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Les comportements contre-productifs dans les équipes de travail : les implications d'un manque de soutien organisationnel

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Résumé

Les équipes de travail occupent aujourd'hui une place particulièrement importante dans les organisations et sont devenues essentielles au bon fonctionnement de nombreuses entreprises (Marks, Mathieu et Zaccaro, 2001). En effet, selon une étude conduite par Kumar (2016) aux États-Unis, 60 % des entreprises prévoyaient implanter davantage d'équipes de travail au cours des deux prochaines années. Il est toutefois possible de constater une forte variation dans le niveau de performance qu'atteignent les équipes en milieu organisationnel, variant d'une très mauvaise performance à une excellente performance (Hackman, 2002 ; Rousseau, Savoie et Battistelli, 2007). Les comportements des membres sont les déterminants les plus directs de la performance des équipes. Dès lors, dans un contexte où les membres adoptent des comportements contre-productifs qui font obstacle au travail en équipe, la performance collective s'en ressent nécessairement.

Bien qu'il ait été précédemment établi que les comportements contre-productifs nuisent au bon fonctionnement et à la performance des équipes (ex. : Aubé, Rousseau, Mama et Morin, 2009; Aubé et Rousseau, 2014; Cole, Walter et Bruch, 2008), leurs causes sont encore mal comprises, principalement en ce qui a trait aux facteurs propres au contexte organisationnel. Ainsi, cette thèse a pour premier objectif de clarifier l'état des connaissances sur les comportements contre-productifs dans les équipes et comme second objectif de faire avancer les connaissances relatives aux antécédents contextuels des comportements contre-productifs au sein des équipes de travail.

Afin de répondre au premier objectif, une recension de la littérature des vingt dernières années sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers est effectuée dans le premier article de cette thèse. Un modèle intégrant les résultats des recherches empiriques sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers est présenté et un riche agenda de recherches futures est proposé. Ce premier article permet aussi de clarifier la notion de comportements

contre-productifs d'équipiers et de les distinguer des autres types de comportements contre-productifs.

Afin de répondre au deuxième objectif, soit de faire avancer les connaissances relatives aux antécédents contextuels des comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers, la relation entre le contexte de soutien au travail en équipe et les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers a été explorée. Toutefois, avant de tester cette relation, il s'avérait nécessaire de valider la structure factorielle du construit de contexte de soutien au travail en équipe. En effet, la structure multidimensionnelle d'ordre supérieur de ce construit n'avait jamais été testée. Ainsi, à travers des analyses de type Bifactor-ESEM, le deuxième article de cette thèse a permis de soutenir l'hypothèse selon laquelle le contexte de soutien au travail en équipe s'avère un construit d'ordre supérieur, composé de quatre facteurs.

Enfin, dans le cadre du troisième article, la relation entre le contexte de soutien au travail en équipe et les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers a été testée à partir d'un échantillon de 105 équipes de travail provenant d'une organisation du domaine de la sécurité publique. Des analyses acheminatoires ont été effectuées et soutiennent un modèle de médiation par lequel une déficience dans le contexte de soutien au travail en équipe génère des affects négatifs d'équipiers, qui se traduisent ensuite par l'adoption de comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. Les résultats de cette étude soutiennent aussi le rôle modérateur de l'engagement de l'équipe dans la relation entre les affects négatifs et les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers.

Mots-clés : équipes de travail, comportements contre-productifs, contexte organisationnel, affects d'équipiers, engagement

Abstract

Today, work teams hold a particularly important role in organizations and have become essential to the proper functioning of many businesses (Marks, Mathieu, and Zaccaro, 2001). Indeed, according to a study conducted by Kumar (2016), 60% of US companies plan to set up more work teams over the next two years. However, work teams are not a guarantee of success, given that strong variations are typically observed in work teams' performance levels (Hackman, 2002; Rousseau, Savoie and Battistelli, 2007). Team members' behaviors are the most direct determinants of team performance. Consequently, in a context where members adopt counterproductive behaviors that hinder teamwork, collective performance necessarily suffers.

Although it has been previously established that team counterproductive behaviors hinder the proper functioning and performance of teams (e.g., Aubé, Rousseau, Mama and Morin, 2009; Aubé and Rousseau, 2014; Cole, Walter and Bruch, 2008), their causes are still poorly understood, especially in terms of organizational context factors. Thus, the first objective of this thesis is to clarify the state of knowledge on team counterproductive behaviors and the second objective is to advance knowledge of the contextual antecedents of team counterproductive behaviors.

To answer the first objective, a review of the literature of the last twenty years on team counterproductive behaviors was carried out in the first article of this thesis. We thus integrate and advance TCBs scholarship by proposing an integrative model and we help identify and guide where future research efforts related to TCBs should be directed. This first article also clarifies the notion of team counterproductive behaviors and distinguishes them from other types of counterproductive behaviors.

In order to address the second objective, namely to advance knowledge about the contextual antecedents of team counterproductive behaviors, the relationship between a

supportive organizational context for teams and team counterproductive behaviors was explored. However, before testing this relationship, it was deemed necessary to assess the factor structure of the supportive organizational context for teams' construct. Indeed, its higher-order multidimensional representation had never been tested. Thus, using a Bifactor-ESEM framework, this study supports the notion that a supportive organizational context for teams is a higher-order construct including four components: rewards, information, educational, and resource allocation systems.

Finally, in the third paper, the relationship between a supportive organizational context for teams and team counterproductive behaviors was tested using a sample of 105 work teams from an organization in the field of public safety. Using a path analytic procedure, the results of this study support the mediation model: a lack of organizational support aligned with teamwork triggers negative team affective tone responses at a team level, which then drives the adoption of team counterproductive behaviors. Results also corroborate the moderating role of team commitment in the relationship between negative team affective tone and team counterproductive behaviors.

Keywords: work teams, counterproductive behaviors, organizational context, team affective tone, team commitment.

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TCBs	Team Counterproductive Behaviors
CB	Counterproductive Behaviors
TFI	Team Feedback Interventions
SOCT	Supportive Organizational Context for Teams
POS	Perceived Organizational Support
MLR	Robust Maximum Likelihood
FIML	Full Information Maximum Likelihood
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
ESEM	Exploratory Structural Equation Modeling
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis

«Just as infertile soil can stunt the growth of even the healthiest seedling, so can an unsupportive context limit the performance of even a well-designed work team»

(Hackman, 2002)

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Introduction

Selon le rapport *Deloitte* portant sur les tendances relatives au capital humain (2016), la conception du travail (*job design*) serait un enjeu primordial. Ainsi, selon ce même rapport, l'ascension des équipes de travail en organisation se situe au premier rang parmi les dix principales tendances mondiales. Cette forte tendance s'explique par l'évolution rapide du marché qui nécessite que les organisations puissent s'adapter promptement et réagir aux différentes perturbations auxquelles elles font face (Deloitte, 2016). Les équipes de travail occupent donc aujourd'hui une place particulièrement importante dans les organisations et sont devenues essentielles au bon fonctionnement de nombreuses entreprises (Marks, Mathieu, et Zaccaro, 2001).

Bien que plusieurs associent tout regroupement de personnes à une équipe de travail, la littérature scientifique a consacré de nombreux efforts à explorer et définir les caractéristiques distinctives de l'équipe de travail (Salas, Rico et Passmore, 2017). Cette thèse porte donc spécifiquement sur les équipes de travail, qui se distinguent de tout groupe de travail en raison de ses droits et de ses obligations envers son environnement de même que par la responsabilité collective de ses membres quant aux résultats atteints (Savoie & Brunet, 2000). Une équipe de travail se définit donc comme un groupe formel, d'au moins deux individus, qui sont interdépendants et collectivement responsables de l'accomplissement de tâches organisationnelles (Aubé, Rousseau et Tremblay, 2011). L'équipe de travail se distingue donc d'autres regroupements formels de travail, tels que les comités ou les départements, en raison de l'interdépendance entre les membres dans l'accomplissement de leur travail et de l'imputabilité collective quant à l'atteinte des objectifs de l'équipe. Afin de pouvoir affirmer qu'un regroupement constitue une équipe de travail, 1) un mandat collectif doit être confié à ses membres, 2) les membres doivent se percevoir et être perçus comme une équipe, 3) ils doivent évoluer dans un environnement organisationnel plus large et 4) ils doivent avoir un

certain degré d'interdépendance en regard de la tâche à accomplir (Aubé, Rousseau et Savoie, 2000 ; Savoie et Beaudin, 1995).

Selon une étude conduite par Kumar (2016) aux États-Unis, 60 % des entreprises prévoyaient implanter davantage d'équipes de travail au cours des deux prochaines années. Ce phénomène ne s'observe pas seulement en Amérique du Nord. En effet, en Angleterre, 44 % des entreprises sont basées sur des équipes de travail et, en France, 49 % des entreprises utilisent des équipes (Askenazy et Forth, 2016), soutenant l'affirmation que les équipes sont très présentes en organisation. La forte popularité des équipes de travail s'explique notamment par les résultats impressionnants obtenus par de grandes entreprises qui utilisent ce type d'organisation du travail. Parmi les avantages observés, des gains de productivité, une plus grande innovation organisationnelle et une diminution du taux d'absentéisme sont rapportés (Fay, Shipton, West et Patterson, 2015; Greenberg, Sikora, Grunberg et Moore, 2012; Lazear et Shaw, 2007). Toutefois, la performance d'une équipe de travail n'est pas automatique. Il y a effectivement une forte variation dans le niveau de performance qu'atteignent les équipes en milieu organisationnel, variant d'une très mauvaise performance à une excellente performance (Hackman, 2002; Hackman et Oldham, 1980; Rousseau, Savoie et Battistelli, 2007). Manifestement, bien que le travail en équipe présente plusieurs avantages pour les organisations, il ne suffit pas de regrouper des individus pour qu'ils sachent instantanément comment travailler ensemble (Rousseau, Aubé et Savoie, 2006; Hackman, 1990).

Le fonctionnement interne des équipes de travail

Selon Rousseau et al. (2006), dans un contexte d'équipe, le fonctionnement interne d'une équipe de travail (c.-à-d. les comportements des membres de l'équipe) est fortement lié au succès des équipes. En fait, parmi les déterminants de la performance des équipes de travail, les comportements des membres sont ceux dont les effets seraient les plus directs (Alper, Tjosvold et Law, 2000; Nadler et Tushman, 1980; Noe, 2007). Les comportements peuvent

directement affecter la réalisation du travail et des tâches d'une équipes, alors que d'autres attributs individuels tels que les affects et les cognitions doivent nécessairement se traduire en comportements pour avoir un tel effet sur la performance de l'équipe (Rousseau et al., 2006). De nombreux auteurs se sont ainsi penchés sur les comportements permettant l'atteinte d'un niveau optimal de performance d'équipe (Mathieu, Hollenbeck, Van Knippenberg et Ilgen, 2017 ; Rousseau et al., 2006).

Ces comportements peuvent se diviser en deux catégories, soit les comportements liés aux tâches (c.-à-d. lié aux aspects techniques de la tâche tels que réparer un moteur, effectuer une réanimation cardiovasculaire, etc.; Morgan, Salas, et Glickman, 1993) et ceux liés au travail d'équipe (c.-à-d. les actions et les communications qui ont lieu pendant les interactions entre les membres d'une équipe; Burke, Wilson, et Salas, 2003; Morgan et al., 1993). Les comportements liés aux tâches sont critiques pour qu'une équipe ait du succès. Toutefois, que le travail soit fait de manière individuelle ou en équipe, les attentes relatives à la maîtrise des comportements davantage techniques sont généralement les mêmes (Rousseau et al., 2006; Steven et Campion, 1994). D'un autre côté, les comportements liés au travail d'équipe sont inhérents aux interactions nécessaires à la collaboration dans un contexte d'équipe de travail et sont donc spécifiquement lié à l'existence d'une équipe de travail (Cannon-Bowers, Tannenbaum, Salas, et Volpe, 1995). En effet, la nature collective et interdépendante des tâches dans un contexte d'équipe nécessite que les membres interagissent et partagent des ressources pour accomplir leur travail (Vander Vegt et Van de Vliert, 2002). Ainsi, afin d'avoir du succès, les équipes de travail doivent à la fois structurer la réalisation de leur travail (p. ex. : planifier le travail, identifier et prioriser leurs objectifs) et optimiser la qualité de leurs relations interpersonnelles (p. ex. : coopérer, gérer les conflits; Rousseau et al., 2006).

Toutefois, bien que plusieurs études aient démontré l'importance de ces comportements (LePine, Piccolo, Jackson, Mathieu et Saul, 2008; Rousseau et al., 2006; Mark et al., 2001),

ceux-ci ne sont pas les uniques facteurs comportementaux propres à l'équipe de travail pouvant influencer son fonctionnement et sa performance. En effet, dans un contexte où les comportements des membres font plutôt obstacle au travail en équipe, la performance collective s'en ressent nécessairement. Ces comportements peuvent alors être qualifiés de contre-productifs (Aubé et Rousseau, 2014; Felps, Mithcell et Byington, 2006).

Bien qu'il ait été précédemment établi que les comportements contre-productifs nuisent au bon fonctionnement et à la performance des équipes (p. ex. : Aubé, Rousseau, Mama et Morin, 2009; Aubé et Rousseau, 2014; Cole, Walter et Bruch, 2008), leurs causes sont encore mal comprises, principalement en ce qui a trait aux facteurs propres au contexte organisationnel. Ainsi, cette thèse a notamment pour objectif de clarifier l'état des connaissances sur les comportements contre-productifs dans les équipes et de faire avancer les connaissances relatives aux antécédents contextuels des comportements contre-productifs au sein des équipes de travail. Avant de s'y attarder dans le cadre des trois articles présentés dans cette thèse, une clarification des notions essentielles est présentée dans cette introduction, soit, les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers et le principe d'alignement.

Les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers

Aubé, Rousseau, Morin et Langdeau (2006) ont développé une typologie des comportements contre-productifs propres aux équipes de travail. Cette typologie se concentre sur les comportements qui nuisent directement à l'accomplissement de tâches communes. Elle a été conçue à partir d'une revue des typologies génériques des comportements contre-productifs, de la documentation sur les facteurs influençant l'efficacité du travail en équipe et de la documentation sur les phénomènes de groupes négatifs (p.ex. : pensée de groupe et flânerie sociale; Aubé et al., 2006). Cette typologique comporte quatre dimensions, soit le parasitisme, l'agression interpersonnelle, la survalorisation personnelle et l'utilisation déficiente des ressources.

Cette typologie ressort comme la typologie dominante [1] dans les écrits sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers et sera donc détaillée ci-dessous. Il est toutefois important de noter que certains chercheurs ont aussi étudié des comportements contre-productifs ne se retrouvant pas dans la typologie. De même, d'autres études couvrent ce même type de comportements, mais utilisent des terminologies et des conceptualisations différentes. Ainsi, le découpage conceptuel des comportements contre-productifs peut varier d'un auteur à l'autre (p.ex. : Aubé et al., 2006; Pearce et Giacalone, 2003).

Parasitisme. La dimension de parasitisme réfère à des comportements consistant à ne pas faire sa juste part du travail (Aubé et al., 2009). D'autres auteurs réfèrent à cette dimension en utilisant les termes « évitement du travail » ou « évitement de l'emploi » (Pearce et Giacalone). Par exemple, un membre de l'équipe adoptant un comportement de parasitisme est susceptible de laisser un collègue faire une partie de son travail à sa place, peut prétendre être trop occupé pour assumer des responsabilités supplémentaires ou peut quitter une rencontre d'équipe en feignant être malade. Le parasitisme peut être une manifestation du phénomène de la flânerie sociale, qui s'exprime par une diminution des efforts investis lorsqu'une personne travaille dans un groupe en comparaison à lorsqu'elle travaille individuellement (*social loafing*; Latane, Williams et Harkins, 1979). Toutefois, la flânerie sociale réfère à un phénomène de groupe non intentionnel qui inclut à la fois des comportements et des processus affectifs et cognitifs. Le parasitisme, de son côté, réfère spécifiquement à un comportement qui peut être délibéré (Latane et al., 1979; Aubé et al., 2009).

Agression interpersonnelle. La deuxième dimension de la typologie est l'agression interpersonnelle. Les comportements d'agression sont des comportements qui minent l'intégrité psychologique ou physique d'un ou de plusieurs collègues (Aubé et al., 2009). Par exemple, un

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[1] Cinq études utilisant la typologie d'Aubé et al. (2006, 2009). Parmi les études utilisant d'autres types de conceptualisation, seulement une à deux études au maximum réfèrent au même type de conceptualisation.

membre de l'équipe pourrait intimider un collègue, refuser ou éviter de parler à un collègue avec lequel il doit collaborer ou faire des remarques incriminantes sur un collègue. Ce type de comportement est bien évidemment répréhensible indépendamment du mode d'organisation du travail. Il peut cependant devenir particulièrement nocif dans un contexte de travail en équipe. En effet, dans un tel contexte, les membres de l'équipe étant interdépendants pour accomplir leurs tâches, non seulement il devient difficile d'éviter un membre de l'équipe qui adopte des comportements d'agression, mais en plus les membres dépendent de la personne adoptant ces comportements problématiques pour pouvoir accomplir leur travail. Les effets des comportements d'agression s'en trouvent ainsi exacerbés (Aubé et Rousseau, 2011; Kelloway et Day, 2005).

Survalorisation personnelle. La troisième dimension de la typologie d'Aubé et al. (2009) est la survalorisation personnelle, qui désigne la tendance à exagérer la valeur de ses propres contributions par rapport à celles de ses collègues. La survalorisation personnelle pourrait ainsi s'exprimer, par exemple, par le fait de minimiser la contribution de ses collègues par rapport à la sienne ou de s'attribuer les succès collectifs.

Cette dimension se rapproche d'ailleurs fortement des comportements politiques individualistes étudiés par Priesemuth, Arnaud et Schminke (2013). Ces comportements se définissant comme les efforts d'influence sociale et de manipulation utilisés à des fins égoïstes (Priesemuth, Arnaud et Schminke, 2013). Les comportements politiques individualistes pourraient s'exprimer par un membre de l'équipe qui tente de s'élever au-dessus de ses coéquipiers en les rabaissant. Ces types de comportement reflètent une attitude de compétition, peu compatible avec la collaboration nécessaire au travail en équipe.

Utilisation déficiente des ressources. Finalement, la dernière dimension de la typologie consiste en l'utilisation déficiente des ressources. Cette dimension fait référence au degré auquel le matériel et l'équipement disponible sont utilisés de manière inappropriée par

des membres de l'équipe (Aubé et al., 2009). Cette dimension réfère notamment au fait de gaspiller des ressources, de briser de l'équipement par négligence, de voler du matériel ou encore, de mettre en danger la sécurité des collègues en ne suivant pas des règles de sécurité associées à l'utilisation de l'équipement. Ce type de comportement peut miner le travail en équipe en privant les membres de l'équipe des ressources nécessaires à l'accomplissement des tâches communes ou en présentant un risque pour la sécurité des membres.

Un autre type de comportement contre-productif d'équipier ne se retrouvant pas dans la typologie d'Aubé et al. (2006, 2009) consiste en le comportement de râler (« complaining behaviors »; Pearce et Giacalone, 2003). Ce comportement réfère au temps perdu par les membres de l'équipe à se plaindre de choses insignifiantes. Par exemple, les membres de l'équipe pourraient utiliser les réunions d'équipe afin de critiquer l'organisation ou pourraient passer une grande partie de leur temps à dénigrer le travail qui doit être accompli.

Jusqu'à présent, la plupart des études qui s'intéressent aux causes de l'adoption de comportements contre-productifs au sein d'une équipe de travail ont porté sur des caractéristiques individuelles ou d'équipe, telles que les traits de personnalité, l'engagement de l'équipe et la taille de l'équipe (Felps et al., 2006; O'Boyle, Forsyth et O'Boyle, 2011; Pearce et Giacalone, 2003). Un diagnostic se limitant strictement à des causes individuelles et collectives peut toutefois s'avérer insuffisant pour expliquer la prévalence des comportements contre-productifs dans une équipe de travail (O'Boyle et al., 2011). Des causes plus systémiques, liées au contexte organisationnel, pourraient également contribuer à expliquer la présence de comportements contre-productifs dans une équipe (Felps et al., 2006). En effet, l'implantation du travail en équipe exige des changements profonds au mode de fonctionnement de l'organisation (Hackman, 2002). Un manque de congruence entre le fonctionnement de l'organisation et le mode d'organisation du travail serait ainsi susceptible de générer de nombreux problèmes, tels que des comportements dysfonctionnels (Vardi et Weitz, 2016).

Le principe d'alignement

Dans cette optique, cette thèse s'appuie sur le principe d'alignement du modèle de comportements organisationnels (*Congruence Model of Organizational Behavior*) de Nadler et Tushman (1980). Selon ces auteurs, les différentes composantes organisationnelles doivent être bien alignées et fonctionner de manière cohérente afin de favoriser une efficacité optimale. En effet, l'organisation est vue comme un système ouvert, où l'ensemble des composantes sont interreliées. Conséquemment, un changement dans l'une des composantes a nécessairement une influence sur les autres composantes de l'organisation. Le postulat posé par les auteurs est qu'une organisation ou une équipe peut réussir uniquement lorsque le travail, les personnes qui accomplissent le travail, la structure organisationnelle et la culture sont en adéquation les uns avec les autres, qu'ils sont « alignés ».

Parmi ce que ces auteurs considèrent comme des composantes de l'organisation se trouve l'environnement organisationnel, les ressources de l'organisation, sa stratégie, son histoire, les tâches à effectuer, les individus au sein de l'organisation, les arrangements organisationnels formels (structures, processus méthodes, procédures) et l'organisation informelle (la culture et les valeurs; Nadler et Tushman, 1980). Ces différentes composantes interagissent entre elles et peuvent influencer les comportements des individus, des équipes et le fonctionnement de l'organisation dans son ensemble.

Cette vision est d'ailleurs cohérente avec l'un des principes des systèmes sociotechniques, selon lequel les systèmes organisationnels de soutien ont un effet direct sur les comportements des employés. Ces systèmes doivent alors être conçus afin de renforcer les comportements désirés (Cherns, 1976; Clegg, Robinson, David et Bolton, 2017). Une équipe de travail étant partie intégrante d'une organisation, les pratiques et politiques (systèmes de soutien) de l'organisation doivent être alignée à ce mode d'organisation du travail. Lorsque ces pratiques sont plutôt adaptées à un travail traditionnel en silo, elles pourraient entrer en conflit

avec les comportements désirés chez une équipe de travail et ainsi empêcher cette équipe d'avoir un fonctionnement optimal (Berniker, 1992; Imanghaliyeva, Thompson, Salmon et Stanton, 2020).

Ainsi, lorsqu'une organisation est basée sur des équipes, le contexte organisationnel devrait donc être cohérent avec les particularités de ce mode d'organisation du travail (Hackman, 2002; Lazwar et Shaw, 2007; Rousseau et al., 2007). Un manque de cohérence entre les exigences du travail en équipe et les autres composantes organisationnelles empêcherait les organisations de profiter pleinement des avantages des équipes de travail en étant susceptibles de favoriser l'adoption de comportements nuisibles au travail en équipe et en entravant la performance des équipes (Hackman, 2002; Nadler et Tushman, 1980; Zhen et Meixin, 2012). En effet, le contexte organisationnel dans lequel les équipes évoluent devrait pouvoir répondre aux besoins des équipes de travail (Hackman, 2002). Lorsque ce n'est pas le cas, cette incongruence serait susceptible de mener à de la frustration, du stress et de la confusion quant aux comportements attendus chez les membres de l'équipe, les prédisposant à adopter des comportements contre-productifs (Atwater et Etkins, 2009; Fox et Spector, 1999; Vardi et Weitz, 2004).

Pourtant, le contexte organisationnel n'a été que peu étudié dans la littérature sur les comportements contre-productifs dans un contexte d'équipes de travail. Ainsi, cette thèse permettra notamment de mieux comprendre les facteurs relatifs au contexte organisationnel qui sont susceptibles d'augmenter la prévalence des comportements contre-productifs au sein des équipes de travail.

