

Personal and Job-Level Predictors of Employee Time Banditry Behavior

Thaddeus B. Rada-Bayne
North Central College

Steve M. Jex
University of Central Florida

Juseob Lee
University of Central Florida

Although time banditry has been recognized as a unique form of counterproductive work behavior, little research has been dedicated to examining predictors of this common behavior. This study examined time banditry among two unique groups of working adults, and found that while both personal and job-level variables can predict time banditry, personal factors appear to be more important.

Keywords: counterproductive work behaviors, time banditry

INTRODUCTION

Although organizational leaders spend much of their time encouraging their employees to perform at a high level and make positive contributions to their organization, they are also concerned with how to discourage employees from engaging in behaviors that are detrimental to organizations. These harmful actions, often referred to as counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs), encompass a wide array of behaviors, ranging from gossiping and speaking poorly of one's organization to outsiders, to illegal behaviors such as property damage and workplace violence (Sackett & DeVore, 2001). CWBs have been the focus of substantial research in industrial-organizational (I-O) psychology in recent years (for reviews, see Sackett, 2002; Gruys & Sackett, 2003), and the negative repercussions of these behaviors are well-documented in both the academic literature (Sackett & DeVore, 2001) and the popular press (Ahmed-Ullah, 2014; Needleman, 2010).

The current study focused on one relatively new CWB construct, *time banditry*, which has been broadly defined as non-work behaviors that employees may engage in while at work (Martin, Brock, Buckley, & Ketchen, 2010). These behaviors can include a diverse array of actions, including socializing with co-workers, doing online shopping or paying bills, or browsing social media websites. While the specific effects of these behaviors may differ from one workplace to another, it has been estimated that in the United States time banditry may cost organizations over \$750 billion annually (Martin et al., 2010) behooving organizational leaders to be aware of this phenomenon and take steps to mitigate its impact. The goal of this study was to examine how several variables, some at the individual level (such as an

employee's attitudes about their job), and some at the job level (such as the amount of freedom the job gives employees) predict the degree to which employees engage in time banditry behaviors.

Time Banditry

Time banditry was first conceptualized by Ketchen and colleagues (Ketchen, Craighead, & Buckley, 2008) as a form of CWB that occurs when employees engage in non-work activities during paid work hours. According to Robinson and Bennett's (1995) categorization of CWBs, time banditry can be classified as a low-intensity CWB directed towards an organization. However, despite the low-intensity nature of time banditry, other low-intensity CWBs, such as incivility, have shown a tendency to spiral into more intense CWBs over time (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). There is also evidence that those who engage in minor CWBs are more likely to engage in CWBs with higher intensity as well (e.g., Gruys & Sackett, 2003). Therefore, it is in an organization's best interest to be mindful of even mild CWBs, and minimize their occurrence.

Time banditry shares some characteristics with cyberloafing, a construct defined by employees' use of organization-owned internet access for personal purposes, such as browsing non-work-related websites or writing/checking personal emails (Lim, V. K. G., 2002). Despite their similarity, however, time banditry is a broader construct, and includes other non-work related behaviors as well. Brock, Martin, and Buckley (2013) identified three main types of time banditry: classic, technological, and social. Classic time banditry consists of behaviors such as coming in to work late or leaving early, while social time banditry includes making personal phone calls, or excessive talk at the office "water cooler." Finally, technological time banditry is similar in nature to the definition of cyberloafing, and includes behaviors such as browsing the internet for non-work related purposes; from this perspective, cyberloafing can be considered a component of time banditry.

Since its conceptualization as a form of counterproductive work behavior (Ketchen et al., 2008), few studies have investigated the nomological network and mechanisms associated with time banditry. Martin and colleagues' theoretical model suggested that time banditry is influenced by a variety of organizational, individual, and work-related factors (Martin et al., 2010). However, published research has not examined the ability of these factors to predict such time theft behaviors. Improving our understanding of such relationships would provide insights valuable both to researchers (to better understand the prevalence of time banditry, and its empirical relationships with variables that have been linked to other CWBs) and practitioners (to identify factors that predict time banditry, and facilitate the development of interventions to reduce these behaviors).

