# Employees' Behavioural Responses to Workplace Mistreatment and Person and Workplace Factors Influencing Their Responses

by

Nicole L Wilson

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Human Resources Management and Industrial Relations

Faculty of Business

University of Alberta

**Abstract**

Media reports have testified to the frequency and profound consequences of workplace aggression, focusing attention on this behaviour. Workplace aggression involves behaviour with an intention to harm others in a work-related context. In this dissertation, I used the General Aggression Model to guide three studies examining employee responses to experiencing mistreatment in the workplace. Study 1 examined frequency and intensity indices of workplace mistreatment in a mediation model of experienced incivility predicting enacted aggression, and in turn, enacted aggression three months later. This study found that these indices showed different results. Frequency showed full mediation, suggesting that if frequency of aggression does not escalate right away (at Time 1), it will not escalate in the longer term. Intensity, on the other hand, showed a partial mediation, suggesting that intensity of aggression can increase in intensity right away or in the longer term three months later. Further, moderation results suggested that stronger climates of mistreatment moderated the aggression frequency and intensity relationships, buffering the likelihood of aggressive retaliation. Anger rumination moderation results suggested that employees retaliate aggressively following experiencing incivility from a coworker soon after the incivility, but not in the longer term, three months later. A longitudinal employee survey methodology in Study 2 found that employees used negative (aggressive) and positive (organizational citizenship behaviours) behaviours to deal with social identity threats from those outside the organization (e.g., customers) targeted to a group of theirs, namely their organization. This study also found that a moderating mechanism, organizational identification buffered aggressive responses following social identity threat. Further, employees also used aggression as a response to experiencing personal identity threats directed towards them as

an individual. Study 3 employed a longitudinal design with three time points to examine direct retaliatory aggression with customers and displaced aggression from organizational insiders towards customers. Results suggested that aggression that occurs inside the organization does not stay within the organization, as indicated by significant displaced aggression results. The three studies in this dissertation suggest that employees respond to mistreatment several ways, and moderating mechanisms suggest that organizations can take steps in reduce workplace aggression.

**Preface**

This thesis is an original work by Nicole L Wilson. No part of this thesis has been previously published.

Study 1, 2, and 3 are co-authored by Dr. Michelle Inness, the supervisory author. While I developed the ideas for Study 1 and 2, drafted several versions conducted the data analyses, Dr. Michelle Inness helped me to refine many of the ideas and commented on drafts. For Study 3, Dr. Michelle Inness was involved with concept formation and commented on drafts, while I drafted several versions and conducted data analyses.

The research projects, of which this thesis is a part, received research ethics approval from the University of Alberta Research Ethics Board,

- Project Name "Study on Coworker Conflicts", No. Pro00023737, March 30, 2012;
- Project Name "Mistreatment Behaviours Sorting Study", No. Pro00051907, October 30, 2014; and
- Project Name "Customer and Coworker Interactions at Work: Examining Productive and Counter-Productive Employee and Customer Behaviours in the Workplace", No. Pro00052409, February 27, 2015.

**Acknowledgements**

I am grateful to many for the support I received during my time as a PhD student at the University of Alberta. I have learned from, laughed with, and been guided by my supervisor, Dr. Michelle Inness throughout my time in this program. I would like to acknowledge the helpful feedback and suggestions on this dissertation by committee members, Dr. Andrew Luchak, Dr. E. Kevin Kelloway, and Dr. Leah Daniels as well as external examiner Dr. Sandy Hershcovis. Also, I would like to acknowledge the feedback from examiners at my candidacy examination, Dr. Andrew Luchak, Dr. E. Kevin Kelloway, Dr. Leah Daniels and Dr. Robert Fisher. I would also like to acknowledge the support and encouragement I received from Ms. Debbie Giesbrecht, PhD Program Administrator, over my time at the University of Alberta. As I reflect on this work, this accomplishment would not have been possible without the endless support and encouragement of my family and my partner, Gavin.

In addition, I would like to acknowledge my appreciation of the teaching mentorship I received from Dr. Richard Field, Dr. Cristina Stasia, and the Peter Lougheed Leadership College in learning the value of engaging and supporting students.

While conducting the research as part of this dissertation, the author was supported by the G.R.A. Rice Scholarship in Business.

The research conducted as part of Study 2 was supported by the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada.

## Table of Contents

## List of Tables

## List of Figures

## CHAPTER 1: Introduction to Employee Responses to Workplace Mistreatment

Media reports in recent decades have testified to the frequency and profound consequences of workplace aggression, causing researchers, managers, and the public to pay greater attention to this topic. Aggression refers to behaviour carried out with the intention to cause harm to another person (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002) and workplace aggression is that which occurs in a work context (Neuman & Baron, 1998; Schat & Kelloway, 2005). Workplace aggression can occur between employees (e.g., Leblanc & Kelloway, 2002), as well as employees and others in the work environment, such as their supervisors, subordinates (e.g., Dupré, Barling, Turner, & Stride, 2010; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2012), customers (e.g., Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005; Grandey, Dickter, & Sin, 2004; Yagil, 2008), and members of the public who may be committing a crime, such as robbery (Barling, Dupré, & Kelloway, 2009; Baron & Neuman, 1996) or intimate partners through the spillover of domestic violence to the workplace (e.g., Swanberg, Logan, & Macke, 2005).

Workplace aggression is a widespread problem in North America. Statistics Canada reported that 1 in 5 reported violent incidents take place in the workplace (de Léséleuc, 2004). In a United States national prevalence study, 41% of respondents reported experiencing psychological aggression (i.e., behaviours that may cause psychological harm), and 6% of respondents reported experiencing physical aggression (i.e., threat and enactment physical harm) at work in the previous year (Schat, Frone, & Kelloway, 2006). In a Canadian study, 69% of public service employee respondents reported experiencing verbal aggression at work (Pizzino, 2002), while another study found that 2% of public

service employees reported being the target of physical aggression at work within the last two years (Public Service Commission of Canada, 2003).

Further, workplace aggression has been a growing topic of interest in the organizational literature over the past 20 years. During this time, initial research sought to define the construct (Neuman & Baron, 1998), and began to examine the predictors of workplace aggression (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999; Greenberg & Barling, 1999). Later, increasing numbers of studies focused on the individual well-being and work effectiveness outcomes of aggressive workplace behaviour (Grandey et al., 2004; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Schat & Kelloway, 2000). Meta-analyses and numerous empirical studies have shown significant relationships between experiencing workplace aggression and greater psychological stress and strain (Barling, 1996; Barling, Rogers, & Kelloway, 2001), greater psychological distress, greater emotional exhaustion, greater depression, and lower physical well-being (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010), lower levels of emotional and psychosomatic well-being (LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002), diminished job satisfaction ( Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Lapierre, Spector, & Leck, 2005), higher levels of turnover intentions (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010) and withdrawal behaviours (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). Given the multitude of sources of workplace aggression, its prevalence and consequences, research examining the factors that contribute to and prevent this phenomenon can support organizations in reducing and preventing this behaviour. Over the past several decades, research has answered this call and today much more is known about what constitutes workplace aggression, the key factors that precede it, and the key factors that result from it.

**Workplace Aggression Defined**

Early research on workplace aggression sought to define and build a theoretical framework for this construct (Neuman & Baron, 1998). An early definition of workplace aggression expressed it as actions by individuals that seek to cause harm to coworkers or past coworkers (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Neuman & Baron, 1997, 1998).[1] Over time, seminal research (e.g., Barling, Rogers, & Kelloway, 2001; Grandey et al., 2004; L. Greenberg & Barling, 1999; Leblanc & Kelloway, 2002; Swanberg et al., 2005) highlighted the numerous work contexts where aggression takes place and the various relationships where aggression can be transacted, in turn leading to a broadened definition of workplace aggression. A more contemporary definition of workplace aggression includes behaviour intended to cause harm to others in or around the work context, and for example, employees, supervisors, customers, or members of the public may enact, witness, or experience workplace aggression (Schat & Kelloway, 2005). This broader definition accounts for the wide range of behaviours that constitute workplace aggression, both psychological and physical (i.e., violence). Psychological aggression refers to behaviours that are clearly intended to cause psychological harm to individuals (Schat & Kelloway, 2005), such as swearing, name-calling, or intense arguments. Physical aggression or violence is also a specific type of aggression and involves the threat or enactment of behaviours that may cause physical harm to individuals (Moliner et al., 2008), such as

[1] Neuman and Baron's definition also referred to behaviours directed towards the organization in general, often now referred to as organizational deviance (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007). For example, tardiness, working slow, wasting company resources, sabotaging equipment, lying about hours worked, and stealing have been examined as organizational deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Berry et al., 2007; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). However, over time the literature on workplace aggression split into two distinct areas of study. Workplace aggression and organizational deviance correlate strongly, however researchers suggest they are distinct as they show different relationships with antecedents (Berry et al., 2007). Herein, I examine interpersonally focused workplace aggression.

shoving, punching, or threatening to hit. Research reports that psychological aggression occurs more frequently than physical aggression (Baron & Neuman, 1996), may precede physical aggression (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Dupré & Barling, 2006), and both have shown significant negative outcomes for employees and organizations (e.g., Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). Taken together, workplace aggression is an intentional and serious mistreatment behaviour.

**Distinguishing workplace aggression and related constructs**. Workplace aggression is one of several other negative interpersonal workplace behaviours that fall under the broad category of *workplace mistreatment.* Workplace mistreatment is commonly used by researchers as an all encompassing term for several types of negative interpersonal interactions occurring in the work context (e.g., Hershcovis, 2011; Lim & Cortina, 2005). Researchers suggest that workplace mistreatment constructs sometimes overlap, predict each other, and/or lead to similar outcomes (Aquino & Thau, 2009; Fox & Spector, 2005; Hershcovis, 2011). Thus, there is a need to define and distinguish mistreatment constructs. In the current studies, three different workplace mistreatment constructs are examined, including workplace aggression, workplace incivility and perceptions of identity threat.[2] Next, I will define and distinguish these concepts.

---

[2] Another type of mistreatment, workplace bullying, although not examined in this dissertation, it is similar to concepts examined here and thus I briefly define and differentiate it. Workplace bullying is defined as repeated negative acts from others (Ståle Einarsen, 2000), such as belittling of someone's opinion, public humiliation, name-calling, withholding information, and setting someone up to fail (Rayner & Hoel, 1997) that continue for at least six months (Staale Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009; Ståle Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). Bullying is distinguishable from other mistreatment behaviours by its long-term, frequent nature (Hershcovis, 2011; Rayner & Hoel, 1997). Thus, bullying occurs in ongoing relationships among individuals who know each other well and will continue to know each other (Rayner & Hoel, 1997), making it more likely among individuals who interact frequently (e.g., coworkers) than between those who only ever interact once or twice (e.g., customers). In addition, bullying involves some sort of power imbalance among the parties involved (Ståle Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996), such as an employee with less seniority or with fewer social relationships with coworkers. Acts of workplace aggression can become workplace bullying if the

Workplace incivility is marked by behaviours that violate workplace norms for mutual respect, and to the target or observers is ambiguous in intent (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), such as eye rolling, spreading rumours, or interrupting someone who is on the phone (Martin & Hine, 2005). Researchers consider workplace incivility as a form of mistreatment that is lower in intensity (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), and as an antecedent of aggression (Taylor & Kluemper, 2012; Wilson & Holmvall, 2013). Further, researchers suggest that workplace incivility's ambiguous intent differentiates it from other mistreatment constructs (Hershcovis, 2011), and from workplace aggression as the latter involves a clear intent to harm. Further, unlike workplace aggression, incivility does not include physical acts. Thus, workplace incivility and aggression are marked by different behaviours, have different intentions behind the behaviours, and incivility may be a predictor of aggression.

Another mistreatment term examined here is identity threats, which are behaviours perceived by an individual as threatening the competence, value, ability, or worth of themselves (i.e., personal identity threats) or of a group to which they belong (i.e., social identity threats; Branscombe, Ellemers, Spears, & Doosje, 1999; Erez & Earley, 1993). Examples of personal identity threats may include unfair criticism by another person or something done by another person to make one look bad (Aquino & Douglas, 2003). Examples of social identity threats may include negative remarks about one's organization or questioning a workgroup's ability to get things done.

---

aggressive behaviours become repetitive and persistent (Rayner & Hoel, 1997) and there is a power-imbalance among the parties involved (Barling et al., 2009; Schat & Kelloway, 2005). However, aggression may or may not be persistent and might only occur once, the individuals involved may not have a past or a future relationship and does not require power imbalance among parties involved.

What defines identity threats is the feeling of threat to oneself or a group to which one identifies. Identity threats specifically focus on behaviours that present a challenge to the positive views one has of themselves or a social group. Further, identity threats involve a narrow focus on value or worth. That is, identity threats involve questioning value and/or comparing value with others value (e.g., being told one is ineffective compared to a colleague), while incivility (e.g., rude remarks, eye rolling, or social exclusion) and aggression (e.g., gossiping, name calling, or threatening) include a broader set of mistreatment behaviours. Research suggests identity threats occur in a work context (e.g., Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Elsbach, 2003; Petriglieri, 2011) and may form the turning point of low level rudeness into increasingly serious and harmful mistreatment (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Further, identity threats are higher intensity than incivility and may lead to aggressive behaviours (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Indeed, experiencing personal identity threats have been shown to predict negative behavioural responses, such as saying unkind things to harm coworkers, criticizing coworkers, or saying nasty things to coworkers (Aquino & Douglas, 2003). Thus, unlike incivility and aggression, identity threats narrow in on actions that question an individual or group's worth and thus may be a more focused type of mistreatment. Taken together, all three terms are forms of mistreatment, but each differs in terms of how they are perceived, including the extent of the intent to harm, the level of intensity, and the focus.

**Workplace Mistreatment as an Antecedent to Aggression: A Theoretical Framework**

Perceived provocation, that is, the perception of being mistreated or agitated by another person, is the most robust predictor of human aggression (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002). In the workplace aggression literature, experienced mistreatment,

including perceived injustice (Hershcovis et al., 2007; Inness, Barling, & Turner, 2005; Inness, LeBlanc, & Barling, 2008), being treated with a lack of respect or consideration (Jawahar, 2002), workplace incivility (Taylor & Kluemper, 2012), supervisor aggression (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2012), or abusive supervision (Inness et al., 2005), have been linked to retaliatory aggression. These findings have been robust across several studies (Dietz, Robinson, Folger, Baron, & Schulz, 2003; Dupré & Barling, 2006; J. Greenberg & Alge, 1998; Inness et al., 2005), including meta-analysis results (Hershcovis et al., 2007).

The General Aggression Model (Anderson & Bushman, 2002) is theoretical framework integrating several theories of aggression into a unified model that explains how perceptions of mistreatment can translate into acts of aggression. This model has informed the foundation of studies on aggression since the mid-1990s (e.g., Anderson, 1997; Anderson et al 1995; Anderson et al 1996). The utility of this model is multifaceted as it can explain the multiple motives within an act of aggressive behaviour (e.g., if someone acts in anger and to achieve a goal) and explain aggression from a more integrated perspective than the individual theories integrated in the model, thereby increasing opportunities to more fully understand the patterns of aggressive behaviour (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002).

According to the General Aggression Model, after experiencing provocation, such as mistreatment, individuals engage in appraisal to internally seek further understanding of the situation (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002). First, an individual immediately engages in appraisal, an automatic and relatively effortless process. In some cases, this immediate appraisal is enough. For example, if the situation is unimportant to the individual, and/or the individual has insufficient cognitive resources to further evaluate the situation. This

form of appraisal is associated with affective, impulsive, and unplanned behaviour and sometimes results in aggressive behaviour. Alternatively, when immediate appraisal is not satisfactory, and/or the situation is important to the individual, they are likely to put more cognitive effort into understanding the situation, called secondary appraisal. During secondary appraisal the individual searches for an alternative view of the situation and the result can be actions that are more planned and often calmer. For example, the individual may reframe their initial perception, perhaps thinking that the mistreatment may be due to a misunderstanding and thus clarification may be more effective. Although the individual spends more time considering the situation with secondary appraisal, the resulting behaviour may still be aggressive. For example, the individual may recall past wrongs from their potential target, becoming angrier and more aggressive as a result. Thus, depending on the person, situation, their internal state, and their appraisal of the trigger event, the individual may or may not respond with aggression.

Another critical part of the General Aggression Model is a feedback loop that may influence cycles or spiraling of aggressive behaviour, potentially resulting in higher intensity aggression (DeWall, Anderson, & Bushman, 2011). The researchers suggest a feedback loop restarts the process, with previous occurrences influencing the accessibility of aggression-related emotions, arousal, and cognitions. As a result, increasing occurrences of aggression can feedback into increasingly intense behaviours over time (DeWall et al 2011; Anderson & Carnagey, 2004). Overall, empirical findings in workplace aggression support the notion that perceived mistreatment precedes aggression, and the General Aggression Model presents a model explaining this relationship.

