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Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to examine abusive supervision and public service motivation (PSM) as antecedents of deviant workplace behaviours.

Design/methodology/approach – The study was conducted in a cross-sectional research design with survey data from 150 employees in the public, private and non-profit sector in Germany and the USA.

Findings – Abusive supervision is positively associated with employee deviance, whereas PSM is negatively related to deviant behaviours. The employment sector moderates the negative relationship between PSM and employee deviance such that this relationship is stronger in the public and non-profit sector.

Research limitations/implications – Limitations arise from the convenience sampling approach and the cross-sectional nature of the dataset.

Practical implications – Human resource managers should consider behavioural integrity in the attraction, selection and training of both supervisors and subordinates. Private organisations can address the needs of strongly public service motivated employees by integrating associated goals and values into organisational missions and policies.

Originality/value – This is the first study to introduce PSM into research on employee deviance. It shows that a pro-social motivation can drive anti-social behaviours when employees with high levels of PSM are members of profit-seeking organisations.

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Paper type Research paper

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Introduction

Workplace deviance has detrimental effects on organisational performance, which makes it worth studying for scholars of organisational behaviour and human resource management (Aquino *et al.,* 1999; Robinson and Bennett, 1995). Deviant workplace behaviour purposefully violates organisational norms and is intended to harm an organisation, its members, or both (Spector and Fox, 2005). A number of disparate acts fall into this category, such as theft, destruction of property, misuse of information, time and resources, unsafe behaviour, poor attendance and work quality, use of drugs and alcohol, and inappropriate verbal and physical actions (Gruys and Sackett, 2003). It is clear from these examples that human resource managers have a vital interest to hinder employees from displaying such behaviours because they run counter to the goals and interests of the organisation (Sackett and DeVore, 2002).

While the negative consequences of employee deviance for the individual, group and organisation are well-established in the literature, less is known about the antecedents of these behaviours. A better understanding of these determinants permits organisations to prevent or to reduce undesired behaviours at the workplace. In particular, interpersonal factors, such as supervisory relationships, and individual characteristics beyond personality traits, such as motivational dispositions, have hitherto received little attention as determinants of employee deviance. We narrow this gap by studying the impact of two important factors: First, we examine the downward link between deviant behaviours on the part of supervisors and subordinates. Our focus is on abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000) as determinant of employee deviance. With this focus, we contribute to an emerging stream of literature on the implications of supervisory misbehaviour for counterproductive behaviours at the workplace (Martinenko *et al*., 2013; Schyns and Schilling, 2013). Second, this is the first study to introduce public ser-

vice motivation (PSM) (Perry and Wise, 1990) into research on employee deviance. We argue that PSM, defined as "an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations" (Perry and Wise, 1990, p. 368), protects individuals and organisations from deviant behaviours and thus may counterbalance the negative effects of abusive supervision. This is due to PSM being a specific type of pro-social motivation which facilitates behaviour that is beneficial for the organisation or society. This relationship is evidenced by studies showing the positive association of PSM with affective commitment to change (Wright *et al.*, 2013), volunteering (Perry *et al.*, 2008), collaborative behaviour (Getha-Taylor and Haddock-Bigwarfe, 2014), and organisational citizenship behaviour (Bottomley *et al.*, 2015).

While PSM originates in the public administration literature, it was never a sector specific concept and always emphasized the individual predisposition to act in the public interest (Perry & Wise, 1990; Perry, 1996). Thus, it is a universal concept related to individuals in all sectors of employment (i.e. public, private, and non-profit). For example, Andersen, Pallesen and Pedersen (2011) found no differences between general PSM levels among public and private physiotherapists in Denmark. PSM's universal nature is further particularly evident in job choice and sector attraction studies using student samples (see e.g. Pedersen 2013) as these subjects are not yet affiliated with any sector of employment and the hypotheses that PSM leads to public sector preference is not always supported.

Nonetheless, Perry *et al.* (2010) argue that PSM is still more dominant in the public sphere due to the particular missions, institutions, and values governing the public sector work environment. As a consequence, the sector of employment may affect how PSM is related to employee deviance. Our study provides evidence for this moderating effect. As predicted, we find that PSM is negatively related to employee deviance both in the public and non-profit sector, whereas this association is positive in the private sector. Theories of person-organisation (P-O) fit suggest that membership in a public or non-profit organisation is in-

strumental in addressing the needs and values of employees with high levels of PSM, which reduces behaviour directed against the organisation and its members. On the contrary, members of private organisations show more engagement in deviant behaviours the stronger they are public service motivated because they experience lower levels of need satisfaction and value congruence. This finding has important implications for the attraction and selection of personnel in different sectors of employment.

The paper proceeds as follows: The second section reviews the literature on abusive supervision and PSM in order to derive hypotheses with regard to employee deviance. This is followed by the third section explaining the variables, measures, and analyses of our empirical study. We conducted a survey among employees with 150 respondents from the public, private, and non-profit sector in Germany and the USA. The fourth section presents the results, which are discussed in section five. The final section concludes the paper.

