An Analysis of Factors Affected on Employees' Counterproductive Work Behavior: The Moderating Role of Job Burnout and Engagement

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Abstract: This research has been done with the purpose of investigating the effect of personality factors (conscientiousness, trait anger), job factors (skill variety, feedback) and organizational factors (distributive justice, organizational constraints) on employees’ counterproductive work behavior (CWB) and the moderating role of job burnout and work engagement. To do this research, some 185 individuals working in an Iranian Gas Transmission Operational Area have been randomly selected and the questionnaire has been filled out by them. The research model has been measured and performed by using structural equation modeling (SEM) analyses. The results of SEM showed that employees’ CWB have been strictly based on their job burnout. On the other hand, employees’ job burnout has been influenced by several elements such as skill variety, trait anger and organizational factors. Moreover, the research has shown that the employees’ engagement has not been affecting their counterproductive behavior; rather it is affected by their skills variety and conscientiousness. But, we found that there is no meaningful relationship among trait anger, distributive justice and organizational constraints with the employees’ engagement.

Keywords: Counterproductive Work Behavior; Job Burnout; Work Engagement; Trait Anger; Organizational Constraints

1. Introduction

The complex and highly competitive conditions of the work environment in the companies or manufacturing and service organizations have made them try to optimize their productivity, efficiency and effectiveness and survive their limited and worthwhile resources. It is clear that the basic and most important sources in every organization are the human resources (Ivancevich, 2010). These resources affect other sources in the organization, so paying attention to them means evaluating other important items at workplaces. For years, research in industrial/organizational psychology has focused on identifying relationships between individual characteristics (e.g., attitudes, beliefs, abilities, skills, past experiences, and personality traits) and desirable workplace behaviors (e.g., motivation, pro-social behavior, and productivity). While it is important to know the factors that contribute to a successful working relationship between an individual and an organization, it is also important to understand the factors that may contribute to undesirable behaviors, such as counterproductive work behavior, also referred to as workplace deviance (Monnastes, 2010).

The importance of discretionary behaviors (counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior) has increased so high. These are because of many factors. Researchers have shown that the interpersonal relationships among the employees guaranty the organization health. So, developing healthy relationships by reducing counterproductive work behaviors and increasing the organizational citizenship behaviors lead to the organizational health (Koys, 2001). Discretionary behaviors are located out of the job description, but nevertheless, they’ve got crucial effects on the organization and its employees. The increasing effects of discretionary behaviors on the organizational and individual performance caused many researchers to search for their predictions.

To Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, and Kessler (2006), the counterproductive behaviors are a set of distinct acts that share the characteristics that they are volitional (as opposed to accidental or mandated) and harm or intend to harm organizations and/or organization stakeholders, such as clients, coworkers, customers, and supervisors. In fact, counterproductive behaviors are threats that are highly costly and dangerous for organizations for ever. Vardi and Weitz (2004) announced that discretionary behaviors have got two main costs: financial costs (such as productivity loss, lawsuits and compensation, reputation) and social costs (such as mental and physical injuries, psychological withdrawal, Job dissatisfaction). Despite the costs and prevalence of counterproductive behaviors in organizations, the information related to deviance in workplace is limited. So, the abnormal nature of
these behaviors studying and identifying their predictions make crucial.

Regarding the above mentioned cases, this research has been done to identify and classify these items among the employees. In the case of the counterproductive behaviors and their effective factors, researchers tend to pay attention to the perceptions of workplace or personal factors separately. But, as Sackett and DeVore (2001) pointed out if we mean to get a deep concept of this case, we should keep a balance between these two items. Some recent researchers have paid attention to this fact (such as Henle; 2005 and O’Boyle Jr.; 2010). In this respect, three factors are effective on the occurrence of the counterproductive work behaviors: personality, job and organizational. Getting a balance among these factors makes up positive attitudes to job and organization among employees and develops ethical human resources. So, it’s crucial to identify the counterproductive behaviors. In this way, we can control their effective factors and strengthen organizational citizenship behaviors and increase the organization’s efficiency and effectiveness. Identifying the factors which cause behaviors that destroy physical sources, human assets and organization’s performance help the managers to avoid employees from these behaviors.