In line with the General Aggression Model, the three studies in this dissertation examined workplace aggression as a response to perceived mistreatment in the workplace. Each study explored workplace aggression in a new way. Study 1 examined the intensity of aggression in response to experiencing incivility at two time points, as a way of operationalizing the General Aggression Model's feedback loop suggesting that aggressive behaviour can escalate, potentially resulting in higher intensity aggression (DeWall, Anderson, & Bushman, 2011; Anderson, Buckley, & Carnagey, 2008; DeWall & Anderson, 2011). Study 2 adopted the General Aggression Model framework of provocation by examining aggression as one possible discretionary response to experiencing a particular form of mistreatment, namely identity threats, which have been suggested as a particularly strong antagonist of aggressive behaviour (Inzlicht & Kang, 2010; Konrath, Bushman, & Campbell, 2006). Study 3 looked at aggression as a form of retaliation to experiencing aggression, but also possibly enacted through a process of displacement of aggression, where aggression is suppressed until a secondary anger-inducing event with another safer target occurs (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Bushman, Bonacci, Pedersen, Vasquez, & Miller, 2005). In each of these studies, I examined a form of perceived mistreatment as a predictor of workplace aggression, with implications for escalating cycles of mistreatment.

**Moderators of the mistreatment-aggression relationship.** It is notable that merely experiencing mistreatment does not mean that individuals respond aggressively. Both the General Aggression Model and Social Learning Theory (which is encompassed in the General Aggression Model) suggest that both person and situation factors can influence the mistreatment-aggression relationship. One of the most widely known psychological

theories of aggression and violent behaviour is Bandura's Social Learning Theory of Aggression (Bandura, 1978; Bandura, Underwood, & Fromson, 1975; Osofsky, Bandura, & Zimbardo, 2005). This theory posits that humans learn aggressive behaviour and assess whether that behaviour is acceptable or unacceptable by observing the behaviour of others and through the direct reinforcement of our own behaviour that is, by modeling and reinforcement respectively (Bandura, 1978).

In Bandura's work, the context or situation plays a critical role in understanding when and why aggressive behaviour occurs. While Bandura (1983) suggested that genetics and biological factors are important in aggression, determining an individuals' proclivities to be aggressive, but, ultimately, the behaviour that we express is influenced more by what we learn through experiences of our own and observing those of others. Our environment, determines the type, frequency, targets, and situation predictors of aggression (Bandura, 1983). In the studies presented here, I examined moderators that may worsen or better individual's responses to mistreatment, such as person and situation factors. It is important to note the individual perceptions and attitudes examined in this dissertation at are not purely biological factors but are also influenced by one's life experiences as a child and adult.

Regarding the situation factors, Bandura proposed that humans learn much of their behaviour two ways. First, through others modeling proper behaviour and second, through reinforcement of their own behaviour. By seeing others as models, such as supervisors or coworkers, we learn from their actions rather than having to learn proper conduct on our own through trial and error (Bandura, 1971). Modeling can ensue unconsciously; sometimes individuals do not realize that they have learned conduct from others and

mirrored others behaviour (Cheng & Chartrand, 2003). From modeling, individuals learn the situations under which they are likely to be rewarded and/or punished for aggressive behaviour, called vicarious reinforcement (Bandura, 1978). For example, individuals might gauge the level of intensity of aggression that is acceptable by seeing the consequences of others aggressive behaviour or through stories others tell about consequences incurred in the past. Indeed, recent research testing Social Learning Theory found that individuals learned and imitated aggressive behaviour through observation of the behaviour (Doran & Willer, 2012).

In addition, the second way of learning behaviour mentioned above is through trial and error. Learning through the rewards and punishments one's own behavior might bring is a rudimentary form of learning. This form of learning commonly occurs in unfamiliar and exploratory situations as there is no modeling information to inform one's behaviour (Bandura, 1973). Thus, it is likely that individuals will seek out information or observe others to understand the potential consequences for their behaviour and use this information to inform their action. In sum, in the workplace, if employees believe that the organization will (will not) punish them for aggression, they will be less (more) likely to engage in that behaviour in the first place.

Person and situation factor are often examined as moderators of the relationship between experiencing mistreatment and responding with workplace aggression. The rationale is that the combination of a provoking incident and a person or situation factors, the potential for workplace aggression is higher. Researchers often consider experiences of workplace aggression as situational factors, as they are experiences from others in the work environment (e.g., Hershcovis et al., 2007). What this approach suggests is that there is a

person X situation or situation X situation interaction that together more strongly predicts individuals' internal states and resulting aggressive responses. In the late 1990s, researchers primarily focused on the personal characteristics that influence aggressive behaviour and responses. Individual difference factors, including personality traits, attitudes, and beliefs, are characteristics individuals bring to a given situation, and taken together, indicate individuals' readiness to aggress (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002). Personality traits make up one's knowledge structures, and these knowledge structures influence the situations people seek out and avoid (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002). As such, person factors can indicate one's potential for aggression. One study reported that person factors account for as much as 62% of the variance in workplace aggression (Douglas & Martinko, 2001).

Person factors frequently reported to be predictors of workplace aggression across a number of studies include traits, demographics, and attitudes (e.g., Barling et al., 2009; Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Hershcovis et al., 2007). Specifically, factors focusing on the tendency to experience negative emotions and anger had a positive relationship with aggressive workplace behaviour across a number of studies (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Inness, LeBlanc, & Barling, 2008). Person factors that have been examined as moderators include personality (Taylor & Kluemper, 2005), emotional intelligence, affect (Quebbeman & Rozell, 2002), and sex (Rutter & Hine, 2005).

Recognizing that these person factors do not account for all of the variance in workplace aggression (Douglas & Martinko, 2001), more recently researchers turned to examining workplace situations that can instigate aggression, often called situation factors. Situation factors include any features of a situation that influence one's thoughts, emotions,

and arousal and, in turn, aggressive behaviour (Anderson & Bushman, 2002). Research finds that workplace experiences considerable variance in aggression (Inness, Barling, & Turner, 2005). In particular, in a study comparing situation and person factors, situation factors accounted for 55.4% of the variance in workplace aggression towards supervisors, while person factors accounted for 14.2% of the variance (Inness et al., 2005). This finding suggests that situation factors in the workplace can be as important as personal characteristics of an aggressive individual.

Several studies have shown that situational factors predict workplace aggression. In a meta-analysis, perceived procedural and distributive injustice, interpersonal conflicts, poor leadership, and workplace stressors that interfere with one's job all predicted aggressive workplace behaviour (Hershcovis et al., 2007). Situation factors associated with workplace aggression also include organizational support (Schat & Kelloway, 2003) and empowerment (Hepworth & Towler, 2004). Another moderating mechanism focuses on the policies and enforcement of those in the workplace. Organizational sanctions examines the perceived negative consequences associated with workplace aggression (Dupré & Barling, 2006; Inness et al., 2008). This concept examines whether employees expect to face punishment from management for aggressive behaviour organizations. Studies have shown that lower levels of perceived sanctions are associated with higher levels of workplace aggression (Dupré & Barling, 2006; Inness et al., 2008). Taken together, this research suggests that situational factors in the workplace, such as perceived injustice, abuse or sanctions against aggressive behavior, are robust predictors of enacted aggression

and likely moderate the relationship between experienced mistreatment and one's likelihood of responding aggressively.[3]

**Opportunities in Workplace Aggression Research: The Present Studies**

Much research has examined workplace aggression over the past 20 years, and this vast, fruitful nomological network has areas needing further attention. I addressed three of these areas in the three studies presented here. In Study 1, I examined the frequency and intensity of enacted aggression in response to experiencing incivility. In Study 2, I examined aggression as one possible discretionary response to identity threats, a type of mistreatment, with organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as an alternative type of discretionary behavior. In Study 3, I examined aggression not only as a form of retaliation to experiencing mistreatment, but also possibly enacted through a process of displacement of aggression. In each of these studies, I also examined potential person and situation factors that may moderate this relationship, and Social Learning Theory and extant research guided the inclusion of the moderators examined. Each of these studies and how they advance the literature will be discussed next.

**Study 1.** In Study 1, I examined the intensity and frequency of experienced workplace incivility and employees' retaliatory aggressive responses in a two-wave online survey of North American employees. To date, much workplace aggression research has measured this construct by examining the frequency of characteristic behaviours, while research in the social psychology tradition tends to measure aggression in terms of intensity (e.g., C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 1997). I measured and compared the

[3] It is notable that person and situation factors can be both predictors and moderators in workplace aggression literature, depending on the theoretical approach and relationships examined.

frequency of aggressive behaviours as well as the intensity of aggressive behaviours to understand better the underlying assumptions made when operationalizing this behaviour and the potential role of intensity in understanding workplace aggression. For example, there might be different antecedent and moderating mechanisms of frequency and intensity of workplace aggression. I advanced understanding of workplace aggression, aiming to shift the focus from examining *how much* aggression occurs to *how bad* it gets.

Further, Study 1 built on the current workplace aggression literature by examining both experienced and enacted workplace aggression between two individuals over time, at two-time points. This perspective is in line with the spiral model of incivility that suggested a tit-for-tat exchange of low level mistreatment behaviours can escalate into increasingly severe exchanges of mistreatment behaviours (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Groups of aggressive behaviours that differ in intensity levels (e.g., *psychological and physical aggression*) are often examined in separate studies, however researchers have more recently advocated for a more integrated perspective, and one way of doing this is to examine mistreatment among the same parties at more than one time point. Examining workplace aggression in the common legal approach of naming a victim and perpetrator assumes that serious acts of aggression occur spontaneously. However, outside of robbery, workplace aggression most often involves an exchange of negative behaviours over time among all parties involved, not a sudden serious act (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Baron & Neuman, 1996).

Study 1 also aimed to advance understanding factors influencing mistreatment between employees. At the person level, participants' tendency to ruminate about anger invoking situations may influence an individuals' likelihood of responding to incivility

with aggression. In addition, situationally, workplace norms for mistreatment has been examined as influencing the whether employees are likely to respond to incivility with aggression, meaning there is already a potential violation of mistreatment norms. Although research suggests norms play a role in mistreatment (S. Lee & Tedeschi, 1996; Walsh et al., 2012), little research has examined employees' responses to mistreatment when that mistreatment violates the norms of the workgroup.

In terms of the practical implications of Study 1, this research examined employees experience of and responses to mistreatment and moderators of these relationships to understand factors influencing the prevention workplace aggression potentially escalating into more severe forms through retaliation. Stopping mistreatment while it is still at low levels may prevent physical acts of aggression that result from a tit-for-tat exchange of mistreatment among employees. Further, this study examined the role of person and situation factors that may influence this exchange of mistreatment behaviours with the goal of these factors showing prevention or intensification of mistreatment.

**Study 2.** I examined participants' experiences of these two types of identity threats and their aggression and OCB in response, longitudinally, at three time points, through an online employee survey. Identity threats can be perceived when one's sense of self, made up of personal and social (group-related) aspects, is called into question (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). There is limited work examining employee responses to identity threats (for an exception see Aquino & Douglas, 2008), despite calls for research examining this concept (Petriglieri, 2011). Study 2 sought to extend the study of social identity threats into workplace research.

Study 2 also aimed to advance research on the positive outcomes of experiencing workplace mistreatment by examining employees potential OCB following a social identity threat. Much of the workplace mistreatment literature to date has examined the negative consequences of experiencing mistreatment, such as further aggression and strain (for an exception see Yue, Wang, & Groth, 2017). However, individuals do not always respond to mistreatment with further mistreatment. Instead, negative work experiences may also motivate positive behaviour to redeem the image of one's group by painting it in a more positive light (Ellemers, Kortekaas, & Ouwerkerk, 1999; Haslam, Powell, & Turner, 2000; van Knippenberg, 2000), such as OCB. I proposed that under social identity threat from customers, OCB serves to restore the positive perception of the organization. Study 2 extendeds current workplace aggression research to examine these positive responses as well as the more often studied negative behaviours after experiencing mistreatment.

Further, to extend research on the conditions under which behavioural responses to identity threats occur, I examined moderators of these relationships, including narcissism and organizational identification. The role of employees' level of narcissism in the relationship between *personal* identity threats and aggressive retaliation is examined as narcissists tend to react strongly to threats to their identity. Second, the role of identification with one's organization on the relationship between *social* identity threats and both aggressive retaliation and OCB is examined as individuals who identity highly with their organization are motivated to seek retaliation or restore a threatened identity.

Study 2 has practical implications for understanding the progression of mistreatment behaviours over time. Researchers suggested that when identity threats are

perceived, mistreatment behaviours exchanged between individuals becomes increasingly severe very quickly (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Understanding better the relationships between identity threats and behavioural outcomes as well as the moderating mechanisms that may worsen or improve the level of workplace aggression has implications for organizations looking to reduce and prevent this behaviour. Given that one's work and workplace contributes to ones sense of self, the workplace is a rich setting for exploring these relationships (Petriglieri, 2011), and to further understand the factors that provoke workplace aggression.

**Study 3.** Study 3 adopted a longitudinally methodology to examine another alternative to responding aggressively in an escalatory pattern using a survey of employees working in the United States and Canada. When one experiences aggression, they may retaliate directly towards the aggressor or displace their aggression towards a different, unrelated target. Displaced aggression involves redirected aggression from a provoking 'primary target' to a 'secondary target' (Marcus-Newhall, Pedersen, Carlson, & Miller, 2000; Tedeschi & Norman, 1985), while aggressive retaliation involves aggression focused directly towards the perpetrator of a perceived provocation (Dupré & Barling, 2006; Folger & Skarlicki, 1999; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). While the idea of displaced aggression is a classic one, to date there has been little research on displaced workplace aggression (for an exception see Hoobler & Brass, 2006).

In the workplace, aggression can come from diverse sources. For employees who work on the front lines dealing directly with customers, experiences of aggression by customers may be common (Grandey et al., 2004; Grandey, Kern, & Frone, 2007; Yagil, 2008), and this mistreatment is associated with employee retaliation towards customers

(Skarlicki, van Jaarsveld, & Walker, 2008; van Jaarsveld, Walker, & Skarlicki, 2010; Wang, Liao, Zhan, & Shi, 2011). However, these employees may simultaneously be experiencing aggression from insiders, such as fellow coworkers or supervisors (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). Further, a yet unexamined implication for insider workplace aggression is the possibility that inside-organization aggression does not necessarily remain inside. It is plausible that these experiences may also result in higher levels of aggression toward outsiders by means of displaced aggression. Given the constraints (e.g., anti-bullying and harassment policies) and consequences (e.g., discipline, job loss) of enacting aggression at work, individuals may displace their aggression to safer targets.

To this end, I examined employees displaced and retaliatory aggression towards company insiders (e.g., coworkers and supervisors) and outsiders (e.g., customers, patients, members of the public). I studied whether displaced and retaliatory aggression were more or less likely when employees had to follow certain emotional display rules (i.e., emotional labour) and when policies were in place requiring employees to satisfy by giving into their requests. Both moderators have been examined as potential situational influences of stress, and I proposed that they will motivate higher levels of aggression towards customers.

Study 3 has practical implications for understanding the exchange of aggression in organizations, especially that which is taken out on others who were not involved in the initial experience of mistreatment, namely customers. Much of the research literature has focused on employees as targets of abuse, rudeness, and aggression, while, in this study, I examined whether employees would turn the tables on those whom they serve, suggesting that employees can create negative customer experiences in response to the mistreatment they experience from those within the organization. Customer experience and satisfaction

has important implications for organizations, including for customer loyalty (Andreassen, 1999), organizational reputation (Bernstein, 1984), and word of mouth advertising (E. W. Anderson, 1998).

Taken together, in this dissertation, I applied the General Aggression Model to examine employees' responses to experienced workplace mistreatment. I focused on the discretionary behaviours employees engage in, including workplace aggression and OCB. I conducted three studies to this end. Study 1 examined workplace mistreatment among coworkers over time, specifically employees' aggressive responses to experiencing workplace incivility from a coworker. Study 2 looked at employees' responses to personal and social identity threats from others they encounter at work. Study 3 investigated employees' experiences of aggression and the potential for direct retaliatory or re-directing of anger towards another target. Together, the current three studies aimed to build and advance the workplace aggression literature by examining employees' responses to workplace mistreatment by examining employees' responses to being mistreated at multiple time points.

## CHAPTER 2: Frequency and Intensity of Retaliatory Workplace Aggression

Research has demonstrated the negative impact of workplace aggression on employee well-being and productivity (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Leblanc & Kelloway, 2002; Rogers & Kelloway, 1997). To date, much of the literature on workplace aggression has measured aggression frequency, that is, a count of the number of times a list of aggressive workplace behaviours occurred within a specified timeframe. This frequency-based measurement method has significantly advanced understanding of the many predictors (Barling, Dupré, & Kelloway, 2009; Greenberg & Barling, 1999; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Inness, LeBlanc, & Barling, 2008; Leblanc & Kelloway, 2002) and outcomes (Dionisi, Barling, & Dupré, 2012; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Leblanc & Kelloway, 2002) of workplace aggression. However, measuring workplace aggression in terms of its frequency may not provide a complete understanding of employees' experiences with workplace aggression.

One potential limitation of operationalizing workplace aggression in terms of behavioural frequency is that it treats all acts of aggression, regardless of the severity of those acts, as equivalent. To illustrate, for a frequency-based operationalization of workplace aggression five instances of swearing at someone constitutes a higher level of workplace aggression than one instance of threatening someone's life. However, it is plausible that having one's life threatened may be a qualitatively different, and likely, a more intense experience than being sworn at. In the social psychology literature, laboratory experiments have examined the intensity of aggression (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 1997; Bushman & Anderson, 1998), while, in workplace settings, aggression intensity has only

been minimally explored, and researchers have called for more research to understand this aspect of workplace aggression (Hershcovis & Reich, 2013).

