are negatively related such that engagement can be viewed as the exact opposite of the burnout construct (Maslach & Leiter, 2008), there is evidence that they have different predictors and possibly different consequences (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

van Den Tooren and Rutte (2016, p. 149) define “job demands” as “aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological effort” and “job resources” as aspects of the job that facilitate goal accomplishment. Extant research supports a connection between job demands and burnout (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010), as well as between job resources and work engagement (Christian et al., 2011). Job demands function by depleting employees’ resources and make work engagement less likely, while job resources make emotional exhaustion less likely by increasing employee engagement and energy (van Den Tooren & Rutte, 2016). Schaufeli and Bakker’s (2004) findings indicate that burnout and engagement are negatively related and that “burnout is mainly predicted by job demands but also by lack of job resources, whereas engagement is exclusively predicted by available job resources” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, p. 293). Collectively, this research supports the assertion that as employees’ work engagement increases, it is less likely for employees to become emotionally exhausted, and less likely for employees to exhibit organization focused counterproductive work behaviors.

Hypothesis 3a: Work engagement is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 3b: Emotional exhaustion will mediate the engagement–CWB-O relationship such that the negative impact of engagement on CWB-O will pass through emotional exhaustion.

**Methods**

**Sample and procedure**

Our sample consisted of 406 employees and managers from the United States and Israel, including 185 (46%) respondents from the United States and 221 (54%) from Israel. Respondents were more female (224, 55.17%) than male (182, 44.83%). Average tenure was 5.15 years (SD = 6.60 years). Average age was 29.58 years (SD = 9.82). The sample consisted of 173 participants in managerial roles and 233 participants in nonmanagerial roles (42.61%). Most employees worked full-time (213, 52.46%). Regarding ethnicity, the sample included 31 (7.64%) African American, 14 (3.45%) Asian, 344 (84.73%) Caucasian, 10 (2.46%) Hispanic/Latin, and 7 (1.72%) biracial. Additional sample characteristics are provided in Table 1.

Our study was a one-time cross-sectional study. An electronic version of the survey was distributed to employees working in various organizations and industries in the United States and in Israel in fall 2017. Using both e-mail and Facebook platforms, an electronic version of the research questionnaire was sent to employees from various organizations in Israel. No specific industry or organization was targeted; working individuals 18 years or older were eligible to participate. In the United States, we administered the survey via Qualtrics software to employees from a large student

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<th>Table 1. Sample characteristics.</th>
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<td>Part-time</td>
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<td>Gender</td>
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<td>Age</td>
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<td>Average (SD)</td>
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affairs division in a large Mid-Atlantic university. Data analysis was completed using structural equation modeling in STATA 15. Each participant in the United States read and signed an informed consent form as approved by the institutional review board (IRB).

**Measures**

**Organizational counterproductive work behavior**

CWB-O was measured using five items from the 10-item Organizational Deviance scale (Spector et al., 2010). This scale includes two subscales with five items for each: Interpersonal Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB-I) (sample items: “Ignored someone at work”; “Insulted or made fun of someone at work”) and Organizational Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB-O) (sample items: “Purposefully wasted my employer’s materials/supplies”; “Came to work late without permission”). Because our focus is on CWB-O, not CWB-I, we used the CWB-O subscale. Examining CWB-O as distinct from CWB-I is consistent with research because they impact organizational behavior differently. In their metaanalysis of 31 studies with 449 correlations, Berry et al. (2007) found that interpersonal and organizational deviance are highly correlated and scales examining workplace deviance should separate them. Because our article focuses theoretically on organizational CWB, we use the 5-item scale to measure CWB-O. Cronbach’s alpha was α = 0.74 for CWB-O.