There are theoretical reasons to suspect that a variety of individual and job-level variables might predict employees' time banditry. For example, conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) suggests that resource depletion may impair self-regulation, thus making CWBs more likely. This theory has implications for both the personal and job-level variables that we examined in this study. For example, employees' negative attitudes, such as burnout and cynicism, may reflect work circumstances in which an employee's resources are overly taxed; thus, we expected that these feelings would predict time banditry behaviors. In addition, certain job characteristics, such as low autonomy, might reduce an employee's resources, thus making them more likely to engage in banditry behaviors. Employees who work in jobs that offer insufficient intellectual stimulation may engage in time banditry behaviors to avoid unsatisfying work-related activities and seek more stimulating experiences (e.g., Eastwood, Frischen, Fenske, & Smilek, 2012). Research suggests that those who reported high job boredom are more likely to engage in CWBs (Bruursema, Kessler, & Spector, 2011), and we suspect this may apply to time banditry as well.

Supporting our perspective that specific job characteristics might predict time banditry, the stressor-emotion model of CWB (Fox & Spector, 2006) suggests that workplace stressors are often associated with CWBs. In addition, a previous study on time banditry (Brock Baskin, McKee, & Buckley, 2017) found that four different "profiles" of time bandits were associated with varying levels of job complexity, operationalized as the core job characteristics described by Hackman and Oldham (1975).

Finally, the literature on time management suggests that individuals with better skills in this area tend to have higher job satisfaction, and lower stress, than those who have poorer time management skills

(Claessens, van Eerde, Rutte, & Roe, 2007). Thus, consistent with the stressor-emotion model of CWB (Fox & Spector, 2006) mentioned above, we expected that time management skills would predict time banditry behaviors.

Drawing from this existing literature on CWB and time banditry, the present study proposed three research questions:

Research Question #1: *How prevalent is time banditry in organizations, and are certain types of banditry (e.g. classic, social, technological) more prevalent than others?*

Research Question #2: *Do individual differences, such as job boredom, burnout, cynicism, job satisfaction, engagement, and time management skills, predict time banditry behaviors?*

Research Question #3: *Do job characteristics such as autonomy, task identity, skill variety, significance, and feedback from other employees and the job itself predict time banditry behaviors?*

Research Question #4: *Anticipating that boredom may be a particularly strong predictor of time banditry, do other variables moderate the relationship between boredom and banditry behaviors? Given that time banditry is a discretionary behavior involving the misuse of time, we focused on autonomy and time management skills as moderators.*

This study examined the predictive power of these individual- and job-level variables by using a series of regression models to predict each form of time banditry.

METHOD

Participants and Procedure

Two unique groups of individuals participated in this study. The first group (hereafter referred to as “Sample 1”) was made up of Workers recruited from Amazon’s Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Samples recruited from MTurk are more demographically diverse than college student samples and are as reliable as samples recruited through traditional methods (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). Workers were paid \$1.00 for their participation. Data was initially collected from 195 people. To identify careless responding, three multiple choice quality check questions were included (e.g. the item “Please choose ‘Never’ for this item” was added to the scale measuring job boredom). Only participants who responded correctly to all three of these questions were retained for analysis. This resulted in a final sample of 170 people. The sample was 59% male, 77% white, and an average age of 36 years ($SD = 10.2$). Seventy-six percent of the sample indicated they were employed with a for-profit company, working an average of 40.5 hours per week ($SD = 7.6$).

The second group of participants (“Sample 2”) were college students at a large, public university in the southeastern United States. To be eligible to participate in the study, students were required to work at least 15 hours per week. Participants were compensated with course credit. Data was initially collected from 312 students, but only students who correctly answered all three quality check items were included for analysis, resulting in the sample size of 247. This sample was 66% female, 60% white, and had an average age of 22 years ($SD = 5.9$). Most students majored in either psychology (26%) or applied natural science or engineering (13%). Eighty-six percent of the sample were employed by a for-profit company, and the participants worked an average of 26.95 hours a week ($SD = 10.7$).

Measures

Participants in both samples completed a web-based online survey. Time banditry was measured with the 31-item TBQ (Brock et al., 2013). This measure assesses the three forms of time banditry identified earlier: classic, technological, and social. An example item from the classic subscale is “I daydream while at work.” Responses were given on a 5-point scale, from Never to Always.