In the present study, I examine similarities and differences in the frequency and intensity of aggressive retaliation in three ways. First, the extant research implies (but does not directly test) that frequency and intensity differ in terms of their emergence and persistence across time (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; DeWall et al., 2011; Douglas, Kiewitz, Martinko, Harvey, & Chun, 2008). I examine both frequency and intensity of an individual's aggression in response to experiencing another type of mistreatment, workplace incivility, characterized by low-level rude and impolite behaviours that are ambiguous in intent and violate norms for respect (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). I examine these relationships at two-time points, first within the same time period of experiencing mistreatment (i.e., workplace incivility) and again three months later. This approach allows for examination of whether there are differences in the timing of aggression emergence, and the extent to which aggression is persistent for frequency and intensity measures of aggression.

Second, I examine aggressive retaliation in a single relationship: A relationship with a particular coworker. This approach is in line with research suggesting that aggression can become more intense (e.g., C. A. Anderson, Buckley, & Carnagey, 2008; Dupré & Barling, 2006) or become normative in the context of a particular relationships (Murphy & O'Leary, 1989; O'Leary et al., 1989). This approach is also in line with the spiral model of incivility that suggests a tit-for-tat exchange of low level mistreatment behaviours can escalate into increasingly serious mistreatment behaviours (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Third, I examine factors that potentially moderate the relationships

between the frequency and intensity of experienced incivility and enacted aggression at each of these two time points. While research suggests that both person and situation factors will moderate whether acts of workplace aggression occur, there is little research on how persistent their influence is over time.

From a conceptual standpoint, the present study will advance understanding of the intensity of workplace aggression, a relatively under-examined aspect of workplace aggression, aiming to shift the focus of research from understanding *how much* aggression occurs (i.e., frequency) to *how bad* it gets (i.e., intensity). From a practical standpoint, this study also aims to contribute to the prevention of escalation of workplace aggression. Many acts of workplace aggression involve an exchange of negative behaviours that take place over time, rather than a single and sudden serious act (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Baron & Neuman, 1996). In this study, I focus on an exchange of aggressive behaviour as reported by one member of a relationship dyad, and the potential factors that will prevent or exacerbate this behaviour.

**Intensity as a Characteristic of Aggression**

While research examining workplace aggression in terms of frequency is plentiful, there are relatively few studies examining the intensity of workplace aggression. Researchers suggest, however, that intensity is a meaningful characteristic of workplace aggression and one that varies independently of frequency, such that aggression may be high in frequency, but low in intensity, vice versa, or high or low in both (Kent, Troth, & Jordan, 2014). High intensity workplace aggression is relatively more forceful, concentrated, and specific, such as swearing at, pushing, or shoving someone, whereas low intensity workplace aggression behaviours include more moderate, indirect, or controlled

acts, such as spreading rumours and discourteous behaviours (Kent et al., 2014).[4] Several lines of evidence and theorizing from organizational behavior and psychology suggest that to understand aggression fully it is important to examine both aggression frequency and intensity. First, research in the area of interpersonal conflict has shown that individuals can and do characterize and distinguish conflict-type interactions by their intensity (Fisher, 1990; Kriesberg, 2007; Lund, 2009; Zapf & Gross, 2001). Qualities of a given incident, such as participants' volume of speech, disagreement, and use of sarcastic remarks and critical statements, are associated with different perceptions of levels of intensity (Gottman & Levenson, 2000; Nomura & Barnlund, 1983; Resick et al., 1981).

Second, the intensity of interpersonal conflict has been shown to predict the strength of subsequent stress responses (Aloia & Solomon, 2015). Experiencing even a single negative, stress-inducing incident may have serious implications for individuals' psychological well-being (L. I. Pratt & Barling, 1988). For example, post-traumatic stress disorder is a severe anxiety disorder that can be preceded by a single intense traumatic event. This experience leads to repeatedly and vividly recalling the event, avoiding stimuli associated with the event, and persistent arousal (American Psychiatric Association, 2013), suggesting that intense events can have a significant impact on individuals.

Third, experimental research in the field of social psychology has shown that people can deliberately vary the intensity of their aggressive behaviour in laboratory settings (C. A. Anderson et al., 2008; C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 1997). For instance,

---

**4** The Oxford English Dictionary defines intensity as the quality of which something is intense with greater intensity involving force or strength (2017).

one common experimental design is a validated competitive reaction time task where participants compete against an opponent which, unknown to the participant, is actually a computer. In this task, one wins by pressing a button before their opponent (C. A. Anderson & Dill, 2000; Giancola & Parrott, 2008; Giancola & Zeichner, 1995). The winner then punishes the loser with a blast of noise at a decibel level of the winners choosing. The most severe decibel level chosen across the experimental trials indicates the intent to harm and this intensity is operationalized as aggression (C. A. Anderson & Dill, 2000; Giancola & Parrott, 2008; Giancola & Zeichner, 1995). One such experiment demonstrated that participants' with greater hostile and aggressive personality traits and who perceived greater opponent aggression during the experimental trials showed more intense aggressive behaviours in subsequent experimental trials (C. A. Anderson et al., 2008). These findings suggest that the experienced intensity of aggression predicts future aggressive behaviour and aggressive behaviour varies based on person and perceptual factors.

It is notable, however, that there are other streams of research that seem to suggest that the intensity of negative experiences may not be that noteworthy. For instance, researchers have suggested that over time, the frequency of experiencing negative emotions has a more substantial impact on individuals' subsequent attitudes and behavior than the intensity of those emotions (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Further, one study examined the frequency and intensity of aggression and reported that the two increased together, that is more intense events were often preceded by a greater number of events (Glomb, 2002). However, this premise has yet to be directly tested and contrasted. Overall, much of the extant research in psychology suggests the intensity of experiences seems to

matter and is perceived by those involved, with implications for subsequent behaviour, including conflict, stress, and aggressive retaliation.

**Frequency and Intensity in Workplace Aggression Research**

A volume of literature using frequency indices of workplace aggression has amassed the nomological network of workplace aggression (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hershcovis, 2011; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Lapierre, Spector, & Leck, 2005). It is widely acknowledged that person factors and perceptions of the situation or workplace predict the frequency of reported workplace aggression. For instance, person factors, such as individuals' negative affect and emotions, also influence aggression frequency (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Glomb & Liao, 2003; Hepworth & Towler, 2004; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Inness et al., 2008). Further, meta-analytic evidence suggests that gender, trait anger, and interpersonal conflict also predict more frequent workplace aggression (Hershcovis et al., 2007). The most robust situational predictors of workplace aggression include perceptions of injustice (Dupré & Barling, 2006; Hershcovis & Barling, 2007; Inness et al., 2008) and organizational sanctions against workplace aggression (Dupré & Barling, 2006; Inness et al., 2008).

In addition, workplace aggression research has shown several deleterious outcomes of workplace aggression including reduced affective commitment, increased turnover intent (Leblanc & Kelloway, 2002), and reductions in psychological and physical well-being (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Kaukiainen et al., 2001; Schat & Kelloway, 2000). The importance of examining aggression in terms of frequency is bolstered by research suggesting that even low-level negative interpersonal encounters can be irritating and frustrating 'daily hassles' (Sliter, Jex, Wolford, & McInnerney, 2010), that is, relatively

minor, low intensity negative events that when frequent, may culminate to be even more impactful than some major life stressors (Delongis, Coyne, Dakof, Folkman, & Lazarus, 1982; Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1981).

By contrast, aggression intensity has not been as thoroughly examined in the workplace aggression literature. One exception to this is the relatively underexamined topic of aggression escalation. Aggression escalation is the process by which more subtle forms of aggression lead to more intense forms of aggression, consistent with the General Aggression Model (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002; DeWall et al., 2011). One group of researchers propose that if an individual believes they have been mistreated, and if negative attitudes and emotions have developed, their responses to the source of the mistreatment may shift from thoughtful, reasoned, and socially-appropriate to automatic and emotion-based responses (Douglas et al., 2008). Over time, these negative reactions may become over-reactions, thus increasing the likelihood of aggression, more intense aggression, and increasingly intense aggression over time (DeWall et al., 2011; Douglas et al., 2008).

It is typical in studies of workplace aggression research that intensity is represented by different workplace mistreatment constructs (e.g., Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Dupré & Barling, 2006). For instance, in one study, employees who perceived supervisor injustice were more likely to enact psychological aggression, and in turn, physical aggression towards the supervisor, with psychological and physical aggression representing successively more intense behaviors (Dupré & Barling, 2006). However, this operationalization of intensity rests on two assumptions that may or may not be valid. First, this operationalization assumes that all acts of physical aggression are more severe than all

acts of psychological aggression, and second, it assumes that all acts of physical aggression are equivalent in intensity and all acts of psychological aggression are equivalent in intensity. The possibility remains that the intensity of aggressive workplace experiences exist on a continuum and may not be best represented as two forms of aggression (i.e., psychological and physical aggression).

Overall, research focusing on aggression frequency has focused on the nomological network of workplace aggression and has sought to address questions, such as "why does workplace aggression occur?" and "how can workplace aggression be prevented?" In line with these questions, empirical studies have largely adopted cross-sectional research methodologies observed at a single time point (for exceptions see Hogh & Viitasara, 2005; Spector, Yang, & Zhou, 2015). However, theory and research on workplace aggression intensity and escalation has largely been longitudinally-focused and has sought to address the question, "How does workplace aggression get worse?" which, by definition, occurs over time. Each of these respective approaches is logical given the questions or problems they seek to address and have implications for the role of time and history in workplace aggression research. Extant research suggests that there are a variety of factors that predict the initiation of workplace aggression (presumably milder forms of aggression), and that more intense aggression is preceded by earlier acts of aggression. To my knowledge there has been no research simultaneously examining both frequency and intensity over time. The implications of time for the frequency and intensity of aggressive retaliation will be discussed next.

**The Role of Time in the Frequency and Intensity of Aggression**

Research supports that the most likely time for retaliation is immediately or shortly following provocation, and that the impulse to retaliate for an act of mistreatment may to diminish over time if no further perceived provocation occurs. The notion that there is an immediate impulse to retaliate is reflected in the early concept of hostile aggression. Hostile aggression is characterized as impulsive and unplanned aggressive behaviour following perceived mistreatment with limited consideration of the long-term consequences of such behaviour (Bushman & Anderson, 2001). Indeed, experimentally invoked impulsiveness has been found to exacerbate retaliatory aggression in the short term (Stucke & Baumeister, 2006). Further, as discussed earlier, laboratory experiments have demonstrated immediate reactions to being the target of mistreatment (C. A. Anderson et al., 2008), and cross-sectional studies on workplace aggression suggest support for the proximity of retaliation to perceived mistreatment (Dupré & Barling, 2006; Hershcovis & Barling, 2007; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki et al., 1999).

Displaced Aggression Theory (Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000; N. Miller, Pedersen, Earleywine, & Pollock, 2003) also suggests that aggressive impulses emerge immediately following an act of perceived mistreatment. According to research and theory on displaced aggression, an individual with an impulse to retaliate can control this impulse in the short-term (or perhaps constrain the intensity) if they have sufficient motivation to do so, such as a concern about negative personal consequences. For instance, in a workplace context, retaliating might be perceived to have negative implications for one's job and/or interpersonal work relationships, thus encouraging the suppression of an aggressive response within that context. However, it takes a slight "trigger" for the individual to enact

aggression toward an innocent and seemingly less threatening target in a context where acting on an aggressive impulse is perceived as safer or unlikely to lead to negative personal consequences (Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000; N. Miller et al., 2003).

Further evidence that aggressive retaliation occurs in the short term is gleaned from the plentiful cross-sectional workplace aggression research, largely based on frequency-based measures of aggression. In these studies, employees reported perceived mistreatment and retaliatory aggression in the same period of time, supporting a short term timeframe for retaliation (e.g., Dupré & Barling, 2006; Inness et al., 2005, 2008; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2012; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). Based on this research, I propose:

*Hypothesis 1a:* The frequency of experienced incivility at Time 1 will be positively related to enacted aggression *frequency* at Time 1.

While the aforementioned theory and research suggests that the impulse to retaliate is likely to emerge following a provocation, it is unclear what factors impact on the intensity of the retaliatory aggression that emerges. Theoretical work suggests that individuals who perceive mistreatment or anger-inducing incidents may respond with more intense aggression (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; DeWall et al., 2011; Douglas et al., 2008). The limited research that has examined the intensity of workplace aggression suggests that intensity can increase through retaliatory behaviour. For example, a laboratory study found that individuals responded with higher intensity aggression in each successive trial of an experiment when provoked by a confederate (C. A. Anderson et al., 2008). Within the workplace, one study combined frequency and intensity and showed that frequency of lower level mistreatment (i.e., injustice) predicts frequency of psychological aggression, which in turn predicts more intense physical aggression (Dupré & Barling, 2006). Thus,

the intensity of mistreatment likely relates to the intensity of aggressive retaliation in the short-term and along with research suggesting that people can perceive and enact aggression with different levels of intensity, I present the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 2a:* The intensity of experienced incivility at Time 1 will be positively related to enacted aggression *intensity* at Time 1.

Considering aggressive retaliation over the longer term, if retaliation occurred early on, a pattern of aggressive exchanges between individuals that continues over time can emerge (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Douglas et al., 2008). Research in non-work contexts, such as intimate partnerships, has focused on ongoing dyadic relationships and has suggested that aggression in dyads can become a pattern in the relationship and be sustained long-term (e.g., Leonard, Winters, Kearns-Bodkin, Homish, & Kubiak, 2014). Aggression may intensify, remain stable, or de-intensify, but it often continues at least to an extent, as a couple's strategy for managing conflict (Leonard et al., 2014).

The idea that individuals' aggression can be persistent within relationships is buttressed by findings suggesting that aggression in a particular interaction can involve tit-for-tat exchanges (C. A. Anderson et al., 2008; Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Other research on aggression intensity suggests that aggression (C. A. Anderson et al., 2008; DeWall et al., 2011), including workplace aggression (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Douglas et al., 2008; Dupré & Barling, 2006), can to escalate in intensity over time as interactions become more negative and feelings of frustration and anger build. Taken together, these findings suggest that once aggression is enacted within a relationship, it may become normative or typical in the relationship and both frequency and intensity of aggression can persist or strengthen. Given this, I expect:

*Hypothesis 1b:* The frequency of enacted workplace aggression at Time 1 will be positively related to the frequency of enacted workplace aggression at Time 2.

*Hypothesis 2b:* The intensity of enacted workplace aggression at Time 1 will be positively related to the intensity of enacted workplace aggression at Time 2.

Another consideration is longer separation between the initial experience of mistreatment and the retaliatory response. As discussed, research has suggested that following the experience of perceived mistreatment, there is an immediate impulse to retaliate, and that impulse may dissipate over time, making it less likely that an individual will retaliate later. However, it is also possible that an initial act of retaliation can occur later, distal from the initial provocation.

One major difference, however, between an early reactive impulse to be aggressive and an act of aggression that is initiated long after an initial provocation is that the latter is more likely to be based on secondary appraisal, and thus the individual is making a more conscious (and less impulsive) choice to retaliate. Research suggests that aggression that is more thoughtful and controlled when compared to impulsive aggression that occurs in the shorter term (Zhang, Wang, Liu, Song, & Yang, 2017). More intense aggression, such as to (re)gain social dominance (Barratt, Stanford, Dowdy, Liebman, & Kent, 1999), is the result of a build up of negative experiences over time with the target (Douglas et al., 2008). This type of aggressive behaviour may be at least as intense as the initial act or more intense (Douglas et al., 2008). It may be possible, then, that intensity of aggression shows a longer separation between the initial experience of mistreatment and the retaliatory response, while frequency increases more sequentially over time. Thus, it is plausible that it can still vary in terms of its frequency or intensity. I therefore propose that:

*Hypothesis 1c:* There will be a positive relationship between experienced incivility and the frequency of enacted workplace aggression at Time 2, supporting full mediation.

*Hypothesis 2c:* There will be a positive relationship between experienced incivility at Time 1 and the intensity of enacted workplace aggression at Time 2, supporting partial mediation.

Overall, I expected and examined a fully mediated model for the relationship between experienced incivility at Time 1 enacted aggression at Time 2 for *frequency* of aggression. That is, for frequency, I expected that enacted aggression at Time 2 would result from experienced incivility at Time 1 and then enacted aggression at Time 1. In addition, I expected a partially mediated model for the relationship between experienced incivility at Time 1 and enacted aggression at Time 2 for *intensity* of aggression. That is, for intensity, I expected that enacted aggression at Time 2 would be the result of experienced incivility at Time 1 and/or enacted aggression at Time 1, thus creating a pattern of aggressive exchanges between people, or it can initially emerge at Time 2.

**Person and Situation Moderators**

Individuals can respond to experienced mistreatment in several ways including, non-aggressively or aggressively, aggressively at one time period without persisting long term, or in a tit-for-tat exchange of aggression over time (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). The range of possible responses raises the question of when aggression is likely to occur and persist, and the potential role of moderating factors over the short and long term. Extant research on workplace aggression frequency highlights a role for both situation and person factors that influence aggressive retaliation (Inness et al., 2005). In this study, I explore workplace norms against mistreatment as a situational factor that may influence

the enactment of aggression in the work context (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2000). I also explore anger rumination as an individual difference (person) factor related to aggression and the culmination of anger over time (Anestis, Anestis, Selby, & Joiner, 2009; Peled & Moretti, 2010).