**Leader–member exchange**

LMX was measured with the 12-item LMX–MDM Scale (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Responses are based on a 7-point rating scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Sample items include “I respect my manager’s knowledge and competence on the job,” “My manager is the kind of person to have as a friend,” “I do not mind working for my manager,” and “My manager would come to my defense if attacked by others.” Cronbach’s alpha was α = 0.95. Because of the high number of estimated parameters, we reduced the number of indicators to improve the model fit following research and literature. We used parceling methods with LMX, specifically considering theoretical rationale to parcel our data. LMX was parceled into four subscales following Liden, Wayne, and Sparrowe (2000): affect (LMXA), loyalty (LMXL), contribution (LMXc), and respect (LMXR). This technique has been largely used in improving goodness of fit index (GFI) with LMX studies (e.g., Liden et al., 2000).

**Emotional exhaustion (EX)**

Emotional exhaustion (EX) was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1981) that has 21 items. Responses are based on a 5-point rating scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The MBI consists of three subscales to measure burnout. Emotional Exhaustion (EX) includes eight items, such as “I feel emotionally drained from my work,” “I feel used up at the end of the day,” and “I feel frustrated by my job.” The remaining 13 items measure two burnout subscales of Depersonalization (Cynicism) and Personal Accomplishment. Because we were interested in focusing on emotional exhaustion (EX), we used the Emotional Exhaustion subscale, as the Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment subscales were not the theoretical focus of our article.

Because our article focuses on emotional exhaustion as described in the preceding, we explain here statistically how we derived the final five indicator variables for emotional exhaustion. First, we confirmed that the original 21-item burnout scale was composed of subfactors. Our exploratory factor analysis illustrated theoretically that the original burnout scale (α = 0.8261) resulted in five factors. The CFA demonstrated poor fit ($\chi^2 = 1899, 189 df$, root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = 0.149, comparative fit index [CFI] = 0.469, standardized root mean square residual [SRMR] = 0.0147). We examined each item in the burnout scale to assess which items were used to examine emotional exhaustion following (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). In examining the emotional exhaustion subscale, we found that eight items (α = 0.8608) loaded onto two factors, with items 1, 2, 3, 8, and 13 loading on factor 1. The CFA for the eight items did not have a strong fit ($\chi^2 = 200.86, 20 df$, RMSEA = 0.149, CFI = 0.872, SRMR = 0.082). We used items 1, 3, 8, 13, 2 (α = 0.8609) because the CFA demonstrated strong fit: ($\chi^2 = 9.75, 5 df$, RMSEA = 0.048, CFI = 0.995, SRMR = 0.014) and our alpha was α = 0.86. Further, these items were grounded theoretically in how we defined emotional exhaustion conceptually.

**Work engagement (WE)**

Our theoretical model considers the role of dedication and absorption in work engagement. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006) consists of 17 items on a 6-point rating scale ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (always, every day) to measure three distinct aspects of work engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli &
Bakker, 2004). Items measure different aspects of work engagement, including vigor (e.g., “At my work, I am bursting with energy”), dedication (e.g., “I feel the work that I do is full of meaning and purpose”), and absorption (e.g., “Time flies when I am working”). Cronbach’s alpha was $\alpha = 0.93$. For work engagement, we examined dedication and absorption, specifically using those items from the short version for dedication (5, 7, 10) and absorption (9, 11, 14) ($\alpha = 0.8963$; $\chi^2 = 71.8$, $p = 0.00$, CFI = 0.95; Tucker–Lewis index [TLI] = .92; SRMR = .04 RMSEA = .13). All scale reliabilities were greater than 0.70 and acceptable (Nunnaly & Bernstein, 1994).

**Analysis**

Consistent with previous studies that have examined mediation (e.g., Mazzeo, Mitchell, & Williams, 2008), we use structural equation modeling (SEM) to examine our mediation hypotheses. MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, and West (2002) found that low Type 1 error results from examining together the path of independent variable (IV) to mediator and mediator to dependent variable (DV) simultaneously. Similarly, we examine (a) simultaneously the significance of the paths of LMX to mediators WE and EX, and from the mediators to CWB-O, and (b) simultaneously the significance of the paths of WE to EX, and from EX to CWB-O (Figure 1).