2. What is Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)?

Counterproductive work behaviors are “a collection of deliberate behaviors that harm the organization or its members” (O’Boyle Jr., 2010). Chang and Smithikrai (2010) describe CWB as “voluntary or intentional behavior that acts against the interests of the organization”. Gruys and Sackett (2003) regard these behaviors as the ones which are intentional on the part of an organization member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interests. CWBs have been described as deviance (Robinson, and Bennett, 1995), antisocial behaviors (Giacalone, Riordan, and Rosenfeld, 1997), unruiness (Hunt, 1996), destructive and hazardous behaviors (Murphy, 1993) and have been shown to be pervasive and costly both to organizations and to employees’ well-being (Chang, and Smithikrai, 2010).

Deviance is a specific form of counterproductive behavior in workplace. Bennett and Robinson (2000) have classified deviance into two forms: organizational (harming one’s organization) and interpersonal (harming individuals within one’s organization). Examples of the latter, interpersonal deviance include ignoring someone’s comment or playing a mean prank on someone. But organizational deviance can include increased tardiness, increased absenteeism, and decline in employee engagement, amongst a myriad of other consequences, all of which ultimately affect profitability (Bunk, Karabin, and Lear, 2011).

2.1. Five Dimensions of CWB

Spector et al. (2006) have classified CWBs into five main dimensions and have explained each dimension:

1) Abuse: It consists of harmful behaviors directed toward coworkers and others that harm either physically or psychologically through making threats, nasty comments, ignoring the person, or undermining the person’s ability to work effectively.

2) Production Deviance: It is the purposeful failure to perform job tasks effectively the way they are supposed to be performed.

3) Sabotage: It is defacing or destroying physical property belonging to the employer; intentional wasting of the materials in the organization and Purposely dirtied or littered the place of work.

4) Theft: Stole something belonging to your employer, delaying the duties to get extra-time salary.

5) Withdrawal: It is consists of behaviors that restrict the amount of time working to less than is required by the organization. It includes absence, arriving late or leaving early, and taking longer breaks than authorized.

As for prevalence of using drugs by employees in organizations, we added another dimension as “drugs use” to Spector et al.’s model. This means using drugs that consuming or even bringing them to organization are prohibited.

3. Job Burnout and Work Engagement

The concept of “Job Burnout” was first introduced by Freudenberger in 1970s. The experts have offered many different definitions for job burnout. Maslach (1982) defined burnout as “a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do ‘people work’ of some kind”. As noted in Maslach’s (1982) definition, burnout is a psychological syndrome consisting of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment (reduced efficacy) that can occur among individuals who work with people in some capacity. Emotional exhaustion refers to feelings of being emotionally overextended and drained by one's contact with other people. Depersonalization refers to an unfeeling and callous response toward these people, who are usually the recipients of one's service or care. Reduced personal accomplishment refers to a decline in one's feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work with people. This definition of burnout, which
is now being used widely in ongoing research, was not based on a theoretical model but was derived empirically (Halbesleben, and Buckley, 2004).

Most researches have shown that job burnout is a slight withdrawal from the organization because the unsuitable behaviors. So, in most cases, job burnout is related to different kinds of negative reactions such as job dissatisfaction, low organization commitment, absenteeism and the willingness of turnover. Some studies have showed that nurses experiencing higher levels of burnout were judged independently by their patients to be providing a lower level of patient care that nurses that experience high levels of burnout take lower attention to their patients, while another study on police officers showed a link between burnout and the use of violence against civilians (Maslach, and Leiter, 2008).

With regard to CWB, perceptions of injustice and organizational constraints lead to increased burnout levels and this burnout causes both passive and active CWB against the organization and its members. We propose that burnout plays an important role in the prediction of discretionary behaviors and provides a process by which personality traits and job and organizational characteristics lead to CWB.

**Hypothesis 1**: Job burnout is positively related to employees’ CWB.

On the other hand, Kahn first put forward the concept of “personal engagement” in 1990. He defined personal engagement as “harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and assert themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performance”. But to Kahn (1990), personal disengagement is related to uncoupling of selves from work roles; in disengagement, people withdraw and defend themselves physically, cognitively, or emotionally during role performance (Saks, 2006).

To Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova (2006), Work engagement is defined as “a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption”. Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties. Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one’s work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Finally, absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work.