Burnout was measured with the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (Oldenburg, 2009). This 16-item scale uses a 4-point scale, from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree. An example item is “During my work, I often feel emotionally drained.”

Cynicism was measured using Wanous, Reichers, and Austin’s (2000) measure. This scale consists of 12 items. An example item is “Plans for future improvement will not amount to much.” Responses were provided on a 5-point scale, from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree.

Job boredom was assessed with Lee’s (1986) measure. This scale consists of 13 items, including “Does the job go by too slowly?” Responses were provided on a 7-point scale, from Never to Always.

Job satisfaction was assessed with the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983). This short scale consists of three items. An example item is “In general, I like working here.” Responses were provided on 5-point scale, from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree.

Engagement was measured using Schaufeli & Bakker’s (2003) scale. This scale consists of 17 items. An example item is “At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.” Responses were provided on a 7-point scale, from Never to Always.

Time management skills were measured with an adapted 10-item version of the Macan Time Management Scale (Macan, 1994). An example item is “I set priorities,” and responses were provided on a 5-point response scale, from Seldom True to Very Often True.

Characteristics of participants’ jobs were measured with the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). This scale has 18 items to measure six core job characteristics, such as autonomy (“The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work”) and task identity (“The job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of what I begin”). Responses were provided on a 7-point scale, with “Very Little” and “Very Much” anchors.

Finally, basic demographic information (e.g. sex, race, age, job sector) of the participants was also collected.

RESULTS

Sample 1 Results

Correlations among the study variables, and scale reliabilities, are presented in Table 1. The results from Sample 1 suggests that employees generally engaged in a moderate amount of time banditry behaviors. Technological time banditry was the most prevalent form of banditry ($M = 2.79$, $SD = .92$), followed by social ($M = 2.41$, $SD = .70$) and classic ($M = 2.01$, $SD = .64$). Examining these behaviors along demographic lines revealed that men and women did not differ in their level of time banditry, nor were there differences across different job sectors. There were significant, negative correlations between age and the classic, $r(168) = -.31$, $p < .001$, and social, $r(168) = -.20$, $p = .01$, forms of time banditry.

Multiple regression analyses were used to assess the ability of the predictors we measured to account for each type of time banditry. For classic time banditry, the overall model was significant, adjusted $R^2 = .26$, $F(12, 157) = 5.94$, $p < .001$. Significant predictors were cynicism, $\beta = .20$, $t(157) = 2.33$, $p = .02$, job boredom, $\beta = .53$, $t(157) = 3.61$, $p < .001$, job satisfaction, $\beta = .33$, $t(157) = 2.41$, $p = .02$, and time management skills, $\beta = -.18$, $t(157) = -2.51$, $p = .01$.

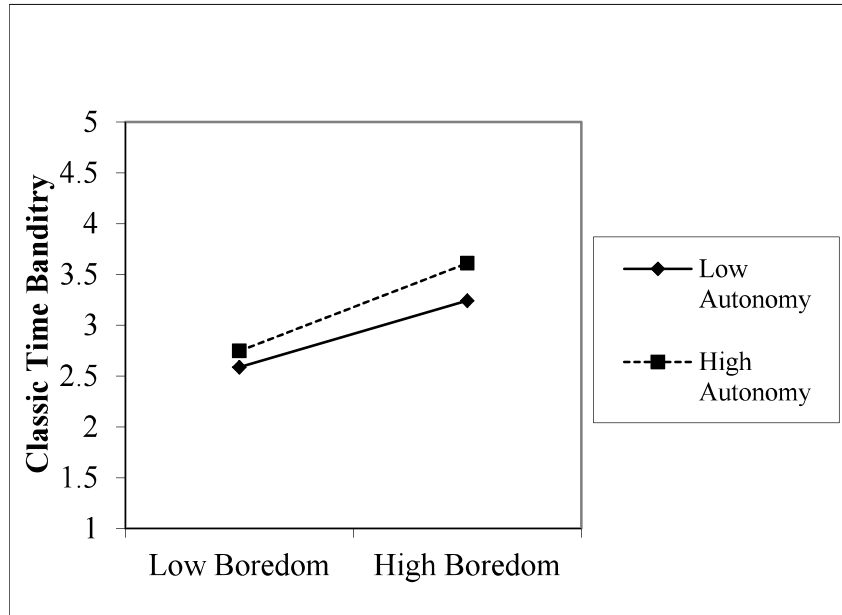
For technological time banditry, the overall model was significant, adjusted $R^2 = .11$, $F(12, 157) = 2.76$, $p = .002$. Significant predictors were burnout, $\beta = .32$, $t(157) = 1.94$, $p = .05$, and task identity, $\beta = .18$, $t(157) = 2.05$, $p = .04$.