Contributions de la thèse

L'étude des comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers est relativement récente. En effet, les cadres théoriques précédents sur les comportements contre-productifs (ex. : Robinson et Bennet, 1995; Vardi et Weitz, 2004) ne prenaient pas en considération les particularités d'un

mode d'organisation du travail basé sur des équipes. Ces typologies catégorisaient ainsi les comportements contre-productifs selon deux cibles possibles : l'individu ou l'organisation (Robinson et Bennet, 1995). Toutefois, lorsque les employés doivent travailler en équipe, une nouvelle cible possible s'ajoute aux précédentes, soit celle de l'équipe de travail elle-même (Pearce et Giacalone, 2003). Peu d'études ont toutefois cherché à distinguer conceptuellement les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers des autres types de comportements contre-productifs et une confusion demeure sur la distinction entre ces types de comportements. De même, bien que la littérature sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipier soit encore récente, elle est aussi éparse. Il s'avère alors nécessaire d'organiser et d'intégrer les connaissances empiriques afin de faciliter les progrès scientifiques dans ce domaine.

Ainsi, à travers une revue de la littérature des vingt dernières années sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers, le premier article de cette thèse, intitulé « Team Counterproductive Behaviors: What Do We Know and Where Do We Go from Here? », comporte deux sous-objectifs, soit de mieux comprendre l'état des connaissances sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers et de clarifier la notion de comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers.

Ce premier article met en lumière le manque de connaissances sur les précurseurs organisationnels des comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. Le construit de contexte de soutien au travail en équipe proposé par Hackman (2002) représente bien certains des éléments contextuels susceptibles d'influencer l'efficacité et les comportements des membres d'une équipe (Wageman, Hackman et Lehman, 2005). Selon Wageman et al. (2005), le contexte de soutien au travail en équipe est composé de quatre facteurs (le système de récompenses, le système de communication, le système de formation et le système d'allocation des ressources). Toutefois, bien que Eisele (2005) et Wageman et al. (2005) ont analysé la cohérence interne ainsi que la validité discriminante et prédictive du construit de contexte de soutien au travail en

équipe, sa représentation multidimensionnelle n'a jamais été validée empiriquement. Cette validation constitue une étape critique pour la recherche visant à mieux comprendre l'influence d'un contexte de soutien au travail en équipe sur les dynamiques et l'efficacité des équipes. Ainsi, le deuxième article de cette thèse « Supportive Organizational Context for Teams: A Study of Construct Validity » a pour objectif, à travers des analyses de type Bifactor-ESEM, de valider la structure factorielle et la validité discriminante de la mesure du concept de soutien organisationnel au travail en équipe.

Finalement, le dernier article de cette thèse intitulé « Counterproductive Behaviors in a Team Context: Implications of a lack of Team Supportive Organizational Context » a pour objectif de tester un modèle empirique de médiation dans lequel le manque de soutien organisationnel au travail en équipe génère des affects négatifs d'équipe, qui se traduisent ensuite par l'adoption de comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. De plus, le rôle modérateur de l'engagement de l'équipe de travail sur la relation entre les affects négatifs d'équipe et les comportements contre-productifs est examiné dans l'article. Pour ce faire, un échantillon de 105 équipes de travail est utilisé pour mettre le modèle empirique à l'épreuve à l'aide d'analyses acheminatoires.

En continuité avec ces trois études, la dernière portion de la thèse cherche à reprendre leurs principaux constats. Les contributions pratiques et théoriques de même que les limites et les pistes de recherche futures de ces trois études seront également discutées.

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Team Counterproductive Behaviors: What Do We Know and Where Do We Go from Here?

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Abstract

The team counterproductive behaviors' (TCBs) literature has grown in recent years. However, there is a lack of integration between previous and current research explained in part by the lack of a shared understanding of what TCBs are and what they are not. Against this background, we provide a framework for delineating and distinguishing team counterproductive behaviors from other types of counterproductive behaviors based on their most proximal level of impact. Furthermore, we review the literature on TCBs from 1999 to 2019. We present our findings based on an input-process-output integrative model. This model comprises three categories of antecedents (team external context, team internal context, team leader), three categories of consequences (team outcomes, team processes and team emergent states) and five moderators. We conclude this review with a discussion of empirical and methodological avenues for future research.

Introduction

Within a group setting, team outcomes can surpass cumulative individual outcomes (Siemon, Becker, Eckardt & Robra-Bissantz, 2019). The tendency for team success to exceed individual efforts can be explained in terms of "process gain", that is, from the adoption of behaviors that facilitate the accomplishment of team collective tasks (productive behaviors), such as members helping other team members (Lepine, Piccolo, Jackson, Mathieu & Saul, 2008). Yet the outcomes of teamwork are often suboptimal due to hidden agendas, bad group dynamics or poor behaviors (Vegt, Visch, de Ridder & Vermeeren, 2015). Indeed, a team context provides opportunities for process gain, but also for "process loss," that is a decrease in teams' effectiveness due to the adoption of behaviors that hinder teamwork (Siemon et al., 2019). Hindering behaviors include not doing one's fair share of work within one's work team, saying hurtful remarks to one's teammate, stealing team resources or constantly complaining about teamwork. These behaviors are detrimental to both team functioning and team effectiveness (Aubé & Rousseau, 2014).

In this context, some studies have started to focus on behaviors that hinder teamwork, which we call Team Counterproductive Behaviors (TCBs; Ben Sasson & Somech, 2015; Lin, Tsai & Liu, 2016). Although the TCBs literature has grown in recent years, it still faces two problems. The first problem relates to the lack of a framework based on a shared understanding of what TCBs are and what they are not. In this context, several studies use the term "team counterproductive behaviors", without actually measuring behaviors that hinder team functioning or team effectiveness (e.g.: Brown & Trevino, 2006; Priesemuth, Arnaud & Schminke, 2013). This confusion over the term TCBs prevents its theoretical development. It is therefore critical to clarify the notion of TCBs before carrying more research in this field.

The second problem TCBs literature is facing relates to the lack of integration between previous and current research. In particular, the terminology "group", "unit" and "team" are

often used interchangeably, making it difficult to distinguish between those studies that focus only on teams and those that focus on all types of work groups. Similarly, since different terms are used by different authors to refer to TCBs, it is currently difficult to know the actual state of knowledge in the field of TCBs and to ensure a real integration between the studies.

Consequently, this article attempts to address these shortcomings. Specifically, it seeks to make three contributions. The first objective of this paper is to provide a new lens for delineating and distinguishing TCBs by proposing a framework of analysis based on the most proximal impact of the counterproductive behaviors adopted. The second objective is to provide a review of current work-related TCBs research. We thus integrate and advance TCBs scholarship by synthesizing the antecedents and consequences of TCBs. Third, we help identify and guide where future research efforts related to TCBs should be directed. The paper concludes with a general discussion that advocates future TCB research.

Team Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Different expressions are used to refer to behaviors that hinder team functioning. Examples include anti-citizenship behaviors (Pearce & Giacialone, 2003), counterproductive behaviors (Aubé, Rousseau, Mama, & Morin, 2009) and dysfunctional behaviors (Cole, Walter & Bruch, 2008). In this paper, given the focus on the consequence of harmful behaviors, we will use the term "counterproductive behavior" (TCBs).

In a team context, TCBs adopted by each team member can interact and combine to characterize the functioning of the whole team. Counterproductive functioning might be reinforced by a contagion effect, whereby the adoption of counterproductive behaviors by some team members increases the probability that other team members will also adopt such behaviors, which will gradually affect the overall functioning of the team (Aubé & Rousseau, 2011; Kelloway & Day, 2005; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977) states that if an employee works with teammates who serve as models for

TCBs, this employee will be more likely to also adopt these TCBs. Social Learning Theory thus emphasizes observational learning, such that team members learn from direct experience and from observing the actions of their teammates, through a vicarious learning process (Bandura, 1977; Khokhar & Rehman, 2017). When teammates adopt counterproductive behaviors, a team member might try to imitate these behaviors and also adopt TCBs (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998).

This social learning process might also interact with a social information assimilation process to contribute to the development of counterproductive team functioning. Teammates not only observe and imitate other team members' behaviors; they also use cues available in their social environment to evaluate the appropriateness of a dysfunctional behavior (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). These cues can come from team norms and expectations, other team members' behavior and teammates' interpretation of this dysfunctional behavior. Members who have learned about a dysfunctional act might then share this finding with others, and, over time, team members will receive common social cues that convince them that dysfunctional behavior is a common and normal response to a shared working environment (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998).

Within a team, TCBs may be initially adopted only by one or a few team members. However, through a contagion effect, TCBs might spread to more and more team members until it characterizes the whole functioning of a team. This counterproductive team functioning cannot be extrapolated by looking at one team member's counterproductive behaviors only; rather, it must be viewed as a collective dynamic (Chan, 1998).

Counterproductive Behaviors in a Team Context: Conceptual Clarification

To date, most previous counterproductive behavior (CB) conceptual frameworks (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Vardi & Weitz, 2004) have not considered the particularities of a team-based organization. These typologies had examined two possible targets of

counterproductive behaviors: the individual and the organization (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). However, in a team-based organization, a counterproductive behavior can also harm team functioning, without the individual or the organization necessarily being a target (Aubé & Rousseau, 2014). As a result, confusion has arisen regarding how TCBs differ from other counterproductive behaviors. To help delineate TCBs and differentiate it from other counterproductive behaviors, we propose a framework of analysis where counterproductive behaviors are classified based on their most proximal level of impact (figure 1). Three levels of impact are included in this framework: the individual, team and organizational levels.

Counterproductive behaviors whose most proximal impact is on the employee perpetrating these behaviors might include workaholism (Weitz & Vardi, 2008), presenteeism (Lu, Lin & Cooper, 2013; Skagen & Collins, 2016) and substance abuse (Bacharach, Bamberger & Sonnenstuhl, 2002; Vardi & Weitz, 2004). Even if indirect consequences might result from these types of counterproductive behaviors, their most proximal impact is on the employee and that individual's functioning and performance in the workplace. Vardi and Weitz (2004) construe substance abuse and workaholism as intrapersonal misbehavior. It has been demonstrated that employees who abuse drugs and alcohol and those who go to work when ill are more likely to suffer from physical and psychological problems (e.g., depression, anxiety, exhaustion, headaches and colds; Bacharach et al., 2002; Lu et al., 2013).

Team counterproductive behaviors include behaviors whose most proximal impact is on teams' functioning and effectiveness. Behaviors that fall into this category include parasitism (consisting of not doing one's fair share of work; Aubé et al., 2009; Pearce & Giacalone, 2003), self-serving political behaviors (manipulative social behaviors aimed at self-serving outcomes instead of team outcomes; Priesemuth et al., 2013), misuse of resources (improper use of available team's materials and equipment; Aubé et al., 2009), interpersonal aggression (behaviors that impede teammates' physical or psychological integrity; Aubé et al., 2009) and

boastfulness (behaviors that exaggerate the value of one's own contribution compared with those of teammates; Aubé et al., 2009).

Some counterproductive behaviors that mainly affect the organization have often been called "property deviance" in counterproductive typologies (Robinson & Bennet, 1995; Weitz & Vardi, 2008). For example, in Robinson and Bennet's (1995) and Weitz and Vardi's (2004) typologies, stealing from the company is included in the category called "property deviance" and is identified as one of the most pervasive forms of counterproductive behaviors. Other behaviors that could fall into the category of behaviors whose most proximal impact is on the organization include fraud, embezzlement and industrial espionage. These behaviors incur direct costs for the organization, which must then replace stolen or damaged property (Everton, Jolton & Mastrangelo, 2007); alternatively, behaviors such as fraud may reduce the firm's stock market value (Zahra, Priem & Rasheed, 2005).

It is important to note that even if a specific counterproductive behavior has a most proximal level of impact, it can affect other levels as well. For example, an employee who attends work when sick will exhibit poorer individual performance (Hemp, 2004). However, due to team members' interdependence, an indirect impact could also occur on that employee's team's performance. As another example, fraud behaviors by one team member could damage the whole team's reputation. Even if managerial fraud has its most proximal impact on the organization, it can also have consequences outside the organization's boundaries. It has been demonstrated that managerial fraud can depress a moral climate in a society and might induce a loss of tax revenue for a city or a country (Zahra et al., 2005).

Another way a specific counterproductive behavior might influence another level of impact is through its effect on the adoption of other counterproductive behaviors. For example, a team member who abuses alcohol may be more likely to adopt interpersonal aggression behaviors, which, in addition to harming one's health and individual performance, will also

disturb the team's functioning. It has been demonstrated that increased days of drinking and of heavy drinking were associated with verbal and physical perpetration of workplace aggression (McFarlin, Fals-Stewart, Major & Justice, 2001). A counterproductive behavior whose most proximal impact is on the employee (e.g. alcohol abuse) may thus influence the adoption of other counterproductive behaviors whose most proximal impact is on the functioning of the team (e.g. interpersonal aggression). To represent the permeability between each level of impact, dotted lines have been added to Figure 1.

Figure 1

Counterproductive behavior framework based on the most proximal level of impact

Organizational CB

Embezzlement

Fraud

Theft

Team CB

Self-serving political behaviors

Boastfulness

Misuse of collective resources

Interpersonal aggression

Parasitism

Individual CB

Alcohol and drug abuse

Workaholism

Presenteeism
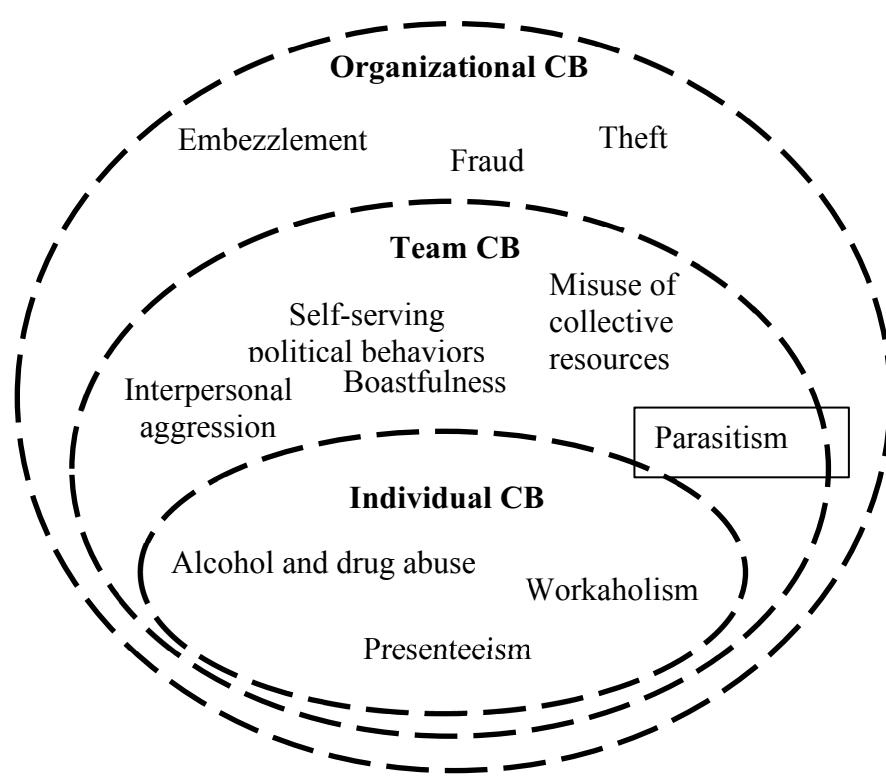
Note. The specific behaviors included in figure 1 are only examples; they do not represent an exhaustive list of counterproductive work behaviors.

As seen in this section, TCBs have deleterious consequences on team functioning, including a disruptive effect on the accomplishment of collaborative tasks (Glomb & Liao, 2003; Götz, Bollman & O'Boyle, 2019). It is therefore important to better understand the factors that promote or inhibit the development of this counterproductive team dynamic. The following literature review summarizes the current state of knowledge regarding the antecedents and consequences of team-level TCBs.

Methodology

To conduct our review, we carried out a search on several databases until saturation was achieved: EBSCO, ProQuest, ScienceDirect, PsycNet and Emerald Insight. The search was performed by limiting results to articles that contained different combination of keywords that had to be in the abstract or the title of the article (e.g., "teams" AND "counterproductive behaviors"; "teamwork" AND "anti-social behavior"). We used sixty different combinations of keywords in our search. We searched for all articles published in the last 20 years (from 1999 to 2019). From this pre-screening, 207 articles were retrieved.

Once the articles were retrieved, four criteria were applied to limit the pool of relevant articles. First, the article had to describe an empirical and quantitative study. Second, it had to focus on teams, defined as a formal group of at least two individuals who are interdependent and collectively responsible for the accomplishment of organizational or academic tasks (Aubé, Rousseau & Tremblay, 2011; Baysinger, 2011). Third, given that this literature review deals with team functioning, the research had to refer to behaviors at a team level of analysis. Finally, the work had to examine behaviors that hinder the achievement of common tasks.

It is also important to note that group phenomena such as social loafing and groupthink were not included in this review. Rather, this literature review focuses on counterproductive behaviors. Given that social loafing and groupthink refer to cognitive and affective processes

as well as to behaviors, we decided to exclude those group phenomena from the literature review. This process resulted in a final pool of 17 empirical articles.

Current State of Research on TCBs

In order to provide a comprehensive summary of the results of our literature review, we developed a visual representation synthesizing the current empirical literature on the subject. Based on the results of our literature review, we classified our findings within three categories of antecedents (team external context, team internal context, team leader characteristics), three categories of consequences (team outcomes, team processes and team emergent states) and five moderators (Figure 1). The classification of the antecedents to TCBs was based on Maloney, Bresman, Zellmer-Bruhn, & Beaver (2016) suggestions. Accordingly, because the term "team context" has been used in diverse ways in team research (e.g. to refer to team internal context as well as team external context), it is best to make internal and external distinctions clear by stating whether an antecedent is inside or outside the team boundary.

Taking this recommendation into account, the terms "internal" and "external" will be used to classify the empirical literature. Team external micro context refers to external aspects of the context that are tailored to teams' needs and therefore might vary between teams. In contrast, team internal context refers to aspects that are within the team boundary. The last category, team leader characteristics, was analyzed distinctly from the two previous categories. Studies often do not specify whether the team leader is a direct member of the team or is situated outside team boundaries. Indeed, in some studies, characteristics of the team leader could be part of the team internal context, while in others they may be part of the team external micro context and or even the team external macro context (Maloney et al., 2016). Therefore, to avoid confusion we created a separate category to refer to the leader's characteristics.

Figure 2

Visual Representation of literature review results

Antecedents

Team Internal Context

Structural features
Team Size (+)
Team Cooperative Goals (-)

Compositional features
Value Congruence (-)
Team Openness to Experience (-)
Team Psychopathy (+)
Cultural Background *

Team Processes
Positive Procedural Statements (-)
Team Conflict (+)
Team Destructive Reactions to Conflict (+)
Perceived Social Loafing (+)

Team Emergent States
Team Commitment (-)
Collective Efficacy (-)
Positive Team Climate (-)

Team Leader Characteristics
Team Leader Solecism (+)
Inclusive Leadership (-)
Authentic Leadership (-)

Team External Micro Context
Effort-Respect Mismatch (+)
Perceived Organizational Support (-)

Moderators

Task Interdependence

Team Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Moderators

Negative Affective Tone
Relation Closeness
Leader Emotion Management Behaviors

Consequences

Team Processes and Team Emergent States

Collaboration (-)
Team Negative Affective Tone (+)
Team Goal Commitment (-)
Task Meaningfulness (-)
Team Relationship Conflicts (+)
Team Task Conflicts (+)

Team Outcomes

Work Outcomes
Team Performance (-)
Team Meeting Success (-)
Team Innovation (-)
Team Process Improvement (-)

Influences on Team Members' Affective Outcomes
Team Viability (-)
Quality of Group Experience (-)
Team Satisfaction (-)

Note. (-) indicates a negative relationship and (+) indicates a positive relationship with TCBs.

Most articles retrieved from our literature review used a similar methodology. First, most of these studies used a cross-sectional design (13 studies). Also, typically, antecedents and TCBs were measured by team members while effectiveness variables were measured by supervisors. Only one study, in which TCBs were measured by supervisors, was an exception to this method. Sample sizes varied greatly from one study to another, ranging from one team (Klonek, Quera, Burna & Kauffeld, 2016) to 192 teams (Seo, 2016). Nevertheless, most studies had samples of fewer than 100 teams (15 out of 17 studies).

Consequences of Teams' Counterproductive Behaviors

Team's counterproductive work behaviors can have various detrimental consequences for the team. Research demonstrates that TCBs affect team emergent states and various team processes, and can even hinder team outcomes. The studies of TCB consequences are presented in Table 1.

Consequences on Emergent States and Team Processes. Research has demonstrated that TCBs create a negative work climate that interferes with many teams' emergent states and one team process: collaboration. The adoption of TCBs thus engenders a collective high level of negative emotions, which is called teams' negative affective tone (Cole et al., 2008). When a team adopts TCBs, team members might perceive this dynamic as an unfavorable work experience, which is known to generate strong collective negative af ects (Cole & al., 2008; Rozin & Royzman, 2001). Moreover, when team members adopt aggressive behaviors toward other team members, this might be perceived as a lack of respect and consideration. Thus, team members would not feel valued, which would affect their social identification with their team and their desire to contribute to achieving collective goals (Aubé & Rousseau, 2011). Interpersonal aggression thus harms teams' goal commitment (Aubé & Rousseau, 2011). This negative work climate engendered by the presence of TCBs even interferes with collaboration

(Aubé & Rousseau, 2014). Aubé and Rousseau (2014) showed that collaboration, a key component of teamwork, decreases when TCBs are manifested within a team.

Further, scholars have found that complaining behaviors, a specific type of TCBs, lead team members to develop a negative judgment about the perceived meaningfulness of their collective work tasks (Aubé & Rousseau, 2016). According to social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), team members' complaints about their collective tasks are used as cues by other team members, and influence how they perceive these collective tasks (Aubé & Rousseau, 2016).

Finally, Raver and Gelfand (2005) found that team-level sexual harassment behaviors are positively related to relationship conflict and task conflict. Specifically, the different coping strategies of victims and witnesses of sexual harassment behaviors increase overt and covert tensions within the team, which increases team conflict.

Consequences on Teams' Outcomes. The deleterious effects of TCBs on team emergent states and processes go even further. Not surprisingly, all studies agree that the adoption of TCBs compromises work outcomes and influences team members' affective outcomes.

Work Outcomes. The adoption of TCBs has numerous work outcomes. One of these important outcomes regards team performance. Team performance refers to the team's achievement of its performance objectives, along with team productivity, quality of work performed and compliance with deadlines (Aubé & Rousseau, 2011). The negative relationship between TCBs and team performance has been demonstrated in various studies (Aubé & Rousseau, 2011, 2016; Hohenstein, 2007; Lin et al., 2016; Seo, 2016).

Other work outcomes are strongly affected by the adoption of TCBs. A negative relationship has also been found between TCBs and team process improvements (i.e., degree to which teams introduce new practices in their daily work with the goal of improving the way

they perform their tasks; Aubé & Rousseau, 2016) as well as between TCBs and team innovation (i.e., the introduction of new ideas, processes, products or procedures; Seo, 2016). In addition, TCBs hinder team meeting success; specifically they decrease meeting satisfaction and team productivity (Kauffeld & Lehmann-Willenbrock, 2012).

Affective Outcomes. Most often, authors conceptualize team effectiveness as three-dimensional. The first dimension is team performance and the other two dimensions refer to affective outcomes, namely quality of group experience and team viability (Savoie & Brunet, 2000; Hackman, 1990; Hackman & Hackman, 2002). TCBs have been shown to hinder both of these affective dimensions. Indeed, two studies confirm that TCBs hinder team viability, defined as team members' capacity to keep working together over time (Aubé and Rousseau, 2011; Hohenstein, 2007). Moreover, Aubé et al. (2011) show that quality of the group experience, defined as positive reactions experienced by team members, is also negatively related to TCBs. Finally, in terms of affective outcomes, Hohenstein (2007) found a negative relationship between team deviance and team satisfaction.

Moderators Between Teams' Counterproductive Work Behavior and its Consequences

Only one variable has been studied as a moderator between TCBs and its consequences, being task interdependence. Task interdependence has been shown to reinforce the negative relationship between complaining behaviors and perceived task meaningfulness (Aubé and Rousseau, 2016). Indeed, high interdependence increases interactions between members and, consequently, allows team members to more easily acquire social cues from other team members. When team members are highly interdependent, they tend to share a similar work reality. As such, they feel even more concerned by the complaints of their teammates, which strengthens the effects of complaining behaviors on task meaningfulness.

To conclude, all these studies underline the detrimental effects of TCBs. The presence of TCBs within a team has significant consequences. In this context, it is essential to understand

the determinants that trigger TCBs in order to prevent the harmful behaviors that contribute to this counterproductive dynamic.