Although there has been no empirical research done on the link between engagement and CWB, Saks (2006) through measuring engagement has found an important direct relationship between both kinds of OCB - organizational citizenship behavior directed to the individual (OCBI) and organization (OCBO) - and CWB.

**Hypothesis 2**: Work engagement is negatively related to employees’ CWB.

4. Personality Characteristics

Individual differences such as personality make up the core of many organizational studies, because there are strong relationships among these differences and organization results such as job performance, willingness of turnover and job satisfaction. Among these personality characteristics, which affect employees’ behaviors, are conscientiousness and trait anger which have been paid attention to by many researchers.

4.1. Conscientiousness

To Chang and Smithikrai (2010), conscientiousness means socially prescribed impulse control that facilitates task and goal directed behavior, such as thinking before acting, delaying gratification, following norms and rules, and planning, organizing and prioritizing tasks. Neff (2009) believes that conscientious people are more likely to comply with work policies, tend to follow the rules and should be more likely to respond negatively to witnessing a coworker’s CWB.

Many researches specially focused on conscientiousness (such as Jacobson, 2009; O’Boyle Jr., 2010); because conscientiousness shows the whole willingness to work hard and be responsible and reliable. To O’Boyle Jr. (2010), conscientiousness does not cause people to act in a more pro-social way, rather conscientiousness positively relates to engagement and engaged employees are more likely act pro-socially. Likewise, conscientiousness negatively relates to burnout and burnout is the causal process of individuals acting in an antisocial way.

**Hypothesis 1-3**: Conscientiousness is negatively related to employees’ job burnout.

**Hypothesis 1-3**: Conscientiousness is positively related to employees’ work engagement.

4.2. Trait Anger

Trait anger is a strong negative emotional state that may instigate aggressive behavior. The employees who report higher levels of trait anger are less likely to believe that they have been treated with dignity and respect by their supervisors and more likely to feel betrayed by their employers than employees who report lower levels of trait anger (Douglas, and Martiniko, 2001). To O’Boyle Jr. (2010), trait anger is not by itself causing employees to do CWB. He believes that emotional processes (burnout and engagement) do so. In fact, anger
individuals high in trait anger feel negative emotions (specifically anger) at work more often than those with low trait anger.

There are theoretical reasons we propose relations between trait anger and burnout and engagement. Kwak (2006) divided burnout into its components and found significant relations between trait anger and all three components of burnout. Beside, a key component of work engagement is the total concentration in one’s work (absorption). However, increased trait anger is associated with loss of concentration. High anger workers having difficulty concentrating have reduced absorption levels and ultimately reduced engagement levels. Engagement also possesses a vigor component that refers to the excitement and willingness to engage in new unfamiliar tasks and see challenges as opportunities. High anger individuals see challenges as threats and respond to these threats with anger. The components of engagement should correlate negatively with trait anger (O’Boyle Jr., 2010).

Hypothesis 3-3: Trait anger is positively related to employees’ job burnout.

Hypothesis 4-3: Trait anger is negatively related to employees’ work engagement.

5. Job Factors

5.1. Skill Variety

One of the basic job factors which affect the first state and meaningful of work is the skill variety. Skill variety means using different skills and talents and performing a variety of activities. Actually variety of employees’ tasks and responsibilities causes them to use different skills as they do their tasks. These varieties and different skills cause positive attitudes to work and reduce the feeling of tedium and exhaustion.

Hypothesis 1-4: Skill variety is negatively related to employees’ job burnout.

Different surveys have been showed that skill variety effect on emotions of individual using different skills and these positive emotions make up extra energy among the people, and eventually inspire work engagement.

Hypothesis 2-4: Skill variety is positively related to employees’ work engagement.

5.2. Feedback

Feedback is defined as actions taken by an employee’s supervisor to provide information regarding task performance (Belschak, and Den Hartog, 2009). It means that the information is directly and clearly has been disposal to person from the results of the work. Feedback is an activity that during of it supervisor enclose information about task performance with employee. It helps to increase employees’ learning and knowledge of results. Nevertheless, to Belschak and Den Hartog (2009), performance feedback does not only elicit cognitive reactions. It also elicits emotional reactions. The broader literature on emotions suggests that providing positive feedback will generally lead to positive emotions, such as pride and happiness, whereas negative feedback will generally result in negative emotions, such as disappointment or guilt.