**Workplace norms for mistreatment**. Norms are an important feature of the workplace that can influence the expression of aggression (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Pearson et al., 2000). Norms are the unwritten rules that communicate acceptable and typical behaviour (Morrison, 2006) and workplace mistreatment norms refer to employee perceptions of how commonplace mistreatment is among workgroup members. Bandura's (1978) work suggests that when interpersonal mistreatment becomes the norm in a group, individuals will be more likely to enact those behaviours themselves. Individuals learn about norms by observing others to learn what interpersonal behaviours are acceptable and unacceptable to the organization and to their coworkers (Hershcovis, Reich, Parker, & Bozeman, 2012; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). In a study of the impact of group-level coworker mistreatment on the enacted mistreatment of individual employees, results suggested that the coworker group influences individual behaviour (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). Thus, the extent to which interpersonal mistreatment is perceived to be normative and acceptable in one's workplace can predict whether individuals will respond to incivility with aggressive retaliation. Given that such norms are likely pervasive throughout the workgroup (Hackman, 1992), this moderator may influence both the frequency and intensity of aggression where stronger norms against aggression should curtail the likelihood of aggression immediately (at Time 1), as well as influence persistence of aggression over time (at Time 2).

*Hypothesis 3 a, b, c.* Workplace norms for mistreatment will moderate the effect of experienced incivility by a co-worker on *frequency* of aggression targeted toward that co-worker at Time 1 (H3a) and Time 2 (H3b), and between the frequency of enacted aggression at Time 1 and Time (H3c).

*Hypothesis 4 a, b, c.* Workplace norms for mistreatment will moderate the effect of experienced incivility by a co-worker on *intensity* of aggression targeted toward that co-worker at Time 1 (H4a) and Time 2 (H4b), and between the intensity of enacted aggression at Time 1 and Time (H4c).

**Anger rumination.** Anger rumination involves a propensity to think about negative encounters, recall past anger-inducing events, fantasize about seeking revenge, focus attention on angry moods, and perseverate on the causes of an anger-inducing event (Sukhodolsky, Golub, & Cromwell, 2001). This behaviour begins during an anger-inducing event and continues thereafter, often heightening arousal levels (Sukhodolsky et al., 2001). Anger rumination is distinguished from anger itself; whereas anger is an emotion, anger rumination refers to thinking about that emotion and incidents that elicit it, causing heightened arousal levels (Sukhodolsky et al., 2001). Studies have suggested that higher levels of anger rumination are associated with greater negative emotions (Wang et al., 2013) and with both greater frequency of aggression (Anestis et al., 2009; Maxwell, 2004; White & Turner, 2014) and greater intensity of aggression, with intensity of aggression particularly concomitant with anger (Douglas et al., 2008).

Given that anger rumination is concomitant with a continuation of felt anger over time, it is reasonable to expect that its effects will be realized at a later, rather than immediately after the anger inducing event. Indeed, it is notable that research on anger

rumination suggests that there may be a delay in time between a first anger inducing incident and later revengeful behaviour. Across three studies, researchers found that participants, who were induced to ruminate, displayed higher intensity aggression in an competitive reaction time task (Bushman et al., 2005). However, while previous studies have examined effects of anger rumination after up to eight hours (Bushman et al., 2005), no studies, to my knowledge, have examined the effects of anger rumination over longer time frames. However, other researchers suggest that anger can continue to build over time, particularly if the individuals involved continue to have negative encounters with each other (Douglas et al., 2008). Further, the General Aggression Model suggests that anger-invoked aggression will occur with an intensity concomitant to the individual's anger and could be an overreaction in comparison to the initial mistreatment they experienced (DeWall et al., 2011). Overall, in terms of the relationship between experiencing incivility at one point in time and enacting aggression in the longer term, research suggests that there may be some time between the first anger-inducing event and later revengeful behaviour under certain conditions, such as when anger rumination occurs. Given this research, I expect:

*Hypotheses 5 a, b, c.* Anger rumination will moderate the relationship between experienced incivility and the *frequency* of aggression targeted toward a co-worker at Time 1 (H5a) and at Time 2 (H5b), and between the frequency of aggression at Time 1 and Time 2 (H5c).

*Hypotheses 6 a, b, c.* Anger rumination will moderate the relationship between experienced incivility and the *intensity* of aggression targeted toward a coworker at Time 1

(H6a) and at Time 2 (H6b), and between the frequency of aggression at Time 1 and Time 2 (H6c).

**Study Overview**

In the present study, I examined employees' aggressive retaliation in response to experiencing workplace incivility from a particular coworker in the same time period, and at a later period of time (3 months later) in terms of both the frequency and intensity of the incivility and aggression involved. I examined customer aggression as an outcome variable and operationalized customers as an outgroup relative to the organization as an ingroup for the employee. Research has shown that employees can and do (occasionally) mistreat and/or provide poor service to customers (Skarlicki, van Jaarsveld, Shao, Song, & Wang, 2016; Skarlicki et al., 2008; van Jaarsveld et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2011). Customers may be a relatively safe and readily available target of aggression as employees interact with many more organizational outsiders than insiders in a given day through service interactions. Further, customers have limited direct influence on employees' long-term work experiences and employment as compared to insiders (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). Organizational outsiders also have relatively less influence than supervisors and coworkers over employees' job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to quit (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010).

At the time of this research, there were no existing validated measures of intensity of workplace aggression. As a result, I first conducted a pilot study to develop a way to measure the perceived intensity of different acts of incivility and aggression. Next, I examined the main hypotheses with a different larger sample.

**Pilot study**. In this research, intensity was operationalized as the average level of intensity of individual aggressive workplace behaviours based on rankings from pilot study participants. I conducted a pilot study to create an index of intensity for the workplace incivility and aggression behaviours. I based this index on measures that are typically used to measure workplace incivility frequency (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001) and workplace aggression frequency (L. Greenberg & Barling, 1999) by determining a relative intensity score for each scale item. The goal was to have an ordered list of average intensity rankings that I could then as an index of intensity in the main study.

***Method***. To create the intensity index, I presented participants with the items from Cortina and colleagues' (2001) and Greenberg and Barling's (1999) scales. I instructed participants to sort uncivil and aggressive workplace behaviours. In the sorting task, participants arranged the behaviours from highest to lowest intensity. I then calculated average intensity ratings, numbered the behaviours from 1-25 for the workplace aggression scale items and 1-7 for the workplace incivility items, and used this numbered index to dummy code intensity in the main study.

*Participants***.** Participants were 72 individuals from a large public University in Canada who had signed up to receive email invitations to take part in research studies. To take part in the study, English was required to be participants' first language as a strong understanding of the language was anticipated as necessary to recognize the nuances between the different items. Of the participants, 29 were female and 42 were male with a mean age of 20.56 ($SD$ = 1.87). In addition, 36 of these individuals were students who were not otherwise gainfully employed, 33 were working students, and two were employed non-students. Further, I asked participants if they had ever experienced any of the

aggressive behaviours they had just sorted in a work-related context. Fifty-eight percent of participants reported that they had experienced or engaged in at least one of the behaviours in a work-related context. All participants were offered $5 cash in appreciation of their time spent completing the study.

*Measures***.** The workplace incivility items used in the pilot study were from Cortina, Magley, Williams, and Langhout (2001), a commonly used measure of workplace incivility in the literature. The workplace incivility scale includes seven behaviours that assess participants experienced incivility, including "put you down or was condescending to you" and "paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion" (Cortina et al., 2001 p. 70). Although not used in this pilot study, the original scale was measured on a frequency-based scale from 0 (never) to 4 (most of the time).

The aggression items used in the pilot study were taken from Greenberg and Barling's (1999) employee aggression measure, one of the most commonly used measures in research on workplace aggression. This measure consists of 25 behaviours that assessed psychological aggression (e.g., "gossiped about") and violence (e.g., "threatened to hit"; Greenberg & Barling, 1999). The range of aggressive behaviours assessed on this scale were intended to reflect some milder and more intense forms of aggression, including acts that are more psychological in nature and physical in nature, as reflected in the example item above. It is important to note, however, that this measure was developed to assess the frequency of one's experiences with workplace aggression within a given period. Although not used in the pilot study, the original scale items were measured on a frequency-based seven-point scale (0 = never, 1 = once, 2 = twice, 3 = three to five times, 4 = six to ten times, 5 = eleven to twenty times, 6=more than twenty times).

*Procedure***.** Participants completed the pilot study on a computer in a laboratory. The informed consent information and task were created in Qualtrics survey software and displayed on computers when participants entered the laboratory. Study instructions asked participants to arrange the behaviours from the most intense to the least intense, based on a definition of intensity.[5] Participants were asked to keep the workplace context in mind when sorting the behaviours.

*Results*. Each item was assigned a numeric dummy code based on the position the participants assigned it to. For example, if a participant ranked "choked" as the most intense behaviour, it was coded as "25". As can be seen in Table 2.1, I computed mean rankings and standard deviations for each item to determine the relative average intensity of the behaviours. These rankings were then used to order the items from highest to lowest intensity. For the aggression items 1 = lowest intensity and 25 = highest intensity, while for the incivility items 1 = lowest intensity and 7 = highest intensity. Based on the mean rankings, the lowest aggression intensity behaviour was the "silent treatment", while the highest intensity behaviour was "beating up". In addition, the lowest incivility intensity behaviour was "demeaning or derogatory remarks" and the highest intensity behaviour was "making unwanted attempts to draw into discussion of personal matters". The rankings from 1-25 and 1-7 were used in the main study to code for intensity of workplace aggression and incivility, respectively.

[5]The intensity definition stated: "Intense and intenseness often refer to emotions and how we feel. Intense can be defined as "of extreme force, degree, or strength" or "having or showing strong feelings or opinions; extremely earnest or serious" (Oxford English Dictionary, 2014). I provided an example of workplace context, namely, to think of the behaviour coming from a coworker, supervisor, customer, patient, member of the public, or anyone else employees might encounter at work.

**Main Study Method**. I used a repeated measure design with two waves of survey data collection, wherein experienced incivility and aggressive retaliation were measured at one point, and aggressive retaliation was measured again three months later. Given that much of the mistreatment occurring in workplaces is underreported through formal channels (Painter, 1987; Snyder, Chen, & Vacha-Haase, 2007; Tutt, 1989), I adopted a self-report survey approach to maintain participants confidentiality and obtain their trust. Further, given that some of the behaviours I inquired about could be illegal (e.g., violence), I did not ask participants to reveal their name, email address, or their employer in the survey.

To date, there is no theoretically-driven time frame in which to examine aggressive retaliation. Research on aggressive retaliation has examined aggression retrospectively, for example by asking participants to report all acts of aggression within the past six months or the past year (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Glomb, 1998; L. Greenberg & Barling, 1999; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998), implying workplace aggression often occurs within this timeframe. In the few multi-wave workplace mistreatment studies specifically, on incivility and bullying, researchers have used time lags of 2 months (Meier & Spector, 2013; Rodríguez-Muñoz, Baillien, De Witte, Moreno-Jiménez, & Pastor, 2009), 6 months (Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2009), and 12 months (Baillien, Rodriguez-Muñoz, Van den Broeck, & De Witte, 2011; Blau & Andersson, 2005) between observations.[6,7] Further,

[6] Bullying is defined as longer-term repeated negative acts from coworkers, supervisors, and subordinates (Ståle Einarsen, 2000) and is differentiated from other mistreatment constructs by its repetitive nature (Hershcovis, 2011) .

[7] Multiple observations have also been used to separate measurement of predictors and criteria to reduce bias (e.g., Morganson & Major, 2014) and to examine reliability (e.g., Leblanc & Kelloway, 2002; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). However, I did not include these here, as they were not focusing on workplace mistreatment or retaliation at multiple time points.

studies of intimate partner aggression have examined this behaviour with time lags of 12 months (Schumacher & Leonard, 2005) and 18 to 20 months (O'Leary et al., 1989) between study waves. Taken together, this body of research suggests that retaliation can occur somewhere within 2-20 months.

In the current study, participants were asked to reflect on their experiences over the past three months, and thus, the data encompassed employees' experiences over a six-month timeframe. The three-month time lag between waves of data collection was chosen for several reasons. First, I sought to allow enough time between waves for new interpersonal experiences to occur. Second, I chose a time frame at the earlier end of the 2-20-month time frame used in the aggression research discussed above to be sensitive to the possibility that retaliatory aggression may occur in the shorter term. Third, as retrospective survey measures are subject to forgetting and memory errors, often referred to as retrospective memory bias (Jobe, Tourangeau, & Smith, 1993; Rubin & Wenzel, 1996), I sought to minimize the influence of this source of error. Studies examining time periods of 2-3 months have shown substantially more accurate memory recall than studies with time periods of 10-12 months (Jobe et al., 1993).

***Participants***. Participants were recruited through the Survey Sampling International's participant pool (via Qualtrics Panel Research). There were 1164 participants who completed the Time 1 survey and 328 participants who completed the Time 2 survey. The attrition rate between Survey 1 and 2 was 71.82%. Previous online survey research has reported attrition rates as high as 80% (O'Neil & Penrod, 2001; O'Neil, Penrod, & Bornstein, 2003). Researchers have suggested that often participants who dropout of online surveys express lower interest and higher perceptions of burden than

other participants (Galesic, 2006). Regardless, considerable differences between individuals who complete the study and those who do not could have suggested that the study sample did not represent the population of interest. To compare individuals who completed both surveys and those who only completed the Time 1 survey, I conducted independent samples t-tests to examine potential differences between the two groups on demographic variables, including gender, age, education, job tenure, hours worked per week, and country of residence. The groups were not significantly different on most variables with the exception of gender ($M_{\text{completed}} = 1.59$, $M_{\text{dropouts}} = 1.52$, $t(509) = 2.07$, $p < .05$). For gender, those that dropped out of the study were 52% female, while those who completed in the study were 58% female. Thus, men may have been somewhat less likely to complete the study. Gender was controlled for in the statistical analyses as it is related to the relationships of interest and may reduce the potential influence the sample's gender composition may have on the results.

Of the participants completing both Time 1 and Time 2 surveys, 139 were male and 188 were female and ranged in age from 19 to 71 years old (M = 40.13, SD = 12.29). Participants worked an average of 37.40 hours per week (SD = 9.22) and earned an average of $22.69 hourly (SD = 19.99). Participants reported working in a range of occupations, for example, consulting, education, sales, and healthcare. In addition, 13.50% of participants reported holding a high school diploma, 20.86% reported having some college or technical school, 12.88% reported having a college diploma or technical school certificate, 7.10% reported completing some university, 28.53% of participants reported having a university degree, and 16.26% reported having a university post graduate degree.

*Measures and procedures***.** At each wave of data collection, participants completed an online survey in a location of their preference. In the two surveys, participants were asked to report on the incivility experienced from and aggression enacted toward one coworker. To ensure participants reported on the same coworker on both surveys, a question on Survey 1 asked them to enter some kind of reminder (e.g., nickname for the coworker) and this reminder was presented in the incivility and aggression scale instructions of the Time 2 survey. I examined these dyadic interactions to better isolate the tit-for-tat exchange of mistreatment behaviours characteristic of escalation (Andersson & Pearson, 1999) or the pattern of aggression that may emerge in a particular relationship context, although admittedly the reporting was one-sided rather than from each party in the dyad. At Time 1, anger rumination and organizational sanctions were included in the survey, as well as, demographic and work information, including sex, age, job title, hourly wage, and tenure. Enacted aggression was measured at both Time 1 and Time 2.

All scales except demographic and work information, were presented in a randomized order to reduce potential item priming effects that might suggest to the participant that there is a causal relationship with other variables in the survey (Parkin, 2008). To enhance data quality, survey completion was timed and speeders or individuals who completed the survey unreasonably quickly were flagged. Speeding is suggested to be an indicator of survey satisficing, low quality responses (Fricker, Galesic, Tourangeau, & Yan, 2005), and superficial thinking (Zhang & Conrad, 2013). Survey pre-tests showed that most participants took an average of 15 minutes to complete the survey. Qualtrics flagged participants who completed the survey in less than half of that time, that is, in less

than six minutes. These individuals were not invited to complete the Time 2 survey and were excluded from the final dataset.

*Workplace aggression***.** Workplace aggression was measured using Greenberg and Barling's (L. Greenberg & Barling, 1999) measure.[8] *Frequency of workplace aggression* was computed by totaling participants' responses on a seven-point scale for all 25-items as is typically done with this scale and other measures of workplace aggression. The test-retest reliability for frequency of enacted workplace aggression from Time 1 to Time 2 was $r = .18$. For *intensity of workplace aggression*, based on the Pilot Study data, I determined the most intense aggressive behaviour each participant endorsed as occurring and coded that behavior's intensity value from 1-25 based on the Pilot Study results. I chose to use the most intense behaviour coding procedure to isolate intensity from frequency as much as possible.

*Workplace incivility***.** Workplace incivility experienced from the focal coworker was measured with the seven item Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina et al., 2001). Participants were asked to indicate how often they had experienced uncivil behaviours from a particular coworker over a three-month period on the same seven-point scale used for the workplace aggression measure. Items asked how often participants had been in a situation where their coworker for example, "made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you" and "doubted your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility." Cronbach's alpha reliability for the scale was excellent, $r = .92$. For *intensity of workplace incivility,* similar to intensity of workplace aggression, I identified the most intense

[8] As this scale is a behavioural inventory, commonly used reliability indices, such as Cronbach's alpha levels are not appropriate for assessing scale reliability (MacKenzie et al., 2005).

behaviour each participant endorsed as occurring and entered that behavior's intensity value (from 1-7) from the Pilot Study. I coded the most intense behaviour to isolate intensity from frequency as much as possible.