**Common method variance and bias**

Congruent with prior research, we took steps to minimize common method variance (CMV). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) suggest that CMV can be reduced by protecting the anonymity of survey respondents, alleviating any concerns they have about reporting negative information about their experience, counterbalancing the order of the predictor and criterion variable, and using the Harman test. Consistent with these recommendations, we kept respondents anonymous and informed them that there are no right or wrong answers. At random, the measures in the questionnaires were given to Israeli respondents in a different order to some participants to avoid the exact same method and order being used for all participants. Finally, using Harman’s one-factor test and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), we tested for common method bias. Common method bias did not exist in our study because we did not find a single factor to emerge, nor one factor representing most of the variables’ covariance (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Schriesheim, 1980). Further, our principal components factor analysis revealed four factors with eigenvalue $> 1.0$ emerging from the data, which represented 66% of the cumulative variance. The largest factor that emerged accounted for 30% of the variance, not a majority. In examining the data as a single factor using confirmatory factor analysis, we found poor fit as a single factor ($\chi^2 = 4113$, $p = 0.00$, CFI = 0.513; TLI = .472; SRMR = .176; RMSEA = .170).

**Results**

Descriptive statistics, correlational analyses, and model testing were run using STATA 15. Following Anderson and Gerbing (1988), we examined our hypotheses using the structural equations approach. Our correlation tables for the measures in this study can be found in Table 2. Boldfaced Cronbach alphas are on the diagonal.

First, we conduct a CFA with our four-factor measurement model. We calculated model fit for our structural model using comparative fit index (CFI), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Models with CFI values close to .95, RMSEA values less than .06 and SRMR values less than .08 typically indicate adequate fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). This model had good fit ($\chi^2 = 568.49$, $df = 163$, $p = 0.00$, CFI = 0.91; SRMR = .07; RMSEA = .08). We find discriminant validity as all factor correlations are less than .70. All factor loadings are $> .40$ with $p < .001$.

Second, we evaluated our hypothesized structural model (Figure 2) and alternative competing models 2 and 3. Our hypothesized structural model (Model 1) has good fit ($\chi^2 = 568.49$, $df = 163$, $p = 0.00$, CFI = 0.91; SRMR = .07; RMSEA = .08). In Models 2 and 3, we assessed models similar to Model 1 by constraining the following direct paths to 0: (a) LMX to organizational CWB (Model 2: $\chi^2 = 581.59$, $df = 164$, $p = 0.00$, $\chi^2 = 568.49$, $df = 163$, $p = 0.00$, CFI = 0.91; SRMR = .07; RMSEA = .08).

**Table 2. Descriptive statistics and the correlation matrix.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. dev.</th>
<th>LMX</th>
<th>BU_EX</th>
<th>WE</th>
<th>CWB-O</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>1.28</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>BU_EX</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>-0.17***</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>WE</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>0.24***</td>
<td>-0.32***</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>CWB-O</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>-0.34***</td>
<td>0.40***</td>
<td>-0.58***</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Boldfaced Cronbach alphas are on the diagonal.

***$p < 0.000$; **$p < 0.01$; $p < 0.05$. **
CFI = 0.91; SRMR = .07; RMSEA = .08) and (b) WE to CWB-O (Model 3: $\chi^2 = 630.57, df = 164, p = 0.00$, CFI = 0.89; SRMR = .07; RMSEA = .09). Since these models are nested within our main model, we evaluated alternative models using $\chi^2$ difference testing by comparing Model 1 with Model 2 ($\Delta \chi^2 = 13.10***; \Delta df = 1$) and Model 3 ($\Delta \chi^2 = 62.10***; \Delta df = 1$). Further, there is no meaningful change in the magnitude, direction, nor significance level of the nonconstrained hypothesized paths. These results indicate that our main model is the best fitting mode; therefore, we retained our hypothesized model.