Hypothesis 3-4: Feedback is negatively related to employees’ job burnout.

In terms of social exchange theory (SET), when employees receive rewards and recognition from their organization, they will feel obliged to respond with higher levels of engagement (Saks, 2006). To Bakker and Geurts (2004), performance feedback on performance at work increased, especially, experiences of absorption (or flow) at work the experience of job attraction. Similarly, Bakker (2005) has shown that four specific job resources, i.e., social support at work, supervisory coaching, job autonomy, and performance feedback at work, were associated with high experiences of flow. Also, a study conducted among Finnish dentists (71% women) indicated that various features of job content, such as job autonomy, the possibility to use one’s skills at work and challenges at work as well as feedback on performance, were positively associated with work engagement (Mauno, Kinnunen, and Ruokolainen, 2007).

Hypothesis 4-4: Feedback is positively related to employees’ work engagement.

6. Organizational Factors

6.1. Distributive Justice

The study of fairness in management commenced with Adams’ (1965) work on equity theory, which emphasize the perceived fairness of outcomes (i.e., distributive fairness). Distributive justice refers to people’s perceptions of the fairness of the outcomes they receive relative to their contributions and to the outcomes and contributions of others (Chang, and Smithikrai, 2010). Employees tend to compare their outcomes (e.g. pay, raises, and promotions) to inputs (e.g. skills, training, education, and effort). When they perceive that they get similar outcomes for similar inputs in comparison with co-workers, equity is experienced. If there is a discrepancy between them and co-workers, employees will experience inequity. Payment inequity arises when the rewards employees receive, relative to the work they are doing, are seen to be less that they should be. Intending to restore their sense of equity, employees will revert to deviant behaviors (Rogojan, 2009). In general, employees who perceive organizational processes as more fair are less likely to
engage in retaliatory behaviors (Gallagher, 2009).

Despite existence of meaningful relation between justice percept and CWB, we have experienced little attention to the process that justice percept lead to CWB. However, Greenberg (2004) indicates that injustice as a stressor that provokes emotion and the saliency of the injustice is in direct proportion to the emotion felt. Therefore, these stressors collect and over time create burnout. However, each form of justice may contribute uniquely to burnout. Taris, Peeters, Le Blanc, Schreurs, and Schaufeli (2001), found a moderate relation between inequity and the experience of employee burnout among a large sample of teachers. In this study, all three dimensions of job burnout were highly related to injustice. On the other hand, Fox et al. (2001), found evidences of distributive justice causing negative emotions and finally leads to CWB (O’Boyle Jr., 2010).

Hypothesis 1-5: Distributive justice is negatively related to employees’ job burnout.

The effect of perceptions of justice on different behaviors can, to some extent, be based on the employee’s engagement. In other words, as the employees have high perceptions of justice in their workplaces, they feel commitment and devote themselves more to their roles with high levels of engagement. But, low perceptions of justice may cause the employees withdraw and assert themselves from work roles. Saks (2006), found a direct and meaningful relationship between engagement and distributive justice.

Hypothesis 2-5: Distributive justice is positively related to employees’ work engagement.

6.2. Organizational Constraints

Organizational constraints are conditions at work that interfere with performing job tasks. These constraints are such as inadequate information, materials and supplies, tools and equipment, and task preparation (Spector, and Fox, 2010). Organizational constraints create feelings of frustration and animosity towards the organization. These negative emotions and cognitions decrease incentive and performance. Frustration leads to aggression but more constraints increase feeling of burnout and eventually lead to employee indicates absurd behaviors (O’Boyle Jr., 2010). Best, Stapleton, and Downey (2005), found that organizational constraints have a direct relationship to job burnout.

Hypothesis 3-5: Organizational constraints are positively related to employees’ job burnout.

On the other hand, Sonnetag (2003) surveyed the workplace constraints that influence the levels of employees’ engagement. His study showed that organizational constraints are one of the best tools to predict engagement.

Hypothesis 4-5: Organizational constraints are negatively related to employees’ work engagement.

7. Conceptual Model of Research

The following will proceed to represent a conceptual model of research taking into account the provided issues in introducing the affected factors on counterproductive work behavior (Figure 1).