Antecedents of Teams' Counterproductive Work Behavior Dynamic

Several antecedents to TCBs have been studied. First, antecedents from the internal team context category will be presented. Leadership antecedents will then be discussed, followed by team external micro-context antecedents. The studies of TCBs antecedents are presented in Table 1.

Team Internal Context. Team internal context has been the most studied antecedent with regard to TCBs. These internal antecedents are described in detail below, and are organized into four categories: structural, compositional, processes and emergent states.

Structural features. Two structural features were shown to influence the adoption of TCBs: team size and team objectives. Team size is positively related to the adoption of TCBs (Aubé, Rousseau & Tremblay, 2011). In larger teams, members may perceive that their individual contributions and actions cannot easily be identified, leading members to feel they have little responsibility or can hardly be held responsible for their destructive actions, due to a sense of anonymity (Garcia, Weaver, Moskowitz, & Darley, 2002). Larger teams are also often characterized by weaker cohesion and greater psychological distance and, as team size increases, the potential for disagreement and antagonism also increases (Amason & Sapienza, 1997; Pearce & Herbik, 2004). The characteristics of a team's objectives also seem to affect the adoption of TCBs. It has been demonstrated that team cooperative goals are negatively related to TCBs (Seo, 2016). In fact, the presence of cooperative goals creates a positive work climate that reduces the likelihood that members of the collective will engage in inappropriate behaviors (De Dreu, 2007).

Compositional features. Compositional features refer to the combination of team members' characteristics (Mathieu, Hollenbeck, Knippenberg, & Ilgen, 2017). Within this

literature review, three compositional features were shown to have an impact on TCBs. The first composition feature concerns personality traits. According to the complementary analysis done by Hohenstein (2007), teams characterized by a high level of openness to experience, defined as a high level of imagination, sensitivity and curiosity (Neuman, Wagner, & Christiansen, 1999), are less likely to engage in TCBs (Hohenstein, 2007). Research has also demonstrated that team psychopathy, represented by a deceitful interpersonal style, impulsive behavior and deficient affective experience, is positively related to TCBs (Baysinger, 2011). When a team is characterized by a high level of psychopathy, team members tend to have more difficulty empathizing with their teammates, and the team tends to exhibit less behavioral control, which may lead to an inability to inhibit harmful behaviors directed toward the team (Baysinger, 2011).

Another important compositional feature is the similarity between each member's values and those of the team, called value congruence (Seo, 2016). Value congruence has been shown to be negatively related to TCBs (Seo, 2016). When team members hold similar values, they are encouraged to pursue their collective goals beyond their own self-interest, which buffers against the occurrence of TCBs (Seo, 2016; Zhen & Meixin, 2012).

The last compositional feature that has been studied in relation to TCBs concerns cultural background. Lehmann-Willenbrock, Allen, and Meinecke (2014) found that cultural background influences the frequency of counteractive communication behaviors, which refers to complaints or responsibility to improve one's work. They observed that in the average German team meeting, counteractive behaviors occurred more than twice as often as in the average U.S.-American meeting.

Team Processes. Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro (2001) advance that team processes comprise three dimensions: transition processes, action processes and interpersonal processes. Within TCB research, only one study has investigated a specific action process (positive

procedural communication) and three studies looked at one interpersonal process (conflict management).

Regarding the action process, Klonek et al. (2016) compared sequential behavior patterns. They specifically examined positive procedural communication, which refers to statements aimed at structuring a team meeting, and one counteractive communication behavior, negative action-oriented communication. They found that positive procedural communication inhibits the emergence of negative action-oriented communication (Klonek, et al., 2016). TCBs are less likely to occur in team meetings if preceded by positive procedural statements such as time management and clarifying goals (Klonek, et al., 2016).

Further, team conflict promotes TCBs. The results obtained by Ben Sasson and Somech (2015) demonstrate that team relationship conflicts, defined as team members' perception of incompatibility regarding personal issues that are not task-related (Jehn & Rispens, 2008), are positively linked to team aggression. Moreover, Hohenstein (2007) demonstrated that relationship conflicts are related to team deviance. However, Rispens, Greer, Jehn, & Thatcher (2011) conclude that relationship conflicts are positively associated with TCBs, but only in relationally distant work groups, that is only when team members do not feel close to each other and do not know each other that well. Hohenstein (2007) contends that relationship conflicts aside, task conflicts and process conflicts are also positively related to TCBs. It is interesting to note that relationship and task conflicts have also been found to be a consequence of TCBs (Raver & Gelfand, 2005), thus suggesting the potential presence of a reciprocal effect.

Ayoko and Callan (2010) go further; instead of studying the presence of a conflict within a team, they explored team destructive reactions to conflict, which refers to team members' difficulty in settling a conflict, learning from a conflict and moving on once a conflict has been resolved. They found that because team destructive reactions to conflict lead to an unresolved escalated conflict, they are positively related to team bullying behaviors.

Team Emergent States. Four team emergent states have been studied in relation to TCBs: team climate, team commitment, team collective efficacy and perceived social loafing. More specifically, Baysinger (2011) and Seo (2016) demonstrated that a positive team climate, defined as shared perceptions of fairness, support, trust, and absence of conflict within one's work team, is negatively related to TCBs. Indeed, team climate theory states that when there is a strong positive work climate within a team, team members are less likely to perceive counterproductive behaviors as appropriate and to adopt negative work behaviors (Peterson, 2002). This constraining effect of positive team climate also holds with collective efficacy. Baysinger (2011) also concluded that collective efficacy, defined as a shared belief by team members in their collective capability to accomplish tasks (Bandura, 1997), plays a role in reducing TCBs. In a team characterized by a high level of collective efficacy, a team member whose actions are inconsistent with the team's expectations for success is likely to be sanctioned by the team (Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2004). Strong beliefs in the team's ability may shape expectations for particular behaviors, and consequently discourage team members from violating these group expectations through the adoption of TCBs (Baysinger, 2011; Goddard et al., 2004).

Moreover, within team boundaries a high level of team commitment could reduce the risks of teams' developing a TCB dynamic. Team commitment refers to the extent to which team members are concerned about the success of their team (Pearce & Giacalone, 2003). When team members are committed to achieving their team goals, they will be less likely to engage in counterproductive behaviors that could compromise the accomplishment of those goals (Pearce & Giacalone, 2003). However, it is important to note that a decrease in team goal commitment has also been theorized to be a consequence of TCBs (Aubé & Rousseau 2011). These different conclusions could be due to correlational designs or to a reciprocal effect.

Finally, perceived social loafing within a team also is positively related to TCBs (Baysinger, 2011). Social loafing is characterized by a decrease in efforts when working in teams compared with the effort exerted when working alone (Latané, Williams, & Harkins, 1979; George, 1992). Spector (1997) posits that antisocial behavior could result from situational stressors such as social loafing. In this context, when team members perceive asymmetry in the relative contributions of their teammates, they might compensate by engaging in interpersonal deviance behaviors (e.g. acting rudely toward teammates, and excluding a teammate from team conversations; Baysinger, 2011).

Team Leader Characteristics. The leadership style of a team leader might also play a role in the manifestation of team-level TCBs. More specifically, two different leadership styles have been studied in relation to TCBs. One is the inclusive leadership style, which refers to leaders who demonstrate openness, accessibility and availability in their interactions with their subordinates (Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon & Ziv, 2010). Lin et al. (2016) affirmed that inclusive leadership is negatively related to the adoption of TCBs.

The other leadership style that has been studied in relation to TCBs is the authentic leadership style. Truly authentic leaders communicate the most important values to team members, openly share information, express their thoughts and feelings honestly, and act consistently with those values and feelings (Chan, Hannah, & Gardner, 2005). It has been demonstrated that this authentic leadership style has a direct negative effect on TCBs (Seo, 2016).

Rather than studying a leadership style, Pearce and Giacalone (2003) examined a specific leadership behavior, namely team leader solecism. Team leader solecism is defined as team members' perception that their team leader is focusing on errors and mistakes (Pearce & Giacalone, 2003). These authors found that team leader solecism is positively related to the adoption of TCBs (Pearce & Giacalone, 2003). Indeed, according to the norm of reciprocity

(Gouldner, 1960), team members tend to want to repay their leader for how they are treated. When they perceive that they are treated negatively, they are more likely to adopt TCBs to take revenge on their offensive leader (Pearce & Giacalone, 2003).

Team External Micro-Context Antecedents. The organization as a whole might also play a role in preventing TCBs by supporting their teams, valuing each team's efforts and treating all teams fairly. Regarding team external micro-context, it has been demonstrated that perceived organizational support is negatively related to the manifestation of TCBs (Pearce & Giacalone, 2003). Perceived organizational support refers to the team members; perception that the organization provides them with all the tools they need to succeed (e.g., resources and training; Pearce & Giacalone, 2003). According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), employees who perceive that the organization supports their success are likely to reciprocate by adopting behaviors that promote the organization's success (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986).

Lin et al. (2016) studied the concept of effort-respect mismatch, which is quite close to the concept of organizational support. Effort-respect mismatch refers to the incongruence between the level of effort exerted by a team and the recognition of that effort by the organization. The authors found that effort-respect mismatch is positively related to TCBs, and that TCBs mediate the relationship between effort-respect mismatch and team performance. In this context, teams that have a low effort-respect mismatch are more likely to perceive that their organization views them as worthy contributors and respects them. In return, teams will be more likely to avoid manifesting dysfunctional behaviors that would reduce their performance (Lin et al., 2016).

Moderators Between Antecedents and Teams' Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Three different moderators between TCBs' antecedents and TCBs have been studied: negative affective tone, relational closeness and leader emotion management.

Negative Affective Tone. Lin et al. (2016) studied negative team affective tone as a moderator between inclusive leadership and TCBs as well as between effort-respect mismatch and TCBs. They found that the relationship between inclusive leadership and TCBs is stronger when the team collectively experiences high negative emotions (Lin et al., 2016), in which case they are more likely to adopt TCBs. When a team's experience of negative affective emotions worsens, the leader will play a critical role in helping team members avoid adopting TCBs in response to these negative emotions. Moreover, Lin et al. (2016) also found that negative affective tone weakens the strength of the positive relationship between effort-respect mismatch and TCBs. A strong negative affective tone purportedly creates a diversion that leads team members to forget their rational evaluation of the effort-respect mismatch, hence weakening the relationship between effort-respect mismatch and TCBs. Conversely, a low negative affective tone increases team members' propensity to notice the dissonance between their invested effort and the perceive recognition of that effort (Lin et al., 2016).

Relational Closeness. Relational closeness is defined as the degree to which team members feel close to one another and intimately know each other (Cross & Morris, 2003; Rispens et al., 2011). Rispens et al. (2011) conclude that relationship conflicts are positively associated with TCBs, but only in relationally distant work groups, that is only when team members do not feel close to each other and do not know each other that well. Indeed, the more team members feel close to each other, the better the team is able to handle conflicts, even when those conflicts pertain to personal issues. As such, relational closeness acts as a buffer in the negative association between relationship conflict and TCBs.

Leader Emotion Management Behaviors. In their study, Ayoko and Callan (2010) found that the team leader's capacity to manage the teams' inappropriate responses to conflict moderates the relationship between team destructive reactions to conflict and bullying behaviors. Thus, when a team leader can manage team emotional reactions, the effect of team

destructive reactions on team bullying is lower. According to these authors, a leader must be able to assist the team in setting boundaries around inappropriate reactions to conflict, which might prevent conflict escalation and thus limit the effect of a team's destructive reaction to conflict on the adoption of bullying behaviors.

<div align="center">**Future Research Agenda**</div>

In the present review, we proposed a conceptual framework based on the most proximal impact of the counterproductive behaviors adopted to help delineate and distinguish TCBs. We then carried out a literature review on TCBs antecedents and consequences. By focusing on team counterproductive behaviors, this literature review stands out from previous counterproductive behaviors reviews. We integrated and advanced TCBs scholarship by synthesizing the antecedents and consequences of TCBs. As seen above, we have learned much about TCBs through empirical research. However, much more remains to be grasped. Therefore, we conclude this paper by identifying gaps in current knowledge of TCBs and by providing an agenda for future research.

TCBs as a Dynamic Behavioral Process

As the literature review illustrates, most research on TCBs is cross-sectional, and TCBs have been studied as a static team process instead of as a dynamic one. Team processes are inherently a dynamic phenomenon (Kozlowski, 2015). There are two primary ways that TCBs dynamic can be analyzed. As a group-level construct, TCBs develop over time from team members' interactions and eventually characterize the functioning of the whole team. Once they characterize team functioning, team-level TCBs can fluctuate over time: their intensity can decrease or increase through an escalation process (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). In this section, we will discuss these two dynamics and identify related avenues of future research.

Emergence of TCBs as a collective construct. Although the literature is consistent with the view of TCBs as a phenomenon that emerges from the individual level to the team

level over time, most studies in this review still reflect a cross-sectional approach, in that they examine snapshots of collective-level TCBs. From the seventeen articles that were retrieved in the literature review, only four did not use a cross-sectional approach (Baysinger, 2011; Hohenstein, 2007; Kauffeld et al., 2012; Klonek et al., 2016). For the other studies included in this literature review, the cross-sectional design makes it more difficult to draw conclusions about the directionality of relationships. Moreover, some variables have been shown, in different studies, to be both antecedents and consequences of TCBs (team conflict and team commitment). Consequently, to date, scant studies of TCBs have adopted a longitudinal perspective, and to our knowledge none has focused on the processes involved in the emergence of a counterproductive team dynamic. A first important avenue of research thus relates to TCBs as a dynamic behavioral process.

Acton, Foti, Lord and Gladfelter (2019) specify two principles that can provide overall insight into the emergence of a phenomenon: identify the individual-level elements that impact the emergent process, and identify the process mechanisms by which emergence occurs. Within the multilevel theory, an emergent process is characterized by lower-level components, such as cognitions, behaviors and attitudes, that affect the process (Kozlowski & Bell, 2013). These elements are, however, only the ingredients, and do not capture how and why they interact to form a higher-level construct dynamic (Acton et al., 2019).

Therefore, a promising avenue for future research on TCBs is to identify the lower-level ingredients that shape the emergence process and to determine how they interact to form a team counterproductive dynamic. Different lower-level components could influence the emergence of TCBs, such as personality traits (Spector & Fox, 2005; Hohenstein, 2007; Sulea, Maricutoiu, Dumitru & Pitariu, 2015), susceptibility to contagion (Hatfield et al., 1993, 1994), negative affectivity (O'Boyle, Forsyth & O'Boyle, 2011) and attachment style (Pheiffer, 2016). In the study of those lower-level components, it will also be important to look at different team

compositions (team members' diversity or similarity on personality traits, negative affectivity, attachment style, etc.). It has actually been demonstrated that in traditional settings, employees' diversity is related to the adoption of organizational counterproductive behaviors (Githens, 2011; O'Boyle, Forsyth & O'Boyle, 2011). Future research will be needed to study if these findings are corroborated within a team setting.

In this literature review, we can note that a lot of attention has been given to antecedents in team internal context. Actually, ten different studies in our literature review focused on antecedents of TCBs and nine out of those ten studies focused on team internal context. However, far less attention has been given to the relationship between team members' attributes and TCBs. Future research would be required to demonstrate how these lower-level ingredients affect the emergence process and how they interact therein.

Three mechanisms might be of particular interest to study how lower-level components interact to develop a counterproductive dynamic: the contagion process (the rapid spread of TCBs through a team; Robinson & Bennet, 1995), social information processing (utilization of social cues to judge the appropriateness of TCBs; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) and the social learning process (adoption of TCBs through observational learning; Khokhar & Rehman, 2017). These three mechanisms have been used in the TCB literature to explain the emergence of a counterproductive team dynamic, yet the actual impact of those mechanisms on the emergence of team-level TCBs has never been empirically demonstrated.

Future Research Design Imperatives. To study the emergence of TCBs as a collective dynamic, research designs must evolve beyond the cross-sectional. First, longitudinal designs will be critical to study the emergence of TCBs. Such designs afford a more thorough approach to the examination of TCBs' emergence trajectories depending on individual differences and social-contextual factors (Lang, Bliese & de Voogt, 2017). The first longitudinal approach that could be undertaken to study emergence rests on qualitative research methods (Blee, 2013;

Gehman, Trevino & Garud, 2013; Kozlowski & Chao, 2012). Qualitative research methods could be used to study the processes involved in the emergence of a counterproductive dynamic in newly formed teams. For example, team members could be asked to regularly (e.g. daily or weekly) fill in a logbook in which they record their team interactions and team behaviors. A similar approach was used by Tenenberg (2008) to study free-riding behaviors within teams. Tenenberg (2008) used a case study to analyze student teams' weekly reports. To our knowledge, there is only scant studies that used this type of approach to study TCBs. This approach would let researchers study the individual characteristics and mechanisms that influence the emergence of TCBs over time. These logbooks would thus help TCB researchers learn more about the mechanisms involved in the emergence of a collective counterproductive dynamic. However, this type of research requires newly form teams and a lot of involvement from team members who need to complete logbooks regularly.

Longitudinal approaches based on quantitative data could also be used to study the influence of lower-level characteristics on the emergence of counterproductive dynamics. Various lower-level characteristics (e.g. personality, affective traits) as well as TCBs could be measured in newly formed teams at various time points when changes and dynamics within teams are likely to occur. To study the emergence of a counterproductive dynamic, residual variance in TCBs could be used as an outcome in a statistical model called the consensus emergence model (CEM; Lang et al., 2017). In this type of model, time is coded 0 at the origin of time and increases by one with each measurement period. The interpretation of changes in residual variances between each measurement period is then fairly straightforward. Negative values of residual variances can be interpreted as an approximately linear decrease in the emergence, values near zero indicate stability over time, and positive values indicate an approximate linear increase in emergence (Lang et al., 2017).

The notion that modeling residual variances can help study predictors' fluctuations in residual variance within individuals and groups has existed for some time outside of organizational research areas (e.g., health research, Hoffman, 2007; aging research, Rast, MacDonald, & Hofer, 2012; and emotion research, Kuppens & Yzerbyt, 2014).

In the context of emergence within a team, individual team members represent fluctuations around latent group means. The CEM model combines a growth model for latent group means along with existing approaches for modeling residual variances over time. This model allows the testing of predictors and interactions between predictors by contrasting the fit of different CEMs (Lang et al., 2017).

The last approach that would be useful for studying TCB emergence is computational modeling (Vancouver & Weinhardt, 2012). Computational models are mathematical, algorithmic descriptions of processes that are operationalized by computer programs. This research methodology is particularly well suited to theory refinement because it increases the internal consistency and precision of theoretical description (Weinhardt, Griep & Sosnowska, 2019). Computational modeling would thus be appropriate to further explore the emergence of complex patterns in TCBs over time (Kozlowski, Chao, Grand, Braun & Kuljanin, 2016). To use computational modeling, a detailed model would first have to be built that would capture the presumed underlying components and processes involved in the emergence of TCBs. Hypothetical data would then be simulated based on this model (Kozlowski et al., 2016). Nonetheless, more research on TCBs antecedents will be required before developing a robust model of emergence for computational modeling. Indeed, as of now, only twelve studies have focused on TCBs antecedents. These studies looked mainly at team internal context variables and further research on lower-level components (e.g. personality traits), on team external context and on team leader characteristics will be required before developing an emergence model for computational modeling.

This computational approach would provide an explicit accuracy check for the hypothesized TCB emergence model, and could help inform future research design and collection of primary research data related to TCBs (Kozlowski & Bell, 2013). For further details on this approach, different examples of computational modeling of team emergence can be found in the studies by Kozlowski et al. (2016) and Travers (2018).

Fluctuations of team-level TCBs over time. As mentioned above, another way to study team process dynamics is to analyze their fluctuation over time. Even when this team process is manifested as a collective team dynamic, it is not static and can still fluctuate (Kozlowski, 2015). In the case of TCBs, counterproductive behaviors within a team might fluctuate in intensity over time (Anderson & Pearson, 1999). They may thus decrease or intensify. However, our literature review suggests that there is an obvious lack of empirical studies that have assessed longitudinal changes in TCBs to understand how and why the changes could occur over time. These changes could occur naturally in the team's life cycle, follow a sudden change within a team or could be triggered by an organizational change (Kozlowski, 2015).

Theoretically, it has been suggested that in organizations, counterproductive behaviors that are less intense in nature can serve as the initial step in an upward spiral that leads to more intense forms of counterproductive behaviors (Anderson & Pearson, 1999). Counterproductive behaviors of team members thus lead to more intense counterproductive behaviors among other team members, which escalates and generates increasingly intense counterproductive behaviors over time (Anderson & Pearson, 1999; Felps, Mitchell, & Byington, 2006). This theoretical proposition has, however, never been tested empirically. In the stream of research on team dynamics and fluctuations over time, analyzing this escalation process would therefore represent an important contribution to the TCBs literature.

These changes in team-level TCBs could also occur as a consequence of a change within the organization or the team. For example, modifying work methods, such as teleworking or flexible workplaces and hours, could influence the team's dynamic considerably. These new ways of working enable team members to work independently of time, place and technology, and change the way they interact (Raghuram, Hill, Gibbs, & Maruping, 2017). A team in which team members suddenly start to work from diverse locations might experience a change in interactions and, consequently in its counterproductive dynamic. In reality, teleworkers have fewer opportunities for social and informal interactions with team members, and a lower quality and frequency of information exchange among team members (Maruyama & Tietze, 2012; Fonner & Roloff, 2010). An interesting future research avenue would be to explore growth trajectories of TCBs in well-established teams whose work methods are changing. It would also be particularly relevant to study the consequences of these fluctuations in team-level TCBs on team members, on the whole team and on the organization.

Nevertheless, the lack of longitudinal studies on TCBs could be due to the difficulty of predicting multiple measurement times for a sample of teams whose composition has remained intact. Because within team research, a team represents a single participant (instead of one participant per team member), turnovers and hirings make it difficult to collect data over multiple measurement points.

Integration of External Contextual Factors in TCBs Research

This literature review also highlighted the scant knowledge of the external contextual factors influencing the adoption of TCBs. On the seventeen articles retrieved from our literature review, only two studied potential external contextual factors (effort-respect mismatch and perceived organizational support). This suggests an important gap in our knowledge of TCBs antecedents.

Indeed, researchers have found that higher-level external contextual factors can shape and constrain the development of a phenomenon such as team-level TCBs (Kozlowski, Chao, Grand, Braun & Kuljanin, 2013). Organizations are "strong" situations, meaning that they can exert pressure on teams such that members behave in a certain way. Consequently, external contextual factors within an organization, such as the structure or an incentive system, can exert a powerful influence on team members' behaviors (Kozlowski & Chao, 2012), and could therefore affect the spread of counterproductive behaviors within a work team. For example, it has previously been stated that supportive organizational context (i.e.: reward systems, communication systems, training systems, etc.) have an important influence on employees' behaviors (Cherns, 1976; Hackman, 2002).

Moreover, it is largely recognized that employees' behaviors are influenced by the way they are rewarded, which is an important dimension underlying the concept of supportive organizational context (Aime, Meyer & Humphrey, 2010; Hackman, 2002). If managers want teammates to work cooperatively in a team, they must set performance goals and reward people as a team (Garbers & Konradt, 2014). One advantage of team-based rewards is that they can motivate team members to work cooperatively (Johnson et al., 2006). Therefore, it could be hypothesized that an incentive system based on team performance would limit the spread of counterproductive behaviors by reinforcing cooperative behaviors.

The contagion of TCBs could also come from a feeling of disparity or outrage within a team, i.e. from top-down external contextual effects such as organizational injustice (Ferguson, 2006). These feelings can prompt team members to imitate the counterproductive behaviors of their teammates as a way to feed their need to retaliate, and thus express their frustration toward this disparity. Without this precursor (e.g. feeling of disparity or outrage), owing to a sense of right or wrong, team members might decide not to imitate those TCBs (Ferguson, 2006).

In this context, the supportive organizational context and organizational injustice could be interesting external contextual factors to consider in a future research agenda on team-level TCBs, as external contextual factors that constrain or enable the contagion of TCBs and the development of team-level TCBs.

Team Interventions

As mentioned above, team counterproductive dynamics can change over time. The counterproductive dynamic may thus evolve due to the impact of an intervention. This literature review highlighted the damaging consequences of TCBs on team effectiveness (i.e., performance, satisfaction and innovation), collaboration and important team processes (Aubé & Rousseau, 2011; Aubé & Rousseau, 2014; Hohenstein, 2007; Seo, 2016). These consequences underline the importance of team interventions that could decrease the amount of TCBs adopted within a team. However, we found no research to date that studied the potential benefits of teams' interventions on TCBs. This underlines an important gap in the literature on team-level TCBs. The next section describes a future research agenda specifically concerning team interventions.