Literature review and hypotheses

Abusive supervision and employee deviance

While much of leadership research has long focused on constructive aspects of leadership, often associated with an overly heroic image of successful leaders, recent scholarship has paid growing attention to misbehaviours of bad leaders and their harmful effects on subordinates and organisations (Schyns and Schilling, 2013). Among the several concepts that shed light on "the dark side of leadership" (Conger, 1990) is "abusive supervision" (Tepper, 2000). Abusive supervision is defined as "subordinates' perception of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact" (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). For example, these forms of abuse can be angry outbursts, use of derogatory names, intimidation and humiliation of subordinates, invading privacy or withholding important information. Abusive supervision differs from similar concepts such as "petty tyranny" (Ashforth, 1997), "supervisor aggression" (Schat *et al.*, 2006) and "workplace

bullying" (Hoel and Cooper, 2001) in that it only includes nonphysical hostility. Furthermore, it is worth noting that abusive supervision in the above sense is a perception by subordinates. The extent to which subordinates attribute abusive behaviours to leaders is contingent on subjective factors, such as personal characteristics and demographic background, as well as on situational factors (Martinenko *et al.*, 2013; Tepper, 2007). However, in spite of the perceptual nature of abusive supervision, it is not an ephemeral impression but rather has an enduring quality and continues until the leadership relationship is terminated or the supervisor modifies his or her behaviour (Tepper, 2000).

Previous research has established various harmful effects of destructive leadership in general (Schyns and Schilling, 2013) and of abusive supervision more specifically (Martinenko *et al.*, 2013). Negative outcomes of abusive supervision on the part of subordinates include perceptions of injustice, aggression at the workplace, psychological distress, citizenship withdrawal, decline in performance, dissatisfaction with the job and higher levels of turnover, to name but a few (Martinenko *et al.*, 2013). Previous studies have also provided some evidence that subordinates respond to perceptions of abusive supervision with deviant behaviours (e.g. Avey *et al.*, 2015; Detert *et al.*, 2007; Mackey *et al.*, 2015; Mitchell and Ambrose, 2007; Tepper *et al.*, 2009). This association is obvious for deviant behaviours that are directed against the source of harm (i.e. the supervisor) since reciprocity is a fundamental principle and driving factor of social exchange (Göbel *et al.*, 2013). From this perspective, supervisor-directed counterproductivity in response to abusive supervision is an instance of negative reciprocity, i.e. retaliatory behaviours in return for negative treatment (Burton and Hoobler, 2011; Liu *et al.*, 2010; Mitchell and Ambrose, 2007; Wei and Si, 2013).

Deviant workplace behaviours by employees, however, vary in terms of their target and are not only directed towards individuals but also against the organisation. This may also be a reaction to abusive supervision. According to reactance theory (Brehm and Brehm, 1981), individuals strive to regain personal control when they face external limitations to their

autonomy. Previous research suggests that employees who are under abusive supervision experience a loss of control and thus engage in behaviours that are intended to restore control and foster autonomy (Mitchell and Ambrose, 2007; Zellars *et al.*, 2002). Since victims of abusive supervision are in a power-dependence relationship with their supervisor, they often do not feel empowered to take revenge on the supervisor directly, although norms of negative reciprocity provide a strong motivation to do so (Tepper *et al.*, 2009).

In order to protect themselves from even further retaliation by the supervisor, abused subordinates turn towards the organisation as a more readily available and safer target because such deviant behaviours are less likely to be detected. Deviant behaviours are also less likely to be punished compared to open interpersonal aggression towards the supervisor (Lian *et al.*, 2014; Mitchell and Ambrose, 2007). This may also rebalance perceptions of injustice (Burton and Hoobler, 2011; Tepper, 2000; 2007), serve as a valve for frustration (Avey *et al.*, 2015; Martinenko *et al.*, 2013) and maintain self-esteem (Wang and Jiang, 2014). We therefore arrive at our first hypothesis:

H1: Perceptions of leaders' abusive supervision will be positively related to subordinates' deviant workplace behaviours.

Public service motivation and employee deviance

Public service motivation (PSM), understood as individuals' desire to altruistically contribute to society through service delivery (Braender and Andersen, 2013), consists of four dimensions reflecting different forms of norm-based, rational, and affective motivations. These dimensions are attraction to policy making (ATP), compassion (COM), self-sacrifice (SS), and commitment to the public interest (CPI). Both aggregate PSM and its dimensions have been linked to a number of work outcomes and workplace behaviours. These outcomes and behav-

iours are characterised by generating benefits for the organisation because the concern for the public good overrides individual preferences for opportunistic personal gains.