7. Material and Methods

7.1. Sample

Our statistical society is men and women employees in Iranian Second Gas Transmission Operational Area. They are some 622 people. As questions were of multi values and distant scale ones, and since the society was a limited one, we have used Cochran formula to determine the sample volume. First, 30 questionnaires were distributed among the employees. They were gathered then. After that, the standard deviation was measured and the volume of sample was identified. Finally, using the formula, with the 95% certainty, we measured the sample of 185 people in the case.

7.2. Measures

This study is a descriptive-survey research of field branch. Data were collected by some questions based on several questionnaires.

CWB. We measured counterproductive work behaviors using the CWB Checklist developed by Spector et al. (2006). The objective was to include behaviors that represented the 5 categories of CWB that have been empirically validated by them. The scale consists of 20 items covering the five aspects of CWB; abuse, production deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal. The reliability of the total scale was .97. For this survey, the instructions asked the employees to “indicate how much see the following...
behaviors in your organization” with a scale using a Likert scale ranging from ‘1 = very little’ to ‘5 = very much’. Sample items included: “Taken a longer break than you were allowed to take,” “Littered the work environment,” and, “Ignored someone at work”.

**Job Burnout.** Burnout was measured with the Maslach Burnout Inventory General Survey (MBI-GS). The scale consists of 12 items covering the three aspects of burnout; emotional exhaustion (α = .85), depersonalization (cynicism) (α = .82), and reduced efficacy (α = .79) with four items each. The reliability of the total scale was .83. Participants answered the items on a Likert scale ranging from ‘1 = very little’ to ‘5 = very much’. Sample items from the three dimensions are, “I find it hard to relax after a day’s work,” “I doubt the significance of my work,” and “In my opinion, I’m inefficient in my job,” respectively.

**Work Engagement.** We measured work engagement with Schaufeli et al.’s (2002) 17 item Utrecht Work Enthusiasm Scale (UWES). We used the overall composite work engagement scale including all items. These items cover three dimensions of work engagement; absorption (α = .88), dedication (α = .92), and vigor (α = .89). The cronbach’s alpha for this scale has been reported at .82. Participants answered the items on the UWES with a 5-point frequency rating scale, ranging from ‘1 = very little’ to ‘5 = very much’. Sample items from the three dimensions are, “I feel happy when I am working intensely,” “My job inspires me,” and, “At my job, I am very resilient, mentally,” respectively.

**Personality Characteristics.** First variable (conscientiousness) was measured using the 5-item scale. Participants indicate their agreement on a 1 (very little) to 5 (very much) Likert scale. Sample items include, “I am a reliable employee”. The cronbach's alpha was .79. To measure trait anger, we used the State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory-Version 2 (STAXI-2; Spielberger, 1994). Cronbach’s alpha for this scale has been reported at .76. This measure utilized a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from very little (1) to very much (5). Sample items include, “I am quick-tempered”.

**Job Factors.** We included two scales from the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman and Oldham, 1980), feedback and skill variety. Skill variety (α = .74) contains five items (i.e., I get to use a number of complex skills on this job) and the feedback scale (α = .73) contains six items (i.e., my job gives me considerable freedom in doing the work.).

**Organizational Factors.** The distributive justice measures were taken from Colquitt (2001). It is consist of four items scales. The reliability of the scale was .88. Organizational constraints were measured with the Organizational Constraints Scale (OCS; Spector and Jex, 1998) which is based on Peters and O’Connor (1980) taxonomy. This eleven item scale has participants report the frequency that various constraints interfere with their ability to do their job on a 1 to 5 Likert scale ranging from ‘1 = very little’ to ‘5 = very much’. The cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .77. A sample item is “I find it difficult or impossible to do my job because of poor equipment or supplies”.

7.3. Data Analysis
In this study we have used descriptive statistics such as frequency distribution table and SPSS software to describe the demographic variables. We have used confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling in AMOS software to estimate and test the research model. And, we have investigated the study hypotheses with the use of efficiencies resulted from the test model.