Team Building Intervention. The first intervention worth exploring in the context of a counterproductive team dynamic is team building. According to Dyer and Dyer (2013), team building consists of a diagnosis of team dynamics and the implementation of strategies to improve team effectiveness. Team building interventions include four components: goal setting (setting objectives and developing individual and team goals), developing interpersonal relations (increasing teamwork skills), clarifying roles (increasing communication around their respective roles) and creating capacity for problem solving (solving task-related problems within the team; Klein et al., 2009). These components might be addressed individually or might be combined in the context of an intervention.

Klein et al., (2009) performed a meta-analysis that affirmed that team building increases effectiveness, together with several affective, cognitive and process outcomes. Moreover, through the interpersonal-relationship component of team building, this type of intervention can help teams develop constructive conflict management techniques and avoid counterproductive behaviors (Lacerenza, Marlow, Tannenbaum & Salas, 2018), although to our knowledge this premise has not yet been supported by any empirical study. Future research could conduct a quasi-experimental or a longitudinal study following different teams with counterproductive dynamics to examine the impact of a team building intervention compared with control groups or with other interventions.

Team Feedback Interventions. A Team Feedback Intervention (TFI) consists of the delivery of outcome and process feedback to a team, and is ideally followed by a subsequent period of guided reflexivity (Peñarroja, Orengo, & Zornoza 2017). Outcome feedback refers to the quality of the decisions and outputs reached by a team, whereas process feedback refers to team members' perceptions of the interaction process while completing a task. During team feedback, the contribution of each team member to the collective task becomes more visible, and could discourage team members from adopting behaviors that would impair the team's success. This type of intervention is expected to improve team effectiveness by both reducing ineffective behaviors and reinforcing effective behaviors (London, 2003). It has been demonstrated that TFI reduces ineffective behaviors within teams (i.e., social loafing; Penarroja et al., 2017). Given its impact on team behaviors, TFI might constitute an interesting intervention to decrease TCBs. Nonetheless, to our knowledge this intervention has not been studied in relation to TCBs.

Team Coaching. Unlike in individual coaching, the client in team coaching is the team as a whole. The objective of team coaching is to foster team effectiveness (Peters & Carr, 2013). Team coaching can be useful to clarify expected behaviors within a team, to observe team

behaviors such as TCBs and to encourage a team to reflect on the impact of their behaviors on their collective performance (Hackman & Wageman, 2005). Team coaching has been shown to have positive impacts on various outcomes (e.g. teamwork and group dynamics; Anderson, Anderson & Mayo, 2008; Haug, 2011; Woodhead, 2011). Therefore, team coaching could be a relevant intervention to use to prompt team members to reflect on the counterproductive behaviors they adopt, which hinder their team's success. However, team coaching has never been studied in relation to TCBs. Given its demonstrated positive effect on team collaboration and group dynamics, this type of intervention could also constitute an interesting intervention to help resolve a TCB dynamic.

Conclusion

Previously scant, research on TCBs is currently burgeoning. This paper first discussed how TCBs differ from other types of counterproductive behaviors, and thus helped disentangle this concept. The main contribution of this review was to clarify the body of knowledge on TCBs and provide an integrative framework to underline the discrepancies between the previous works and orient future research efforts. In order to ensure that advice given to practitioners rests on solid evidence, there is an incontestable need for further research on the determinants of TCBs. This review underscores that there is a rich agenda for research that seeks to develop and extend current knowledge of antecedents and consequences of TCBs, to explore ways to decrease TCBs, and to understand the development of TCBs and changes in these behaviors over time.

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Table 1

Summary of Studies Included in the Review

Author(s)/Year	Measured TCBs	Studied Consequence(s)	Studied Antecedent(s)	Key Findings
Aubé & Rousseau (2011)	Interpersonal aggression	Team performance Team viability Team goal commitment	n.a.	Interpersonal aggression is negatively related to team performance and team viability. Team goal commitment plays a complete mediating role in these relationships.
Aubé et al., (2011)_	Parasitism Aggression Boastfulness Misuse of resources	Quality of group experience	Team Size	Each of the four TCBs plays a mediating role between team size and the quality of the group experience.
Aubé & Rousseau (2014)	Parasitism Aggression Boastfulness Misuse of resources	Team performance Collaboration	n.a.	Each of the four TCBs is negatively related to team performance, and these relationships are fully mediated by a decrease in collaboration among members.
Aubé & Rousseau (2016)	Complaining	Team performance Team process improvement Task meaningfulness	n.a.	Complaining behaviors are negatively related to team performance and team process improvements, and task meaningfulness mediates these relationships. Also, task interdependence acts as a moderator between complaining behaviors and task meaningfulness.
Ayoko & Callan (2010)	Bullying	n.a.	Productive reaction to conflict Destructive reaction to Conflict	Team members' destructive reactions to conflict are positively related to bullying, and this relation is weaker when the leader scores higher on emotion management behaviors. These relations were not significant for productive reactions to conflict.
Baysinger (2011)	Interpersonal deviance	n.a.	Team climate Team KSAs Perceived social loafing	Perceived social loafing as well as team psychopathy are positively related to team interpersonal deviance. Positive team climate and collective efficacy are negatively related to team interpersonal deviance. Perceived social loafing

			Group psychopathy	acts as a mediator in the relationship between positive team climate and team interpersonal deviance.
Ben Sasson & Somech (2015)	Team aggression	n.a.	Team distributive justice climate Team procedural justice climate Team interpersonal justice climate Team affective conflict	Team affective conflict acts as a full mediator in the relationship between team procedural and interpersonal injustice climate and team aggression. Team distributive justice climate has a non-significant relationship with team affective conflict.
Cole et al. (2008)	Dysfunctional behaviors	Team negative affective tone Team performance	n.a.	Negative team affective tone mediates the relationship between dysfunctional team behavior and performance when teams' nonverbal negative expressivity was high but not when nonverbal expressivity was low.
Hohenstein (2007)	Lack of effort Interpersonal deviance	Team performance Team satisfaction Team viability	Personality Task Conflict Relationship Conflict Process Conflict	Team deviance is not significantly related to team performance, team satisfaction and team viability. Neither is it related to team agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion and neuroticism. Team deviance is positively related to task conflicts, relationship conflicts and process conflicts, and negatively related to team openness to experience.
Kauffeld et al. (2012)	Negative procedural statements Socioemotional statements Counteractive statements	Team meeting success	n.a.	Dysfunctional communication (negative procedural, socioemotional and counteractive statements) showed negative relationships with team meeting success.
Klonek, Quera, Burna & Kauffeld (2016)	Negative action-oriented statements	n.a.	Positive procedural statements	A negative sequential association between positive procedural communication and negative action-oriented communication.
Lehmann-Willenbrock, Allen and	Counteractive statements	n.a.	Cultural background (German or American)	German teams showed more counteractive behavior, e.g. complaining, than U.S. teams.

Meinecke (2014)				
Lin et al. (2016)	Dysfunctional behaviors	Team Performance	Inclusive leadership Effort-respect mismatch	Dysfunctional behaviors are related to inclusive leadership and effort-respect mismatch. Negative affective tone acts as a moderator between effort-respect mismatch and dysfunctional behavior.
Pearce & Giacalone (2003)	Team anti-citizenship behaviors	n.a.	Team leader solecism Team commitment Perceived organizational support Team size	Team leader solecism, team commitment and perceived organizational support are highly correlated with team anti-citizenship behavior. Team size is not significantly related to anti-citizenship behavior.
Raver & Gelfand (2005)	Ambient sexual harassment	Team financial performance	Team relationship conflict Team task conflicts	Team conflicts act as a mediator between ambient sexual harassment and team financial performance. Ambient sexual harassment is not significantly related to team cohesion and team citizenship behavior. Cohesion mediates the relationship between sexual harassment and financial performance.
Rispens et al. (2011)	Counterproductive work behaviors		Relationship conflict	Relationship conflict is positively related to TCBs. However, relationship conflicts are only harmful in relationally distant work groups in which members do not know each other well and do not feel close to each other.
Seo (2016)	Counterproductive work behaviors	Team innovation Team effectiveness	Inclusive leadership Authentic leadership Team cooperative goals Team conflict Team climate Value congruence	Authentic Leadership, inclusive leadership and team climate are negatively related to TCBSs. TCBs are negatively related to team effectiveness and team innovation. Team cooperative goals and team conflict act as mediators between inclusive leadership and counterproductive work behaviors. TCBs are significantly and negatively related to team innovation and team effectiveness, and TCBs act as mediators between inclusive leadership and team innovation.

Supportive Organizational Context for Teams: A Study of Construct Validity

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Abstract

Despite a call within scientific literature to better account for contextual factors in team studies, very little research has systematically analyzed the potentially critical role of such factors, thus limiting organizations' ability to provide contextual conditions that would foster team effectiveness. The Supportive Organizational Context for Teams (SOCT) construct effectively captures some of these factors (rewards, information, education and resource allocation). However, while the internal consistency of the SOCT has been analyzed, its multidimensional representation has never been tested. In this study, we address these limitations by assessing the factor structure of a measure proposed by Wageman et al. (2005) and of its distinctive nature in relation to Perceived Organizational Support (POS). Using a sample of 235 participants and the newly developed Bifactor-ESEM framework, this study supports the notion that a higher-order model is superior to a first-order model, and SOCT and POS are distinct from one another.

Kumar (2016) states that 60% of US companies plan to set up more work teams over the next two years. Work teams bring a diversity of knowledge, skills, and experiences to provide fast, flexible, and innovative responses to many challenges faced by organizations, supporting them in achieving higher levels of performance (Rico, Alcover de la Hera & Tabernero, 2010). As a result, work teams can help organizations to meet new market demands and seize emerging opportunities (Deloitte, 2016). However, work teams are not a guarantee of success, given that strong variations are typically observed in work teams' performance levels (Hackman, 2002; Ritcher, Dawson & West, 2011), making it critical to study which factors influence their performance. Knowing that team effectiveness depends not only on internal factors related to the teams themselves, but also on contextual factors, there has been a call within scientific literature to better account for contextual factors in team studies (e.g., Hackman, 2002; Maloney, Bresman, Zellmer-Bruhn & Beaver, 2016). However, very little research has systematically analyzed the potentially critical role of these contextual factors (Maloney et al., 2016), thus limiting organizations' ability to provide contextual conditions that would maximally foster and sustain team effectiveness.

Hackman's (2002) Supportive Organizational Context for Teams (SOCT) construct effectively captures some of the contextual factors expected to play a key role in team effectiveness (Wageman, Hackman & Lehman, 2005). SOCT focuses on four distinct yet interrelated organizational support systems that are expected to promote teamwork (Hackman, 2002, Wageman et al., 2005): the reward system, the information system, the educational system, and the resource allocation system. Still, even if Eisele (2015) and Wageman et al. (2005) analyzed the internal consistency as well as the discriminant and predictive validity of the SOCT construct, its multidimensional representation has never been empirically tested (Wageman et al., 2005), which would be a critical first step for research aiming to document the role played by SOCT in promoting team effectiveness. In this study, we address these

limitations through an assessment of the factor structure of a measure proposed by Wageman et al. (2005) to reflect the various components of SOCT, and their distinctive nature in relation to Perceived Organizational Support (POS; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986).

By empirically demonstrating the factor structure of the SOCT, this paper may help advance the state of knowledge by indicating whether future research on SOCT should focus solely on the contribution of each support system or if it could also focus on the general feeling of support. Furthermore, as it is not yet known whether the SOCT construct is empirically distinct from a broader construct also reflecting employees' perceptions of the support received from their organization (Perceived Organizational Support), it is critical to do this demonstration before recommending SOCT for future research. We now turn our attention to a definition of SOCT components, before addressing the distinct nature of this construct.

Supportive Organizational Context for Teams

A supportive organizational context for teams is defined as the perception, by team members, of how their organization values the contribution of their team, provides support to their team, shows them that they have their interest at heart and that they cater to their needs (Hackman, 2002; Kennedy, Loughry, Klammer & Beyerlein, 2009; Kline, 1999; Wageman et al., 2005). The organization can show their support to each team using these four systems: the reward system, the information system, the educational system and the resource allocation system.

The Reward System

It is assumed that the way team members behave is influenced by how they are rewarded (Aime, Meyer & Humphrey, 2010). More specifically, rewards should increase the likelihood that desirable behaviors will be repeated in the future (Garbers & Konradt, 2014). In a work team, it is important that the reward system focus not only on individuals, but also on the entire

team's collective results (Alves, 2017; Aubé, Rousseau & Savoie, 2006; Conroy & Gupta, 2016). By rewarding the whole team, the organization shows members that teamwork is important and that collaboration helps them to achieve the desired goals (Hackman, 2002).

The Information System

In a team context, the role of the information system is to provide timely and relevant information that team members need to collectively plan and execute their work collaboratively (Hackman, 2002). An information system that supports work teams should foster cooperation between team members, in addition to the development of shared mental models for the team's goals and ways to achieve those goals cooperatively (Guchait & Hamilton, 2013). To do so, teams might need a variety of information, such as their organization's expectations, task requirements, type and quantity of available resources, forecasts and current performance (Hackman, 2002). Furthermore, the right information system must transmit only relevant information that can be easily interpreted (Hackman, 2002).

The Educational System

In an organization based on work teams, the educational system should allow team members to develop skill such as teamwork (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). Kozlowski and Ilgen (2006) identified multiple skills that individuals should ideally possess in order to contribute effectively to a work team. A few examples of such skills include conflict resolution, collaborative problem-solving, communication, coordination, adaptability, and team-based leadership. Therefore, to support teamwork, organizations should provide teams with professional development opportunities aimed at improving the skills that would help members function effectively as a team (Kennedy et al., 2009).

The Resource Allocation System

As team members rely on each other to execute their tasks, resource allocation is another critical form of organizational support that can be capitalized on to maximize team performance

(Hackman, 2002). Indeed, team performance is contingent on the availability of, especially, material and financial resources. The adequacy of the allocated resources actually depends on how team members perceive resource sufficiency and suitability (Weiss, Hoegl & Gibbert, 2013). Moreover, a Weiss et al. (2013) study showed that team member perception of material resource adequacy positively influences the quality of the product the team delivers.

Wageman et al. (2005) developed items to measure SOCT within a broader questionnaire, called the Team Diagnostic Survey. This questionnaire was created to give researchers and consultants a reliable tool to assess the strengths and weaknesses of different types of teams. The items in the Supportive Organizational Context for Teams Scale were adapted from two previous questionnaires (Hackman, 1990; Wageman, 2001) and were validated with two samples. The first sample consisted of 181 teams from different organizations and the second consisted of 140 teams, of which 76 were managerial and 64 performed various analytic work. In their validation studies, Wageman et al. (2005) demonstrated that the correlation between the items within each of the four SOCT subscales was higher (r= .48 to .58) than the correlation between each of these subscales (r= .31 to .36). These results seem to support the hypothesis that the Supportive Organizational Context construct consists of the previous four factors.

According to Kennedy et al. (2009), organizational support to teams can take a variety of forms. The four systems just described each represent a different form of organizational support for teams. However, according to James and Jones (1974), individuals also develop an overall or holistic perception of their work environment. For example, psychological climate is usually considered a higher-order construct underlying different attributes of the work environment (James et al., 2008). Actually, individuals form an overall appraisal of their work environment which then influences the evaluation of each attribute of this work environment (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

In the same vein, Wageman et al. (2005) state that the presence of proper support systems would help teams feel valued and that they have the kind of organizational support they need to perform well. In this context, even if the four SOCT dimensions differ, they all share one thing in common—they measure team members' global perception of the extent to which the organization gives importance to their collective success and is willing to provide the team with what it needs to actually succeed. This demonstration of support underlies the reward system, the information system, the educational system, and the resource allocation system, and suggests the presence of a latent higher-order construct.

In this regard, theoretically, SOCT is considered a higher-order construct grouping four factors: the reward system, the information system, the educational system, and the resource allocation system (Wageman et al., 2005). Indeed, according to Wageman et al. (2005), these four organizational support systems, albeit distinct from one another, are not independent from one another and therefore should contribute to the emergence of a more global perception of SOCT among team members. However, this hierarchical representation of SOCT at the perceptual level has yet to be empirically validated. In the present study, we propose that:

Hypothesis 1. SOCT is a higher-order construct including four components: rewards, information, educational, and resource allocation systems.

Distinctiveness of the SOCT Construct

When trying to establish the validity of a construct, it appears important to be able to demonstrate the added value, or distinctive nature, of this construct in comparison to other conceptually related constructs. For instance, the Perceived Organizational Support (POS) construct (Eisenberger et al., 1986) is already well-established in organizational literature as a key determinant of many desirable attitudes (e.g. commitment) and behaviors (e.g., performance) in the workplace (Krishnan & Mary, 2012). POS is defined as employees' development of general beliefs about the propensity of the organization to value their

contribution and to care about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). POS is conceptualized as an individual-level construct referring to the support each employee perceives receiving from the organization. Despite the importance of POS, such perceptions are not sufficient in a team context where organizational support systems must meet the needs of individuals as well as those of the teams as a whole (Kennedy et al., 2009). In this context, SOCT, with its explicit focus on team support systems, should be distinct from POS. From this, we can expect that:

Hypothesis 2. SOCT and POS represent distinct but related constructs.

Method

Participants and Procedures

Participants were recruited using HEC Montréal Panel recruitment tool, which consists of an internal database of student volunteers to participate in studies conducted by researchers at HEC Montréal. To be eligible to participate in this study, participants needed to be at least 18 years old and have been part of an organizational work team for at least three months during the past two years. This last criterion aimed to ensure that participants had been working on a work team within their organization long enough to be able to make a judgment about the supportive organizational context for teams. Through this recruitment tool, we recruited a total sample of 235 participants working in teams in multiple organizations within the province of Quebec. The demographic Characteristics of the sample are presented in Table 1 (Appendix A).

Measures

Supportive Organizational Context for Teams (SOCT). We measured SOCT using the eleven items developed by Wageman et al. (2005). In keeping with the scientific literature on team effectiveness emphasizing the importance of financial resources (Mickan & Rodger, 2000), we added one item to Wageman et al.'s (2005) resources dimension to capture information on the availability of financial resources. More specifically, we used three items to

assess each of the four a priori support systems: the resource allocation system (e.g., "The scarcity of resources is a real problem for my team"), the reward system (e.g., "Even when my team does a particularly good job, it is not recognized/rewarded by the organization."), the information system (e.g., "My team does not have access to all the information that could influence the progress of its work."), and the educational system (e.g., "My team is not getting the proper training to do its job."). All items reported in Appendix D show that ratings of all four dimensions produced a satisfactory level of scale score reliability (Cronbach's α= .88 to .94). All items were rated and answered on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree).

Perceived Organizational Support (POS). We used the Eisenberger et al. (1986) questionnaire to assess POS. More specifically, 17 items focusing on POS (e.g., "The organizational values my contribution to its well-being.") were rated on seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Research generally supports the scale score reliability (α = .74 to .97), as well as the criterion and factor validity of this questionnaire (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990).

Analysis

We conducted the tests of hypotheses 1 and 2 using Mplus 8.0 (Muthen & Muthen, 2017) Robust Maximum Likelihood (MLR) estimator. This estimator provides standard errors and goodness-of-fit indices that are robust for the non-normality of the Likert response scales used in the present study. We handled the limited amount of missing data (4.3% to 6.4%, depending on which item we look at) using Full Information Maximum Likelihood (FIML; Enders, 2010). The relative adequacy of the models was assessed using conventional goodness-of-fit indices: The Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) with its confidence intervals. Acceptable fit is

assessed as CFI/TLI ≥ .90 and RMSEA ≤ .08, while excellent fit is assessed as CFI/TLI ≥ .95

and RMSEA ≤ .06 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marsh, Hau & Grayson, 2005).

To test for hypothesis 1 and thus assess whether the measurement structure of responses

to the SOCT questionnaire supports the assumption that SOCT is a higher-order construct

including four factors, we contrasted with a first-order model a higher-order model using an

Exploratory Structural Equation Modeling (ESEM) framework (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2009;

Marsh, Morin, Parker & Kaur, 2014; Morin, Marsh & Nagengast, 2013). We chose the ESEM

framework for its capacity to overcome the weaknesses of CFA models. Indeed, within CFAs,

even small cross-loadings between nontarget factors are forced to be zero leading to biased

estimates of the factor correlations when cross-loadings are present in the sample model.

Furthermore, when the model specifies a higher-order construct, CFA forces the ratio of the

higher-order factor to the first-order factor variance to be the same for all items associated with

the same first-order factor. This constraint is very unlikely to be realistic with a complex

instrument (Marsh, Morin, Parker & Kaur, 2014; Morin, Arens, Herbert & Marsh, 2016).

Moreover, mounting statistical evidence shows that ESEM tend to result in more accurate

estimates of relations among constructs than CFA when cross loadings are present at the

population level, yet remain otherwise unbiased (Asparouhov, Muthén & Morin 2015).

We implemented the ESEM first-order model using a confirmatory form of rotation

(target rotation), allowing for all factors to be defined based on their a priori indicators as in

CFA, but also allowing all cross loadings to be freely estimated yet "targeted" to be as close to

zero as possible (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2009; Marsh et al., 2014; Morin, Marsh & Nagengast,

2013). To test for hypothesis 1, we then contrasted this ESEM first-order model with an ESEM

higher-order model, called bifactor-ESEM. Bifactor-ESEM was defined as its ESEM first-order

counterpart, while allowing for all items to define a global (G) factor in addition to all four a

priori specific (S) factors (Figure 1, Appendix B; Morin, Arens, Herbert & Marsh, 2016). In

this comparison, observing a well-defined general factor (G-factor) coupled with the identification of at least some well-defined specific factors (S-factors) would support the bifactor solution, thus supporting the presence of a higher-order factor.

Across all models, we assessed composite reliability using McDonald (1970) omega coefficient of composite reliability (Morin et al., 2018). According to Perreira et al. (2018; also see Morin et al., 2018), bifactor models require more flexibility in terms of what can be considered satisfactory reliability, given that these models separate two sources of true score variance for all item ratings, one due to the G-factor and the other due to the S-factor.

To test for hypothesis 2, we analyzed the discriminant validity of the SOCT construct. According to Kline (2016), discriminant validity occurs when constructs are not empirically identical, meaning that the two constructs are not highly correlated with each other (Kline, 2016). However, according to Shaffer, Degeest and Li (2016), discriminant validity should also be demonstrated by comparing two CFA models, unconstrained and constrained. To conduct those analyses and test for hypothesis 2, we contrasted a CFA model in which SOCT form a single construct that is allowed to freely covary to POS with a CFA model in which the covariance of these two latent variables is set to 1.0. The discriminant validity is supported when the unconstrained model provides a significantly better estimate of the data than the constrained model (Shaffer et al., 2016). Since here we are only contrasting two CFA models with the goal of testing whether SOCT and POS form distinct constructs, the CFA weaknesses described earlier in this paper should not influence the conclusion of the discriminant validity analysis.

Results

Comparison between First-order and Higher-order Measurement Models

The goodness-of-fit indices of both models are reported in Table 1. Parameter estimates from the ESEM and Bifactor-ESEM models are reported in Table 2 (factor loadings and uniqueness) and 3 (latent correlations). All tables can be found in Appendix C.

To begin, we can see that the first-order model seems to result in factors that are well-defined by high target loadings (λ = .393 to .875) and in cross-loadings small enough to be negligible, with the exception of item 9 ("When something comes up that team members do not know how to handle, it is easy for them to obtain the training or technical advice they need"), which appears to load almost equally on the Information factor as on the a priori Education factor. Furthermore, the moderate factor correlations of first-order model support the distinctive nature of the factors but their correlations remain high enough to suggest that it might be necessary to consider employees' global SOCT ratings, as seen in hypothesis 1.

In this context, the first-order model was contrasted with a higher-order model. The fit indices of both models support the superior level of fit with the higher-order model data versus first-order model data (ΔCFI = .016; ΔTLI = .084; ΔRMSEA = .050). Furthermore, the higher-order model reveals a well-defined G-factor with strong target loadings from most items (λ = .215 to .733) and a satisfactory level of composite reliability (ω = .899). Although they appear weaker than in the ESEM solution, the S-factors still remain well-defined in this bifactor-ESEM solution (λ = .250 to .818; ω = .538 to .710). In this solution, three items (3, 9 and 11) appear to be more weakly related to their S-factors (see appendix D for SOCT items). However, for two of these items (9: "When something comes up that team members do not know how to handle, it is easy for them to obtain the training or technical advice they need"; 11: "Scarcity of resources is a real problem for teams in this organization"), this simply reflects the fact that these items mainly serve to define the G-factor. In contrast, item 3 ("Excellent team

performance pays off in this organization") rather appears to be weakly related to both its S-factor and to the G-factor, suggesting that this item should be targeted for reassessment in future research. It should be noted that the presence of well-defined S-factors supports the idea that these S-factors reflect some specificity that is not reflected on the G-factor.