Brewer and Selden (1998), for example, have shown that PSM is associated with whistle-blowing, highlighting that personal interests become less dominant when individuals display high levels of PSM. With regard to work outcomes, Warren and Chen (2013) meta-analytically show that there is a small but significant positive link between PSM and performance independent of whether the performance measure is objective or self-reported (for a critical discussion of the PSM-performance link, see Petrovski and Ritz, 2014). The link between PSM and behaviours has been explored through PSM's association with volunteering (Perry *et al.*, 2008; Lee and Wilkins, 2011), patient selection (Andersen and Serritzlew 2012), persistence, output, productivity and vigilance (Bellé, 2013). In addition, Bellé (2014) shows that PSM strengthens the positive effect of transformational leadership on work effort. Considering the strong linkages that prior studies established with regard to positive workplace behaviours, we assume that PSM has the potential to protect organisations from destructive work behaviours.

Nonetheless, according to O'Leary's (2010) work on guerrilla government excessively strong commitment to the public interest as reflected in extreme PSM levels may also trigger undesired work behaviours. For example, as mentioned above Brewer and Selden (1998) provided evidence that PSM is associated with whistleblowing and O'Leary (2010) identifies whistleblowing as one manifestation of the 'guerrilla employee's' behaviour. However, O'Leary simultaneously acknowledges that "Over the years, I have learned that the motivations driving guerrillas are diverse. Their reasons for acting range from the altruistic (doing the right thing) to the seemingly petty (I was passed over for that promotion)" (2010, p.8). Hence we posit that extreme levels of PSM are likely to be associated with guerrilla behaviours driven by altruism which still serve to protect the organisation. In that sense we argue that PSM helps to sort out the "ethical" from the "unethical" guerrilla public servant which

supports our earlier argument about PSM protecting organisations from (self-) destructive behaviours.

Additionally, the literature on extra-role behaviours such as OCBs and workplace deviance needs to be considered. For example, consistent with earlier work Lee and Allen (2002) argue that expressive workplace deviance, i.e. a form of deviance triggered by the need to express emotions linked to frustration, may result in abusive behaviour oriented towards co-workers. Extending these ideas further, Dineen, Lewicki and Tomlinson (2006) show that behavioural integrity of the supervisor is negatively related to workplace deviance. Since PSM goes along with a strong consideration for the needs of others such as co-workers and subordinates we argue that employees characterized by higher PSM levels are unlikely to display deviant workplace behaviours because these would harm the organization including co-workers and subordinates. Thus we hypothesise:

H2: Public service motivation will be negatively related to deviant workplace behaviours.

Public service motivation, deviant work behaviour, and employment sector

PSM may also have different behavioural implications depending on the sector of employment, and we expect this to be particularly true with regard to employee deviance. Research and theory on person-organisation (P-O) fit suggest that "the compatibility between people and the organizations in which they work" (Kristof, 1996, p.1) is an important driver of behaviour in organisations (Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005). Arguably, P-O fit is higher when employees with high levels of PSM work in the public or non-profit sector, as opposed to employment in the private sector. Thus, highly public service motivated individuals may self-select into public and non-profit sector employment because these organisations "are more likely to provide the opportunity to satisfy public service motivational needs and thus will attract individuals who are so inclined" (Houston, 2011, p.764). In other words, public and

non-profit organisations meet the needs of public service motivated employees better than private organisations because organisational goals and values are to a larger extent congruent with those of the individual. Clearly, the goal to serve the public interest and to contribute to the common good is both a component of PSM and the core mission of public organisations. Furthermore, employees with high levels of PSM are likely to hold public values that are also embedded in policies and cultures of public organisations, such as altruism, social cohesion, accountability, and neutrality (Jørgensen and Bozeman, 2007). Although non-profit organizations pursue the public interest in a more narrow sense and often serve very specific purposes, their mission is also aligned with public values and address attitudes beyond self-interest and organizational interest.

Although PSM is rooted in public institutions and organisations (Perry and Wise, 1990), employees in any sector of employment may have this universal disposition, though to varying degrees. For example, Andersen and Serritzlew (2012), in a study on patient selection with a sample of Danish physiotherapist, show that the CPI dimension of PSM is relevant to employees not only in the public but also in the private sector. Despite this finding, the sector of employment is likely to have influence both on the relative strength of PSM and on its behavioural implications. Regarding the strength of PSM in different sectors of employment, selection and socialisation effects may occur. Of interest in this context is work by Kjeldsen and Jacobsen (2013). In a longitudinal study, they monitor students moving to private and public sector employment, starting off with identical PSM levels. While they find a "reality shock" effect on PSM in both groups, public sector employment limits the decline due to its capacity to nurture public service related needs.