We used for LMX 12 items parceled into four factors, CWB-O five items, emotional exhaustion five items, and work engagement–dedication and absorption six items. This structural model demonstrated acceptable fit. CFI was 0.91, RMSEA was 0.08, and SRMR was 0.07.$^3$

Third, we then added control variables that could impact the results by adding paths for control variables. First, we controlled for managerial role (1 = manager, 0 = nonmanager), and found managers (.14, $p < 0.01$) are positively associated with EX. Second, we controlled for job span (1 = full-time, 0 = part-time), although research has been inconclusive about this impact (see Conway & Briner, 2002). Part-time employees are included less at work, which can negatively impact their attitudes (Morrow, McElroy, & Elliott, 1994). Interestingly, we found that full-time employees ($-.37, p < 0.001$) are negatively associated with WE. Third, we controlled for country (1 = Israel, 2 = United States). We found that country is significantly related to WE ($-.12, p = 0.01$) and to LMX ($.36, p < 0.001$). Finally, we controlled for ethnic group (African American, Hispanic, Caucasian, Asian, Native American), which was insignificantly related to WE, EX, LMX, and CWB-O. Adding these controls did not meaningfully change the magnitude or significance of our hypothesized paths,$^4$ but did reduce GFIs ($\chi^2 = 882, p = 0.00$, CFI = 0.86, TLI = .84, SRMR = .07, RMSEA = .08). Therefore, our main model was retained for parsimony.

Model hypothesis testing results

In Hypotheses 1a–1d, we examine the mediating effect of work engagement on the LMX and CWB-O relationship (Table 3). As predicted, the path from LMX (.25, $p < .001$) to WE is positive, while the paths from WE ($-.47, p < .001$) and LMX ($-.20, p < .001$) to CWB-O are negative; thus, Hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1c are supported. Our bootstrapped analysis results indicate the

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Figure 2. Structural model.
In Hypotheses 1a and 1b, we examine the mediating effect of LMX on CWB-O relationship. As predicted, the path from LMX to CWB-O is significant (indirect effect = -0.03; 95% confidence interval [CI] = -0.04 to -0.01, p < .001) (Table 4). The significant direct effect of LMX on CWB-O (direct effect = -0.03; 95% confidence interval [CI] = -0.02 to -0.05, p < .001) indicates a partial mediation effect, providing support to Hypothesis 1d. Work engagement mediates 59% of the relationship between LMX and CWB-O.

In Hypotheses 2a, we stated that LMX will be negatively related to emotional exhaustion, and in Hypothesis 2b, we proposed a positive relationship between emotional exhaustion and CWB-O. The path from LMX (-0.09, p > .10) to EX is insignificant; thus, Hypothesis 2a is not supported. Yet EX (.21, p < .001) was positively related to CWB-O, providing support for Hypothesis 2b. In Hypothesis 2c, we examined the mediating effect of emotional exhaustion in the LMX and CWB-O relationship. LMX (-0.20, p < .001) remains significant after controlling for emotional exhaustion. Since the LMX to EX path was not significant, Hypothesis 2c is not supported.

In Hypotheses 3a and 3b, we examine the mediating effect of EX on the WE and CWB-O relationship. As predicted, the path from WE (-0.32, p < .001) to EX is negative, supporting Hypothesis 3a. We find the path from EX (.21, p < .001) to CWB-O is positive, while the path from WE (-.47, p < .001) to CWB-O is negative. Our bootstrapped analysis results indicate the standardized indirect effect of WE on CWB-O was significant (indirect effect = -.04; 95% confidence interval [CI] = -.06 to -.01, p < .001) (Table 4). The significant direct effect of WE on CWB-O (direct effect = -.26; 95% confidence interval [CI] = -.35 to -.16, p < .001) indicates a partial mediation effect, providing support to Hypothesis 3b.