Coupled with the superior level of fit with higher-order model data versus first-order model data, these results suggest superiority of the higher-order model and support hypothesis 1, that SOCT consists of a higher-order construct including four factors.

Discriminant Validity

For these analyses, we included POS (defined as a single CFA factor, but including an orthogonal method factor to control for the negative wording of 7 items) to the complete bifactor-ESEM measurement model described above. The results from this model revealed a moderately high correlation between POS and the SOCT G-Factor with a confidence interval that excluded zero ($r = .662$, $p <.01$; C.I.=.445 to .879). The correlations between POS and the SOCT S-Factors were not, however, statistically significant. The non-significant inter-correlations between S-factors and POS, combined with the moderately high correlation between POS and G-factor, confirm the discriminant validity of SOCT ratings, showing them to be empirically distinct from POS. A further demonstration of discriminant validity was done contrasting a CFA model in which SOCT forms a single construct that is allowed to freely covary to POS with a CFA model in which the covariance of these two latent variables is set to 1.0. The results showed that the first model has significantly better fit indices than the second (ΔCFI = .066; ΔTLI =.071; ΔRMSEA =.014). Hypothesis 2 stating that employee perceptions of SOCT and POS represent distinct but somehow related constructs is thus supported.

Supplementary Analysis: Measurement Invariance

Another key condition for successful psychometric validation is in the demonstration that the psychometric properties of a measure generalize across different conditions (Millsap,

2011). Indeed, for example, one cannot simply assume similarity between genders. It has actually been demonstrated that men and women give a different degree of importance to various factors in their work and in their organizational environment (Lindorff, 2010; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005).

For this reason, we decided to test for the measurement invariance of the SOCT for males and females, the results of which we reported in Table 1. Analyses were conducted according to the following sequence (Millsap, 2011): a) configural invariance (same model), b) weak invariance (same factor loadings), c) strong invariance (same factor loadings and item intercepts), d) strict invariance (same factor loadings, item intercepts, and item uniqueness), e) latent variance-covariance invariance (same factor loadings, item intercepts, item uniqueness, and latent variances and covariance), and f) latent means invariance (same factor loadings, item intercepts, item uniqueness, and latent variance, covariance and means).

The results from the measurement invariance tests we conducted across groups of male and female participants first show that the model of configural invariance resulted in an excellent level of fit with the data. The progressive addition of invariance constraints to the factor loadings, intercepts, uniqueness, latent variance-covariance, and latent means never resulted in a decrease in model fit surpassing the recommended guidelines for model comparison provided by Chen (2007) of ΔCFI and ΔTLI ≥ 0.01, and ΔRMSEA ≥ 0.015, thus supporting the complete invariance of this measurement model across genders.

Another important condition in which it is important to demonstrate the generalization of the SOCT measurement model is across public and private organizations, since there are known differences between those two types of organizations, such as personnel and budgeting rules (Rainey & Bozeman, 2000). Indeed, given the differences between those types of organizations in terms of the financial resources available, personnel, and budgeting rules, employee expectations of organizational constraints and incentives could also be different

(Euske, 2003). To make sure that those distinct expectations would not affect SOCT measurement model, we also tested for measurement invariance across the public and the private sectors.

From one organization type to the next, the model of configural invariance resulted in an unacceptable level of fit with the data based on the fit indices incorporating a correction for parsimony (TLI = .853; RMSEA = .095); however, the fit was excellent with the data according to the CFI (.964). The next model of weak invariance reached an excellent level of fit with the data according to all fit indices, suggesting that the non-variance of this initial solution could have been due to a simple lack of parsimony (Mulaik et al., 1989). The following model of strong invariance was also supported by the data. However, the model of strict invariance resulted in a substantial decrease in model fit. Looking at parameter estimates, we noted that the imprecision level between the private and public sectors was different for item 2 ("My team is recognized/reinforced when it performs well') and item 11 ("Scarcity of resources is a real problem for teams in this organization"). In response, we tried to relax the invariance constraint for uniqueness in items 2 and 11. This alternative model of partial strict measurement invariance was estimated and was supported by the data, suggesting that the fit decrease was indeed only due to a different imprecision level between the two sectors for these two items. In this model, the data supported both invariance models for latent variance-covariance and latent means. The analyses thus support the partial invariance of the measurement model across organization types.

Discussion

The main objective of this study was to empirically demonstrate the multidimensional representation of Supportive Organizational Context construct (Wageman et al., 2005). Our results are consistent with the theoretical assumption of Wageman et al. (2005) that SOCT is a higher-order construct, with good internal reliability, including four factors—the reward

system, the information system, the educational system and the resource allocation system (hypothesis 1). The results actually support that higher-order Bifactor-ESEM representation of the data is superior to a first-order ESEM model. The SOCT global factor therefore provides a direct representation of team member perceptions of global supportive organizational context. The S-factors provide a direct estimation of team member perceptions of each support system, above their perceptions of overall supportive organizational context.

The empirical validation of this structure was a critical first step to document more thoroughly the role some contextual factors might play in team effectiveness. However, as SOCT is part of Hackman's (2002) effectiveness model, a next crucial step would be to test for the predictive validity of global supportive organizational context on team effectiveness as well as the predictive validity of each support system over and above the global factor. Furthermore, as a next step, it would be important for future studies to verify if the factorial structure of the SOCT still holds at a team level of analysis and across different types of samples, such as different types of teams.

Our results also supported the need to distinguish organizational support directed toward individuals from organizational support directed toward teams (hypothesis 2). The results are therefore consistent with the assertion by Kennedy et al. (2008) that in a team context, organizational support systems need to meet the individual needs in addition to the needs of teams as a whole. As the distinctiveness between POS and SOCT has been demonstrated, it would be interesting for future research to address the incremental validity of SOCT over POS in predicting various potential consequences.

Another key condition for successful psychometric validation is the demonstration that the psychometric properties of a measure generalize across different conditions (Millsap, 2011). A strength of convenience samples, like the one used in this study, is that they are generally more diverse in terms of types of organizations and sectors of activity (Lander & Behrend,

2015; see Table 1, Appendix A for more details on the sample). As a supplementary analysis, we thus also tested for invariance across genders and across types of organizations. The results supported the notion that the Bifactor-ESEM measurement model functions the same way across genders (male and female) and, with the exception of the non-invariant uniqueness in items 6 and 7, across types of organizations (public and private). Since the differences between measurement models across types of organizations is limited to these items' uniqueness, it should not pose problems as long as the measurement models are studied as latent variables which are naturally controlled for measurement errors.

It is however important to note that the convenience sample of this study was taken from a student population and young workers are therefore overly represented (76% of participants were less than 30 years old). It would therefore be useful to verify, in subsequent studies, the degree to which the results of this research can be replicated with a sample of older workers.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

In their article, Maloney et al. (2016) call for more context theorizing within team research. The empirical validation of the bifactor multidimensional representation of the SOCT construct is a first step in that direction, since it will help future team research to focus not only on the general support factor, but also on the unique contribution of the specific support systems in helping teams be more productive and feel more supported by their organizations. Indeed, bifactor-ESEM representations enable us to test the association of an outcome variable with the general latent factor, at the same time we test the unique contribution of specific factors (Chen, Hayes, Carver, Laurenceau & Zhang, 2012). In this context, the validation of the bifactor-ESEM representation of the SOCT will allow future studies to focus on getting a better understanding of the different forms of organizational support and their respective contributions to different outcome variables.

On a more practical level, this study demonstrates that all four support systems are necessary for organizations to build feeling of support within their teams. To create a feeling of support, management should therefore make sure to reward the whole team for their collective results by administering positive reinforcements contingent upon desirable outcomes produced by the team (Bass et al., 2003; Walumbwa, Wu & Orwa, 2008; Yukl, Gordon & Taber, 2002). These positive reinforcements can take many forms: money, prizes, gifts, praises or acknowledgments (Rousseau & Aubé, 2014). To support effective teamwork, management should also ensure that teams have all the skills they need to accomplish their work (e.g.: conflict resolution, collaborative problem solving, adaptability) and if not, provide teams with training or development opportunities to develop those skills (Kennedy et al., 2009). Furthermore, to build a sense of support, management should work with teams to identify what information they need to accomplish their work (e.g.: organization's expectations, forecasts, type and quantity of resources; Hackman 2002). Management should also be made accountable to transmit that information in a way that can be easily interpreted by the team (Hackman, 2002). Last but not least, management should regularly ensure with their teams that they have sufficient and appropriate resources to accomplish their collective work tasks and facilitate access to those resources when it is not the case (Weiss, Hoegl & Gibbert, 2013).

The results of this study also show that organizational support directed toward individuals is distinct from organizational support directed toward teams. Team-based organizations should keep in mind that teams and individual team members may need different kinds of support. If the organization only provides individual support, the team might not feel supported.

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NOTES

Although not reported in this article for parsimony sakes, ESEM and B-Factor models were also contrasted with CFA and Bifactor CFA models. The superiority of ESEM and Bifactor ESEM models over CFA and Bifactor CFA was supported by the fit indices obtained for these models. Upon request, the content of these analysis can be transmitted.

Appendix A: Sample Characteristics

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Characteristic	n	%
Age		
Mean 26.8 (range 18-67 yr)	-	-
Gender		
Men	55	23.4%
Women	162	68.9%
Employment Status		
Full time	99	42.1%
Part time	117	49.8%
Education Level		
College/High School Diplomas	78	30.4%
Undergraduate Degree	82	43.3%
Graduate Degree	57	26.3%
Type of Organization		
Public	75	31.9%
Private	157	66.8%
Organizational Sector[1]		
Industrials (transportation, professional services and capital goods)	40	17%
Consumer Discretionary	28	11.9%

Communication Services	22	9.4%
Financials	22	9.4%
Local Community	14	5.9%
Health Care	12	5.1%
Education	11	4.7%
Consumer Staples (food, beverage and household products)	8	3.4%
Information Technology	6	2.5%
Material	4	1.7%
Real Estate	3	1.3%

Note. [1]Organizational Sectors were mainly based on The Global Industry Classification Standard (GICS)

Appendix B: Figure

Figure 1

Graphical representation of the alternative measurement models considered in this study

ESEM

Bifactor-ESEM
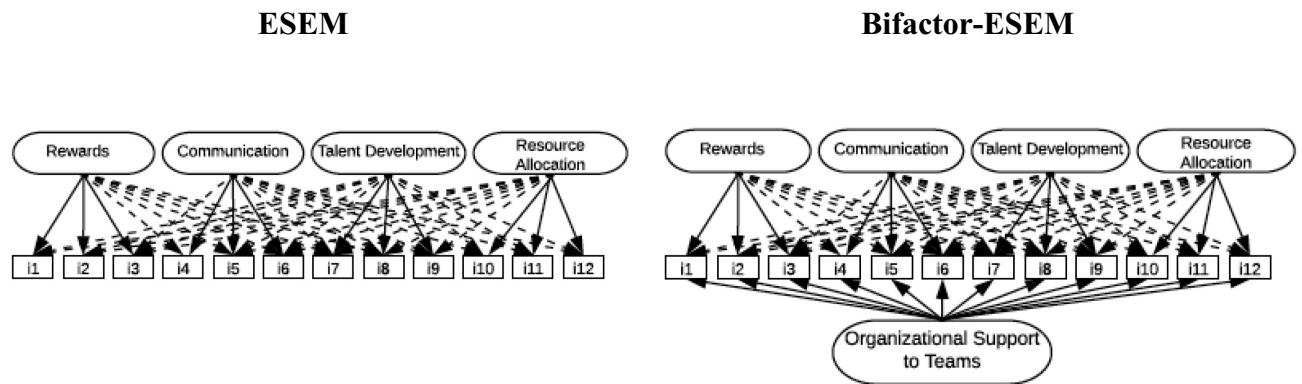
Notes. ESEM = Exploratory Structural Equation Modeling; full unidirectional arrows linking

ovals and rectangles represent the main factor loadings. Dotted unidirectional arrows linking

ovals and rectangles represent cross-loadings.

Table 2

Goodness-Of-Fit Statistics of the Measurement Models and Invariance Testing

	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	C.I.
ESEM	911,419*	66	.984	.955	.050	.013; .080
Bifactor ESEM	7.909*	16	1.000	1.039	.000	.000; .000
Gender Invariance						
Configural	37.017*	32	.994	.976	.038	.000, .084
Weak	68.286*	67	.998	.997	.013	.000, .059
Strong	74,692*	74	.999	.999	.009	.000, .056
Strict	81.333*	86	1.000	1.008	.000	.000, .046
Var-Covar	89.755*	101	1.000	1.017	.000	.000, .036
Mean	92,618*	106	1.00	1.020	.000	.000, .032
Type of Organization Invariance						
Configural	64.483*	32	.964	.853	.095	.061, .128
Weak	86.481*	67	.979	.958	.051	.000, .079
Strong	90.353*	74	.982	.968	.044	.000, .073
Strict	153,512*	86	.926	.887	.086	.062, .105
Partial Strict (i6-i7)	96.073*	84	.987	.979	.036	.000, .065
Var-Covar from Partial Strict	120.318*	99	.977	.969	.044	.000, .069

Table 3

Standardized factor loadings (λ) and item uniquenesses (δ) from the exploratory structural equation modeling (ESEM) and bifactor exploratory structural equation modeling (ESEM)

	ESEM					Bifactor-ESEM					
	Rewards	Information	Education	Resources	δ	G-factor	Rewards	Information	Education	Resources	δ
i1	.875*	-.09	.040	.051	.214	.661*	.424*	-.191*	-.059	-.071	.338*
i2	.662*	.11	.062	.037	.417*	.518*	.818*	.090*	.129*	.039	.036
i3	.437*	.13	-.210	-.034	.833*	.215*	.317*	.051	-.170	-.067	.817*
ω	**.727**					**.671**					
i4	.021	.702*	-.021	.112	.417*	.513*	.027	.549*	-.008	.111*	.422*
i5	-.055	.871*	-.057	.060	.260*	.490*	-.005	.699*	-.013	.094	.262*
i6	.196*	.551*	.293*	-.131	.409*	.733*	-.007	.319*	.044	-.205*	.318*
ω		**.806**						**.710**			
i7	.058	-.113	.785*	.079	.336*	.607*	.057	-.120*	.538*	.050	.322*
i8	-.071	.072	.855*	-.008	.278*	.637*	-.024	.026	.548*	-.004	.293*
i9	.055	.291*	.393*	.136	.503*	.617*	.037	.202*	.250*	.099	.505*
ω			**.787**						**.614**		
i10	-.084	.128	.031	.696*	.431*	.492*	-.041	.179*	.083	.540*	.426*
i11	.200	-.033	.051	.447*	.672*	.610*	-.077	-.144	-.145	.251	.517*
i12	.011	-.093	.030	.727*	.504*	.443*	.043	.002	.079	.518*	.527*
ω					**.685**	**.899**				**.538**	

Note. δ = Uniqueness; ω = omega coefficient of composite reliability.

Table 4

Factors Correlations from the confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) and exploratory structural

equation modeling (ESEM) solution

	ESEM			
	1	2	3	4
1. Rewards	___			
2. Educational	.519*	___		
3. Information	.366*	.439*	___	
4. Resources Allocation	.395*	.530*	.507*	___

Appendix D

Table 5

Items from the Supportive Organizational Context for Teams' questionnaire

Dimension		Item
Reward System	1	Even teams that do an especially good job are not recognized or rewarded by the organization. (R)
	2	This organization recognizes and reinforces teams that perform well.
	3	Excellent team performance pays off in this organization.
Information System	4	Teams in this organization can get whatever information they need to plan their work.
	5	It is easy for teams in this organization to get any data or forecasts that members need to do their work.
	6	This organization keeps its teams in the dark about information that could affect their work plans. (R)
Educational System	7	Teams in this organization have to make do with whatever expertise members already have—technical training and support are not available even when needed. (R)
	8	In this organization, teams do not receive adequate training for the work they have to do. (R)
	9	When something comes up that team members do not know how to handle, it is easy for them to obtain the training or technical advice they need.
Resource Allocation System	10	Teams in this organization can readily obtain all the material resources that they need for their work.
	11	Scarcity of resources is a real problem for teams in this organization. (R)
	12	The financial resources provided to my team to complete its work are adequate.

Counterproductive Behaviors in a Team Context: Implications of a lack of Team Supportive Organizational Context

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Abstract

Despite their very high costs, the causes of team counterproductive behaviors (TCBs) are still poorly understood, especially in terms of organizational context factors. This article seeks to explain TCBs by extending research on organizational context antecedents. We build on Hackman's (2002) team effectiveness models by exploring how a lack of organizational support aligned with teamwork fosters TCBs through its effect on negative team affective tone. We also explore the extent to which team commitment strengthens the impact of high negative team affective tone on TCBs. Using a sample of 105 teams from a public safety organization, this study supports the mediation model proposed: a lack of organizational support aligned with teamwork triggers Negative Team Affective Tone responses at a team level, which then drives the adoption of TCBs. Results also indicate that the moderating effect of team commitment is corroborated. Taken together, the results supported our hypothesis, namely that high commitment reinforces the relationship between organizational support aligned with teamwork and three TCBs.

Counterproductive behaviors represent a serious issue with considerable costs for an organization (Chang & Smithikrai, 2010; Samnani, Salamon, & Singh, 2013). Examples of behaviors described as counterproductive include employee theft, sabotage, withdrawal (e.g., absenteeism) and aggression (Bowling & Gruys, 2010). Estimates for the cost of counterproductive behaviors are in billions of dollars for organizations, and these behaviors seriously impede organizational effectiveness (Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Smnani et al., 2013). Although counterproductive behaviors have been mostly documented at the individual level, more and more research shows that counterproductive behaviors are not only an individual issue but also a team issue. Indeed, it has been demonstrated that some counterproductive behaviors interfere with the proper functioning and performance of teams (e.g., Aubé, Rousseau, Mama & Morin, 2009; Aubé & Rousseau, 2014; Cole, Walter & Bruch, 2008). In this article, a team is defined as a permanent formal group of at least two individuals who are interdependent and collectively responsible for accomplishing organizational tasks (Aubé, Rousseau & Tremblay, 2011).

Although teams have become a basic building block of organizational design (Mathieu, Gallagher, Domingo, & Klock, 2019; Mathieu, Tannenbaum, Donsbach, & Alliger, 2014), they are not always successful. Many authors have demonstrated that counterproductive behaviors are likely to hamper teams' success and functioning (Aubé & Rousseau, 2014; Cole et al., 2008); however, the causes of such behaviors are still poorly understood, especially in terms of organizational context factors. When the organizational context is not well aligned with the peculiarities of teamwork, it might interfere with teams' success, creating frustrations within teams and thus promoting behaviors that hinder team functioning. It is indeed well known that the shift from working in silos to teamwork cannot occur without rethinking the whole organizational context and without making sure that all organizational components are aligned with the peculiarities of teamwork (Nadler & Tushman, 1980; West, 2012). According to

Nadler and Tushman's principle of alignment (1980), the organization components must be well aligned and must function in a coherent manner in order to promote optimal effectiveness. When an organization is based on teamwork, the organizational context should therefore be consistent with the particularities of this form of work organization.

This article seeks to explain team counterproductive behaviors (TCBs) by extending research on organizational context antecedents. We build on Hackman's (2002) team effectiveness models by exploring how a lack of organizational support aligned with teamwork fosters TCBs. The model proposed in this study (see Figure 1) supports the view that a lack of supportive organizational context for teams tends to foster TCBs through its effect on team negative affective tone. In other words, team negative affective tone may actually play a mediating role in the relationship between a lack of supportive organizational context and TCBs. Second, we explore the extent to which team commitment may strengthen the impact of high team negative affective tone on TCBs.

Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

A Mediation Model of Counterproductive Behaviors in Teams

Supportive Organizational Context for Teams and Negative Team Affective Tone.

A supportive organizational context for teams (SOCT) refers to team members' perception of how their organization values the contribution of their team, provides support to their team, and shows them that they have their interests at heart and that they cater to their needs (Kennedy, Loughry, Klammer, & Beyerlein, 2009; Wageman, Hackman, & Lehman, 2005). This general feeling of support is created through four support systems: the collective reward system, the information system, the education system, and the resource allocation system (Hackman, 2002; Francoeur-Marquis & Aubé, 2020). Therefore, to create a feeling of support, organizations should make sure to reward the whole team for their collective results, give teams training and developmental opportunities to ensure that they have all the skills

needed to accomplish their work, provide the entire team with the data it needs to plan and complete its work at the right time; and, lastly, equip the team with all the material and financial resources they require (Hackman, 2002).

Team effectiveness models state that features in the organizational context (i.e., a supportive organizational context) can either make success much easier for teams or can seriously impede the team such that the advantages of team design are totally negated (Hackman, 2002; Kennedy et al., 2008; Sunstrom, 1999). Therefore, a lack of organizational support aligned with teams' needs might hinder teams' success and engender frustration, stress and dejection within a team, called negative team affective tone (Spector & Goh, 2001). More specifically, negative team affective tone refers to highly consistent negative affects within a team (Collins et al., 2013). Indeed, within a team context, individual affects tend to converge, such that team members become more and more similar in their affect. This leads to the development of team-level affective states (Barsade, 2002).

Kozlowski and Ilgen (2006) assert that organizational factors could have a major influence on the development of teams' affective states. At the individual level of analysis, it has previously been demonstrated that a lack of perceived organizational support engenders negative work-related emotions (Arnold & Dupré, 2012). Negative social exchange has also been linked to the experience of negative affect (Newsom, Rook, Nishishiba, Sorkin, & Mahan, 2005). When teams perceive that the organization is not supporting their needs, they might feel devalued and that they do not have what they need to succeed. As such, we expect that the appraisal of a lack of a supportive organizational context for teams could lead teams to develop negative team affective tone.

Hypothesis 1. A supportive organizational context is inversely associated with negative team affective tone.

Negative Affective Tone and Counterproductive Behaviors. In the present study, we expect that negative team affective tone will be positively related to TCBs. Aubé et al. (2009) developed a typology of counterproductive behaviors that are specifically detrimental to team functioning. This typology is based on an analysis of the literature on behaviors that harm teamwork effectiveness. Aubé et al.'s typology contains four behaviors: parasitism (i.e., behaviors that involve members not doing their fair share of work), interpersonal aggression behaviors (i.e., behaviors that undermine the psychological or physical integrity of one or more teammates), boastfulness (i.e., behaviors that exaggerate the value of one's own contributions compared with those of one's teammates), and misuse of resources (i.e., behaviors that inappropriately use team members' resources and equipment).

Counterproductive behaviors can reflect a need to express or release feelings of outrage, anger or frustration (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). At the individual level of analysis, at least three studies have linked negative emotions to counterproductive behaviors (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Goh, Bruursema, Fox, & Spector, 2003; Miles, Borman, Spector, & Fox, 2002). Moreover, the seminal work of Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, and Sears (1939), as well as the study by Fox and Spector (1999), suggest that frustration would lead to counterproductive behaviors. Further, negative affectivity appears to exert a significant effect on these negative behaviors (Rodwell, Demir & Gulyas, 2015; Sunaryo, Suyono, Istiqomah, & Sarjiyanto, 2018). According to Morgeson & Hofman (1999), the effects of a variable generally remain the same across levels. It thus allows researchers to utilize knowledge about lower-level constructs to hypothesize relations at a collective level of analysis (Chan, 2019; Morgeson & Hofman, 1999). Consequently, we expect team negative affective tone to be positively related to each counterproductive behavior in Aubé et al.'s typology (2009).

Hypothesis 2. Negative team affective tone is positively associated with each counterproductive behavior (i.e., parasitism, interpersonal aggression, boastfulness, and misuse of resources).

The Mediating Role of Negative Team Affective Tone. When an organization is based on teams, organizational support systems should be aligned with teamwork and should be able to meet teams' needs (Hackman, 2002; Lazear & Shaw, 2007; Rousseau, Savoie, & Battistelli, 2007). In the opposite case, a lack of supportive organizational context aligned with teamwork leads to negative affects, which would predispose team members to adopt counterproductive behaviors (Atwater & Etkins, 2009; Fox & Spector, 1999; Vardi & Weitz, 2003).