For social time banditry, the overall model was significant, adjusted $R^2 = .06$, $F(12, 157) = 1.96$, $p = .03$. Significant predictors were job boredom, $\beta = .44$, $t(157) = 2.69$, $p = .008$, and job satisfaction, $\beta = .32$, $t(157) = 2.04$, $p = .04$.

We also examined the moderating role that autonomy might have on the relationship between boredom and time banditry. Using mean-centered predictors, we found a significant interaction between boredom and autonomy, $\beta = .26$, $t(166) = 3.8$, $p < .001$, suggesting that while higher levels of boredom

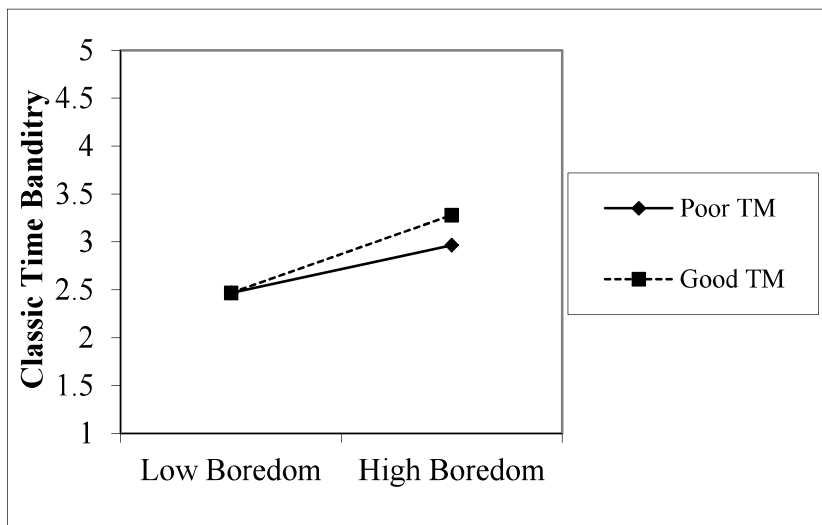
were associated with higher levels of classic time banditry, this effect was stronger when autonomy was also high (see Figure 1).

FIGURE 1
INTERACTION BETWEEN BOREDOM AND AUTONOMY



We also found a significant interaction between boredom and time management skills, $\beta = .23$, $t(168) = 3.21$, $p = .002$ (see Figure 2). Time management exhibited little relationship with time banditry in low boredom jobs, but as job boredom increased, time banditry increased more sharply among employees with better time management skills. This could be due to the better-organized approach to work of these employees; that is, perhaps having awareness of their good time management skills permitted bored employees to “safely” engage in banditry while knowing that they would still having enough time to complete their responsibilities.

FIGURE 2
INTERACTION BETWEEN BOREDOM AND TIME MANAGEMENT SKILLS



Overall, our results from Sample 1 suggested that individuals engaged in moderate levels of time banditry behaviors. We also found that both individual- and job-level variables could predict these behaviors, albeit to differing degrees.

Sample 2 Results

Correlations among the study variables, and scale reliabilities, are presented in Table 2. Similar to Sample 1, the most prevalent form of time banditry was technological time banditry ($M = 2.69$, $SD = .97$), followed by social ($M = 2.49$, $SD = .64$) and classic ($M = 1.92$, $SD = .61$). There was no relationship between age and time banditry in this sample; we also found no gender or job sector differences.