*Workgroup norms for mistreatment***.** I examined workgroup norms for mistreatment using the four item civility norms questionnaire-brief (Walsh et al., 2012). Sample items state, "rude behavior is not accepted by your coworkers" and "angry outbursts are not tolerated by anyone in your unit/workgroup" (Walsh et al., 2012, p. 411). I added two additional items, "violence is not tolerated by your coworkers" and "harassment is not accepted by your coworkers"[9] to include the more serious forms of mistreatment, that is, aggression and violence. This scale was measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients were excellent, $r = .92$.

*Anger rumination***.** The Anger Rumination Scale (Sukhodolsky et al., 2001) is a trait-like measure of the extent to which individuals tend to think about anger-inducing events, recall past anger-inducing events, and have revenge fantasies. Example items include, "I re-enact the anger episode in my mind after it has happened" and "I keep thinking about event that angered me for a long time". Items were measured on a 4-point scale ranging from 1 (*Almost never*) to 4 (*Almost always*). Cronbach's alpha reliability for the scale was excellent, $r = .95$.

[9] I chose not to use the word "aggression" in this item because much of the policy and government information for organizations uses other terms, such as harassment, violence, and bullying (Canadian Centre for Occupational Health and Safety, 2017; Occupational Health and Safety Administration, n.d.)

**Results**

Prior to conducting the statistical analyses, the data was screened for outliers, out of range values, extensive missing values, normality, independence of observations, and linearity. Table 2.2 shows the correlations and descriptive statistics among all study variables. The mediation and moderated mediation models were tested using SPSS (Version 22.0) and the PROCESS Macro (Version 2.15). The PROCESS macro tests interactions and indirect effects using bias-corrected confidence intervals (Hayes, 2016), which more accurately estimates effects with non-normal distributions that were present in the aggression scale data in the current study. For all analyses, 10 000 bootstrapped samples were chosen and I entered gender and age as control variables as these factors have been shown to predict aggressive behaviour (Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, & Allen, 1999; Hershcovis & Barling, 2007). For the mediation analysis, I examined the same model for frequency and intensity in separate analyses. That is, I tested the mediation model first with the frequency of workplace aggression variables and then the intensity of workplace aggression variables[10]. The PROCESS macro output displayed results for both partial and full mediation and thus results are reported for both direct and indirect effects for the mediation hypotheses. In addition, the moderated mediation analyses were conducted for each moderator for both the frequency and intensity variables and tested the

[10] To determine if aggression intensity accounts for significant variance above and beyond aggression frequency, as a rationale for using this methodology, I examined the incremental validity of the aggression measures on employees' psychosomatic strain (associated with increased levels of workplace mistreatment). I conducted a multiple regression with gender and age entered as control variables on Step 1, Time 1 experienced aggression frequency at Step 2, and Time 1 experienced aggression intensity at Step 3 regressed on Time 2 psychosomatic health. At Step 3, Time 1 experienced aggression intensity accounted for significant variance over and above frequency, $R^2 = .08$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $\beta = -.20$, $p < .05$.

moderators early on in the process (between experienced incivility and enacted aggression at Time 1) and later on (between Time 1 and 2 aggression).

**Main results.** Hypothesis 1a-1c examined the frequency of mistreatment relationships using mediation models. Hypothesis 1a was supported; The frequency of experienced incivility by a coworker at Time 1 was positively related to enacted aggression frequency towards that coworker at Time 1, $B = .43$, SE = .06, 95% CI [.32, .55], $R^2 = .17$, $F(3, 291) = 19.55$, $p < .001$. Hypothesis 1b was also supported; The frequency of enacted workplace aggression at Time 1 was positively related to enacted workplace aggression at Time 2, $B = .21$, SE = .06, 95% CI [.10, .33], $R^2 = .09$, $F(4, 290) = 7.05$, $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 1c predicted that there would be a non-significant relationship between the frequency of experienced incivility and enacted workplace aggression at Time 2. Results supported this hypothesis, finding a non-significant direct effect of *X* on *Y,* suggesting full mediation. That is, when it comes to workplace aggression frequency, following an experience with incivility, retaliation will only continue in the long-term (at Time 2) if it has already occurred in the shorter-term (at Time 1), $B = .09$, $p = .16$, 95% CI [-.04, .22]. Considering Hypothesis 1a-1c together, as Figure 2.1 illustrates, the indirect effect of Time 1 aggression on the relationship between experienced incivility and Time 2 enacted aggression was significant. The bootstrapped indirect (mediation) effect was significant, $B = .09$, SE = .06, 95% CI [.001, .25], $R^2 = .05$, $F(3, 291) = 4.84$, $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 2a-2c examined the intensity of mistreatment relationships in a mediation model. Hypothesis 2a was supported. The intensity of experienced incivility by a coworker at Time 1 was positively related to enacted aggression intensity towards that

coworkers at Time 1, $B$ = .25, SE = .03, 95% CI [.19, .31], $R^2$ = .21, $F$(3, 294) = 25.48, $p$ < .001. Hypothesis 2b stated that the intensity of enacted workplace aggression at Time 1 will be positively related to the intensity of enacted workplace aggression at Time 2. Results supported this hypothesis, $B$ = .25, SE = .07, 95% CI [.11, .38], $R^2$ = .11, $F$(4, 293) = 8.89, $p$ < .001. Hypothesis 2c stated a direct positive effect of the intensity of experienced incivility on intensity of enacted workplace aggression at Time 2. Results showed a significant direct effect of experienced incivility on Time 2 aggression, controlling for Time 1 aggression, $B$ = .25, SE = .07, $p$ < .01, 95% CI [.11, .38].

As Figure 2.2 shows, the indirect effect was significant, $B$ = .06, SE = .03, 95% CI [.001, .13], $R^2$ = .10, $F$(3, 294) = 10.40, $p$ < .001 and the direct effect was stronger when the mediator was included in the model, indicating partial mediation. Considering Hypotheses 2a-2c together, the intensity of enacted workplace aggression at Time 1 partially mediated the relationship between the intensity of perceived workplace incivility experienced at Time 1 and the intensity of retaliatory workplace aggression enacted at Time 2. This finding suggests that workplace aggression intensity is related to the intensity of perceived incivility, and that it can emerge right away or over time.

**Moderated mediation results.** To examine the impact of my proposed moderators, I again used the PROCESS macro to examine whether the indirect effect (the mediation effect) is dependent on another variable (the moderating variable). PROCESS provides the *index of moderated mediation*, a test for models that incorporate moderation and mediation and where the moderator and indirect effect relationship is linear (Hayes, 2015). The index of moderated mediation examines whether there is a statistical difference between the conditional indirect effect when the moderator is low and the conditional indirect effect

when the moderator is high (Hayes, 2015). Put another way, it tests if the slope of the regression line in relation to the indirect effect to the moderator variable is significantly different from zero (Hayes, 2015). In this case, the test examines whether the indirect effect of experienced workplace incivility on Time 2 workplace aggression through Time 1 workplace aggression differs between individuals low versus high in the moderators I tested. Product terms were mean centred for the analyses. I added the moderators individually to the mediated model and tested each moderator early on (between experienced incivility and enacted time 1 aggression) and then over time (between enacted workplace aggression at Time 1 and at Time 2) for the frequency and then for the intensity of aggression variables.

***Norms for mistreatment.*** Supporting Hypothesis 3a, norms for workplace mistreatment significantly moderated the relationship between the frequency of experienced incivility at Time 1 and enacted aggression at Time 1, .02, SE = .02, 95% CI [.001, .08], $B$ = .16, SE = .05, $p$ < .001, 95% CI [.06, .25]. That is, as seen in Figure 2.3, higher norms were associated with more frequent enacted aggression when individuals experienced incivility. In addition, for Hypothesis 3b, norms for workplace mistreatment moderated the relationship between frequency of Time 1 enacted aggression and Time 2 enacted aggression, $B$ = .18, SE = .06, $p$ < .01, 95% CI [.06, .29], but the index of moderated mediation was not significant, .08, SE = .07, 95% CI [-.02, .27], suggesting that the effect is marginally significant. For *frequency*, Hypothesis 3c was not supported; Norms for mistreatment did not moderate the direct relationship between experienced workplace incivility at Time 1 and enacted workplace aggression at Time 2, $B$ = .03, SE = .05, $p$ = .51, 95% CI[-.06, .12].

For the intensity of mistreatment variables, contrary to Hypothesis 4a, norms for mistreatment did not significantly moderate the relationship between experienced incivility and Time 1 workplace aggression, .01, SE = .01, 95% CI [-.01, .05], $B$ = .05, $p$ =.50, 95% CI [-.09, .19]. However, for Hypothesis 4b, norms for mistreatment moderated the relationship between Time 1 and Time 2 enacted aggression, .12, SE = 05, 95% CI [.03, .21], $B$ = .15, SE = .05, $p$ < .01, 95% CI [.06, .24]. Higher workplace norms for mistreatment were associated with more intense levels of enacted aggression at Time 2 when individuals enacted aggression at Time 1 (see Figure 2.8). For Hypothesis 4c, norms for mistreatment did not moderate the direct relationship between experienced workplace incivility at Time 1 and enacted workplace aggression at Time 2, $B$ = .01, $p$ = .86, 95% CI[-.15, .18]. Taken together, these results suggest that for frequency of mistreatment variables, norms for mistreatment only moderated the relationship early on between experienced incivility and enacted aggression at Time 1. For intensity of mistreatment variables, on the other hand, norms for mistreatment moderated the relationship later on between enacted aggression at Time 1 and 2 for intensity mistreatment variables (see Table 2.3). These results suggest that frequency influences immediate aggressive retaliation, while intensity influences the continuation of aggressive retaliation over time.

***Anger rumination.*** Supporting Hypothesis 5a, anger rumination significantly moderated the relationship between frequency of experienced incivility and Time 1 enacted aggression, .08, SE = .06, 95% CI [.01, .30], $B$ = .55, SE = .11, $p$ < .001, 95% CI [.33, 77]. Greater anger rumination was associated with more frequent enacted aggression when individuals experienced incivility (see Figure 2.7). Contrary to Hypothesis 5b, anger rumination did not significantly moderate the relationship between frequency of Time 1

and Time 2 enacted aggression, .001, SE = .10, 95% CI [-.14, .25], $B$ = .01, $p$ = .91, 95% CI [-.14, .16]. Further, counter to Hypothesis 5c, anger rumination also did not moderate the direct relationship for frequency variables, $B$ = -.08, SE = .11, $p$ = .49, 95% CI[-.29, 14].

Supporting Hypothesis 6a, anger rumination significantly moderated the relationship between intensity of experienced incivility and Time 1 workplace aggression .25, SE = .12, 95% CI [.02, .49] $B$ = .49, SE = .18, $p$ < .01, 95% CI [.14, 84]. As seen in Figure 2.5, greater anger rumination was associated with higher intensity enacted aggression when individuals experienced incivility. Hypothesis 6b was not supported; anger rumination did not significantly moderate the relationship between Time 1 and Time 2 enacted aggression, .09, SE = .11, 95% [-.12, .29], $B$ = .11, SE = .08, $p$ = .16, 95% CI [-.05, .27]. Further, counter to Hypothesis 6c, anger rumination also did not moderate the direct relationship, $B$ = .03, SE = .22, $p$ = .17, 95% CI [-.13, .72]. Taken together, these results suggest that anger rumination moderated early on for both frequency and intensity of mistreatment (see Table 2.4).

**Discussion**

This study examined the frequency and intensity of aggressive retaliation at two-time points using a mediation model. First, following experienced workplace incivility (at Time 1) as a way of examining individuals' initial retaliation, and second, three months later (at Time 2) as a way of examining whether aggression was ongoing or had initiated at a time distal from the initial experience of incivility. For frequency of workplace aggression, a full mediation effect was present with incivility leading to aggression at Time 2 through aggression at Time 1. For intensity of workplace aggression, a partially mediated

effect was present, with incivility leading to aggression at Time 2 both directly and through aggression at Time 1. In addition, I examined norms for workplace mistreatment and anger rumination as situation and person factor moderators, respectively, of this mediation relationship.

**The mediation effects of experiencing incivility and enacted aggression**. The significant indirect effects suggest that, consistent with Hypothesis 1a and 2a, workplace incivility relates to both retaliatory aggression frequency and intensity in the short term, proximal to experienced incivility. This finding is consistent with the General Aggression Model (DeWall et al., 2011), which suggests that the impulse to retaliate can occur immediately following a perceived mistreatment. The present findings also suggest that, in line with Hypothesis 1b and 2b, retaliatory aggression, once initiated, can persist in the longer term, as much as 3 months later. This finding is consistent with research suggesting that retaliatory aggression may set in motion a pattern of aggressive interactions in a particular relationship that is likely in an ongoing exchange in which aggression becomes typical, both in terms of frequency and intensity (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Douglas et al., 2008).

One difference emerged between aggression frequency and intensity over time. That is, for frequency, contrary to Hypothesis 1c, there was no direct relationship between Time 1 experienced incivility and Time 2 frequency of enacted aggression three months later. This finding suggests that when it comes to frequency of aggression, retaliatory aggression is time sensitive meaning that if it emerges it will tend to do so shortly after perceiving mistreatment and may persist over time. This result is consistent with intimate partner aggression research showing that patterns of aggressive behaviours can emerge in

relationships and become the norm in the relationship (Leonard et al., 2014). This finding also suggests that as the initial impulse to retaliate dissipates, it becomes less likely that an individual will begin to retaliate with a similar frequency, as one may chose to ignore the incivility, suppress their response, or give the other person the benefit of the doubt (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Bies & Tripp, 1996). That is, if aggressive retaliatory does not emerge in the shorter term, it is unlikely to emerge in the longer term. It is possible that within a relationship, the decision not to retaliate early on may prevent the continuation of mistreatment in the longer term, as suggested by researchers discussion of the continuation of workplace mistreatment (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Overall then, these findings suggest that frequency of aggressive behaviour is a feature of the relationship that may not emerge, but if it does it can continue over time.

Consistent with Hypothesis 2c, for the intensity of workplace aggression, experiencing incivility at one point in time related to the intensity of retaliatory aggression, and this intensity can arise in the long term over the months that follow the initial experience of incivility. This finding suggests that the intensity of experienced mistreatment suggests a level of aggression that is acceptable in the relationship, but the emergence of this behaviour is not time bound and may occur at any time. Further, this finding suggests that the enacted aggression may be both impulsive and instrumental, consistent with researchers discussion that aggressive behaviour is likely motivated by a mix of different motives (Bushman & Anderson, 2001). For instance, it may be used as a means to restore a sense of lost equity (Bies & Tripp, 1996), to stop future mistreatment, and/or as an anger-motivated impulsive response. Aggression frequency, on the other hand, may be less thoughtful and more habitual and reactive.

Taken together, the mediation model hypotheses showed full mediation for frequency and partial mediation for intensity of aggression. These findings suggest that whether retaliation occurs and how intense retaliation becomes are two separate conceptual considerations and showed different results in terms of direct and indirect mediation relationships. Further, measuring the intensity of aggression may be an important component of developing our understanding of the construct of workplace aggression, particularly over longer time frames in longitudinal studies.

From a practical standpoint, this study has implications for organizations seeking to prevent workplace aggression. If aggression frequency is normative within relationships and reactive in nature, it may be somewhat predictable in terms of its occurrence, and visible as an emerging norm within relationships, with implications for that behaviour beginning in other relationships through behavioural modeling processes. By contrast, aggression intensity can vary somewhat unpredictably, at least in terms of the time of is occurrence. What is predictable, however, is that the intensity of aggression can be perceived and reciprocated, with the potential for escalation of the intensity of the aggressive behaviours. Thus, this finding has practical implications for the prevention of more severe forms of workplace aggression. Organizations that provide opportunities for employees to seek support early in the mistreatment experience, such as through 24-7 call lines to discuss difficult situations with experienced clinicians, onsite chaplains, trained peer support teams, or onsite drop in counselling services, may prevent aggression behaviour within a work relationship from becoming more intense in the longer term. Taken together, in line with Social Learning Theory of Aggression (Bandura, 1973, 1978), these findings suggest that individuals assess the level of mistreatment behaviours

acceptable within the organization by observing others actions and consequences and might be willing to engage in those acceptable behaviour.

**Moderation results**. To shed more light on the distinctiveness of frequency and intensity, I examined norms for workplace mistreatment and anger rumination as moderators of these mediated relationships. I chose these moderators because of their demonstrated influence on aggression. I examined moderations of the likelihood of individuals' aggressive retaliation and I expected to see little distinctions between the moderators when tested for the frequency and intensity models, though it was challenging to make hypotheses for the latter with great confidence given the paucity of research on workplace aggression intensity.

Results showed that the proposed moderators influenced the relationship between experienced incivility and aggression at Time 1 somewhat differently for frequency and intensity of aggression. Norms for workplace mistreatment was a significant moderator for frequency (but not intensity) of workplace aggression between experience incivility and enacted aggression at Time 1 and for both frequency and intensity of aggression at Time 2, but in the opposite way than hypothesized. Specifically, for frequency of aggression, when norms for mistreatment were low (i.e., aggression was not tolerated), people were more likely to respond to experiences of incivility with aggression or to continue to enact aggression over time. One possible explanation is that in these work environments, acts of incivility may be particularly troubling as they are counter to organizational culture, and retaliation may be more likely as a response. This finding is in line with work on group influence of individual behaviour (Hackman, 1992) and research on norm violation (S. Lee & Tedeschi, 1996; Tedeschi & Nesler, 1993), suggesting that when individuals violate

group norms, members aggressively coerce the individual to bring them back into line with the norm. For example, one study found that when individuals experience aggression at levels that violate norms, they retaliated aggressively at levels that also violated norms as a possible form of punishment (S. Lee & Tedeschi, 1996).