However, the evidence with respect to sector attraction is inconclusive. On the one hand, a number of studies fail to find an association between PSM and job preferences for the public sector (Christensen and Wright, 2011; Lewis and Frank, 2002; Tschirhart *et al.*, 2008; Wright and Christensen, 2010) although the institutional setting of the public and non-profit

sector tends to have more features that stimulate and socialise individuals into PSM (Perry, 1997; 2014; Vandenabeele, 2011). For example, in his study of public sector employees in a New York State Agency, Wright (2007, p.60) concludes that "managers can inspire their employees to work harder by clearly communicating how their work benefits society". On the other hand, previous research provides vast evidence that P-O fit through congruence of goals and values facilitates organisational commitment on the part of employees (Hoffman and Woehr 2006; Kristof-Brown *et al.* 2005; Verquer *et al.* 2003). In turn, the more employees are committed to their organisation, the less likely they engage in behaviour that runs counter to organisational goals and values. We conclude from these pieces of evidence that sector differences affect the way PSM relates to deviant workplace behaviours. Thus, we suggest that the employment sector acts as a moderator in this relationship:

H3a-b: The employment sector will moderate the relationship between public service motivation and deviant workplace behaviours, such that the relationship will be stronger (a) in the public and (b) in the non-profit sector.

Data and method

Data collection and study sample

To test our hypotheses, we conducted an online survey over a three-month period from February to April 2014. The questionnaire was provided in both German and English. In order to arrive at a German equivalent, bilingual speakers translated and back-translated the original English items (Brislin, 1970). A link to the survey was distributed among the subscribers of a university newsletter and posted on the institutional facebook account of the same university as well as on the private account of an involved researcher. As compared to mere student samples, our sampling approach has the advantage of covering respondents who have consid-

erably more working experience and thus provide a more comprehensive and realistic picture. Nevertheless, as with all convenient sampling approaches, our sample cannot claim representativeness. We will come back to this issue in the limitations section.

The sample characteristics are displayed in Table 1. In total, 150 participants completed the questionnaire, out of which 64 (43%) respondents reported to be female, while 86 (57%) respondents reported to be male. As for the age distribution, 120 (80%) respondents were 40 years of age or less, while only 30 (20%) were older. This age distribution is most likely explained by the method of distribution since users of social media tend to be young. 96 respondents (64%) completed the German version of the survey, while 54 respondents (36%) completed the survey in English. For all multi-item constructs in our questionnaire, we conducted t-tests for mean differences between the German and English subsample and found no such differences at a significance level of 5%. This should dispel concerns for issues of translation. Out of all respondents, 93 (62%) participants indicated to work under a male supervisor, while 57 (38%) indicated working under female supervision. In addition, we asked respondents for how long they had been working under their current supervisor. 66 (44%) reported that they had been working under their current supervisor for one year or less, and 84 (56%) reported that they had been working under their current supervisor for a longer period of time. As for organisational affiliation, 66 (44%) participants indicated to be member of a public organisation, 65 (43%) reported to work in a non-profit organisation, and 19 (13%) asserted membership in a private organisation. The size of these organisations in terms of employees varied considerably: 26 (17%) participants reported working in a small organisation with less than 10 employees, 30 (20%) were members of an organisation with 10 to 49 employees, 34 (23%) indicated membership in an organisation with 50 to 249 employees, and 60 (40%) worked in an even larger organisation.

*** *Please insert Table 1 about here.* ***

Study measures

Dependent variable. In order to measure deviant behaviours at work, we used 14 items from the employee deviance scale suggested by Aquino *et al.* (1999). Six items covered interpersonal deviance (e.g. *I have gossiped about my supervisor.*), while eight items reflected organizsational deviance (e.g. *I made unauthorized use of organizational property.*). The reliability of the global measure was high (Cronbach's α=0.91).

Independent variables. Abusive supervision was measured using the 10 items from a scale suggested by Mitchell and Ambrose (2007). The items included active-aggressive (e.g. *My supervisor ridicules me.*) and passive-aggressive forms of abusive leadership (e.g. *My supervisor breaks promises he/she makes.*). The total measure of abusive supervision showed a high internal consistency (α=0.93). For the measurement of public service motivation, we used a global PSM measure consisting of seven items adapted from Wright *et al.* (2012) and Giauque *et al.* (2011) (e.g. *Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements.*). Two items measured attraction to policy making, self-sacrifice and compassion, and one item measured the public interest dimension of PSM. The PSM measure displayed acceptable reliability (α= 0.73).

Control variables. We included age, gender, and employment volume (i.e. full-time vs. part-time) of the respondents into the analysis, as well as a single-item measure for their job satisfaction (i.e. *Overall, how satisfied are you with your job?*). Regarding respondents' organisational affiliation, we considered both the sector of employment (i.e. public, private or non-profit) and the size of the organisation in terms of employees. Controls with regard to leadership were the gender of the supervisor and the duration of the leadership relation.

Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations of all study measures are provided in Table 2. The survey instrument for the multiple-item measures is presented in the Appendix.

**** Please insert Table 2 about here. ****

Results

Our analytic strategy involved estimating three different regression models. The first model includes the direct effects of abusive supervision and PSM. The second model focuses on the subdimensions of PSM (ATP, COM, SS, CPI), and the third model adds the moderating effect of the employment sector. All models include our full set of control variables, and all models were estimated using robust standard errors to avoid heteroscedasticity. We further have no reason to believe multicollinearity is a problem as variance inflation factors were checked (mean VIF: 1.55 and single highest VIF of 3.04). Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics of the data and Table 3 displays the regression results. All coefficients in Table 3 are standardised.