Negative team affective tone has been previously studied as a moderator between effort-respect mismatch (defined as an incongruence between the level of effort exerted by a team and the recognition of that effort by the organization) and TCBs (Lin, Tsai & Liu, 2016). It has also been studied as a consequence of TCBs in Cole et al.'s study (2008). However, various theoretical model previously positioned TCBs as a consequence of negative affects (stressor-emotion model of counterproductive behaviors of Spector and Fox, 2009; the affective events theory of Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996).

Indeed, counterproductive behaviors are considered affect-driven behaviors, meaning that they directly follow affective experiences and are influenced by processes like coping or mood management, or by direct effects of affects at work (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). For example, withdrawal behaviors like lateness and absenteeism tend to be spontaneous and are likely to be a function of immediate affect levels (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). For their part, affect levels are influenced by organizational events that have affective significance and that generate emotional reactions or mood changes (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). According to the affective events theory and the stressor-emotion model of countreproductive behaviors, organizational events trigger affective responses, which then influence workplace behavior (Spector & Fox, 1999; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). This theory and this model were developed for traditional silo work settings. However, previous studies on team affective tone also seem to support the directionality of the relationships hypothesized: team affective tone triggers

group-level behaviors (Collins, Lawrence, Troth & Jordan, 2013) and is influenced by the context in which the team evolves (Kelly & Barsade, 2001).

Based on these theoretical and empirical models, teams could react emotionally to a lack of SOCT adapted to their team needs. These affective experiences would then have a direct influence on the behaviors adopted by the team, specifically counterproductive behaviors. Therefore, in this paper, we contend that the effect of the organizational constraint, that is a lack of SOCT on TCBs, is mediated by team negative affective tone.

Hypothesis 3. Negative team affective tone mediates the relationship between SOCT and each counterproductive behavior (i.e., parasitism, interpersonal aggression, boastfulness, and misuse of resources).

The Moderating Role of Team Commitment

At the team level of analysis, the relationship between affective tone and team counterproductive behaviors remains not well understood. However, different counterproductive behavior frameworks state that given the same emotional affects, not all individuals will respond in the same manner (Spector & Fox, 2005). In this paper, we hypothesize that the same statement applies to teams: given the same team affective tones, not all teams will respond in the same manner. As such, we expect that the function of emotional affects, its relationship with other variables, will remain the same at a team level of analysis (Chan 2019, Morgeson & Hoffman, 1999).

The relationship between affects and behaviors frequently varies according to different dispositions (Spector & Fox, 2005). One of these dispositions might actually be the level of commitment. Indeed, it has previously been demonstrated that commitment is key to understanding the relationships between diverse antecedents and counterproductive behaviors (Marcus, 2016). The model proposed in this study therefore positions team commitment as a moderator between negative team affective tone and TCBs. More specifically, we advance that

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team commitment could modulate the relationship between negative team affective tone and TCBs.

Team commitment refers to the relative strength of team members' identification with and involvement in their team (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000). A highly committed team firmly believes in and accepts team goals and values, will be willing to exert a substantial amount of effort on behalf of the team, and will have a strong desire to maintain membership in their team (Bishop et al., 2000). Previous studies have shown that in a team context, team members' levels of commitment tend to converge such that within one's team, members have a similar level of commitment. Further, this level differs from the level of other teams within an organization (Porter, 2005).

Team commitment has obvious potential benefits and has previously been studied as an antecedent of TCBs (Pearce & Giacalone, 2003). However, under some conditions it could rather act as a moderator and amplify employees' vulnerability to difficulties they might encounter in their workplace (Meyer & Maltin, 2010). In this paper, we propose that team commitment moderates the relationship between negative team affective tone and TCBs such that this relationship is stronger when team commitment is high. Indeed, highly committed teams might be reluctant to passively withdraw from difficult situations they encounter and will instead favor an active approach by expressing their negative affects (Becker, Klein, & Meyer, 2012; Klein et al., 1999). Stickney and Geddes (2014) demonstrated that highly committed employees are more likely to express their frustration openly than are less committed employees. Moreover, brand commitment studies have demonstrated that committed customers tend to voice their dissatisfaction and to complain to the company more than uncommitted customers (Evanschitzky, Brock, & Blut, 2011).

These results suggest that when facing negative affects, committed teams, like committed employees, will tend not to stay passive and mute their negative feelings, but will

instead be more likely to actively express these feelings. Having no direct control over the source of their negative affect (supportive organizational context), one way committed teams might express these negative feelings could be through the adoption of TCBs. Consequently, when a committed team has a high negative team affective tone, it could respond more actively to those negative affects and thus adopt even more TCBs.

In contrast, teams with low commitment facing high negative team affective tone might mute their negative affects. As such, they may hide their negative affects from their teammates and from the organization, and instead vent to people outside the organization (Stickney & Geddes, 2014). Indeed, Stickney and Geddes (2014) demonstrated that muted anger is negatively related to commitment. Teams with low commitment might not experience as strong a need to express their feelings of anger or frustration within the organization as highly committed teams do and would therefore adopt fewer TCBs in response to these negative affects.

Hypothesis 4. The relationship between negative team affective tone and each counterproductive behavior (parasitism, interpersonal aggression, boastfulness, and misuse of resources) is moderated by team commitment such that this relationship is stronger when team commitment is high.

Method

Participants

The sample is composed of 114 teams from a Canadian public safety organization. In this sample, the team size varies from 2 to 12 members ($M = 5.66$; $SD = 2.52$).

The research team met with management to ensure that all work teams solicited to participate in this study met certain criteria (Aubé, Rousseau & Savoie, 2000 ; Savoie & Beaudin, 1995). Specifically, to establish their eligibility to participate in the study, team members had to a) be recognized as a formal team in the organization, b) pursue team goals

and c) be interdependent in task accomplishment (Aubé, Rousseau & Savoie, 2000 ; Mathieum Gallagher, Domingo & Klock, 2019; Savoie & Beaudin, 1995). Moreover, to be included in the final sample, (a) each team's immediate supervisor had to have participated in the study as well, and (b) following Biemann and Heidemeier's (2012) recommendations to exclude only groups in which a single member was observed, at least two team members had to have participated in the study. We also retained in the final sample participants who had at least 1 month of seniority in their current team. This helps to ensure that all participants had sufficient knowledge of their work team to be able to provide data on the study variables.

Following these inclusion criteria, the final sample included 105 teams and the immediate supervisor of each of those teams. The average participation rate within each team is 81.95%. Within this final sample, 58.9% were males, and the average age is 37.79 ($SD =$ 9.3). The average team tenure is 3.6 years. Most of the participants hold the equivalent of a college diploma (72.2%). Finally, 95.8% of the team members occupy full-time positions in the organization.

Measures

Two sources of evaluation were used in this study, namely the team members and their immediate supervisors. Team members completed the measures of team negative affective tone, team commitment and supportive organizational context. Their immediate supervisor completed the questionnaire on TCBs.

Counterproductive Work Behaviors. We used Aubé et al.'s questionnaire (2009, 2011) to measure the prevalence of team members' counterproductive behaviors without targeting a particular member. To ensure that all supervisors use the same temporal frame to assess the occurrence of counterproductive behaviors, we asked supervisors to indicate the frequency over the last six months at which they had observed counterproductive behaviors within the team they supervise. The questionnaire contains 16 items. However, one item from

the parasitism dimension was dropped due to a lack of official frequent meetings for many teams in this public safety organization. Therefore, the questionnaire contained three items on parasitism (e.g., "some members of this team attend to their personal affairs instead of working"), four items on interpersonal aggression (e.g., "some members of this team make offensive remarks to their colleagues"), four items on boastfulness (e.g. "some members of this team act as if they were better than others"), and four items on misuse of resources (e.g., "some members of this team waste team's resources"). Supervisors had to evaluate the frequency of those behaviors using a five-point scale from 1 (never or almost never) to 5 (very frequently). The instrument has good internal consistency for each of its dimensions: the Cronbach alpha varied from .81 to .89 (Aubé et al., 2009).

When studying counterproductive behaviors, a previous criticism in the literature has been the potential for common method variance. To overcome this issue, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff (2003) suggested asking different set of individuals (e.g.: supervisors) to rate these behaviors. This solution also eliminates the risk of social desirability tendencies (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Priesemuth, Aurnaud & Schminke, 2013).

Team Negative Affective Tone. We gauged negative team affective tone by using members' ratings of six items from Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, and Kelloway's (2000) Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS). Participants were asked to evaluate the frequency at which their team had felt various emotions, using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never or almost never) to 5 (very frequently). Team negative affective tone was measured using the items angry, annoyed, anxious, bored, frustrated, and fatigued. The questionnaire was translated from English into French using the translation-back translation method (Brisling, 1970). For this study, Cronbach alpha was .91.

Supportive Organizational Context for Teams. We measured SOCT using a French translation of eleven items developed by Wageman et al. (2005; Francoeur-Marquis & Aubé,

2020). In keeping with the scientific literature on team effectiveness emphasizing the importance of financial resources (Mickan & Rodger, 2000), we added one item to Wageman et al.'s (2005) resources dimension to capture information on the availability of financial resources. More specifically, we used three items to assess each of the four a priori support systems: the resource allocation system (e.g., "The scarcity of resources is a real problem for my team"), the reward system (e.g., "Even when my team does a particularly good job, it is not recognized/rewarded by the organization."), the information system (e.g., "My team does not have access to all the information that could influence the progress of its work."), and the educational system (e.g., "My team is not getting the proper training to do its job."). All items were rated on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree). This study focuses on the higher-order construct of SOCT, which includes four dimensions: reward systems, information systems, educational systems, and resource allocation systems (Francoeur-Marquis & Aubé, 2020). As such, the scale of each dimension was combined to get a global score for the SOCT. The internal consistency is satisfactory (ω = .90; Francoeur-Marquis & Aubé, 2020).

Team Commitment. Team Commitment was measured using an adapted and translated version of Van der Vegt, Emans, & Van de Vliert (2000) scale. The adapted scale contains four items (e.g., "I am proud to belong to this team") that are rated and answered on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree). This translated version shows good internal consistency (α = .89).

Control Variables. Team size and team interdependence were considered control variables because they might have a confounding effect that would influence the perception of the supportive organizational context for teams and the adoption of TCBs. Team size refers to the total number of members of each team, excluding the team leader. These data were communicated by the organization at the beginning of the study. Team interdependence was

assessed by team supervisors using a translated version of a scale designed by Pearce and Gregersen (1991). This measure contains five items that assess the extent that co-workers depend on one another to accomplish their tasks (e.g., "I must frequently coordinate my efforts with others"). Participants rated their response on a five-point scale from 1 (totally false) to 5 (totally true).

Results

Data Aggregation and Descriptive Statistics

Given that some data were from the same source (i.e., team members: SOCT, negative team affective tone, team commitment; supervisors: four types of counterproductive behaviors), we carried out confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) to demonstrate the distinctiveness of these constructs. The CFA analyses were conducted at the individual level (instead of the team level) in order to have a sufficient number of observations per estimated parameter. This individual-level approach has been used often in the team literature (e.g., Griffith & Sawyer, 2010; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011; Sun, Zhang, Qi, & Chen, 2012). The results of the analyses support the distinctiveness of the constructs and show that, compared with a one-factor model, a three-factor model presents the most satisfying fit indices for the data collected from team members, and a four-factor model presents the most satisfying fit indices for the data collected from supervisors (see Table 1).

For each variable under study, although questionnaires were completed individually, the level of analysis is the team. As such, the scores on SOCT, negative team affective tone and team commitment were aggregated to the team level by calculating the average individual score for each team. To ensure that within-group agreement was good enough to justify aggregation to the team-level, r_{wg} indices were calculated (James et al., 1984, 1993). A satisfactory value for r_{wg} must be at least .70. The mean r_{wg} is .93 for SOCT, .88 for negative team affective tone, and .88 for team commitment. The relevance of aggregation was also assessed using main intra-

class coefficients ICC1. ICC1 was calculated based on formulas presented in the studies by Bliese (2000) and by Bliese and Halverson (1998). This coefficient is satisfactory when it is higher than .06 (Bliese, 2000). ICC1 is .16 for SOCT, .24 for negative team affective tone, and .23 for team commitment. The relevance of aggregation can also be assessed using ICC2. However, because ICC2 values depend on team size, as shown in the study by Schippers et al. (2008), we chose to rely mainly on the values of ICC1 and r_{wg}. Given that values of ICC1 and r_{wg} are satisfactory, aggregation for SOCT, negative team affective tone, and team commitment was considered relevant and justified.

Descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations), reliability estimates, and correlations for the study variables are presented in Table 2. As this table demonstrates, the alpha coefficients range from .61 to .91, indicating moderate to satisfactory reliability for all measures under study. Further, the results show that boastfulness and misuse of resources are not significantly related to SOCT. Once we controlled for team size and team interdependence, only misuse of resources remained not significantly related to SOCT. Consequently, misuse of resources was not included in the further analyses.

Verification of Relations and Mediation Hypotheses

Our hypotheses were tested by a path analytic procedure using Mplus 8.0 (Muthen & Muthen, 2017) and the robust maximum likelihood (MLR) estimator. This estimator provides standard errors and goodness-of-fit indices that are robust for non-normality. The relative adequacy of the model was assessed using conventional goodness-of-fit indices: The comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). Acceptable fit is assessed as CFI/TLI $\geq$ .90 and SRMR $\leq$ .10, while excellent fit is assessed as CFI/TLI $\geq$ .95 and SRMR $\leq$ .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marsh, Hau, & Grayson, 2005). Team size and team interdependence were used as control variables by

modelling direct paths from team size and team interdependence to parasitism, interpersonal aggression and team negative affective tone.

The hypothesized model suggests that SOCT tends to engender high negative team affective tone, thus affecting team-level parasitism, boastfulness, and interpersonal aggression. The results show that the hypothesized model has an excellent fit: CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.00 and SRMR = .011. As expected, the path estimates are significant for the relationship between SOCT and negative team affective tone (β = -.53, p < .001), supporting Hypothesis 1.

Moreover, the path estimates were significant for the relations between negative team affective tone and parasitism (β = .36, p < .001), between negative team affective tone and interpersonal aggression (β = .33, p < .001) and between negative team affective tone and boastfulness (β = .32, p < .001). Therefore, hypothesis 2 is partially supported.

Regarding the control variables, the only three significant path estimates concerned relationships between parasitism and team size (β = .22, p = .021), between interpersonal aggression and team size (β = .20, p = .029), and between interpersonal aggression and team interdependence (β = .17, p = .04).

We compared the hypothesized model of complete mediation with a nested model of partial mediation involving the addition of a direct path from supportive organizational context to parasitism, boastfulness, and interpersonal aggression. This partial mediation model fully reproduces the observed covariance matrix (df = 0). This model thus does not provide a test of model fit. However, looking at parameter estimates, the direct paths between supportive organizational context and each counterproductive behavior (parasitism, interpersonal aggression and boastfulness) are not significant (p > .05). These results lead us to conclude that the relationships between supportive organizational context and TCBs are fully mediated by negative team affective tone.

Having established the superiority of a full-mediation model to a partial mediation model, the bootstrap method was used in Mplus 8.0 to provide more empirical evidence for the mediating role of negative team affective tone between supportive organizational context and the three counterproductive behaviors: parasitism, interpersonal aggression and boastfulness (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Based on a 1,000 bootstrap sample, results indicate that the indirect effect of supportive organizational context on parasitism, interpersonal aggression and boastfulness is significant (parasitism: 95% bias-corrected confidence interval [CI] = -.30 to -.09; interpersonal aggression: 95% CI = -.27 to -.09; boastfulness: 95% CI = -.26 to -.10). The results of the path analysis and the bootstrapping partially support the mediation hypothesis for Hypothesis 3.

Verification of Moderation Hypothesis

To test Hypothesis 4, following Edwards and Lambert's (2007) framework, we incorporated second-stage moderation in our mediation model. We supplemented the previous model of mediation with a path from the moderation variable (i.e., team commitment) to negative team affective tone and each counterproductive behavior, and with a path from the product of team commitment and negative team affective tone to each counterproductive behavior. Prior to creating the interaction term, team negative affective tone and team commitment were mean centered (Aiken & West, 1991). The results of the path analytic model reveal that the moderated mediation model has good fit: CFI = .98, the TLI = .92, the SRMR = .04. Team commitment moderates the relationship between negative team affective tone and parasitism, between negative team affective tone and interpersonal aggression, and between negative team affective tone and boastfulness. Indeed, the interaction term for these three counterproductive behaviors is significant ($\beta_{\text{parasitism x team commitment}} = .18, p = .04; \beta_{\text{aggression x team commitment}} = .13, p = .04; \beta_{\text{boastfulness x team commitment}} = .11, p = .04$).

In order to assess whether the form of moderation is consistent with hypothesis 4, we plotted the regression model at three values of team commitment, namely the mean, one standard deviation below the mean of the moderating variable and one standard deviation above the mean of the moderating variable (Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003). The form of the moderation is consistent with Hypothesis 4 in that as the level of team commitment increases, the strength of the relationship between negative team affective tone and parasitism, interpersonal aggression and boastfulness increases.

As the level of team commitment increases, the values of the regression coefficient also increase for parasitism (see Figure 2), interpersonal aggression (see Figure 3) and boastfulness (see Figure 4), which is in the expected direction. Consequently, Hypothesis 4 is partially supported, which means that team commitment exerts a moderating effect on the relationship between negative team affective tone and parasitism, interpersonal aggression and boastfulness. The final model is presented in Figure 5.

Discussion

In the present study, we proposed and tested a model regarding the effects of a lack of organizational support on TCBs. By deepening our knowledge of the contextual antecedents of TCBs, our study stands out from previous studies of TCBs, which focused on team internal factors.

The mediation model proposed in this study, in line with the affective events theory of Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), shows that a lack of team organizational support triggers negative affective responses at a team level, which then drives the adoption of TCBs. Note that a lack of supportive organizational context for teams indirectly predicted all TCBs (i.e., parasitism, interpersonal aggression, and boastfulness), with the exception of misuse of resources behavior. This result could be explained by the specificities of the public safety organization where we conducted our research. The mission of this organization is to maintain

peace and order, and to protect the public. Their resources come from public funding (Demers & Dupont, 2011). As such, this organization could be more accountable than a private sector organization for the wise use of its resources and compliance with the law (Demers & Dupont, 2011; Peters & Savoie, 2001). It is therefore not surprising that misuse of resources was the least prevalent counterproductive behavior assessed in our study, with 97% of supervisors saying that it never or rarely occurred, and 98% of team members stating the same thing. In this population, misuse of resources might not be a behavior that team members would adopt in reaction to frustration caused by a lack of a supportive organizational context. Future studies could replicate the present study in a private sector organization to see if this result is specific to our population of interest or if it can be obtained in a different setting.

Another important contribution of this study is that we tested the moderating effect of team commitment on the relationship between negative team affective tone and TCBs. The results supported our hypothesis in that high commitment reinforces the relationship between negative affective tone and three types of TCBs (i.e., parasitism, interpersonal aggression and boastfulness). These results are consistent with Klein et al.'s assertion (1999) that there are situations in which high commitment is dysfunctional. Nonetheless, outside of the escalation of commitment literature, these situations have been neglected (Klein et al., 2012). Our study helps advance knowledge of commitment by demonstrating that high team commitment can be detrimental when negative team affective tone is also high. Indeed, high team commitment might then result in reluctance to passively withdraw from the difficulties they encounter and hence in an active response that entails expressing their negative affects (Becker et al., 2012; Klein et al., 1999), leading teams to respond more actively to those negative affects by adopting of counterproductive behaviors.

Strengths, Limitations, and Research Avenues

A strength of this study lies in the size and composition of the sample. We examined 105 work teams from the same public safety organization. Previous TCBs' research has often used considerably smaller samples (e.g. Ben Sasson & Somech, 2015; Rispens, Greer, Jehn & Tatcher, 2011). The sample size of this study is therefore a notable strength. Future research could investigate a different type of organization and different types of work teams to determine the degree to which the results obtained in this study are generalizable to other settings.

Another methodological strength is that the data were collected from two distinct sources (team members and immediate supervisors). This minimizes the common variance bias that could lead to underestimation or overestimation of the strength of the relationships between variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). Future research could use a longitudinal design in which variables are measured at different times. This type of design would further minimize the common variance bias and would allow more accurate identification of the direction of relationships between variables. However, a limit to consider is that supervisors may not witness the full range of counterproductive behaviors adopted by team members (Carpenter, Rangel, Jeon & Cottrel, 2017). Therefore, supervisors' evaluation of TCBs should be interpreted with caution.

It would also be worth further examining the moderating role of team commitment on the relationship between team negative affective tone and TCBs. To our knowledge this research was the first, within the team commitment literature, to look into the potential negative side of team commitment. Future research could develop knowledge on the subject by studying the cognitive and affective mechanisms that lead highly committed teams to react more strongly to negative team affective tone.

Practical Implications and Conclusion

In this research, we answered the call by Maloney et al. (2016) to focus on the organizational context in which teams evolve by studying the impact of a supportive organizational context for teams. Based on Nadler and Tushman's (1980) principle of congruence, the mediation model proposed in this study suggests that when organizational components are not well aligned with the peculiarities of teamwork, such that they do not support teamwork, this engenders negative team affective tone such as frustration and anxiety, which are then expressed through the adoption of behaviors that hinder teamwork (i.e., parasitism, interpersonal aggression and boastfulness).

Generally, this study indicates that a supportive organizational context for teams is an important component to consider for management teams that wish to favor teamwork, due to its important repercussions on negative team affective tone and TCBs. Given that management often associates the adoption of counterproductive behaviors with team members' personality, this study shows that contextual factors within the organization also contribute to fostering or hindering TCBs. Nevertheless, teams often find it difficult to obtain the support they need to work together effectively, particularly in organizations whose human resource systems have been designed to support work performed by individuals instead of teams (Wageman et al., 2005). Teams lacking adequate organizational support systems tend to get angry, anxious, or fatigued, which is often expressed through the adoption of TCBs, especially in highly committed teams.

Managers should therefore take the necessary step to avert TCBs in their work teams by putting in place supportive organizational systems. Preventive actions include a reward system that offers positive consequences for good team performance, an information system that provides team members with timely and relevant information, an educational system that allows

team members to develop the skills necessary for good team collaboration, and a resource

allocation system that supplies adequate material and financial resources (Hackman, 2002).

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Table 1

Model fit summary of confirmatory factor analyses for team members and supervisors

Model	χ^2	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Models for team members				
A priori three-factor model	492.91*	.91	.90	.06
One-factor model	1,932.63*	.48	.42	.12
Models for supervisors				
A priori four-factor model	126.43*	.93	.91	.06
One-factor model	268.33*	.74	.70	.09

Note. * *p*<.05

Table 2

Means (M), standard deviations (SD), reliability estimates, and correlations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. SOCT	3.13	.41	(.88)							
2. Affective Tone	2.95	.55	-.54**	(.91)						
3. Parasitism	2.24	.68	-.29**	.38**	(.61)					
4. Boastfulness	1.74	.78	-.17	.32**	.33**	(.89)				
5. Aggression	1.66	.72	-.22*	.33**	.49**	.67**	(.86)			
6. Mis. Ress.	1.22	.39	-.12	.17	.32**	.48**	.50**	(.67)		
7. Engagement	4.22	.51	.31**	-.40**	-.17	-.14	-.148	-.20*	(.89)	
8. Team Size	4.69	2.43	.01	.08	.25**	.10	.25**	.10	-.09	
9.Interdependence	4.02	.62	.11	-.14	.01	.04	.15	.15	.16	.12

Note. Internal consistency reliability scores are in parentheses along the diagonal. $N = 105$ teams. SOCT = Supportive organizational context for teams. Mis. Ress. = Misuse of resources. * $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$.