### Table 3. Hypothesized paths and findings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Path (see Figure 1)</th>
<th>Finding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hypotheses 1</td>
<td>H1a. LMX is positively related to WE.</td>
<td>A Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX–WE–CWB-O</td>
<td>H1b. WE is negatively related to CWB-O.</td>
<td>B Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>H1c. LMX is negatively related to CWB-O</td>
<td>E Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>H1d. WE will mediate the LMX–CWB-O relationship such that the negative impact of LMX on CWB-O will pass through WE</td>
<td>AB Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypotheses 2</td>
<td>H2a. LMX is positively related to EX.</td>
<td>C Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX–EX–CWB-O</td>
<td>H2b. EX is positively related to CWB-O.</td>
<td>D Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>H2c. Work engagement will mediate the LMX–organizational CWB relationship such that the negative impact of LMX on organizational CWB will pass through work engagement.</td>
<td>CD Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypotheses 3</td>
<td>H3a. WE is negatively related to EX</td>
<td>F Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WE–EX–CWB-O</td>
<td>H3b. EX will mediate the WE–CWB-O relationship such that the negative impact of WE on CWB-O will pass through EX.</td>
<td>FD Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4. Standardized parameter estimates for hypothesized model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key independent variables</th>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work engagement</td>
<td>Emotional exhaustion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.25*** (0.02)</td>
<td>-.09 (0.02)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 406. Values in parentheses are standard errors of model parameter estimates.

* p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001.

In Hypotheses 3a and 3b, we examine the mediating effect of EX on the WE and CWB-O relationship. As predicted, the path from WE (-.32, p < .001) to EX is negative, supporting Hypothesis 3a. We find the path from EX (.21, p < .001) to CWB-O is positive, while the path from WE (-.47, p < .001) to CWB-O is negative. Our bootstrapped analysis results indicate the standardized indirect effect of WE on CWB-O was significant (indirect effect = -.04; 95% confidence interval [CI] = -.06 to -.01, p < .001) (Tables 5 and 6). The significant direct effect of WE on CWB-O (direct effect = -.26; 95% confidence interval [CI] = -.35 to -.16, p < .001) indicates a partial mediation effect, providing support to Hypothesis 3b.

### Table 5. Effects decomposition for mediation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effects</th>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>Direct: unmediated</th>
<th>Indirect: mediated</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>-.0293</td>
<td>-.0231</td>
<td>-.0524</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work engagement</td>
<td>-.2558</td>
<td>-.0363</td>
<td>-.2921</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Confidence intervals do not contain zero. Indirect effect is significant at p < 0.01.
exhaustion mediates 14% of the relationship between WE and CWB-O.

Discussion

Despite the significant human and financial organizational costs from CWB (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), research has been inconclusive surrounding mediating influences between LMX and CWB (Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee & Epitropak, 2016). In this article, we have developed and empirically examined interpersonal and organizational CWB, specifically focusing on work engagement and emotional exhaustion as mediators in the relationship between LMX and organizational CWB. Drawing on conservation of resources theory, we conceptualized LMX as a job-related resource. With high-quality LMX, individuals receive more job-related resources. Thus, we theorized that low-quality LMX would be associated with counterproductive behavior resulting from the scarcity of these resources. Using an integrated theoretical foundation, we then hypothesized that work engagement and emotional exhaustion mediate the LMX relationship with counterproductive work behavior.

Through our study, we found significant findings that advance LMX research in examining CWB antecedents: (a) Work engagement partially mediates the relationship between LMX and organizational CWB; and (b) work engagement and emotional exhaustion are negatively related, and emotional exhaustion partially mediates the relationship between engagement and counterproductive work behaviors. We did not find a significant relationship between emotional exhaustion and LMX. In the following sections, we discuss our main findings, limitations, and future research.