It is notable that norms for mistreatment did not moderate the relationship between intensity of experienced incivility and aggression at Time 1, suggesting that the experience of intensity of incivility related to intensity of aggression regardless of norms. That is, if the rules of interaction between the relevant parties are being set by the actors in the relationship rather than the pervasive workplace norms. This may suggest that the individual may think that because the other party 'got away with' their perceived incivility, then they should reasonably be able to respond in kind without unique personal consequences. However, the persistence of aggression intensity over time may involve more personal accountability. In addition, between Time 1 and Time 2 aggression, norms for workplace mistreatment significantly moderated for both frequency and intensity. This finding may suggest that once norms have been violated through acts of incivility, individuals respond with workplace aggression that is both more frequent and more intense, again, possibly as a means of bringing the coworkers behaviour in line with workplace norms (S. Lee & Tedeschi, 1996; Tedeschi & Nesler, 1993).

I expected that anger rumination would influence aggression in the short term and the continuation of aggression in the longer term. Anger rumination significantly moderated the indirect effect for the relationship between experienced incivility and enacted aggression at Time 1 for both frequency and intensity. This finding is in line with previous research on anger rumination and aggression that suggests higher levels of anger

rumination are positively associated with aggression (Anestis et al., 2009; Sukhodolsky et al., 2001). As anger rumination involves sustained anger, it is not surprising that individuals who experienced incivility at Time 1, responded with aggression at Time 1. It was more surprising that anger rumination did not moderate the relationship between individual's aggression at Time 1 and Time 2. This finding is counter to expectation as researchers suggest individuals higher in anger rumination will experience exacerbated and prolonged anger (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002), and as a result will be more likely to engage in aggression (Anestis et al., 2009). However, studies of anger rumination and aggression have primarily focused on rumination occurring over time frames of 0-8 hours (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Bushman et al., 2005) and not over the multiple month timeframe of the current study. Further, many experimental protocols for anger rumination include prompted recall of the anger-inducing event (Denson, Pedersen, Ronquillo, & Nandy, 2009) and showed displaced aggression as a possible outcome (Bushman et al., 2005). Thus, there may be additional factors involved in these relationships that were not examined in these results, such as the recurrence of experienced mistreatment as an anger-inducing experience that may prompt the recall of the initial anger-inducing event and motivate an immediate aggressive response. Another possibility is that once retaliation had occurred (in the form of enacted aggression at Time 1), anger rumination ceases. This would support the notion suggested by the General Aggression Model that shorter-term primary appraisal processes are more emotional and impulsive and correspond with levels of anger. This finding highlights the question of whether anger rumination is quelled following retribution behavior. Indeed, researchers suggest that retaliation may serve to

restore perception of equity (Bies & Tripp, 1996), and thus individuals may cease perseverating on their anger as a result.

Overall, the present study advances the literature by suggesting that aggression frequency tends to be influenced by norms, both in terms of what becomes typical within a particular relationship context and what is typical in the workplace. Thus, the question of how often mistreatment is exchanged depends on the emergence it as a pattern in a relationship. Aggression intensity is also established within a relationship and work context, but in a different way. The potential for aggression intensity, that is the question of how bad it can get, seems to be drive by perceptions of the intensity of mistreatment that has already occurred, and is thus tied to interpersonal history. However, how aggression intensity varies is less typical, sometimes merging more proximally to perceived mistreatment, and sometimes more distally, with the former likely driven by emotion-based primary appraisal processes and the latter driven by more thoughtful secondary appraisal processes (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002) or a build up of negative experiences that continue occurring and prompt aggressive reactions (Douglas et al., 2008).

In addition, understanding more about the timeframe of retaliatory aggression is important from a practical standpoint, as organizational efforts to reduce aggression may require different approaches. Organizations often focus on efforts to manage pervasive norms of aggression and should continue to do so. It is also important, however, for organizations to a way for those who experience mistreatment, should it occur, to quell their potential impulse to retaliate to prevent it from becoming a negative, established pattern in the relationship between the parties involved. For example, mediation procedures to communicate transparently about the conflict and reduce rumination. Further, measures

that prevent retaliation in the first place, such as developing emotional intelligence for seeking understanding of others' emotions, motivations, and actions and interpersonal skills to diffuse conflict are important.

**Limitations**. The current study included two waves of data collection to examine mistreatment at more than one time point and reducing the influence of common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, two-time points do not constitute a longitudinal study and as a result, I cannot make conclusions about the process of change in workplace aggression (Singer & Willett, 2003) or make causal conclusions about the relationships herein. The results reported herein are in line with previous research examining mistreatment escalation (Dupré & Barling, 2006), suggesting the results of this study are in line with previous research. However, future research should examine mistreatment escalation using three or more measurement intervals to examine workplace aggression and retaliatory responses longitudinally.

Further, given that this study was a self-report survey using the same measurement method for all variables, there is a possibility of monomethod bias inflating or deflating the study relationships (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Monomethod bias can contribute variance in the study relationships that is attributable to the measurement methods instead of the actual target constructs (Podsakoff et al., 2003), potential leading the misleading conclusions (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). To reduce the potential influence of monomethod bias, following the recommendation of Podsakoff and colleagues (2003), a number of steps were taken in the methodological design of the study. That is, the predictors and criterion were examined from the same sources at separate times, question order was randomized, and

participants confidentiality was protected to the best of our ability (i.e., participants names, email addresses, employer, or other personal information were not collected).

In addition, one important methodological consideration in multi-wave studies is the time lag between survey administrations needed in order to observe the change that is of interest (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). This study had a timeframe of three months between Time 1 and 2. Although existing studies of aggression with multiple time points were reviewed for guidance (Murphy & O'Leary, 1989; O'Leary et al., 1989), given a lack of theory on when workplace aggression interactions and retaliation should occur and how long that relationship should persist, I acknowledge that I may not have completely captured the effects this study aimed to examine. However, given the significant relationships reported in the study, the results suggest the relationships examined in this study may change in time lags of three months. Future theoretical work on workplace aggression should consider the timing of aggressive exchanges among parties to inform future longitudinal research.

This study examined intensity of workplace aggression in addition to traditional frequency measures of this construct. Intensity was examined by identifying the most intense aggressive behaviours each participant experienced and assigning an intensity ranking of that behaviour from the pilot study. It is notable that in addition to the most intense behaviour experienced, participants likely also experienced less intense behaviours, but these behaviours were not explicitly accounted for in the measure or statistical analyses. Consistent with work exploring mistreatment over time (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Douglas et al., 2008), I assumed that participants most intense behaviour would be preceded by several lower-level behaviours rather than one spontaneous and high intensity

act of mistreatment. However, accounting for these behaviours may have confounded the intensity measure with frequency and I aimed to differentiate the intensity and frequency measures as much as possible.

**Future research**. In addition to the future research opportunities suggested above, there are several avenues of future research. The results of this study suggest that greater understanding of the interplay of experienced and enacted workplace aggression is needed. This study examined experienced and enacted workplace aggression, addressing a call for research to examine of the relationship between these constructs (Hershcovis & Barling, 2007). More research is needed to understand the dyadic or relational nature of workplace aggression (Hershcovis & Barling, 2007). Indeed, the legal approach of identifying a victim and perpetrator appears to be outdated, as suggested by this study and other research on retaliation and workplace mistreatment escalation (e.g., Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Douglas et al., 2008; Dupré & Barling, 2006). Future research examining work group interactions longitudinally using, for example, a diary approach could espouse more insights into the dyadic nature of workplace aggression.

The intensity of workplace aggression is another fruitful area of future research. The findings of this study suggest that intensity shows a different path than frequency of workplace aggression when examined at two time points, and thus future research should further investigate intensity as a way of measuring workplace aggression. An interesting area of future research would be to examine what influences variations in intensity within relationships. A study of intimate partner aggression showed that while aggressive behaviour was largely one-sided in many early marriages, over time the other partner become more aggressive to an equal level of intensity to the initially aggressive partner

(Leonard et al., 2014). This suggests one's intensity of workplace aggression may increase over time due to the intensity and persistence of mistreatment from the other party.

Further, the results of this study suggest that workplace aggression escalation can occur relatively quickly. That is, aggressive retaliation and escalation of aggression behaviours can occur within three months or less. As many commonly used self-report scales ask participants to report behaviours that occurred over the past year (L. Greenberg & Barling, 1999) or five years (Cortina et al., 2001), future research examining escalation with self-report measures may need to consider and possibly modify the time frame of these scales. This study found aggression occurred with time lags of three months between measurement occasions, however there was little theoretical guidance in selecting the time lags for this study. Theoretical development is needed to understand the timing of workplace aggression escalation to guide future research.

**Conclusion**. This study examined workplace aggression at two time points, looking at the retaliatory responses of employees at two time points, in retaliation after being treated uncivilly by a coworker. Further, I examined the intensity of aggressive behaviours, in addition to the conventional frequency measures that consider all acts of aggression equivalent. Results suggested that experiencing mistreatment can result in retaliatory behaviours in the short and longer term. Further, this study found that the person and situation factors of anger rumination and norms for mistreatment, respectively, influence immediate retaliatory behaviour, and situation factors influence retaliatory behaviour over time. These findings reinforce the importance of organizations adopting supports and practices that intervene early on, before incivility escalates into aggression.

Table 2.1

*Pilot study means and standard deviations indicating average intensity ratings.*

| Item No. | Item Summary | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|
| Incivility 1 | Put down or condescending | 2.91 | 1.51 |
| Incivility 2 | Little attention or interest | 5.07 | 1.69 |
| Incivility 3 | Demeaning or derogatory remarks | 1.77 | 1.39 |
| Incivility 4 | Addressed unprofessionally | 3.86 | 1.69 |
| Incivility 5 | Excluded | 4.52 | 1.77 |
| Incivility 6 | Doubted judgement | 4.59 | 1.65 |
| Incivility 7 | Unwanted personal discussion | 5.27 | 1.76 |
| Aggression 1 | Silent treatment | 3.02 | 3.51 |
| Aggression 2 | Rude | 4.77 | 2.87 |
| Aggression 3 | Cried | 5.06 | 3.81 |
| Aggression 4 | Rude gestures | 6.60 | 2.81 |
| Aggression 5 | Spite | 6.70 | 2.88 |
| Aggression 6 | Insulted/name-called | 8.48 | 3.28 |
| Aggression 7 | Swore | 9.06 | 3.93 |
| Aggression 8 | Throw | 9.35 | 4.04 |
| Aggression 9 | Yelled | 9.37 | 4.28 |
| Aggression 10 | Damaging information | 9.94 | 6.31 |
| Aggression 11 | Bumped | 11.73 | 3.74 |
| Aggression 12 | Threat to hit | 11.91 | 3.62 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Aggression 13 | Smashed | 11.97 | 4.61 |
| Aggression 14 | Damaged property | 15.58 | 5.02 |
| Aggression 15 | Pushed | 16.25 | 3.87 |
| Aggression 16 | Threw | 16.39 | 3.28 |
| Aggression 17 | Grabbed | 16.43 | 3.65 |
| Aggression 18 | Hit or tried to | 17.47 | 4.43 |
| Aggression 19 | Spit | 18.07 | 3.58 |
| Aggression 20 | Slapped | 19.21 | 2.75 |
| Aggression 21 | Threat to kill | 20.39 | 5.19 |
| Aggression 22 | Kicked | 20.41 | 2.20 |
| Aggression 23 | Bit | 20.49 | 2.73 |
| Aggression 24 | Choked | 23.39 | 2.75 |
| Aggression 25 | Beat up | 23.61 | 1.98 |

*Notes.* Incivility items were assessed on a scale ranging from 1 to 7, while aggression items were assessed on a scale ranging from 1 to 25.

Table 2.2

*Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations Among All Study Variables*

| | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Gender | 1.59 | .49 | - | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Age | 40.26 | 12.27 | -.06 | - | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Time 1 Experienced Incivility - Frequency | 14.93 | 8.68 | .06 | -.10 | (.92) | | | | | | | |
| 4. Time 1 Enacted Aggression - Frequency | 29.23 | 11.06 | -.09 | -.15** | .38** | (.92) | | | | | | |
| 5. Time 1 Experienced Incivility - Intensity | 4.38 | 2.97 | .01 | -.12* | .69** | .28** | (.92) | | | | | |
| 6. Time 1 Enacted Aggression – Intensity | 3.77 | 5.40 | -.08 | -.17** | .43** | .76** | .26** | (.92) | | | | |
| 7.Time 1 Anger Rumination | 1.69 | .60 | .02 | -.24** | .37** | .40** | .28** | .40** | (.95) | | | |
| 8. Time 1 Workplace Norms for Mistreatment | 5.23 | 1.38 | -.01 | .06 | -.33** | -.07 | -.14* | -.30** | -15** | (.92) | | |
| 9. Time 2 Enacted Aggression - Frequency | 28.42 | 9.21 | -.07 | -.11 | .17** | .23** | .20** | .25** | .28** | -.14* | (.92) | |
| 10. Time 2 Enacted Aggression – Intensity | 3.58 | 5.72 | -.01 | -.15** | .18** | .25** | .74** | .24** | .29** | .24** | -.20** | (.92) |

Notes. $n = 294$. Internal consistency reliabilities (via Cronbach's coefficient alphas) are reported in parentheses on the diagonal. On all scales, higher values indicate more of the construct.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 2.3

*Results from Moderated Mediation Analysis for the Moderator, Norms for Mistreatment, on the Mediation Model of Experienced Incivility, Enacted Workplace Aggression at Time 1, and Enacted Workplace Aggression at Time 2.*

| Predictor | *B* | *SE B* | *LLCI* | *ULCI* | *F* | $R^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Frequency Variables | | | | | | |
| Time 1 experienced incivility X norms for mistreatment | .16** | .05 | .06 | .25 | 14.22 | .20 |
| Time 1 enacted aggression X norms for mistreatment | .16 | .05 | -.25 | 1.51 | 14.22** | .20 |
| Intensity Variables | | | | | | |
| Time 1 experienced incivility X norms for mistreatment | .05 | .07 | -.09 | .19 | 17.23** | .23 |
| Time 1 enacted aggression X norms for mistreatment | -.63** | .23 | -.11 | -.16 | 8.65** | .15 |

*Note: n = 296.* Predictors were centered at their means.

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 2.4

*Results from Moderated Mediation Analysis for the Moderator, Anger Rumination, on the Mediation Model of Experienced Incivility, Enacted Workplace Aggression at Time 1, and Enacted Workplace Aggression at Time 2.*

| Predictor | *B* | *SE B* | *LLCI* | *ULCI* | *F* | $R^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Frequency Variables | | | | | | |
| Time 1 experienced incivility X anger rumination | .55** | .11 | .33 | .77 | 24.59** | .30 |
| Time 1 enacted aggression X anger rumination | .01 | .07 | -.14 | .16 | 5.53** | .10 |
| Intensity Variables | | | | | | |
| Time 1 experienced incivility X anger rumination | .49** | .18 | .14 | .84 | 24.74** | .30 |
| Time 1 enacted aggression X anger rumination | .11 | .08 | -.05 | .27 | 6.28** | .11 |

*Note: n = 296.* Predictors were centered at their means.

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

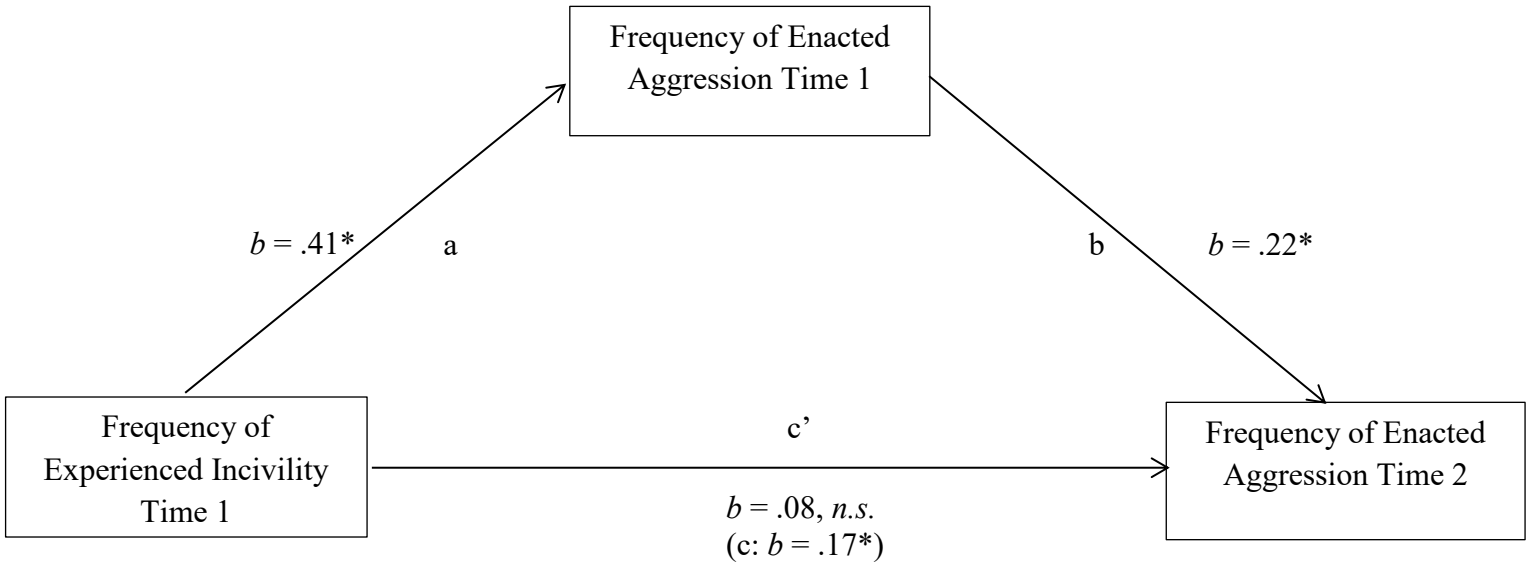


*Figure 2.1.* Unstandardized regression coefficients for Hypothesis 1 frequency of workplace aggression mediation analysis; The relationship between Time 1 frequency of experienced incivility and Time 2 frequency of enacted aggression, mediated by Time 1 frequency of enacted aggression. In parentheses is the unstandardized regression coefficient Time 1 frequency of experienced incivility and Time 2 frequency of enacted aggression, controlling for Time 1 frequency of enacted aggression.