Figure 1

Hypothesized Model
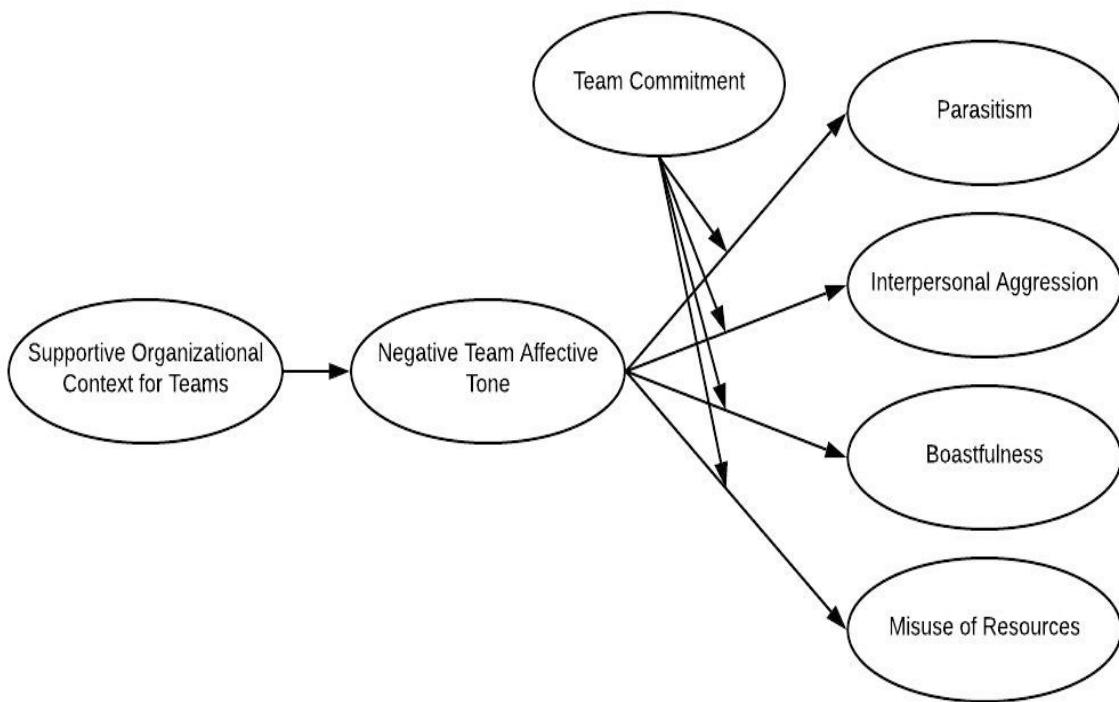
Figure 2

Team Commitment as a moderator between Team Negative Affective Tone and Parasitism
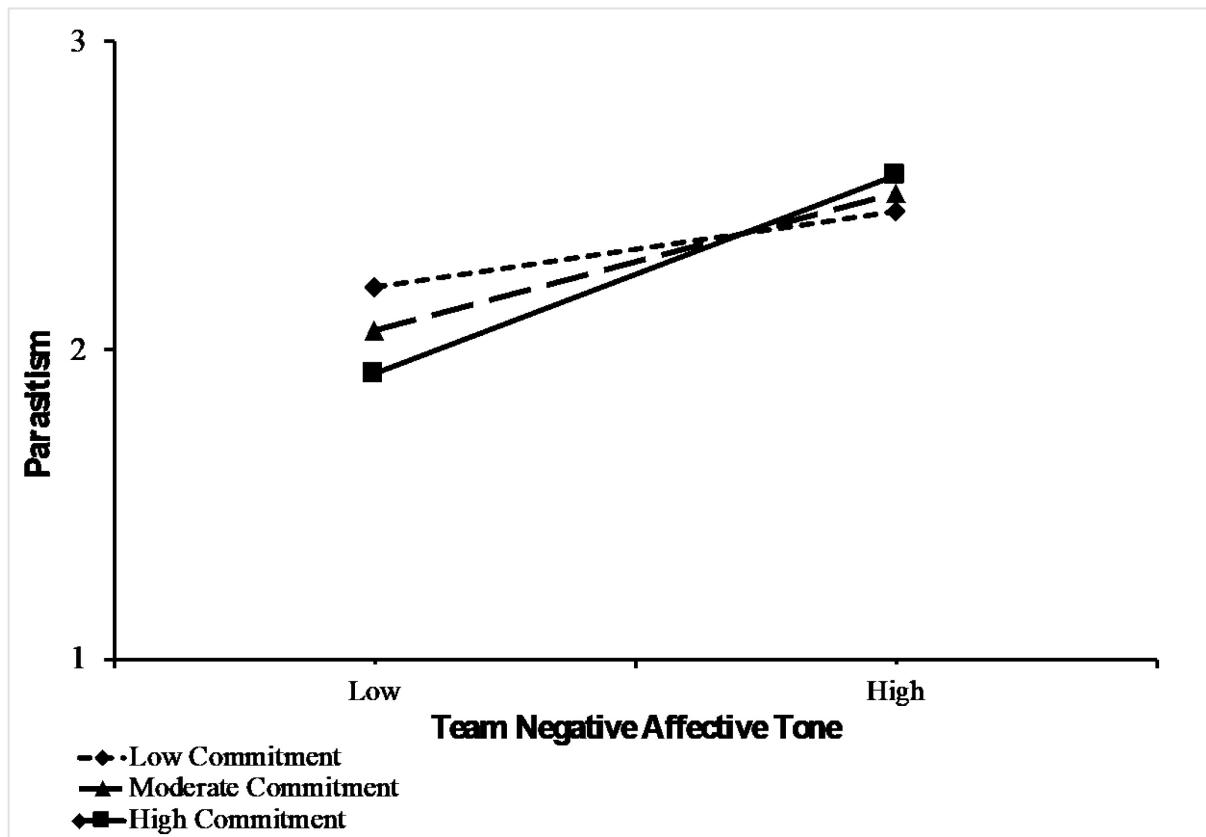
Figure 3

Team Commitment as a moderator between Team Negative Affective Tone and Boastfulness
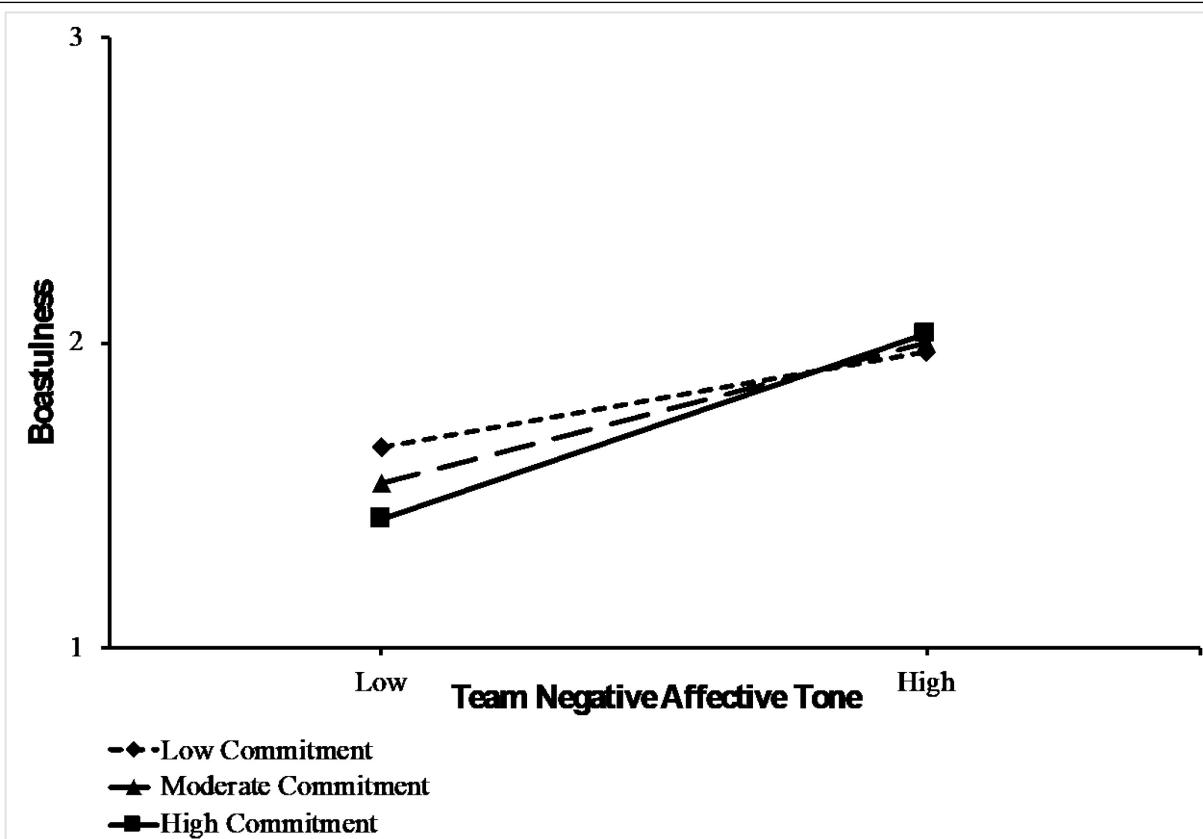
Figure 4

Team Commitment as a moderator between Team Negative Affective Tone and Interpersonal

Aggression
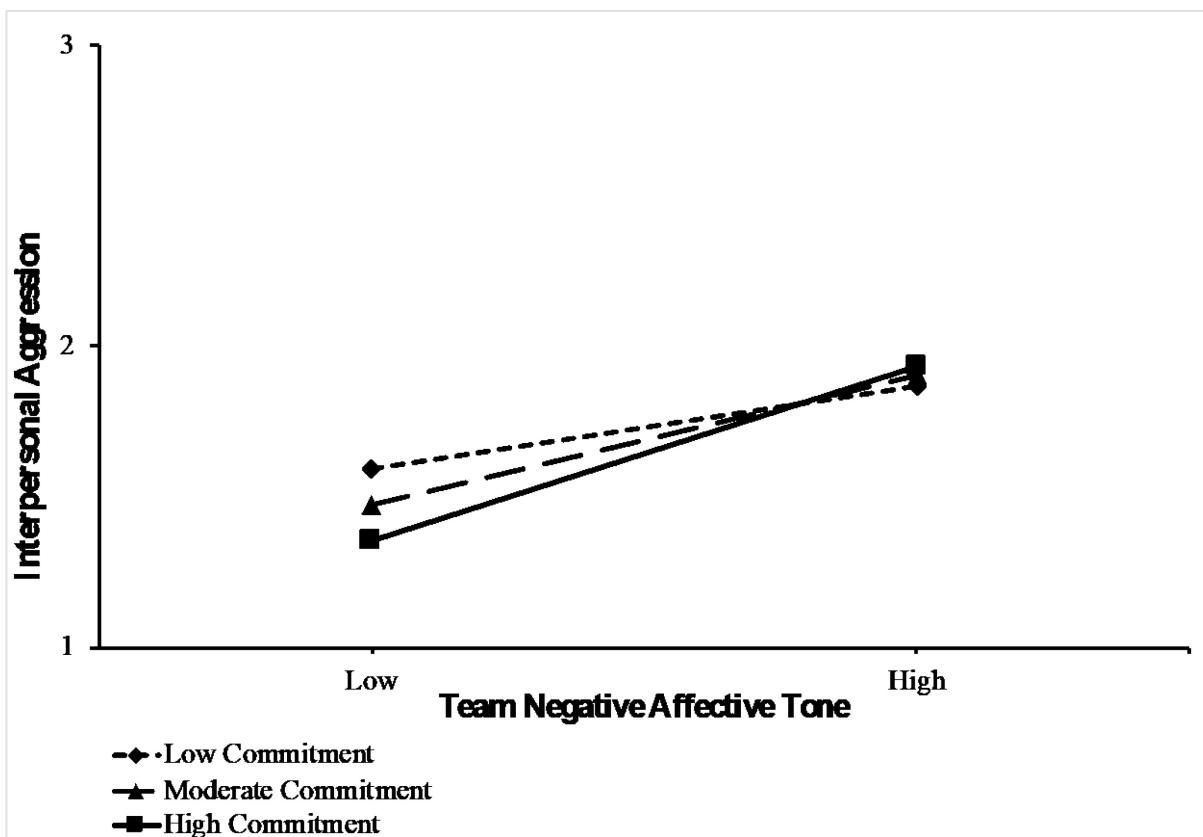
Figure 5

Results of path analytic model
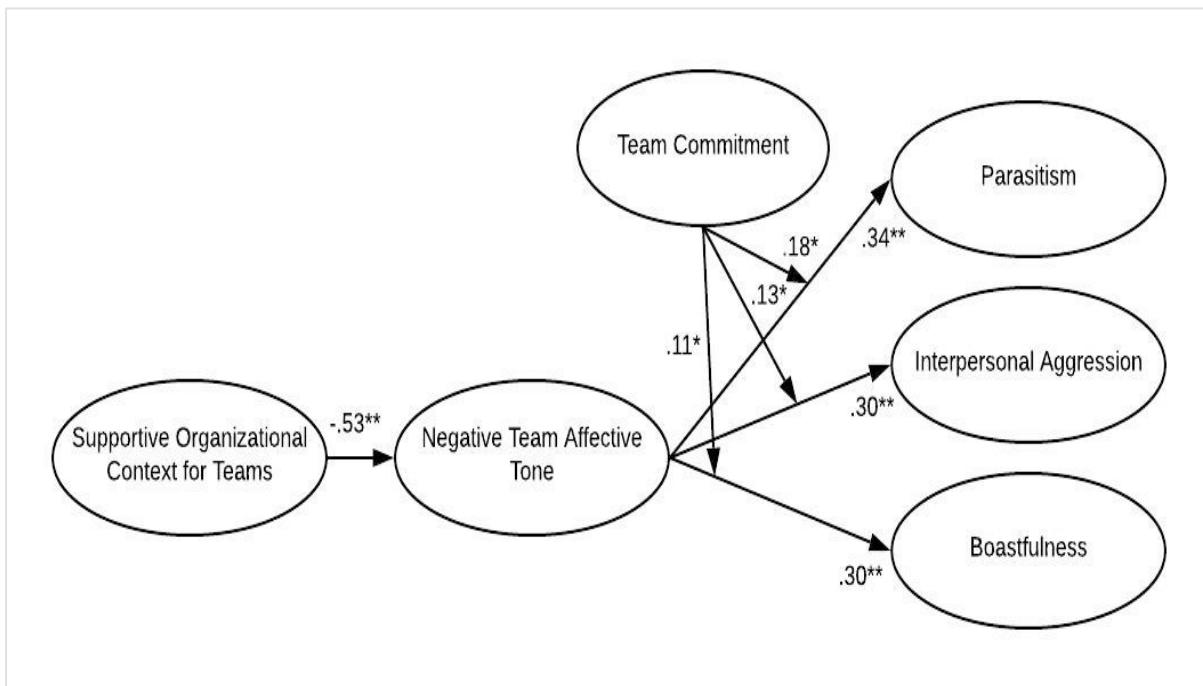
Note. Standardized estimates; *p* < .05; **p* < .01; *N* = 105 teams.

Conclusion

Cette section vise à faire le point sur les trois articles présentés afin d'en synthétiser les principaux résultats et d'exposer les contributions principales que cette thèse apporte aux champs d'études sur les équipes de travail et les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. Les limites seront discutées pour ensuite ouvrir sur les pistes de recherches futures dans le domaine des comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. Finalement, une courte réflexion personnelle sur les dynamiques contre-productives en équipe sera présentée.

Sommaire des résultats

Les comportements contre-productifs ont des conséquences faramineuses pour les organisations, telles que la perte de productivité, la piètre qualité du travail, l'aggravation du climat de travail, le haut taux de roulement, etc. (Aubé, Rousseau, Mama, et Morin, 2009; Bowling et Grys, 2010; Penney et Spector, 2005). En plus, il est estimé qu'entre 50 % et 75 % des employés ont déjà adopté un certain type de comportement contre-productif dans leur milieu de travail, causant collectivement des pertes organisationnelles en millions de dollars chaque année à travers le monde (Bennet et Marasi, 2016).

Dû aux conséquences néfastes des comportements contre-productifs, plusieurs chercheurs ont souhaité mieux comprendre ces comportements et leurs déterminants. Les comportements contre-productifs ont jusqu'à présent surtout été documentés au niveau individuel. Néanmoins, de plus en plus de recherches montrent que les comportements contre-productifs ne sont pas seulement un enjeu individuel, mais aussi un enjeu d'équipe. En effet, certains comportements acceptables dans un contexte de travail en silo peuvent devenir contre-productifs lorsqu'ils sont émis au sein d'une équipe de travail (p. ex. : individualisme, compétition). De même, lorsque les employés sont interdépendants et doivent collaborer quotidiennement, les conséquences des comportements contre-productifs s'avèrent amplifiées (Aubé et al., 2009 ; Pearce et Giacalone, 2003). Il a dès lors été démontré que certains

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comportements contre-productifs interfèrent avec le bon fonctionnement et la performance des équipes (p. ex. Aubé et al., 2009 ; Aubé et Rousseau, 2014 ; Cole, Walter et Bruch, 2008). Une meilleure compréhension des comportements contre-productifs dans un contexte d'équipes de travail s'avère donc essentielle afin d'en prévenir les conséquences néfastes.

Cette thèse a ainsi été réalisée dans l'objectif d'enrichir les connaissances sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers et sur les antécédents contextuels de tels comportements. Plus précisément, les trois articles présentés dans cette thèse ont été réalisés afin de mieux comprendre l'état des connaissances sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers et de tester un modèle de médiation selon lequel une déficience au niveau du contexte de soutien au travail en équipe tend à favoriser les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers.

État des connaissances. Le premier objectif, soit de mieux comprendre l'état des connaissances sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers, a été abordé dans le premier article de cette thèse. Toutefois, avant d'entreprendre cet objectif, il s'avérait nécessaire de clarifier la notion de comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers et son caractère distinctif, constituant ainsi le deuxième objectif de cet article. Pour ce faire, un cadre conceptuel a été défini dans lequel les comportements contre-productifs sont catégorisés en fonction de leur impact le plus proximal (sur l'individu, l'équipe ou l'organisation).

Une fois cette notion clarifiée, la recension de la littérature scientifique sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers a été conduite sur diverses bases de données (c.-à-d. EBSCO, ProQuest, ScienceDirect, Emerald Insight et PsycNet). Cette recension a été synthétisée dans un modèle intégrant les résultats de dix-sept recherches empiriques effectuées dans les vingt dernières années sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers.

L'analyse de la documentation scientifique a permis de souligner les conséquences néfastes des comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers sur l'efficacité des équipes (Aubé et

Rousseau, 2011) et sur divers processus et états émergents, tels que la collaboration (Aubé et Rousseau, 2014) et la présence de conflits (Raver et Gelfand, 2005). De même, cette recension a permis de noter diverses catégories de déterminants des comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. La première catégorie sur laquelle un grand nombre de recherches se sont penchées concerne les déterminants internes à l'équipe. Ainsi, des facteurs structurels (p. ex. : taille de l'équipe ; Aubé, Rousseau et Tremblay, 2011), des facteurs compositionnels (p. ex. : traits de personnalité des membres ; Hohenstein, 2007), des processus d'équipe (p. ex. : la flânerie sociale ; Ayoko et Callan, 2010) et des états émergents (p. ex. : engagement à l'équipe ; Pearce et Giacalone, 2003) permettent de prédire l'adoption de comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. La deuxième catégorie de déterminants des comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers concerne les facteurs propres aux leaders des équipes de travail, tels que les styles de leadership (c.-à-d. leadership inclusif et authentique ; Lin, Tsai et Liu, 2016 ; Seo, 2016) et les comportements du leader (p. ex. : se concentrer sur les erreurs de l'équipe ; Pearce et Giacalone, 2003). Finalement, la dernière catégorie de déterminants sur laquelle uniquement deux études se sont penchées concerne les facteurs contextuels externes à l'équipe. Au sein de cette catégorie, des études indiquent que le soutien organisationnel et l'incongruence entre les efforts fournis par l'équipe et la reconnaissance reçue de l'organisation permettent respectivement d'inhiber et de favoriser les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers (Lin et al., 2016 ; Pearce et Giacalone, 2003).

La recension de la documentation conduite dans le premier article de cette thèse permet de mettre en lumière certaines lacunes dans la littérature scientifique sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. La première de ces lacunes se situe au niveau des connaissances sur les mécanismes expliquant l'émergence des comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. En effet, peu d'études ont jusqu'à présent étudié comment les comportements contre-productifs

d'équipiers se développent au fil des interactions entre les membres de l'équipe et finissent par caractériser le fonctionnement de l'ensemble de l'équipe.

De même, la recension de la documentation effectuée a permis de souligner le manque de connaissances sur l'évolution des dynamiques contre-productives à travers le temps. En ce sens, aucune étude ne s'est jusqu'à présent penchée sur les interventions potentielles permettant de réduire l'adoption de comportements contre-productifs au sein d'une équipe.

Finalement, la troisième lacune se situe plutôt au niveau des connaissances sur les antécédents contextuels externes à l'équipe de travail sur lesquels très peu de recherches se sont jusqu'à présent penchées. Cette deuxième lacune est d'ailleurs particulièrement présente dans la recherche sur les équipes de travail (Maloney, Bresman, Zellmer-Bruhn et Beaver, 2016). Effectivement, bien que la plupart des modèles conceptuels d'efficacité d'équipe considèrent le contexte organisationnel comme un facteur critique (Kozlowski et Bell, 2003), les études sur les équipes de travail s'étant penchées sur le rôle que peuvent jouer certains facteurs contextuels sont jusqu'à présent encore peu nombreuses (Maloney et al., 2016). Néanmoins, les chercheurs ont constaté que des facteurs contextuels externes à l'équipe de travail peuvent façonner et limiter le développement d'une dynamique d'équipe, telle qu'une dynamique contre-productive (Kozlowski, Chao, Grand, Braun et Kuljanin, 2013).

La seconde portion de cette thèse avait donc pour objectif de faire avancer les connaissances sur les facteurs contextuels pouvant jouer un rôle dans le développement de certaines dynamiques d'équipe. Plus spécifiquement, elle avait pour objectif d'étudier la relation entre le contexte de soutien au travail en équipe (Hackman, 2002) et les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers (Aubé et al., 2009). Toutefois, avant de tester cette relation, il s'avérait nécessaire de valider le concept de contexte de soutien au travail en équipe, constituant l'objectif du deuxième article de cette thèse.

Contexte de soutien organisationnel au travail en équipe. Le deuxième article de cette thèse a porté sur la structure factorielle et la validité discriminante du contexte de soutien au travail en équipe de Hackman (2002). Le contexte de soutien au travail en équipe se définit comme la perception, par les membres de l'équipe, de la façon dont leur organisation valorise la contribution de leur équipe, apporte un soutien à l'équipe, leur montre qu'elle a leurs intérêts à cœur et qu'elle se soucie de répondre à leurs besoins (Hackman, 2002 ; Kennedy, Loughry, Klammer et Beyerlein, 2009 ; Kline, 1999 ; Wageman, Hackman et Lehman, 2005). Les organisations peuvent démontrer leur soutien à travers quatre systèmes : le système de récompenses, le système de communication, le système de développement professionnel et le système d'allocation des ressources.

Alors que la consistance interne du questionnaire sur le contexte de soutien au travail en équipe avait été précédemment analysée (Eisele, 2015 ; Wageman et al., 2005), sa conception multidimensionnelle n'avait jamais été testée. Ainsi, l'objectif du deuxième article de cette thèse était de vérifier la structure factorielle d'ordre supérieur du questionnaire sur le contexte de soutien organisationnel au travail en équipe de même que de tester sa validité discriminante. À partir d'un échantillon de 235 participants, les analyses Bifactor-ESEM conduites dans ce deuxième article ont permis de corroborer que le contexte de soutien organisationnel au travail en équipe est un construit d'ordre supérieur composé de quatre facteurs : le système de récompense, le système de communication, le système de développement professionnel et le système d'allocation des ressources.

De même, afin d'établir la validité de ce questionnaire, il apparaissait important de démontrer sa valeur distinctive en rapport avec le construit similaire de soutien organisationnel perçu développé par Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, et Sowa (1986). Le soutien organisationnel perçu se définit comme la croyance générale des employés sur la propension de l'organisation à valoriser leur contribution personnelle et à se soucier de leur bien-être

(Eisenberger et al., 1986). Bien que la définition de ce concept soit similaire à celle du contexte de soutien au travail en équipe, le soutien organisationnel perçu est un concept de niveau individuel qui réfère au soutien que chaque employé estime recevoir de la part de l'organisation. Les analyses effectuées dans le cadre de l'article ont donc permis d'appuyer que le contexte de soutien au travail en équipe, de par son point de mire explicite sur l'équipe, est un concept distinct du soutien organisationnel perçu.