An important contribution of our study was examining the mediating influences of emotional exhaustion and work engagement in the LMX and organizational CWB relationship. First, we found that employees who perceive positive relationships with their leaders are not necessarily less emotionally exhausted, but they will engage in organizational CWB less. This finding is consistent with the assertion of Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) that burnout, the umbrella construct over emotional exhaustion, is mainly predicted by job demands, but only in a weaker way by lack of job resources. Second, work engagement partially mediates the relationship between LMX and organizational CWB, but in a different way. Employees who perceive positive relationships with their leader are more engaged at work, and will engage in less organizational CWB. However, if employees perceive poor relationships with their leader, they will be less engaged at work and may engage in more organizational CWB. Although some impact on organizational CWB occurs through emotional exhaustion and work engagement influences, LMX still has some negative direct effect on organizational CWB. This means that positive leader relationships can result in less organizational CWB, regardless of the degree of emotional exhaustion or work engagement. Further, in practice, this finding has implications for managers in that increasing job resources through, for example, supervisory support, social support, or team building may have a direct effect on employee engagement but a rather insignificant or weak effect on reducing one’s burnout or emotional exhaustion.

Emotional exhaustion can lead to reduced productivity, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). Emotionally exhausted employees feel stressed, overextended in meeting job responsibilities and staying committed to the organization’s purpose. Emotionally exhausted employees may think they are undercompensated for their work, which they perceive to go beyond the average. Consequently, they may seek to remedy the situation by engaging in acts of organizational deviance, such as taking supplies from the office, lying about reasons for missing work, or coming in late. Increasingly, they lack commitment to the job, and may talk more negatively about their organization. Alternatively, emotional exhaustion may have no impact on counterproductive work behavior as affected employees may not have the energy to actively behave in harmful manners, leading to disinterest in the job.

We find that work engagement and emotional exhaustion are negatively related; specifically, the more engaged employees are in their jobs, the less emotionally exhausted they are. Highly engaged employees are energetic with a strong commitment to their jobs (Bakker et al., 2008). Yet emotional exhaustion is associated with more stress and less organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Cropanzano et al., 2003). Engagement in work implies motivation and involvement in the job.

Practical implications

Leaders must consider that employee performance relates to the social context in which they work; therefore, relationship perceptions will significantly impact performance outcomes. Findings of this study emphasize the importance of the manager, as positive LMX relations may lead to more WE (e.g., Sharoni, Shkoler, & Tziner, 2015), and both (positive LMX and WE), in turn, will reduce potential dysfunctional behavior toward the organization (e.g., Shkoler, Tziner, & Fein,
under review). As such, we recommend that organizations, in general, and managers, particularly, cultivate good relations with subordinates, as this both (a) may help them feel more immersed and involved in their work, and (b) may reduce the possibility of work misbehaviors.

**Effective LMX and engaged, less emotionally exhausted employees**

Enhancing employees’ WE would also reduce their emotional exhaustion, as their WE may be considered as a good work resource (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001), which can mitigate the effects of stress and strain in the job. As per the preceding implication that regarded LMX specifically, the organization may also want to cultivate and provide a supportive working environment to enhance its employees’ WE, as highly engaged employees are assumed to be happily involved in their work (e.g., Taris, van Beek, & Schaufeli, 2015), to the extent that negative feelings about the work would not raise and manifest themselves via CWB-O. It is within organizations’ best interests to monitor the strain and exhaustion of their employees, for these, as can be seen in our results, might lead to increased work misbehaviors toward the organizations (see also Shkoler & Tziner, 2017). Job performance and justice perceptions change over time (Park, Sturman, Vanderpool, & Chan, 2015). As such, it is imperative to keep their emotional exhaustion at controlled levels, for example, by cultivating WE and good manager–subordinate relationships.

Managers can benefit by understanding the mechanisms through which their relationships with their employees affect organizational deviance because of its cost to companies (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Our current study contributes to research by considering two mechanisms that may influence employee’s counterproductive work behaviors, including emotional exhaustion, a type of burnout, and work engagement. Leaders should consider not only their relationships with their employees, but also their employees’ relationships with one another, as they reinforce each other (, Hu, Liden, & Vidvarthi, 2011; Uhl-Bien & Ospina, 2012). As employees interact, they will develop social comparisons that frame their attitudes, decisions, and commitment to the job.