8. Results
8.1. Descriptive Statistics
Based on the demographic variables, abundances and frequencies of participants are shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sex</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>72.97%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>27.03%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 or less</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>17.30%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 to 39</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>27.57%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 to 49</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>31.35%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 to 59</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>21.08%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 or more</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>02.70%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marriage</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>21.08%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>78.92%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>34.60%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate degree</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>19.46%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.S.</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>32.43%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.S. or more</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>13.51%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Background</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 years or less</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>17.84%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 to 9 years</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>21.08%</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10 to 14 years</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>21.08%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 to 19 years</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>12.97%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 years or more</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>27.03%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.2. Measurement Models
The existence of different parts in model causes the researchers stay on track to test all measurement models before estimating the whole research model. So, every one of the models (on the whole there are nine one-factor models) have been estimated through confirmatory factor analysis. For the apparent variables in the research (such as conscientiousness, trait anger, skill variety, feedback, distributive justice and organizational constraints), the level of significant (P-value) of questions regarding the
variables were surveyed. Based on the results taken from the factor analysis were been adjusted all measurement models, as a question about skill variety (“The demands of my job are highly routine and predictable”), a question about feedback (“Just doing the work provides me with opportunities to figure out how well I am doing”), and a question about organizational constraints (“I find it difficult or impossible to do my job because of inadequate training”) deleted from the questionnaires.

After it, the differences which were be made, turned over to the primary research model. In this part, to estimate the primary model, three categories of fit indices (absolute fit indices (CMIN), comparative fit indices (TLI, CFI) and parsimonious fit indices (PNFI, PCFI, RMESA, and CMIN/DF)) have been evaluated. The values related to these indices are showed in Table 2.

Table 2. Fit indices for primary model (n=185 participants)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>PNFI</th>
<th>PCFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>293.568</td>
<td>2.349</td>
<td>.855</td>
<td>.882</td>
<td>.665</td>
<td>.720</td>
<td>.109</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for Table 1:

Although the differences of values regarding chi-square (CMIN) of research model (293.568) and independent model (1577.782) were very high, with the meaningful value of chi-square for research model (P=.000<.05), we can infer that the model which has been assigned has got to be improved. It is not acceptable.

Regarding the comparative fit indices (TLI and CFI) low values, which are lower than .9, the whole research model is not acceptable. It needs to be improved.

Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is gotten .11. So, the research model is not acceptable (RMSEA>.1) (Ghasemi, 1389).

Consequently, the final research model has illustrated Figure 2, after its corrections. The fit indices of the final model are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3. Fit indices for final model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>PNFI</th>
<th>PCFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>207.781</td>
<td>1.906</td>
<td>.912</td>
<td>.929</td>
<td>.693</td>
<td>.745</td>
<td>.089</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is apparent in Table 3, the value of chi-square (CMIN) of the final model compared the primary model (Table 1) significantly decreased. Although the value is a lot far from zero, regarding relative value of comparative chi-square (CMIN/DF = 1.906), the final model is acceptable. The Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI) for the final model are values more than .9. RMSEA has got less than .1 and Parsimonious Normed Fit Indices (PNFI) and Parsimonious Comparative Fit Indices (PCFI) have the values more than .5 (Ghasemi, 1389). So, regarding these values in the final research model, we can accept research model as the statistics society.

8.3. Test of Hypotheses

Standardized direct effects of variables are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Standardized direct effects of variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Task Ager</th>
<th>Distributive Justice</th>
<th>Injustice</th>
<th>Organizational Constraints</th>
<th>Skill Variety</th>
<th>Job Burnout</th>
<th>Conscientiousness</th>
<th>CWB</th>
<th>Work Engagement</th>
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9. Discussions

The final model resulted from the research conceptual model is shown in Figure 2. As it is apparent in this model, conscientiousness is not effective on employees’ job burnout. Based on the final research model, there is a direct effect of conscientiousness on depersonalization dimension of job burnout. This finding is the same as O’Boyle Jr.’s (2010), but is different from Witt, Andrews, and Carlson (2004), Zopiti, Constanti, and Pavlou (2010), and Kim, Shin, and Swanger’s (2009).