Hypothesis 1 proposed a positive association of abusive supervision with employee deviance. The results show this effect in all three models (Model I: b=0.231, p<.05,**; Model II: b=0.217, p<.1,*; Model III: b=0.248, p<.05,**). Since the effect remains stable in all specifications, hypothesis 1 is strongly supported by our results.

Hypothesis 2 stipulates a negative association between PSM and deviant behaviours. We find this effect for the global PSM measure in Model I (b=–0.371, p<.01,***). The effect reverses and is significant only at a lower level when we add the moderating effect in Model III (b=0.560, p<.1,*). Regarding the subdimensions of PSM, we find the predicted effects for self-sacrifice (b=–0.164, p<.1,*) and attraction to policy making (b=–0.199, p<.05,**). This provides partial support for hypothesis 2.

To assess hypothesis 3, Model III adds the interaction between PSM and employment sector to the estimation using the private sector as reference category. Results show that the negative association of PSM and employee deviance is stronger in the public sector (b=–0.738, p<.01,***) and also holds in the non-profit sector (b=–0.595, p<.05,**) but is less pronounced there. Figure 1 displays the simple slopes of the variables included in the moderation analysis. Thus, considered jointly, these results provide strong support for hypothesis 3.

As for the control variables, we find a consistent effect of employees' gender on deviant behaviours. Men tend to deviate more from organisational norms and rules than women. Furthermore, employees who are in a shorter leadership relationship with their supervisors (i.e. less than or equal to one year) deviate more than those in a longer leadership relationship.

*** *Please insert Table 3 about here.* ***

*** *Please insert Figure 1 about here.* ***

Discussion

A deeper understanding of the antecedents of employee deviance enables organisations to prevent the negative consequences of such behaviours. This study analysed two important factors with presumably opposing effects on employee deviance, i.e. abusive supervision and PSM. In line with our hypotheses, we find a positive link between abusive supervision and employee deviance, whereas the relationship between PSM and such behaviours is negative. The results of this study highlight the downsides of inappropriate leadership and establish PSM as a counterbalance to the negative behavioural implications of such leadership. In addition, our moderation hypothesis provides evidence for stronger effects of PSM in public and non-profit sector settings.

Regarding the enhancing effect of abusive supervision on employee deviance, our results confirm previous findings in the literature (Martinenko *et al.*, 2013; Schyns and Schilling, 2013). Since abusive supervision is itself a type of deviance because it purposefully disregards organisational norms and causes harm to employees, the findings establish a cascading effect such that deviant behaviours trickle down the organisational hierarchy. This highlights the crucial role of supervisory behaviours for the overall pursuit of goals and adherence to rules in organisations. Accordingly, when employee deviance is to be prevented, both the selection and training of supervisors should aim to avoid or to reduce abusive behaviours.

However, previous studies (including ours) have examined the relationship between abusive supervision and employee deviance almost exclusively as a downward process in the organisational hierarchy that flows from supervisors to subordinates. Only recently, researchers have acknowledged the reciprocal nature of this relationship and have shown that abusive supervision might also be a response to deviant behaviours of subordinates (Lian *et al.*, 2014). Future research should examine this reverse process in greater depth.

Deviant behaviours are not only a matter of interpersonal relationships in organisations, but also a question of employees' individual dispositions. While some previous studies have investigated the influence of personality traits such as the Big Five on deviant behaviours (Bolton *et al.*, 2010; Mount *et al.*, 2006; Salgado, 2002), this study is the first to introduce PSM to this field of research. The negative impact of PSM suggests that recruiters are well advised to consider the extent to which applicants are public service motivated as this will have an impact on deviant behaviours of employees. However, the negative effect of PSM on employee deviance only holds for employment in the public and non-profit sector, where the P-O fit of public service motivated employees is presumably higher than in the private sector.

A particularly interesting finding of our study is that this negative effect reverses when individuals are employed in the private sector (Figure 1). In this case, deviant behaviours increase with the level of PSM. We assume that public service motivated people share the goals and values of profit-oriented organisations to a lower degree, which decreases organisational identification and commitment and, in turn, increases deviant work behaviours. This result is remarkable because it shows that, somewhat paradoxically, a pro-social motivation (such as PSM) can lead to anti-social behaviour (such as employee deviance) when people are at the wrong workplace. Social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) suggest that the dynamics of this relationship are triggered by a threat to an employee's desired identity. In the case of a public-service motivated employee, membership in

a profit-seeking organization may create a perceived gap to the desired identity as someone who contributes to the common interest. A threatened or damaged identity leaves the employee frustrated and in turn facilitates deviance from organizational norms (Lawrence & Robinson, 2007). Employee deviance, then, is revengeful behaviour that aims to recover one's social identity. This effect has been established for workplace stressors such as financial and social working conditions as well as organizational power and control (Lawrence & Robinson, 2007; Robinson & Bennett, 1997). The results of our study suggest that the mission of an organization can create frustration that is expressed in workplace deviance, too.