**Limitations and future research**

This study has several limitations. First, although we took efforts to reduce its effects, common method variance may still exist because our data were collected from a cross-sectional sample at one point in time, and made up single-source research. Despite implementing recommended remedies, we note that there are limitations, as Podsakoff et al. (2003) explain that each remedy has its disadvantages. Second, there may be alternate mediators or moderators that may have been omitted. Third, this sample is considered to be from two individualistic culture countries, the United States and Israel, and may yield different results in collective industries. Fourth, although the techniques we have used to reduce our estimated parameters were supported in literature, our selection of few items per measure may bias the results at large. Fifth, employees may be fearful about providing honest answers in organizationally deviant behavior research, leading to questions about the validity of self-reported answers (e.g., Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

The relationship between LMX and counterproductive work behavior is complex. Future research may want to consider moderating influences, such as industry differences, social networks, and power perceptions. Industry differences will impact this relationship. In high-tech versus low-tech industries, employees may differ in how energized, absorbed, or dedicated they are in their work. Similarly, the degree of autonomy afforded by specific task-related aspects of the job will impact burnout perceptions.

Further, how do different specialized areas within organizations and industries, including sales, marketing, or research and development (R&D), impact perceptions of burnout as changes occur in the company’s external environment? As we mentioned, our sample is considered to be from individualistic countries; collectivist cultures may present a different set of findings regarding the mediating role of emotional exhaustion and work engagement in the LMX–counterproductive work behavior relationship; therefore, testing the model in different contexts could be insightful.

Social networks may also influence team-member relationships and employee burnout perceptions, which can affect counterproductive work behavior. As employees belong to different social and knowledge networks within organizations, ideas about counterproductive work behavior can be passed on through these networks and shared in team environments, thus impacting this relationship.

Perceptions of power may further impact the mediation of emotional exhaustion in the LMX and counterproductive work behavior relationship. For example, referent power increases how a follower identifies with the leader (French & Raven, 1959); therefore, if the employee identifies with a burned-out but powerful leader, how will that influence organizational deviance?

Finally, this model can also be extended by testing all three dimensions of burnout and both the interpersonal...
and organizational forms of CWB to add insight as to the mediating dynamics of burnout on the relationship between LMX, engagement, and CWB. For example, interpersonal CWB may be affected more by depersonalization form of burnout which reduces personal achievement.

Future research should explore a variety of job based resources in addition to LMX. Examples could range from high quality team-member exchange (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2005; Sias & Jablin, 1995) to perceived organizational support and trust in leadership (Tabak & Hendy, 2016). High-quality TMX relationships may indicate mutual trust and commitment among team members, which act as a job-based resource. Similarly, when employees perceive support from their organizations in general, they may be less likely to engage in behaviors harmful to their organizations.

An important avenue to explore in future research relates to interventions to manage high levels of job demands such as job redesign, job sharing, or instituting a flextime or telecommuting system for employees to complete their jobs while still maintaining a low stress level. Such interventions and their impact on CWB can be investigated through the mediating lens of emotional exhaustion or burnout.

Notes

1. The Bennett and Robinson (2000) instrument for workplace deviance also had two subscales for interpersonal and organizational workplace deviance.
2. Depersonalization (Cynicism) includes five items such as “I feel I treat some recipients as if they were impersonal objects,” “I’ve become more callous toward people since I took this job,” and “I don’t really care what happens to some recipients.” Personal Accomplishment (PE) includes eight items such as “I can easily understand how my recipients feel about things,” “I deal very effectively with the problems of my recipients,” and “I feel I’m positively influencing other people’s lives through my work.”
3. Because of similarity in item wording, we added a covariance between two WE absorption survey items: item 11 “I am immersed in my work” and item 14 “I get carried away when I am working.” This covariance increased model fit slightly from CFI 0.90 to 0.91.
4. In terms of change in magnitude, the average coefficient change among our hypothesized paths was .03; however, all paths retained the same significance level and direction.

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