As with Sample 1, regression analyses predicting each type of time banditry type were conducted. For classic time banditry, the overall model was significant, adjusted $R^2 = .25$, $F(12, 234) = 7.77$, $p < .001$. Significant predictors were cynicism, $\beta = .26$, $t(234) = 3.98$, $p < .001$, job boredom, $\beta = .27$, $t(234) = 3.35$, $p < .001$, time management skills, $\beta = -.13$, $t(234) = -2.15$, $p = .03$, and skill variety, $\beta = .21$, $t(234) = 2.71$, $p = .007$.

For technological time banditry, the overall model was significant, adjusted $R^2 = .10$, $F(12, 234) = 3.26$, $p < .001$. Significant predictors were job boredom, $\beta = .20$, $t(234) = 2.28$, $p = .02$, and time management skills, $\beta = -.24$, $t(234) = -3.75$, $p < .001$.

For social time banditry, the overall model was significant, adjusted $R^2 = .04$, $F(12, 234) = 1.78$, $p = .05$. Significant predictors were time management skills, $\beta = -.14$, $t(234) = -2.09$, $p = .04$, and task identity, $\beta = .27$, $t(234) = 3.51$, $p = .001$.

As in Sample 1, we also examined the moderating role that autonomy, and time management skills, might have on the relationship between boredom and time banditry in Sample 2. The interactions of boredom and autonomy, $\beta = -.01$, $t(243) = -.17$, $p = .87$, and boredom and time management, $\beta = .09$, $t(243) = 1.55$, $p = .12$, on classic time banditry were not significant.

Results from Sample 2 were consistent with the results of Sample 1 in many ways. Employees in each sample reporting engaging in moderate levels of time banditry, and both individual- and job-level factors accounted for variability in each type of time banditry. However, the pattern of predictors that were able to account for time banditry in each sample exhibited some differences. Table 3 summarizes the significant predictors of each form of time banditry across the two samples.

TABLE 3
SIGNIFICANT PREDICTORS OF TIME BANDITRY

	TB Classic		TB Technology		TB Social	
	β (Sample 1)	β (Sample 2)	β (Sample 1)	β (Sample 2)	β (Sample 1)	β (Sample 2)
Cyn	.20*	.26**				
Burn			.32*			
Bored	.53**	.27**		.20*	.44**	
JS	.33*				.32*	
TM	-.18*	-.13*		-.24**		-.14*
Variety		.21**				
ID			.18*			.27**
Adj. R^2	.26	.25	.11	.10	.06	.04
F	5.94**	7.77**	2.76*	3.26**	1.96*	1.78*

Note. All variables were entered at once. Cyn = Cynicism; Burn = Burnout; Bored = Job Boredom; JS = Job Satisfaction; TM = Time Management; Variety = Skill Variety; ID = Task Identity.

* $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, two-tailed.

DISCUSSION

The primary aim of this study was to examine the prevalence of time banditry behaviors in organizations, and the capacity of several individual and job-level variables to predict employees' time banditry behaviors. As illustrated by the results of Sample 1 and 2, employees do engage in all three types of time banditry behaviors. In both samples, technological time banditry was more prevalent than the other two forms. Since most employees have internet access, either through computers or mobile devices, it is relatively easy for employees to engage in this form of time banditry. In Sample 2, people who had poor time management skills but high job autonomy were more likely to engage in technology time banditry behaviors. We postulate that it is because despite high boredom, those with good time management skills are better at allocating their time to more productive behaviors (e.g., Rapp, Bachrach, & Rapp, 2013).

In comparing individual- and job-level predictors of time banditry, the individual-level variables were found to be more predictive of time banditry behaviors. As shown in Table 3, of the seven variables which were found to be a significant predictor of one or more forms of time banditry in at least one of our samples, five of them were individual characteristics or attitudes. For classic time banditry, cynicism, job boredom, and time management were significant predictors in both samples. There was less agreement for the other two forms of time banditry, possibly due to the variability in the jobs represented in both samples.

On the other hand, only skill variety and task identity emerged as significant job-level predictors across the three forms of time banditry. This suggests that the most proximal predictors of employees engaging in time theft are individual characteristics of employees, as opposed to characteristics of the jobs they perform. Of course, it is possible that at least some of the individual characteristics measured in both studies mediate the relationship between job characteristics and time banditry, and this could be a fruitful direction for future research on time banditry.