On the other hand, the effect of conscientiousness on work engagement is significantly positive. This finding is exactly the same as O’Boyle Jr.’s (2010), and Kim et al.’s (2009). The positive relationship between conscientiousness and work engagement shows the fact that we can develop engagement by increasing conscientiousness. The quality of such a case depends on tendency of conscientious people to do task better in organization. In fact, we can shape or form people inside personalities, and therefore, make them pay attention...
to their responsibilities. In this way, increasing conscientiousness leads to developing their commitment. Therefore, they feel energy, ardency, positive incentive, and engagement to their job and organization.

Trait anger doesn’t affect directly and significant on work engagement. This finding is the same as O’Boyle Jr. (2010). Based on the findings in this study, this variable has a direct and negative effect on vigor dimension of work engagement. This negative effect shows that individuals with higher trait anger have a low rate of vigor for work than individuals with lower trait anger. Vigor means the psychological flexibilities against the challenges at work. The people with a high rate of trait anger have less flexibility, because they look at these challenges as threats. So, we can confirm that as the organization employees have high degree of trait anger, they will represent less vigor and energy at work.

On the other hand, the direct effect of trait anger on burnout is positive. In O’Boyle Jr. research (2010), we also find the fact that this variable is effective on burnout. Also, based on Kwak’s study (2006), trait anger has had a relationship with burnout and all three dimensions of it. This shows that, in the long-run, we will have burnout increased repeatedly. The quality of this effect is related to remember unpleasant events in organization and form negative attitudes and emotions toward organization and working at it. In fact, with happening unpleasant events in organization, negative attitudes and emotions toward organization and its members change in individuals and they will feel emotional exhaustion, and over time, burnout will be created.

Based on the research final model, feedback has no effect on job burnout. This finding is not the same as Demerouti et al. (2001), and O’Boyle Jr.’s (2010) findings. On the other hand, the results taken from this research show that feedback is not effective on work engagement. This is the same as O’Boyle Jr.’s (2010) findings but is different from Mauo et al. (2007), Bakker and Geutrs (2004), and Bakker’s (2005).

The effect of skill variety on job burnout is negative, but on work engagement and dedication dimension of it is positive. This finding for burnout is different from O’Boyle Jr.’s (2010) findings but for engagement is the same as his findings. So, we can claim that the increase variety in tasks and responsibilities causes employee’s engagement and reduction of job burnout. The quality of the case depends on the development of individuals’ perception of tasks in organization. Developing individuals’ perception of tasks causes they understand the worth of their roles and activities better and thus, their engagement to work and organization will improve.

The effect of distributive justice on job burnout is negative. This finding is different from O’Boyle Jr.’s (2010), but is the same as Greenberg (2004), and Taris et al.’s (2001) claims. The quality of this effect is related to form the positive emotion in employee because of equity in organization. As a matter of fact, with the feeling of injustice in organization, injustice in reward specially, individuals face with tensions and stress. These stressors are gathered and over time

![Figure 2. Research final model](http://www.jofamericanscience.org)
burnout will be created. Beside, based on the findings, this justice has no effect on work engagement, but, has an effect on dedication dimension of it. These findings are different from O’Boyle Jr. (2010), and Saks’s (2006) findings.

The effect of organizational constraints on burnout is positive and considerable, which is the same as O’Boyle Jr. (2010), and Best et al.’s (2005) findings. The quality of this effect is related to the employees’ stimulation. In fact, we can define that increase at work places causes the employees hopelessness, indifference, and frustration. In the end, the employees perform special behaviors, such as getting away from their tasks and emotional exhaustion and burnout. On the other hand, there is no relationship between organizational constraints and work engagement. It is different from Sonnetag’s (2003) claim.

As it is noticeable in the final model, work engagement has no effect on CWB, but it is completely effective on theft and drugs use dimensions of CWB. On the other hand, job burnout has got positive significant effect on CWB. These findings are exactly the same as O’Boyle Jr.’s (2010). The positive effect of burnout on CWB indicates that increasing the individual’s burnout causes his or her wrong attitudes or behaviors. The efficacies are different in people and they are depending on people’s emotions. In fact, people think that their organization is the suitable place to show these counterproductive behaviors.

On the whole, we had some limitations in this study. Since an organization is directly affected by the customs in every country, we can’t generalize the findings to other places. On the other hand, there was no possibility to use the managers’ ideas in this respect. Also, because of impossibility of using more questions in study questionnaire, it was not possible to investigate more organizational, job and personality variables.

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