We cannot conclude from our findings that human resource managers in the private sector should avoid recruiting and selecting applicants who are strongly public service motivated, since PSM has been shown to be slightly beneficial for performance (Warren and Chen, 2013). However, private organizations can provide opportunities for constructive responses of public-service motivated members (Lawrence & Robinson, 2007), for example by giving these employees the opportunity to spend some hours of work for community services. Moreover, the P-O fit cannot only be increased by selection and socialisation on the part of the people, but also by fitting the organisation to the people. To address the needs of employees with high levels of PSM, and thus to capitalise on their desire for contributing to society, PSM-aligned goals and values could be more emphasised even in profit-seeking organisations. This gives another justification for practices of corporate social responsibility (CSR), which we expect to reduce deviant behaviours by those members of private organisations who are strongly public service motivated.

In spite of these findings, we acknowledge several limitations to our study. First, our study builds on a convenience sample in a cross-sectional research design. This limits both the representativeness of the results and the opportunities to make causal claims. Future research could strive for validation of our results with larger datasets and in longitudinal designs. Second, a potential problem in cross-sectional datasets is common method bias (CMB). The

latter arises when dependent and independent variables are measured simultaneously with the same instrument, which might lead to inflated variances. In order to mitigate this potential bias, we have considered it at the design stage of the survey following guidelines provided by Podsakoff *et al.* (2003; 2012) and Conway and Lance (2010). For example, we separated the abusive leadership questions from the PSM items and inserted demographic questions and control variables in-between. We further used various scales. Since it was an online administered survey, we had the option to randomise all items, which we did. We also relied on well-validated and reliable scales for all constructs, which also mitigates CMB to some extent. In addition, Siemsen *et al.* (2012, p. 472) analytically prove that "common method bias can be effectively controlled by including other independent variables, which exhibit small bivariate correlations (≤.30) among each other and whose measures suffer from CMV." This is the case in our set of variables. Thus, considering the preventive measures applied at the design stage and the heuristics suggested by Siemsen *et al.* (2010), we have no reason to believe that CMB negatively affects the conclusions of our work. Third, the results pertaining to the subdimensions of PSM presented in Model II should be taken with caution. Since we decided to use a global measure of PSM to analyse the main relations of interest in this study, the number of items per PSM dimension is low. Thus, these estimations should be considered as an additional robustness check only because short measures have been criticised for low validity and reliability.

Conclusions

Research on personnel selection has for a long time focussed on the identification of candidates who are likely to engage in desirable work behaviours. This study contributes to a more recent stream of research that pays increasing attention to undesirable, deviant behaviours at the workplace with detrimental effects on organisational performance. The results show that these behaviours are to be prevented on the part of both supervisors and subordinates. PSM

may help to prevent the negative side effects of deviant behaviours, but this only holds for employees in the public and non-profit sector. In profit-seeking organisations, PSM is even positively related to deviant behaviours. This highlights the paramount importance of P-O fit in the selection and socialisation of personnel.

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Table I. Sample characteristics

Total		150	100.00%
Age	≤40	120	80.00%
	>40	30	20.00%
Gender	Female	64	42.67%
	Male	86	57.33%
Language	German	96	64.00%
	English	54	36.00%
Employment	Part-time	47	31.33%
	Full-time	103	68.67%
Leader gender	Female	57	38.00%
	Male	93	62.00%
Duration of leadership relation-ship	≤1 year	66	44.00%
	>1 year	84	56.00%
Organisation type	Public	66	44.00%
	Nonprofit	65	43.33%
	Private	19	12.67%
Number of employees	1-9	26	17.33%
	10-49	30	20.00%
	50-249	34	22.67%
	≥250	60	40.00%

Table II. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

		Mean	SD	Correlations														
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	Employee deviance	1.64	0.59	(0.91)														
2	Abusive supervision	1.73	0.84	0.22 *	(0.93)													
3	PSM	3.78	0.70	–0.30 *	0.11	(0.73)												
4	Job satisfaction	6.53	2.05	–0.21 *	–0.48 *	0.04	1											
5	Age >40 (d)	0.20	n/a	–0.06	0.05	–0.06	–0.12	1										
6	Gender (d; 1=male)	0.57	n/a	0.12	–0.04	0.12	0.08	–0.14	1									
7	Language (d; 1=English)	0.36	n/a	0.01	–0.03	–0.16	–0.18 *	0.18 *	–0.14	1								
8	Employment (d; 1= full-time)	0.69	n/a	0.01	0.02	–0.16 *	–0.06	0.19 *	0.00	0.09	1							
9	Leader gender (d; 1= male)	0.62	n/a	0.02	0.17 *	0.01	–0.12	0.05	–0.35 *	0.07	–0.24 *	1						
10	Leadership relationship ≤1 year (d)	0.44	n/a	0.18 *	–0.12	0.04	0.06	–0.31 *	0.00	–0.02	–0.10	0.05	1					
11	Public (d)	0.44	n/a	0.02	0.04	0.07	0.08	–0.04	–0.16	0.01	–0.04	0.16 *	0.03	1				
12	Nonprofit (d)	0.43	n/a	0.04	0.03	–0.17 *	–0.06	0.00	0.18 *	0.04	0.16	–0.10	0.01	–0.78 *	1			
13	Number of employees 1-9 (d)	0.17	n/a	–0.05	–0.02	–0.04	–0.03	–0.10	–0.14	–0.12	–0.15	0.00	0.02	–0.05	–0.08	1		
14	Number of employees 10-49 (d)	0.20	n/a	0.12	0.12	0.04	0.01	–0.13	0.13	0.01	–0.20	0.09	–0.04	0.13	–0.13	–0.23 *	1	
15	Number of employees 50-249 (d)	0.23	n/a	–0.02	–0.15	0.03	0.00	0.13	–0.08	0.03	–0.01	–0.03	–0.03	–0.16	0.07	–0.25 *	–0.27 *	1