Overall, job boredom emerged as the strongest and most consistent predictor of time banditry, predicting all three forms of time banditry in at least one of our samples. The significant interaction between boredom and autonomy in Sample 1 also highlights the importance of this variable, as we found that employees who have more freedom at work may use this power to engage in time banditry when they find themselves bored. It is possible that the reason this interaction effect was not observed in Sample 2 is that working students are more limited in the types of jobs they can perform while they continue their education. Given the lower reported skill variety ($M = 3.87$, $SD = 1.37$) and work hours in Sample 2 ($M = 26.95$, $SD = 10.7$) compared to Sample 1 ($M = 4.42$, $SD = 1.42$ for skill variety; $M = 40.5$, $SD = 7.6$ for

working hours), respondents in Sample 2 may not be representative of full-time occupations that requires more commitment to work hours, as they have more break times in a given work week than full-time employees. We also found a significant interaction between boredom and time management skills in Sample 1, wherein time management skills were related to time banditry only under conditions of high boredom. These results suggest that while higher levels of boredom are generally associated with higher levels with different types of time banditry behaviors, a variety of other factors can influence the strength of this relationship.

In addition to its consistent relationship with time banditry in this study, job boredom and job boredom proneness have been connected with a number of other CWBs, including sabotage and theft (Bruursema et al., 2011), suggesting that managers should make a point to identify and reduce boredom among their employees. van Hooff and van Hooft (2014) found that bored behavior fully mediated the relationship between job boredom and negative consequences, like depressive complaints. This suggests that, for many employees, job boredom can be a “slippery slope” that can lead to a variety of negative consequences. However, these authors also found that job crafting was an effective way to reduce boredom and its negative effects. This is encouraging, because it suggests that, if recognized, concrete steps can be taken to reduce employees’ feelings of boredom. Although job crafting may encourage some of the same job-level characteristics that we examined in this study (such as skill variety), it is unique in that it empowers employees to make changes to their work that improve their fit in the role (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012), as opposed to changes being initiated for them by management.

One surprising result from Sample 1 was the positive regression weight for job satisfaction when predicting classic and technology time banditry. Satisfaction is usually negatively correlated with CWBs (Bowling, 2010; Dalal, 2005), so this result was unexpected. However, one possible interpretation of this result relies on the generally positive relationship between satisfaction and performance (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Ng, Sorensen, & Yim, 2009). We did not measure performance in this study, but if the participants who reported higher levels of satisfaction were also above-average performers (as the performance-satisfaction relationship would suggest), it could be the case that these employees engage in time banditry as a way to reward their strong performance. Research on idiosyncratic deals (Rousseau, Ho, & Greenberg, 2006) suggests that such a strategy might be employed by some high-performing employees; thus, it is possible that high performers might see time banditry as something they are entitled to do from time to time, or even as a form of recovery, particularly if they are in roles with high levels of autonomy or are prone to boredom (perhaps by being overqualified for the job). Again, without measuring performance directly, we draw this conclusion with caution, and future research on time banditry would benefit from assessing performance in some way, as well as satisfaction, to provide more clarity on the direction of these relationships.

We suggest that research on time banditry continue. As noted throughout this paper, it is believed that this form of CWB is a growing problem in many organizations, and trends in technology use and workgroup composition in the workplace suggest that the opportunity to engage in these behaviors will continue to increase. Specifically, we encourage future researchers to examine time banditry in a variety of different organizational settings. Data collections in multiple large organizations might help clarify base rates of time banditry in different occupations and organizational settings, while also attempting to replicate the relationships between time banditry and personal and job characteristics that were the focus of this study.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors wish to thank their undergraduate research assistants for their help with this project, particularly Paige Nicklas and Nicole Schaefer.