L'influence du contexte de soutien sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. Une fois la structure factorielle du concept de contexte de soutien au travail en équipe de même que sa validité discriminante démontrée, la relation entre le contexte de soutien et les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers a pu être testée. Dès lors, le troisième article de cette thèse avait pour objectif de faire progresser les connaissances sur les antécédents contextuels externes à l'équipe des comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. Pour ce faire, un échantillon de 105 équipes de travail provenant d'une organisation du secteur de la sécurité publique a été utilisé. Les analyses acheminatoires de cette étude ont montré qu'un manque de soutien organisationnel au travail en équipe favorise, à travers son influence sur les affects négatifs d'équipe (*negative team affective tone*), l'adoption de comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. Ainsi, un manque de soutien au travail en équipe génère des affects négatifs au sein de l'équipe, qui se traduisent par l'adoption de comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers.

Alors qu'il est reconnu que tous ne réagissent pas de la même façon à la présence d'affects négatifs (Spector et Fox, 2005), un deuxième objectif de cet article était de mieux comprendre la relation entre les affects négatifs et l'adoption de comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. Une disposition d'équipe susceptible d'influencer cette relation concerne l'engagement envers l'équipe (Marcus, 2016). Les résultats de cette étude ont ainsi démontré que l'engagement envers l'équipe agit comme modérateur dans la relation entre les

affects négatifs et les comportements contre-productifs. Plus spécifiquement, un haut niveau d'engagement envers l'équipe renforce la relation entre les affects négatifs et les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. Les équipes dont les membres sont davantage engagés ont moins tendance à demeurer passives lors de situations difficiles et à refouler les émotions négatives qu'elles ressentent (Meyer et Maltin, 2010). Les résultats de cette étude suggèrent donc que les équipes plus engagées ont davantage tendance à manifester ouvertement leur frustration, ce qui se traduit par l'adoption de comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers.

Contributions de la thèse

À travers les trois articles de cette thèse, diverses contributions théoriques à la littérature sur les équipes de travail ont pu être effectuées. Également, les résultats de ces trois études ont plusieurs implications pratiques pour les intervenants dans le domaine des équipes de travail ainsi que pour les organisations utilisant ce mode d'organisation du travail.

Contributions théoriques. La première contribution théorique de cette thèse a été de clarifier le concept de comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers de même que leur caractère distinctif. En effet, la littérature sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers était prise avec un important problème : l'absence d'un cadre théorique commun sur ce que sont les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers et ce qu'ils ne sont pas. La plupart des cadres conceptuels existants sur les comportements contre-productifs ne prenaient pas en compte l'organisation du travail en équipe. Dès lors, dans le premier article de cette thèse, un cadre conceptuel a été défini dans lequel les comportements contre-productifs sont catégorisés en fonction de leur impact le plus proximal (sur l'individu, l'équipe ou l'organisation). Ce cadre conceptuel permet de clarifier le caractère distinctif des comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers de par leur impact plus proximal sur le fonctionnement des équipes de travail.

Une deuxième contribution théorique de cette thèse a été de clarifier l'ensemble des connaissances actuelles sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers et de fournir une

représentation visuelle des résultats permettant de résumer ces différentes connaissances. Bien que la littérature sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers était jusqu'à récemment plutôt limitée, elle semble actuellement en plein essor. Cet essor se caractérise toutefois par un manque d'intégration entre les différentes études sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. La recension de la documentation effectuée dans le cadre du premier article de cette thèse a ainsi permis d'effectuer un premier pas vers une plus grande intégration des résultats des diverses études empiriques sur les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. Cette recension a aussi permis d'identifier un riche programme de recherches futures pour développer davantage les connaissances sur l'émergence des comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers, sur leurs antécédents de même que sur les interventions les plus efficaces pour les réduire.

Au cœur de ce programme de recherche se trouve la nécessité de développer davantage les connaissances sur les facteurs organisationnels externes à l'équipe permettant de favoriser ou d'inhiber les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. En effet, les équipes de travail sont intégrées au sein d'un système organisationnel plus vaste qui peut exercer une influence significative sur le fonctionnement et l'efficacité des équipes (Maloney et al., 2016 ; Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp et Gilson, 2008). Afin de comprendre l'ensemble des facteurs qui contribuent à l'adoption de comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers, il est dès lors critique de prendre davantage en considération le contexte organisationnel dans lequel celle-ci évolue. Pourtant, peu d'attention a jusqu'à présent été accordée aux variables contextuelles susceptibles de favoriser ou d'inhiber les dynamiques contre-productives d'équipes de travail.

Les deux articles suivants de cette thèse ont donc contribué à répondre à l'appel de Maloney et al. (2016) de prendre davantage en compte le contexte organisationnel dans l'étude des équipes de travail. Il a été démontré qu'un contexte organisationnel ne soutenant pas suffisamment les équipes de travail tend à favoriser l'adoption de comportements contre-

productifs d'équipiers. De plus, le dernier article de cette thèse a aidé à clarifier le mécanisme affectif par lequel le contexte organisationnel agit sur l'adoption de comportements contre-productifs au niveau de l'équipe, soit en générant un plus haut niveau d'affects négatifs au sein de l'équipe.

Une autre importante contribution théorique de cette thèse réside dans l'étude d'un contexte d'équipe dans lequel un fort engagement envers son équipe peut avoir un effet pernicieux. Jusqu'à présent, la recherche sur l'engagement s'est principalement concentrée sur les situations dans lesquelles cette variable génère des effets positifs. Cependant, la littérature sur l'escalade de l'engagement suggère qu'il existe certaines situations dans lesquelles un engagement élevé serait dysfonctionnel (Klein, Wesson, Hollenback et Alge, 1999). Quoi qu'il en soit, le « côté plus obscur » de l'engagement a été négligé dans la recherche scientifique et il n'est reconnu qu'occasionnellement dans la littérature sur l'engagement (Klein, Mollow et Brinsfield, 2012). Cette thèse a donc permis de contribuer à faire avancer l'état des connaissances sur le côté plus négatif de l'engagement en démontrant que les équipes fortement engagées réagissent de manière plus active aux affects négatifs, en adoptant davantage de comportements contre-productifs.

Contributions pratiques. Cette recherche doctorale entraîne aussi plusieurs avancées pratiques. Dans un premier temps, la démonstration de la structure factorielle du concept de contexte de soutien organisationnel au travail en équipe démontre que les quatre systèmes de soutien sont nécessaires pour développer un contexte soutenant pour les équipes. De même, cette étude contribue à mieux comprendre comment le contexte organisationnel peut influencer l'adoption de comportements nocifs au sein d'une équipe de travail. Ainsi, des déficiences au niveau des quatre systèmes de soutien au travail en équipe (système de récompense, système de formation, système de communication et système d'allocation des ressources) sont susceptibles d'amener les équipes à ressentir des affects négatifs et à y réagir en adoptant des

comportements nuisibles au travail en équipe. Dans ces circonstances, afin de créer un contexte soutenant pour les équipes de travail et de limiter l'adoption de comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers, les gestionnaires doivent s'assurer de récompenser toute l'équipe pour leurs résultats collectifs, de fournir des opportunités de formation et de développement professionnel à l'équipe, de communiquer à toute l'équipe les données dont elle a besoin pour planifier et exécuter son travail et, enfin, de lui fournir les ressources matérielles et financières nécessaires pour accomplir ses tâches collectives.

Finalement, cette recherche doctorale a permis de démontrer que le soutien organisationnel à l'égard des individus est distinct du soutien organisationnel envers les équipes. Dans ce contexte, les dirigeants et les gestionnaires d'organisations basées sur les équipes doivent garder à l'esprit qu'un autre type de soutien que celui offert individuellement peut être nécessaire pour bien soutenir les équipes de travail. Si l'organisation ne soutient que chaque membre de l'équipe individuellement, l'équipe elle-même pourrait ne pas se sentir soutenue.

En définitive, en plus d'accroître la compréhension théorique des liens possibles entre le contexte organisationnel de soutien aux équipes et les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers, les résultats de cette thèse doctorale ont plusieurs retombées pratiques. En effet, afin de limiter le développement d'une dynamique contre-productive au sein de l'équipe, cette thèse souligne l'importance pour les organisations basées sur des équipes de travail de s'assurer de la bonne mise en place de quatre systèmes de soutien au travail en équipe.

Forces méthodologiques de la thèse

En plus des contributions théoriques et pratiques de cette thèse, celle-ci a plusieurs forces méthodologiques. L'une des premières forces de cette thèse réside dans le devis de recherche multisources. Les données du troisième article étaient collectées auprès de deux sources distinctes : les membres de l'équipe et leur supérieur immédiat. Ce devis de recherche

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constitue une importante force méthodologique, puisqu'il permet de réduire le biais de la variance commune (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee et Podsakoff, 2003). Effectivement, l'évaluation de la variable dépendante (les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers) par le supérieur immédiat réduit la probabilité que la force de la relation entre les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers et les autres variables mesurées soit surestimée.

D'autre part, la taille de l'échantillon du troisième article de cette thèse (N = 105 équipes de travail) constitue une deuxième force méthodologique. En effet, étant donné le grand défi que constitue la recherche auprès d'équipes dans les organisations, de nombreuses études sur les équipes utilisent un échantillon beaucoup plus petit que celui utilisé dans cette thèse. Par exemple, dans leurs études sur les comportements contre-productifs dans les équipes, Rispens, Greer, Jehn et Tatcher (2011) utilisaient un échantillon de seulement 26 équipes de travail et Cole et al. (2008), un échantillon de 61 équipes de travail. En plus, l'utilisation d'équipes provenant toutes de la même organisation permet de réduire les sources d'interférences qui auraient pu influencer les résultats, tels que la culture organisationnelle, la situation financière de l'organisation et ses politiques organisationnelles.

Finalement, une dernière force méthodologie réside dans la manière dont les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers ont été mesurés. En effet, en mettant l'accent sur l'occurrence des comportements contre-productifs observés au sein de l'équipe plutôt que sur chaque membre de l'équipe individuellement, les consignes données dans ce questionnaire permettent de minimiser les biais de désirabilité sociale (Mook, 2001).

Limites de la thèse et pistes de recherches futures

Malgré ses apports et ses forces méthodologiques, la thèse comporte aussi certaines limites, donnant d'ailleurs lieu à diverses pistes de recherches futures. Plus spécifiquement, au moins deux limites doivent être prises en compte dans l'interprétation des résultats. La première limite concerne la représentativité des échantillons utilisés pour les deux articles empiriques.

La deuxième limite concerne plutôt la nature corrélationnelle du devis de recherche utilisé dans la thèse, de même que l'utilisation de données autorapportées.

La première limite concerne la représentativité des échantillons utilisés dans les deux articles empiriques de cette thèse. Dans l'article de validation de la structure factorielle du contexte de soutien au travail en équipe, un échantillon de convenance a été utilisé. Au sein de cet échantillon, il est possible de constater une surreprésentation de la population étudiante et de jeunes travailleurs, 76 % des participants ayant moins de 30 ans. Il serait par conséquent approprié que la structure factorielle soit testée auprès d'un échantillon davantage diversifié.

De même, dans le dernier article de cette thèse, l'échantillon utilisé provenait d'une seule organisation, soit une organisation du milieu de la sécurité publique. Bien que cela puisse constituer une force permettant de réduire les sources d'interférences qui auraient pu influencer les résultats, cela constitue aussi une limite quant au caractère généralisable des résultats obtenus. Bien que plusieurs types d'équipes aient été représentés dans cet échantillon, le milieu de la sécurité publique a ses particularités qui pourraient ne pas être représentatives de l'ensemble des milieux de travail. Notamment, la mission du milieu de la sécurité publique est de maintenir la paix et l'ordre de même que de protéger le public. De plus, les ressources de ces organisations proviennent de fonds publics (Demers et Dupont, 2011). Ainsi, les équipes de l'organisation dans laquelle cette recherche a été conduite pourraient se montrer davantage responsables que celles d'une organisation du secteur privé quant à l'utilisation judicieuse de ses ressources et au respect de la loi. Dans ce contexte, il demeure possible que les résultats obtenus ne soient pas entièrement généralisables à des populations provenant d'organisations différentes, telles que les organisations privées. Dans ces circonstances, les résultats doivent être interprétés et généralisés avec précaution. De futures recherches sur le contexte de soutien au travail en équipe et les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers pourraient être répliquées au sein d'organisations privées afin de vérifier la généralisation des résultats obtenus.

Par la suite, une autre limite réfère à la nature transversale du devis de recherche du dernier article de la thèse et à l'utilisation de données autorapportées. La directionnalité des relations étudiées dans cette thèse s'avère fortement plausible, étant fondée sur la théorie des évènements affectifs de Weiss et Cropanzano (1996) selon laquelle les évènements organisationnels génèrent des réponses affectives qui influencent ensuite les comportements en milieu de travail. Il demeure toutefois important de noter que le devis est de nature corrélationnelle, ce qui implique que la causalité des liens n'a pas été testée. En outre, Cole et al. (2008) ont positionné les affects négatifs d'équipe dans leur étude comme étant une conséquence des comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. Ces différents résultats suggèrent une possible relation bidirectionnelle entre les affects négatifs d'équipiers et les comportements contre-productifs. De plus, l'utilisation de données autorapportées dans le cadre de la thèse peut avoir eu une influence sur les résultats obtenus. Plus particulièrement, dans le troisième article, la variable indépendante (c.-à-d. le contexte de soutien au travail en équipe) et la variable médiatrice (les affects négatifs d'équipiers) ont été mesurées auprès d'une même source, ce qui est susceptible d'augmenter le biais de variance commune.

Des études longitudinales seront dès lors nécessaires afin de pouvoir apporter davantage de lumière sur la relation de causalité entre le contexte de soutien au travail en équipe, les affects négatifs d'équipe et les comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. Un devis longitudinal permettrait de corroborer la directionnalité des relations entre ces variables et même de vérifier la possibilité d'une relation bidirectionnelle entre les affects négatifs d'équipiers et les comportements contre-productifs.

De même, en termes de recherches futures, il s'avèrerait intéressant de vérifier, à partir d'un devis longitudinal, si le soutien organisationnel au travail en équipe se révèle un facteur pouvant limiter, à travers le temps, l'émergence de dynamiques contre-productives d'équipes. En effet, il a été précédemment démontré que les facteurs organisationnels peuvent limiter

l'émergence de certains phénomènes d'équipes. Ce type de devis permettrait ainsi de suivre diverses équipes de travail bénéficiant de différents niveaux de soutien organisationnel au travail en équipe et de vérifier le caractère contraignant du contexte de soutien au travail en équipe sur l'émergence des comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers.

Finalement, une autre avenue de recherche pourrait porter sur la validité incrémentielle du concept de soutien au travail en équipe. En effet, la deuxième étude de cette thèse souligne que le soutien organisationnel perçu par l'individu se distingue du contexte de soutien au travail en équipe. De futures études seraient toutefois nécessaires afin de mieux comprendre comment ces deux types de soutien interagissent dans la prédiction des comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. En effet, à un niveau individuel, il a été démontré que le soutien organisationnel perçu par les employés est négativement relié aux comportements contre-productifs dirigés envers l'organisation et envers les individus (El Akremi, Vandenberghe et Camerman, 2010 ; Monnastes, 2010). D'un autre côté, le troisième article de cette thèse démontre que le contexte de soutien organisationnel au travail en équipe est négativement et indirectement relié aux comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. Dans ce contexte, il serait utile d'étudier la validité incrémentielle du contexte de soutien au travail en équipe par rapport au soutien organisationnel perçu dans la prédiction des comportements contre-productifs d'équipiers. Également, il s'avèrerait pertinent de vérifier si un type de soutien pourrait agir comme facteur de protection lors du manque d'un autre type de soutien dans un contexte de travail en équipe. Par exemple, si les membres de l'équipe se sentent soutenus collectivement, le manque de soutien perçu individuellement pourrait-il s'avérer moins néfaste sur l'adoption de comportements contre-productifs ?

Mot de la fin

La rédaction de cette thèse était fondée sur une conviction profonde qu'au-delà des facteurs intra-individuels et internes à l'équipe, l'organisation a aussi un rôle à jouer dans le

développement d'une dynamique contre-productive d'équipe. Sur une note plus personnelle, je constate que, fréquemment, lors de mauvaises dynamiques d'équipes, les personnes ont tendance à en attribuer la faute sur un ou deux membres de l'équipe. C'est parfois effectivement dû à des personnalités plus difficiles. Ce n'est toutefois pas toujours le cas.

Ainsi, il ne suffit pas de demander aux employés de travailler en équipe pour observer une réelle collaboration entre les membres. Il s'avère également nécessaire pour les organisations de s'assurer de mettre en place les conditions gagnantes afin que les équipes aient ce dont elles ont besoin pour collaborer et accomplir avec succès leur travail. De même, les résultats de cette thèse soulignent que les équipes les plus engagées sont celles les plus à risque de développer des dynamiques contre-productives lorsqu'elles font face à de hauts niveaux de frustration et de déception.

J'espère ainsi que cette thèse contribuera à élargir la perspective des organisations et de leurs gestionnaires lorsqu'une de leurs équipes a développé une dynamique contre-productive et qu'un diagnostic plus macro sera effectué avant de prendre une décision sur les mesures à prendre pour améliorer la dynamique d'équipe. D'un autre côté, j'espère aussi que cette thèse encouragera les gestionnaires à agir davantage en prévention, en s'assurant de mettre en place un contexte répondant bien aux besoins des équipes de travail lorsqu'ils demandent à leurs employés de travailler de manière interdépendante.

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Annexe – Questionnaires utilisés

Questionnaires pour les superviseurs immédiats

Questions sociodémographiques

1. Depuis combien de temps travaillez-vous
   au sein de cette organisation?   _____

2. Quel est le nom de l'équipe que vous
   supervisez?   _____

3. Depuis combien de temps supervisez-vous
   cette équipe?   _____

4. Actuellement, cette équipe compte combien
   de membres?   _____membres

5. Quel est votre sexe ? Femme ☐
                         Homme ☐

6. Quel est votre âge ? _____ans

7. Quel est votre niveau de scolarité (plus haut diplôme obtenu)?

Primaire ....☐	Certificat (universitaire) .... ☐
Secondaire général ....☐	Universitaire, 1er cycle …………...☐
Secondaire professionnel ....☐	Universitaire, D.E.S.S. …………. ☐
Collégial général ....☐	Universitaire, 2e cycle …………... ☐
Collégial professionnel.......................☐	Universitaire, 3e cycle …………... ☐

Questionnaire d'évaluation des comportements contre-productifs

En vous basant sur les <u>six (6) derniers mois</u>, évaluez à quelle fréquence les comportements suivants sont adoptés par certains membres de l'équipe que vous supervisez. **Veuillez noircir la case correspondant à votre opinion.**

Jamais ou presque jamais	Rarement	Parfois	Souvent	Très fréquemment
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Certains membres de cette équipe …

1. … fournissent moins d'efforts que les autres. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

2. … disent des remarques blessantes à leurs collègues. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

3. … s'attribuent publiquement les succès de l'équipe. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

4. … brisent le matériel dont l'équipe dispose. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

5. … se plaignent des conditions de travail de l'équipe. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

6. … s'occupent de leurs affaires personnelles au lieu de travailler. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

7. … font des blagues mesquines sur leurs collègues. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

8. … agissent comme si tous les mérites leur revenaient. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

9. … abîment volontairement l'équipement disponible. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

10. … remettent en question la pertinence de certaines tâches de l'équipe. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

11. … prennent de plus longues pauses que prévu. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

12. … disent des blasphèmes à leurs collègues. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

13. … agissent comme s'ils étaient meilleurs que les autres. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

14. … gaspillent les ressources dont l'équipe dispose. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

15. … dénigrent le travail à réaliser. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

16. … arrivent en retard aux réunions. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

17. … font courir des rumeurs négatives sur leurs collègues. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

18. … se vantent du travail qu'ils réalisent. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

19. … utilisent l'équipement disponible sans respecter les règles de sécurité. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

20. … profitent des rencontres d'équipe pour critiquer l'organisation. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

Questionnaire sur l'interdépendance des membres

Les énoncés qui suivent portent sur les tâches des membres de l'équipe que vous supervisez. **Veuillez noircir la case qui correspond à votre opinion.**

Pas du tout vrai **1**	Un peu vrai **2**	Moyennement vrai **3**	Très vrai **4**	Tout à fait vrai **5**

1. Pour faire leur travail, les membres de cette équipe doivent collaborer étroitement. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

2. Pour faire leur travail, les membres de cette équipe doivent coordonner leurs efforts. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

3. Pour faire leur travail, les membres de cette équipe doivent échanger des informations entre eux. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

4. Pour faire leur travail, les membres de cette équipe doivent se consulter. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

5. Le travail des uns a un impact sur le travail des autres. ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

Questionnaires pour les équipiers

Questions sociodémographiques

1. Depuis combien de temps travaillez-vous
   au sein de cette organisation ? _____

2. Quel est le nom de votre équipe de travail? _____

3. Depuis combien de temps travaillez-vous
   dans cette équipe? _____

4. Quel est votre sexe ? Femme .... ☐
   Homme .... ☐

5. Quel est votre âge ? _____ ans

6. Quel est votre statut d'emploi ? Temps plein ………. ☐
   Temps partiel ……… ☐

7. Quelle est le titre de votre emploi ? _____

8. Quel est votre niveau de scolarité (plus haut diplôme obtenu)?

Primaire .... ☐	Certificat (universitaire) .... ☐
Secondaire général .... ☐	Universitaire, 1er cycle....................... ☐
Secondaire professionnel .... ☐	Universitaire, D.E.S.S......................... ☐
Collégial général .... ☐	Universitaire, 2e cycle .... ☐
Collégial professionnel .... ☐	Universitaire, 3e cycle .... ☐

Questionnaire sur l'engagement de l'équipe

Les énoncés suivants visent à connaître votre perception à propos de votre équipe. Indiquez jusqu'à quel point vous êtes en accord ou en désaccord avec ces énoncés. **Veuillez noircir la case qui correspond à votre opinion.**

Fortement en désaccord 1	En désaccord 2	Ni en désaccord, ni en accord 3	En accord 4	Fortement en accord 5

1. Je suis fier d'appartenir à cette équipe.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

2. Je suis content d'appartenir à cette équipe plutôt qu'à une autre équipe.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

3. Je suis très engagé envers cette équipe.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

4. Je suis prêt à fournir des efforts supplémentaires pour aider cette équipe à avoir du succès.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

Questionnaire sur les affects négatifs d'équipe

En vous référant au travail réalisé par votre équipe, évaluez la fréquence à laquelle vous et vos collègues ont ressenti les émotions suivantes. **Veuillez noircir la case qui correspond à votre opinion.**

Jamais ou presque jamais 1	Rarement 2	Parfois 3	Souvent 4	Très fréquemment 5

Notre travail fait en sorte que nous nous sentons …

1. … irrités.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

2. … ennuyés.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

3. … frustrés.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

4. … fâchés.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

5. … anxieux.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

6. … fatigués.   ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

Questionnaire sur le contexte de soutien au travail en équipe

La liste des énoncés qui suit porte sur le soutien offert à votre équipe. Indiquez jusqu'à quel point vous êtes en accord ou en désaccord avec les énoncés suivants en vous référant à la <u>dernière année</u>. **Veuillez noircir la case qui correspond à votre opinion.**

Fortement en désaccord 1	En désaccord 2	Ni en désaccord, ni en accord 3	En accord 4	Fortement en accord 5

Dans l'organisation pour laquelle je travaille…

1. Une excellente performance de la part de mon équipe est bénéfique pour ses membres.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. Mon équipe doit se contenter de l'expertise déjà présente dans l'équipe (aucun soutien ni formation ne sont disponibles lorsque mon équipe en a besoin).	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. Il est facile pour mon équipe d'accéder aux données dont les membres ont besoin pour accomplir leur travail.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. Mon équipe peut facilement obtenir toutes les ressources matérielles dont elle a besoin pour accomplir son travail.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. Mon équipe est reconnue / récompensée lorsqu'elle réalise une bonne performance.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. Lorsque mon équipe de travail ne sait pas comment gérer une situation, il est facile pour les membres d'obtenir la formation dont ils ont besoin.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. Mon équipe n'a pas accès à toutes les informations qui pourraient influencer le déroulement de son travail.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. Le manque de ressources est un réel problème pour mon équipe.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. Même lorsque mon équipe accomplit un travail particulièrement bon, elle n'est pas reconnue / récompensée par l'organisation.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. Mon équipe ne reçoit pas de formation adéquate pour accomplir son travail.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11. Mon équipe de travail peut obtenir les informations dont elle a besoin pour planifier son travail.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12. Les ressources financières fournies à mon équipe pour accomplir son travail sont adéquates.	①	②	③	④	⑤