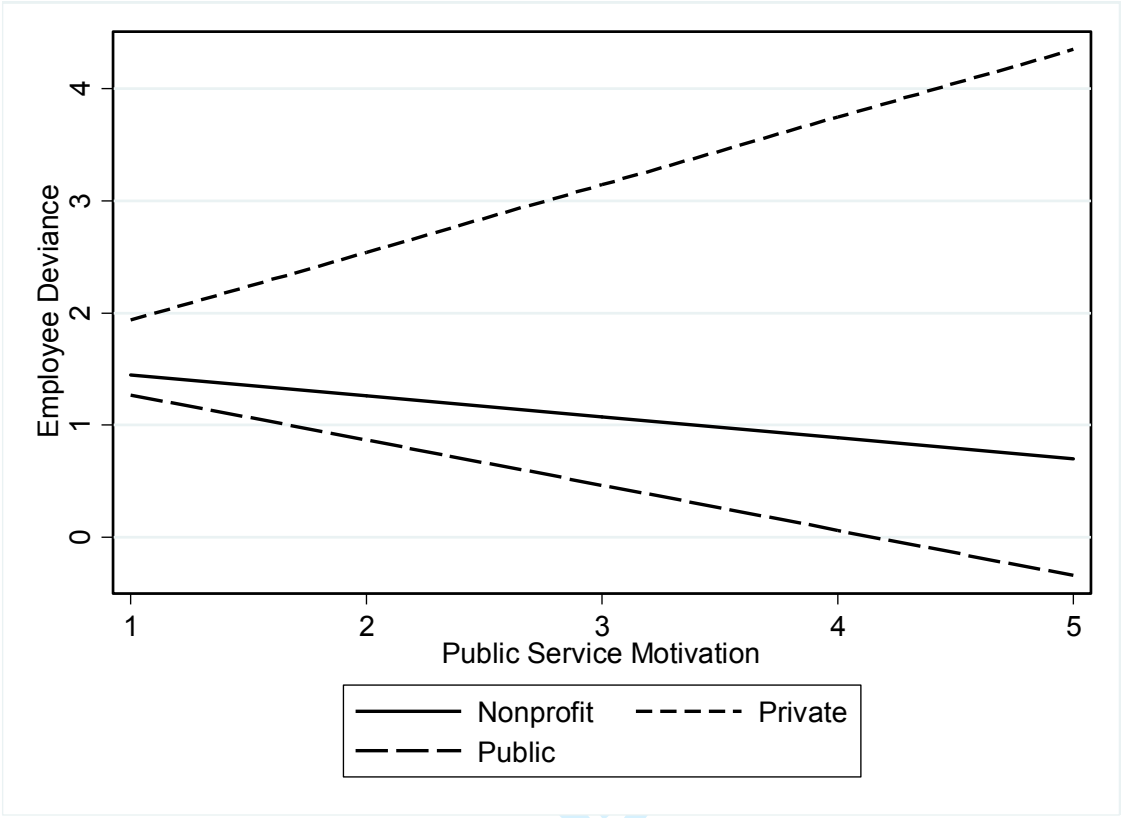
Notes: * p<.05; Cronbach's Alpha in parentheses.