REFERENCES

- Ahmed-Ullah, N. S. (2014, January 3). *CPS employee accused of stealing \$420,000 in fraud scheme*. Chicago Tribune. Retrieved from <http://www.chicagotribune.com>
- Andersson, L. M., & Pearson, C. M. (1999). Tit for tat? The spiraling effect of incivility in the workplace. *Academy of Management Review*, 24, 452-471.
- Bowling, N. A. (2010). Effects of job satisfaction and conscientiousness on extra-role behaviors. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25, 119-130.
- Brock Baskin, M. E., McKee, V., & Buckley, M. R. (2017). Time banditry and impression management behavior: Prediction and profiling of time bandit types. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 24, 39-54.
- Brock, M. E., Martin, L. E., & Buckley, M. R. (2013). Time theft in organizations: The development of the time banditry questionnaire. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 21, 309-321.
- Bruursema, K., Kessler, S. R., & Spector, P. E. (2011). Bored employees misbehaving: The relationship between boredom and counterproductive work behaviour. *Work & Stress*, 25, 93-107.
- Claessens, B. J., Van Eerde, W., Rutte, C. G., & Roe, R. A. (2007). A review of the time management literature. *Personnel Review*, 36, 255-276.
- Dalal, R. S. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 1241-1255.
- Eastwood, J. D., Frischen, A., Fenske, M. J., & Smilek, D. (2012). The unengaged mind: Defining boredom in terms of attention. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 7(5), 482-495.
- Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (2006). The many roles of control in a stressor-emotion theory of counterproductive work behavior. In P. L. Perrewe & D. C. Ganster (Eds.), *Research in occupational stress and well being* (pp. 171–201). Oxford.
- Gruys, M. L., & Sackett, P. R. (2003). Investigating the dimensionality of counterproductive work behavior. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 11, 30-42.
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1975). Development of the Job Diagnostic Survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60, 159-170.
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 16, 250-279.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44, 513-524.
- Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Bono, J. E., & Patton, G. K. (2001). The job satisfaction–job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 127, 376-407.
- Ketchen, D. J., Craighead, C. W., & Buckley, M. R. (2008). Time bandits: How they are created, why they are tolerated, and what can be done about them. *Business Horizons*, 51, 141-149.
- Klotz, A. C., & Buckley, M. R. (2013). A historical perspective of counterproductive work behavior targeting the organization. *Journal of Management History*, 19, 114-132.
- Lim, V. K. G. (2002). The IT way of loafing on the job: Cyberloafing, neutralizing and organizational justice. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23, 675-694.
- Martin, L. E., Brock, M. E., Buckley, M. R., & Ketchen, D. J. (2010). Time banditry: Examining the purloining of time in organizations. *Human Resource Management Review*, 20, 26-34.
- Needleman, S. E. (2010, August 10). When violence strikes the workplace. *The Wall Street Journal*. Retrieved from <http://www.wsj.com>
- Ng, T. W., Sorensen, K. L., & Yim, F. H. (2009). Does the job satisfaction—job performance relationship vary across cultures? *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 40, 761-796.
- Rapp, A. A., Bachrach, D. G., & Rapp, T. L. (2013). The influence of time management skill on the curvilinear relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and task performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(4), 668-677.
- Robinson S. L., & Bennett R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 555–752.

- Rousseau, D. M., Ho, V. T., & Greenberg, J. (2006). I-deals: Idiosyncratic terms in employment relationships. *Academy of Management Review*, 31(4), 977-994.
- Sackett, P. R. (2002). The structure of counterproductive work behaviors: Dimensionality and relationships with facets of job performance. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 10, 5-11.
- Sackett, P. R., & DeVore, C. J. (2001). Counterproductive behaviors at work. In N. Anderson (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial, work, and organizational psychology* (Vol. 1: Personnel psychology, pp. 145-187). SAGE.
- Tims, M., Bakker, A. B., & Derks, D. (2012). Development and validation of the job crafting scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80, 173-186.
- van Hooff, M. L., & van Hooft, E. A. (2014). Boredom at work: Proximal and distal consequences of affective work-related boredom. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 19, 348-359.