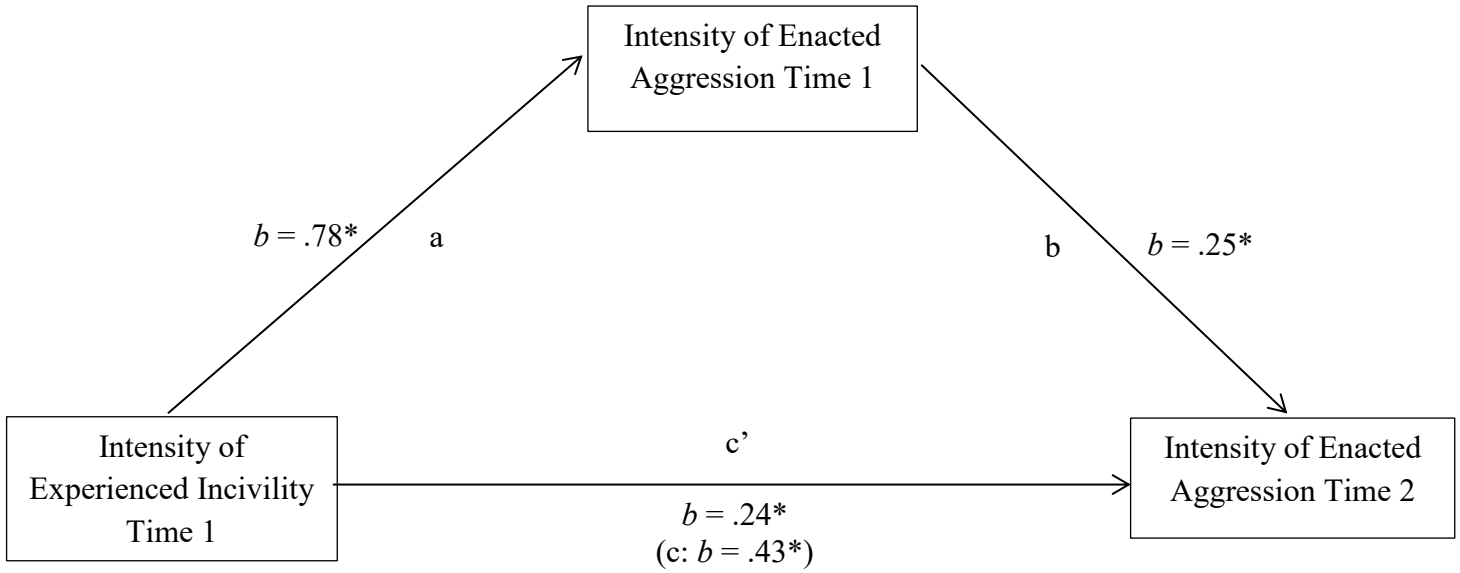


*Figure 2.2.* Unstandardized regression coefficients for Hypothesis 2 intensity of workplace aggression mediation analysis; The relationship between Time 1 intensity of experienced incivility and Time 2 intensity of enacted aggression, mediated by Time 1 intensity of enacted aggression. In parentheses is the unstandardized regression coefficient between Time 1 intensity of experienced incivility and Time 2 intensity of enacted aggression, controlling for Time 1 intensity of enacted aggression.

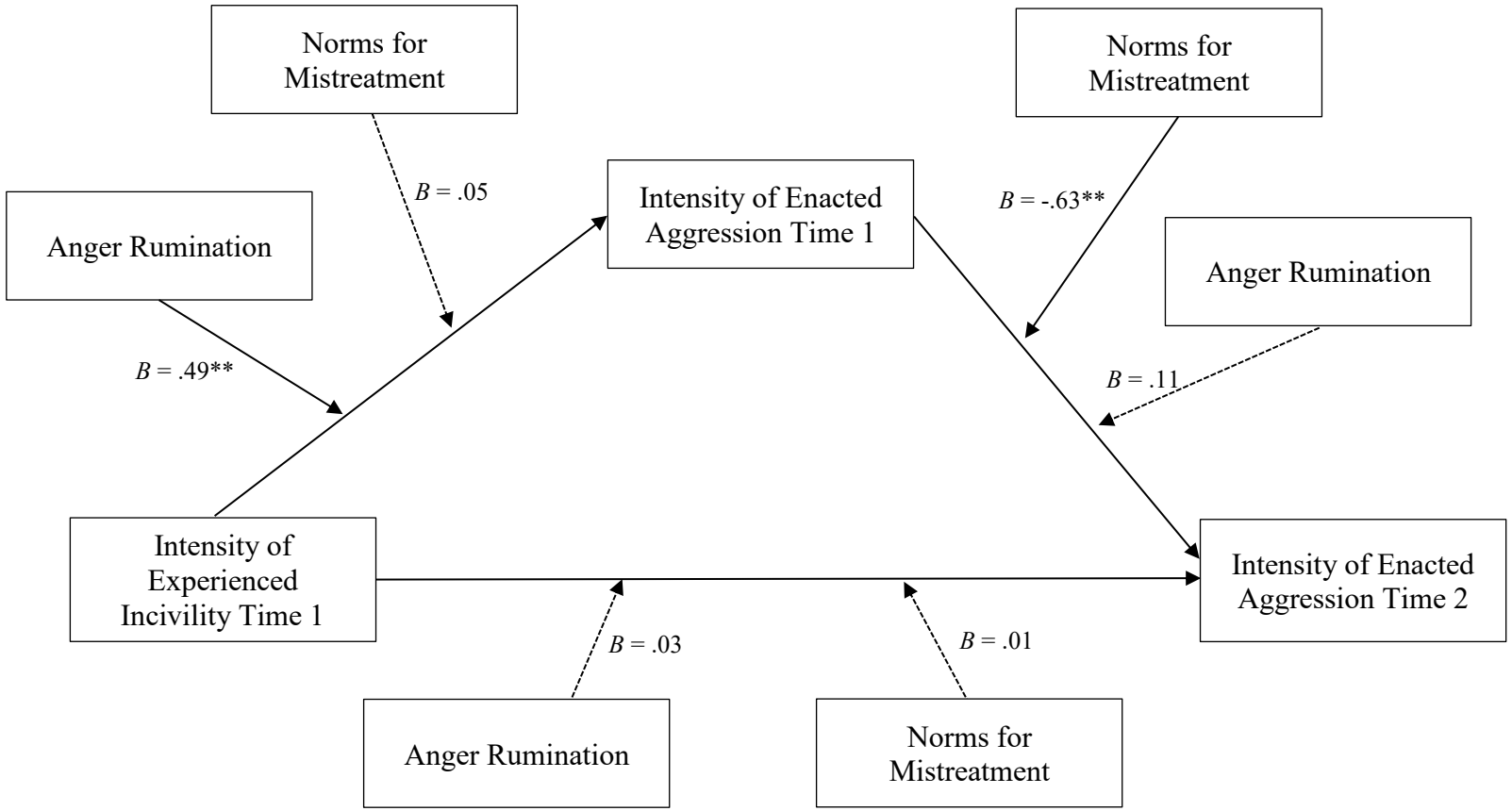


*Figure 2.3.* Unstandardized regression coefficients for Hypotheses 4a, 4b, 4c, 6a, 6b, and 6c examining the intensity of workplace aggression moderated mediation relationships. ** $p < .01$

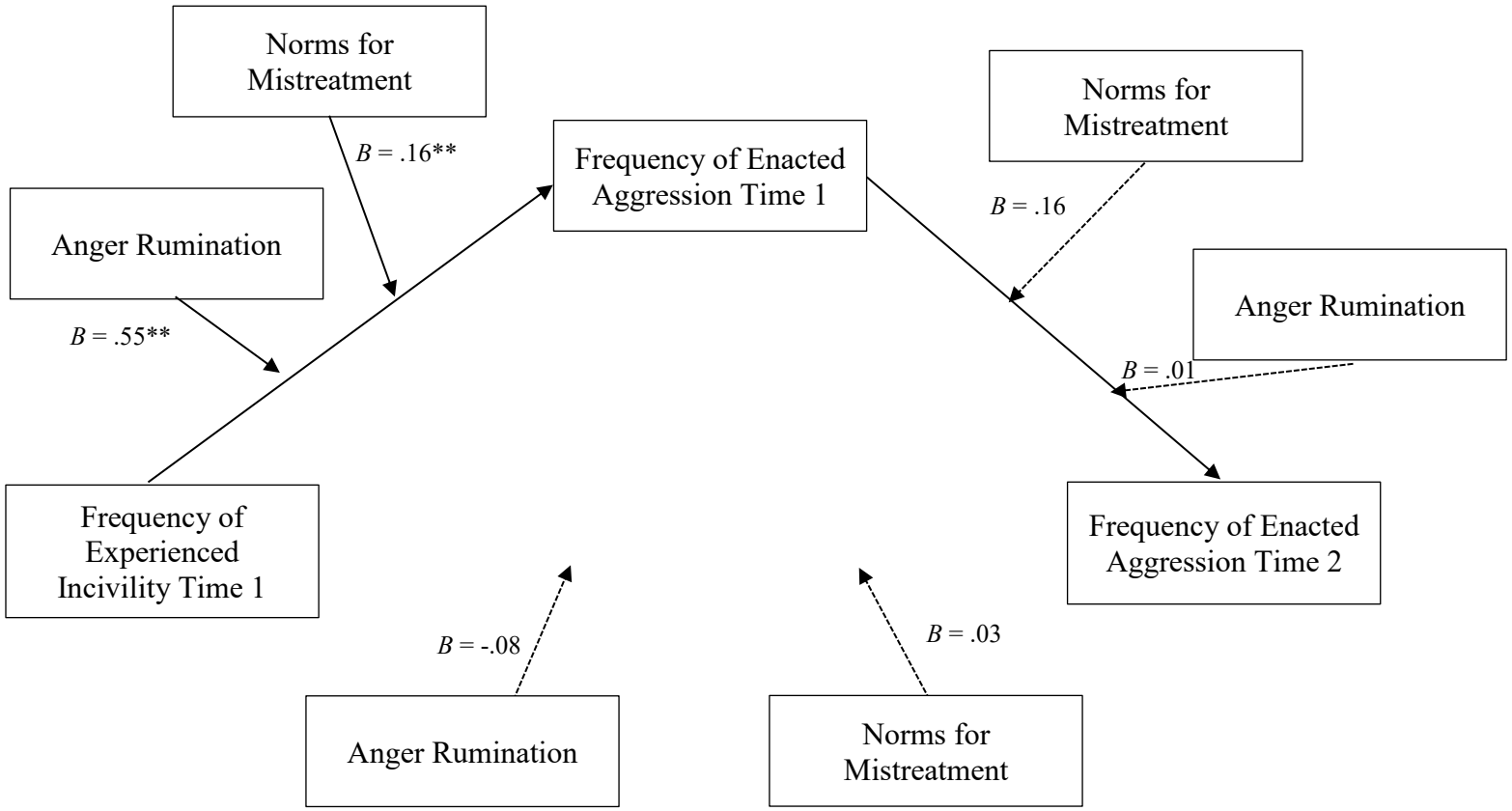


*Figure 2.4.* Unstandardized regression coefficients for Hypotheses 3a, 3b, 3c, 5a, 5b, and 5c examining the frequency of workplace aggression moderated mediation relationships. ** $p < .01$

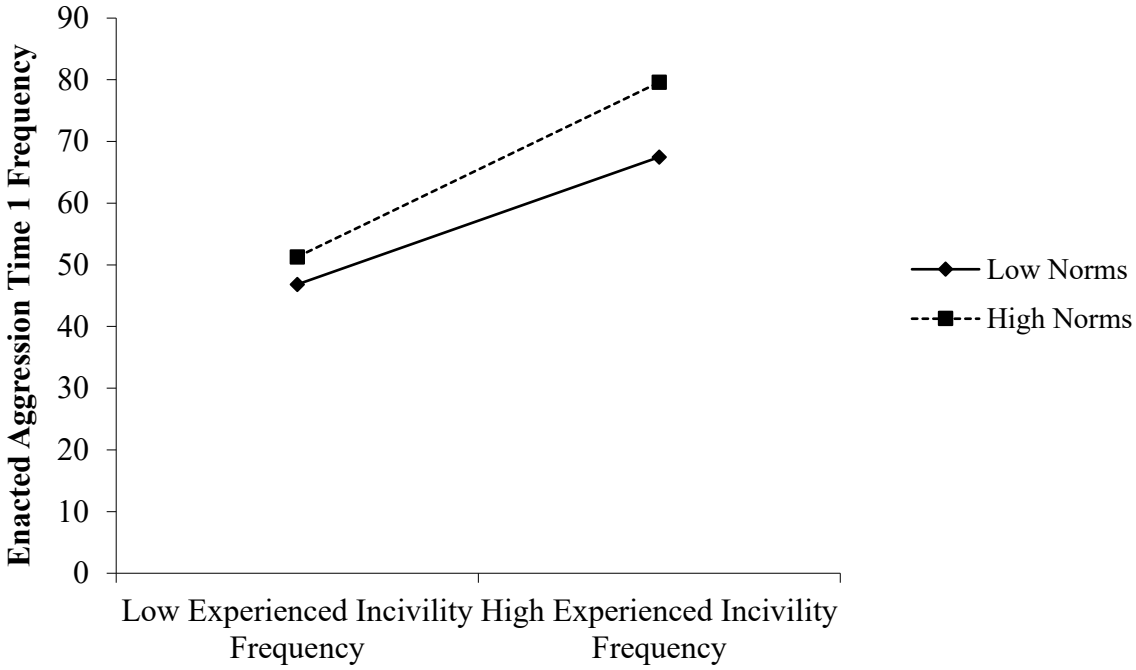


*Figure 2.5.* Workplace norms for mistreatment moderating the relationship between experienced incivility at Time 1 frequency and enacted workplace aggression at Time 1 frequency.

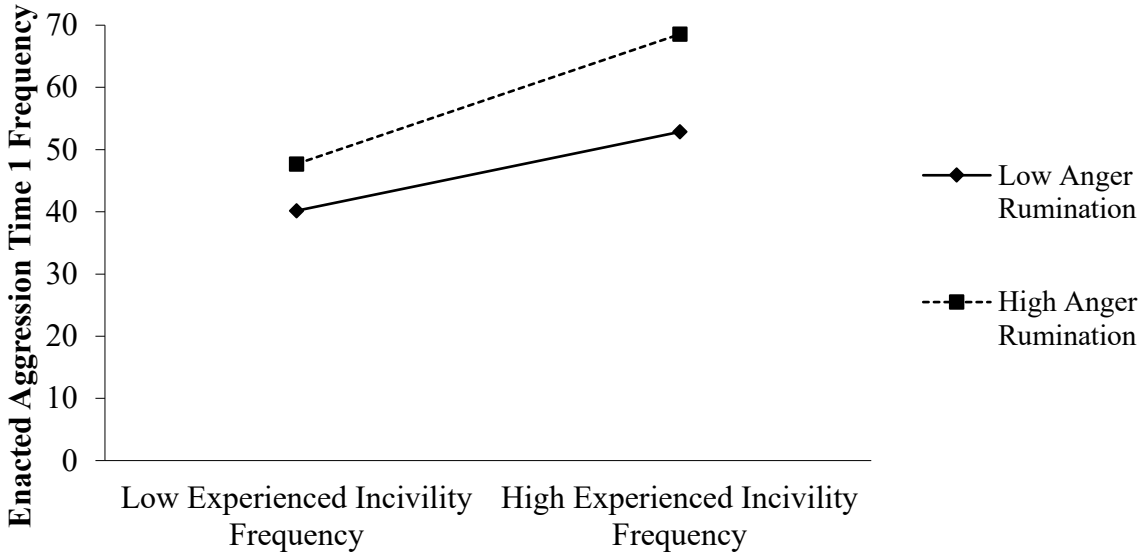


*Figure 2.6.* Moderating effect of anger rumination on the relationship between experienced incivility frequency and Time 1 enacted aggression frequency.