Table III. Multiple OLS Regressions (Standardised Coefficients; Robust Standard Errors); Dependent Variable: Employee Deviance

	Model I	Model II	Model III
Hypotheses			
Abusive supervision **[H1]**	0.231 **	0.217 *	0.248 **
Public service motivation **[H2]**	–0.371 ***		0.560 *
Public interest		–0.140	
Compassion		–0.041	
Self-sacrifice		–0.164 *	
Attraction to policy making		–0.199 **	
Public service motivation * Public **[H3a]**			–0.738 ***
Public service motivation * Nonprofit **[H3b]**			–0.595 **
Individual			
Job satisfaction	–0.124	–0.136	–0.084
Age >40 (d)	0.002	0.002	0.023
Gender (d; 1=male)	0.181 **	0.173 **	0.167 *
Language (d; 1=English)	–0.036	–0.054	–0.017
Employment (d; 1=full-time)	–0.013	–0.020	–0.037
Leadership			
Leader gender (d; 1= male)	–0.000	–0.005	0.020
Leadership relationship ≤1 year (d)	0.229 ***	0.215 **	0.243 ***
Organisation			
Public (d)	0.037	0.055	0.225 **
Nonprofit (d)	–0.039	–0.031	0.160
Number of employees 1-9 (d)	–0.008	–0.013	–0.020
Number of employees 10-49 (d)	0.099	0.091	0.098
Number of employees 50-249 (d)	0.081	0.078	0.040
N	150	150	150
R^2	0.255	0.262	0.309
Adjusted R^2	0.178	0.167	0.226
F-statistic	1.91 **	1.80 **	2.02 **

Note. ***: p<.01; **: p<.05; *: p<.10; [a]: VIF(min)=1.14, VIF(max)=3.05.

Figure 1. Interaction effect of public service motivation and employment sector on employee deviance



Appendix. Survey items of main constructs (English/German)

Abusive Supervision *(Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007)*	
My supervisor …	Mein Vorgesetzter/meine Vorgesetzte …
… ridicules me.	… macht mich lächerlich.
… tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid.	… wertet meine Gedanken oder Gefühle ab.
… puts me down in front of others.	… macht mich vor Anderen runter.
… invades my privacy.	… mischt sich in meine Privatsphäre ein.
… doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort.	… schätzt meinen Arbeitsaufwand nicht.
… blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment.	… schiebt Schuld auf mich, um selbst nicht in Verlegenheit zu kommen.
… breaks promises he/she makes.	… hält ihre/seine Versprechen nicht.
… makes negative comments about me to others.	… macht bei Anderen negative Bemerkungen über mich.
… tells me I'm incompetent.	… unterstellt mir Inkompetenz.
… lies to me.	… lügt mich an.
Public Service Motivation *(Giauque et al., 2011; Wright et al., 2012)*	
Meaningful Public Service is very important to me.	Mir ist es wichtig dass die öffentliche Verwaltung sinnvolle Aufgaben übernimmt.
I am often reminded by daily events how dependent we are on one another.	Im Alltag werde ich oft daran erinnert, wie abhängig wir voneinander sind.
Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements.	Etwas in der Gesellschaft zu verändern bedeutet mir mehr als persönliche Erfolge.
I am prepared to make sacrifices for the good of society.	Ich bin bereit Opfer zu bringen, wenn sie dem Wohl der Gesellschaft dienen.
I am not afraid to go bat for the rights of others even if it means I will be ridiculed.	Ich habe keine Angst, mich für die Rechte anderer einzusetzen, auch wenn ich dafür belächelt werde.
I am very interested in politics.	Ich interessiere mich sehr für Politik.
I like to discuss political subjects with others.	Mit anderen über Politik zu diskutieren gefällt mir sehr.
Employee Deviance *(Aquino et al., 1999)*	
I intentionally arrived late for work.	Ich bin absichtlich zu spät zur Arbeit gekommen.
I called in sick when I was not really ill.	Ich habe mich krank gemeldet, obwohl ich nicht wirklich krank war.
I took undeserved breaks to avoid work.	Ich habe ungerechtfertigte Pausen gemacht, um meine Arbeit zu umgehen.
I made unauthorized use of organizational property.	Ich habe ohne Erlaubnis Eigentum meiner Organisation benutzt.
I left work early without permission.	Ich habe meine Arbeit ohne Erlaubnis früher verlassen.
I lied about the number of hours I worked.	Ich habe über die Anzahl meiner Arbeitsstunden gelogen.
I worked on a personal matter on the job instead of working for my employer.	Ich habe mich während meiner Arbeitszeit mit persönlichen Angelegenheiten beschäftigt anstatt für meinen Arbeitgeber zu arbeiten.
I purposely ignored my supervisor's instructions.	Ich habe absichtlich die Anweisungen meiner Vorgesetzten/meines Vorgesetzten ignoriert.
I made an ethnic, racial, or religious slur against a co-worker.	Ich habe eine/n Kolleg/in aufgrund ihrer/seiner Ethnie, Rasse oder Religion beleidigt.
I swore at a coworker.	Ich habe eine/n Kolleg/in beschimpft.
I refused to talk to a co-worker.	Ich habe mich geweigert, mit einer/einem Kolleg/in zu sprechen.
I gossiped about my supervisor.	Ich habe über meine Vorgesetzte/meinen Vorgesetzten gelästert.
I made an obscene comment or gesture at a co-worker.	Ich habe eine obszöne Bemerkung oder Geste gegenüber einer/einem Kolleg/in gemacht.
I teased a co-worker in front of other employees.	Ich habe eine/n Kolleg/in vor anderen Mitarbeiter/innen auf den Arm genommen.