APPENDIX

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS, CORRELATIONS, AND SCALE RELIABILITIES FOR SAMPLE 1

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1 TBC	2.01	.64	(.91)														
2 TBT	2.79	.92	.51	(.87)													
3 TBS	2.41	.70	.69	.62	(.70)												
4 Burn	2.34	.58	.37	.29	.13	(.92)											
5 Cyn	2.79	.50	.39	.23	.19	.55	(.63)										
6 Bore	3.30	1.31	.45	.28	.18	.85	.56	(.96)									
7 JS	3.48	1.19	-.29	-.19	-.04	-.84	-.52	-.81	(.95)								
8 Eng	3.25	1.16	-.36	-.21	-.06	-.81	-.50	-.81	.80	(.95)							
9 TM	3.77	.74	-.30	-.15	-.05	-.23	-.23	-.27	.27	.35	(.88)						
10 Auto	4.91	1.33	-.22	-.06	.02	-.58	-.42	-.58	.58	.25	.25	(.76)					
11 ID	4.77	1.26	-.12	.05	.01	-.32	-.26	-.38	.30	.34	.23	.48	(.55)				
12 Var	4.42	1.37	-.14	-.04	.06	-.46	-.32	-.51	.45	.54	.15	.56	.29	(.68)			
13 Sig	4.68	1.47	-.25	-.06	.00	-.50	-.37	-.53	.52	.54	.29	.55	.33	.54	(.77)		
14 FO	4.52	1.32	-.28	-.21	-.09	-.48	-.51	-.52	.45	.51	.26	.43	.29	.38	.41	(.67)	
15 FJ	4.79	1.21	-.27	-.16	-.1	-.36	-.38	-.45	.34	.36	.20	.40	.30	.40	.35	.53	(.57)

Note. N = 170. Coefficient alpha reliabilities are in parenthesis on diagonal. TBC = Time Banditry Classic; TBT = Time Banditry Tech; TBS = Time Banditry Social; Burn = Burnout; Cyn = Cynicism; Bore = Job Boredom; JS = Job Satisfaction; Eng = Engagement; TM = Time Management; Auto = Autonomy; ID = Task Identity; Var = Skill Variety; Sig = Task Significance; FO = Feedback from Others; FJ = Feedback from the Job. Correlation coefficients $|r| \geq .16$ are significant ($p \leq .05$).

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS, CORRELATIONS, AND SCALE RELIABILITIES FOR SAMPLE 2

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1 TBC	1.92	.61	(.87)														
2 TBT	2.69	.97	.46	(.84)													
3 TBS	2.49	.64	.50	.53	(.50)												
4 Burn	2.40	.45	.35	.14	.06	(.85)											
5 Cyn	2.41	.86	.39	.10	.09	.43	(.90)										
6 Bore	3.38	.99	.41	.19	.08	.68	.39	(.88)									
7 JS	3.86	.92	-.35	-.10	-.05	-.67	-.44	-.56	(.88)								
8 Eng	3.48	1.18	-.31	-.20	-.05	-.69	-.32	-.55	.58	(.93)							
9 TM	3.95	.74	-.19	-.27	-.11	-.14	-.07	-.07	.06	.21	(.86)						
10 Auto	4.69	1.40	-.18	-.06	.02	-.47	-.28	-.41	.26	.49	.09	(.75)					
11 ID	4.92	1.37	-.16	-.04	.17	-.36	-.23	-.30	.27	.39	.21	.41	(.71)				
12 Var	3.87	1.42	-.08	-.02	.04	-.42	-.31	-.36	.36	.53	.00	.44	.35	(.67)			
13 Sig	4.71	1.51	-.16	.00	.00	-.44	-.25	-.33	.41	.48	.07	.42	.40	.60	(.73)		
14 FO	4.86	1.54	-.21	-.14	-.01	-.38	-.36	-.22	.43	.33	.14	.25	.28	.14	.21	(.84)	
15 FJ	4.77	1.31	-.24	-.17	.02	-.32	-.29	-.27	.30	.38	.18	.36	.47	.27	.24	.45	(.69)

Note. N = 247. Coefficient alpha reliabilities are in parenthesis on diagonal. TBC = Time Banditry Classic; TBT = Time Banditry Tech; TBS = Time Banditry Social; Burn = Burnout; Cyn = Cynicism; Bore = Job Boredom; JS = Job Satisfaction; Eng = Engagement; TM = Time Management; Auto = Autonomy; ID = Task Identity; Var = Skill Variety; Sig = Task Significance; FO = Feedback from Others; FJ = Feedback from the Job. Correlation coefficients $|r| \geq .14$ are significant ($p \leq .05$).