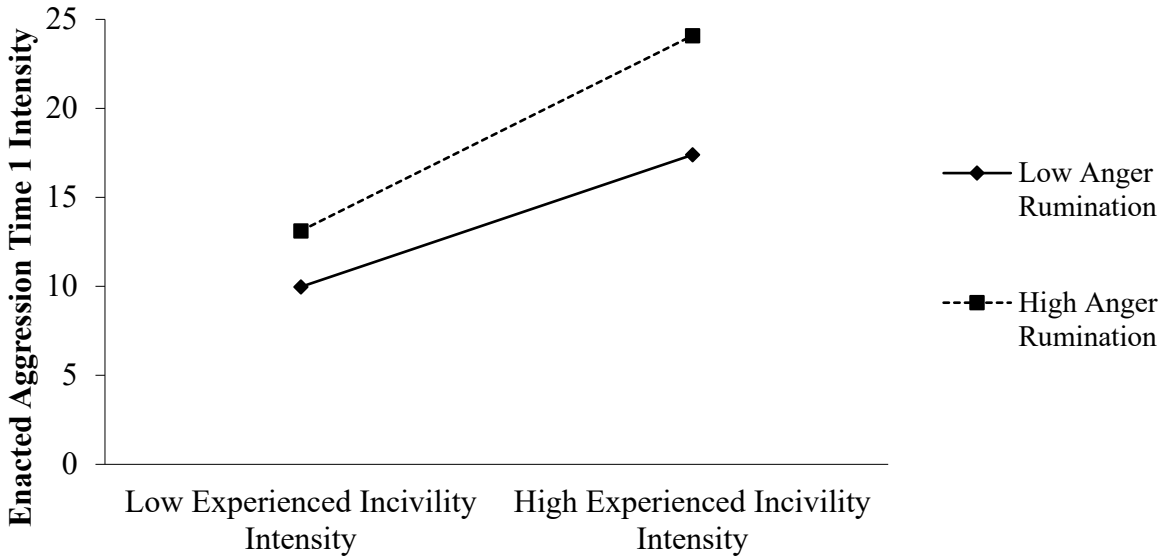


*Figure 2.7.* Anger rumination moderated the relationship between experienced incivility intensity and enacted aggression at Time 1 intensity.

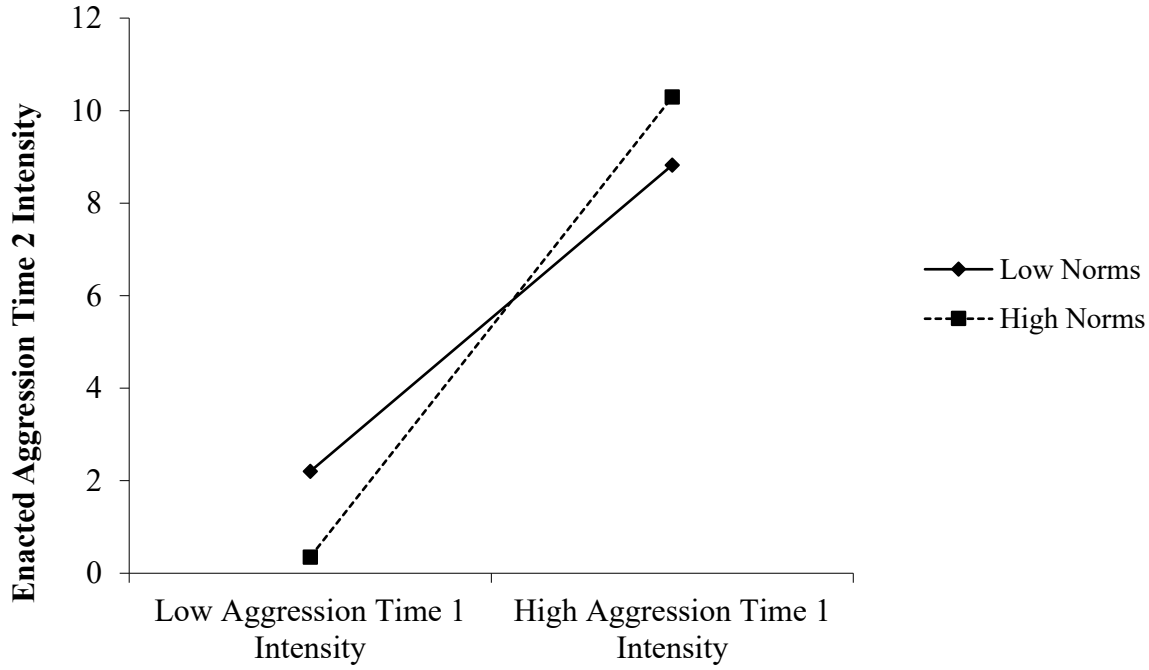


*Figure 2.8.* Norms for mistreatment moderated the relationship between enacted aggression at Time 1 intensity and enacted aggression at Time 2 intensity.

# CHAPTER 3: *Below the belt* or *above and beyond*? Employee responses to social and personal identity threats

We all pursue a positive image of ourselves and of the groups to which we belong. In all aspects of life, including at work, we have both personal identities and social identities. Our personal identities are drawn from our own unique talents and characteristics, while our social identities are drawn from group memberships. The work we do and context in which we do it can have implications for our personal and social identities. Work experiences, such as our sense of accomplishment for a job well done and competence as a professional, inform our personal identity in part. Social group memberships at work (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), including the organization itself, a unit or department one is member of, or a group of close work friends, apprise our social identities.

While previous research has outlined that organizations play an important role in shaping one's identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; He & Brown, 2013), more research is needed to understand the role of personal and social identity *threats* on individuals' behaviour at work (Petriglieri, 2011). Work-related personal and social identities can be threatened (Petriglieri, 2011). Researchers suggest that there are times when we receive information that counters or threatens the positive image of we have of ourselves, such as being insulted or having our competence questioned, leading us to perceive a personal identity threat (Bies, 1999; Steele, 1988). There are also times when we receive information that counters the positive image of a social group we belong to, such as when a group is devalued, likely resulting the perception of social identity threat (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Along with these threats to our identity come concomitant implications for

workplace behaviour, such as mistreatment and aggression (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Aquino & Douglas, 2003).

Identity threats motivate restoration of a positive sense of self by defending the threatened identity (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996; Felson, 1992; Inzlicht & Kang, 2010; Maass, Cadinu, Guarnieri, & Grasselli, 2003). There are two probable identity defense strategies. Research has suggested that individuals aggressively retaliate against the source of the threat (Inzlicht & Kang, 2010). Further, individuals may engage in behaviors that strengthen the threatened identity (Branscombe et al., 1999). For instance, research has found that engaging helping behaviours reinforce ones own group's positive status (Levine, Prosser, Evans, & Reicher, 2005).

The first goal of this study is to extend work on identity threats at work by examining two behavioural responses to it: A defensive and negative response in the form of workplace aggression and an identity-fortifying and positive response, OCB. OCB refers to employees' discretionary courteous and team-oriented behavior that positively contributes to the overall functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988). Examining OCB as a response to identity threat allows for exploration of whether negative experiences, such as identity threats, motivate positive discretionary work behaviors. The notion that a negative experience can motivate a more positive set of behaviours in response has received limited research attention in the organizational behavioural literature. Organizational behavior research has generally examined positive traits and organizational contexts that make positive contributions to organizations (e.g., Borman, Penner, Allen, & Motowidlo, 2001; Organ & Ryan, 1995) and negative traits and organizational contexts that predict counterproductive behaviors (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hershcovis et al.,

2007). However, researchers have called for examinations of the positive outcomes of identity (Dutton, Roberts, & Bednar, 2009), and to advance extant work (e.g., Aquino & Douglas, 2003), by examining the connection between identity threats, organizational experiences, and workplace behaviour (Petriglieri, 2011).

The second goal of this study, in line with calls for more nuanced examinations of the conditions under which identity threats lead to both positive and negative outcomes (Petriglieri, 2011), was to examine the theoretically-relevant moderators of narcissism and identification with one's organization on the relationship between identity threats and aggression or OCB. Both moderators represent a form of investment. Narcissism represents a high level of investment in one's personal sense of self; identification with one's organization represents an investment in one's connection to their employing organization. For both moderators, individuals are likely to place a high degree of importance on maintaining a positive perception of one's self or one's work group, respectively.

In the present study, I examined personal identity threats by looking at identity threatening behaviours from others at work. I also looked at social identity threats by investigating identity threatening behaviours directed toward one's workgroup by an outgroup, namely customers, clients, and/or patients. Customers, clients, and patients are commonly described as organizational outsiders in organizational behaviour research (e.g., Grandey et al., 2007; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Schat & Kelloway, 2005) inasmuch as they are not employed by the organization, may have different behavioural conduct expectations than employees (e.g., the more the customer complains and is abusive, the more the organization is willing to give into their demands; Andreasen, 1988), and are often defined as a distinct group to which the employee is providing service (Gutek, 1995).

**Identity and Work-Related Identities**

Identity refers to one's sense of self and is made up of personal and social aspects (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).[11] Personal identity refers to an individual's personal sense of self and is derived from one's unique features, including personal characteristics (e.g., hair color, height), abilities (e.g., cognitive reasoning, physical ability), and traits (e.g., conscientiousness, trait anger) (Erez & Earley, 1993). Social identity, on the other hand, refers to the aspects of one's self-concept derived from social group memberships (Tajfel, 1981). One can identify with several social groups simultaneously (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), for example, there are social groups based on gender identity, cultural group, and organizational membership to name a few.

Work can be an important source of identity (M. G. Pratt, 1998). People spend considerable time at work, and their organization, occupation, work itself, and coworkers often become central to individuals' personal and social identities (Elsbach, 1999; M. G. Pratt, 1998). At work, aspects of one's personal identity become salient while performing the job. For example, one's abilities, strengths, traits, job-related knowledge, competence, and conscientiousness are applied in performing job tasks. Social identity also contributes to individuals' self-concept through associations with social groups (Tajfel, 1974). When identification with a group occurs, the individual perceives characteristics of the group as personal characteristics and often behave consistent with group norms (Ellemers, De

[11] Researcher have suggested that there is some overlap between social and personal identities (Elsbach, 1999). For example, one's personal identity may include one's individual competence or conscientiousness as a university professor, and social identity for that same individual may include identification as a member of the peer group of professors, who may be judged as a group. However, the focus of personal identity is on one's self as a unique individual that is subject to others' interpersonal treatment and scrutiny, and the focus of one's social identity is the groups to which one belongs, also subject to others' scrutiny. Further, an individual chooses which identities they wish to associate with in a given situation (Erez & Earley, 1993). For example, an individual may emphasize their competence as a professor at a job interview and their connection with their family at a community picnic.

Gilder, & Haslam, 2004). Further, individuals are particularly likely to identify with a group when that group contributes to their sense of self in a positive way (Ellemers, 1993), such as a high performing team. In the workplace, one can identify with many social groups, including workgroups, departments, unions, social clubs, or the organization as a whole (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

The way we are treated by others is an important source of identity validation for individuals as it signals whether (or not) we are held in positive regard (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Steele, 1988). Negative interpersonal workplace interactions, then, can indicate that this positive regard is being called into question and/or that one's identity is of lower value relative to others (Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Petriglieri, 2011) and thus may result in identity threat (Fine, 1996; Roberts, 2005; Rothbard, 2001). Personal identity threats can occur if one's competence as an individual contributor to the organization (based on their characteristics, ideas, judgment, or abilities, performance or work ethic) is called into question (Erez & Earley, 1993). Social identity threats, on the other hand, are likely to be perceived when a social group one belongs to, such as one's organization or work group, is derogated (Branscombe et al., 1999) or portrayed as relatively undervalued as compared to another group (Elsbach, 1999).

**Identity Threats and Individual Responses**

The General Aggression Model posits that perceptions of mistreatment, in this case threats to one's personal or social identity, are formed through a cognitive appraisal process that includes immediate and secondary appraisal of a precipitating event (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Petriglieri, 2011). Immediate appraisal involves a relatively automatic and effortless process (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002) and involves a quick

judgement of whether the event is relevant to one's identity and whether the situation is beneficial or potentially harmful to identity. Immediate appraisal occurs without awareness or any purposeful thought (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002). Personal identity threat may be perceived if the event is seen as negative and personal (e.g., *they do not like me*), detrimental to one's sense of personal fairness, dignity or respect, or makes the individual feel undervalued (Bies, 1999; Lind & Tyler, 1988). To illustrate, an individual who sees someone in the audience yawning during their presentation will only perceive it as an identity threat if immediate appraisal leads them to conclude that the audience member found them boring. If the individual believes that the yawn was due to the audience member not sleeping well, the behavior will be seen as irrelevant to their personal identity. This process is akin to attributional processes in which individuals decide whether an event is the result of internal (personal) or external (situational) forces (Martinko, Harvey, & Dasborough, 2011; Weiner, 2011).

Next, if a potential for harm to one's identity to perceived following immediate appraisal and the individual has the time and cognitive resources needed, secondary appraisal follows (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002). In the secondary appraisal process, individuals determine the actions they will take to respond to the threat by engaging in more thoughtful consideration of the situation, the possible behavioural responses, and outcomes as well as consideration of the options for coping with the threat (Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen, & DeLongis, 1986). Possible negative behavioural outcomes of this process are judgement-driven and affect-driven behaviours (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Judgement-driven behaviour are the result of well considered decisions (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), such as withdrawal (Bunk & Magley, 2013). Affect-driven behaviours,

on the other hand, are more direct reactions to emotion-invoking experiences (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), such as finding ways to sabotage other's work and engaging in deviance towards the organization (Bunk & Magley, 2013). In addition, positive coping behaviours include personal control or mastery, which is marked by whether the individuals feel able to control or influence the outcome of the situation (Thompson, 1981) and seeking social support from coworkers as a way of feeling valued and cared for by others (Wills, 1991). Thus, both positive and negative responses are possible outcomes of the perceptions of identity threats (Petriglieri, 2011). In the present study, I examine two behavioral responses to identity threats, one negative and one positive: Aggression and OCB.

**Aggression as a response to personal identity threat.** When faced with *personal* identity threats, individuals may be motivated to retaliate for several reasons, including the desire to reaffirm a damaged identity, to restore fairness, to deter future threats, and/or they may believe that there is no longer an obligation to be polite (Baumeister et al., 1996; Felson & Steadman, 1983; Tedeschi & Felson, 1994). Regardless of the motivation, it is clear that identity threat can result in involuntary stress reactions (Schmader & Beilock, 2012) that can deplete the self-regulatory resources typically governing control over aggressive behavior (DeWall, Baumeister, Stillman, & Gailliot, 2007; Stucke & Baumeister, 2006). Indeed, studies have reported that individuals were more likely to retaliate aggressively following a personal insult (Felson, 1992) or being humiliated (Toch, 1993). Further, employees who frequently experienced identity threats at work, such as challenges to their competence, dignity, or self-worth, were more likely to engage in higher levels of antisocial behavior (Aquino & Douglas, 2003). In this study, I extend previous

research by examining the temporal order of the personal identity threat-workplace aggression relationship, that is, does personal identity threat precede workplace aggression? I propose the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 1:* Experiencing personal identity threats from others in the work environment will have a positive relationship with enacted workplace aggression towards customers.

**Aggression as a response to social identity threat.** Individuals seek to maintain a positive image of the social groups to which they belong (i.e., their 'ingroup'). When individuals perceive that a member of their outgroup has done something belittling to their ingroup (Flippen, Hornstein, Siegal, & Weitzman, 1996), they may respond by discriminating against, derogating, or engaging in other forms of retaliation towards an outgroup (Inzlicht & Kang, 2010; Maass et al., 2003). For instance, one study demonstrated that employees' who experienced social identity threats and were part of a collectivist national culture (that places a value on social group membership), reported feeling more driven to seek revenge when they experienced social identity threat (Kim, Shapiro, Aquino, Lim, & Bennett, 2008). Another study found that when men's gender identity was threatened they were more likely to send a harassing email to a female (Maass et al., 2003). In addition, research has examined women who reported an awareness of the stereotype that women (as a social group) are poorer in mathematical ability than men (Inzlicht & Kang, 2010). These women took a math test and were given negative feedback on their performance, thus reinforcing their stereotype about women's math ability and resulted in the perception of identity threat among the women (Inzlicht & Kang, 2010). To examine responses to identity threat, the researchers provided one group with coping

resources to deal with the social identity threat and no resources to the other. The group without coping resources was more likely to be aggressive in a subsequent laboratory task (Inzlicht & Kang, 2010). Other research reported that when Belgian Flemish speakers encountered an out-group member who insulted their social identity they were more likely to retaliate with obscenities directed towards the out-group member than those in an experimental control group (Bourhis, Giles, Leyens, & Tajfel, 1979). Overall, these findings suggest that individuals may react aggressively to social identity threat. Therefore, I propose a positive relationship between these two variables and examine the temporal order of them with the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 2:* Experiencing social identity threats from customers (an outgroup) will be positively associated with aggression towards customers.

**Social identity threats and OCB.** Another possible response to social identity threats is positive and seeks to fortify ones' in-group. When a social identity threat is perceived, individuals have shown increased group solidarity and cohesion with their ingroup (Grant & Brown, 1995; Hogg, 1992) to oppose the threatening outgroup (Brewer, 1999) and protect and fortify the positive perceptions of the ingroup (Branscombe, Wann, Noel, & Coleman, 1993; Doosje, Branscombe, Spears, & Manstead, 1998). As mentioned earlier, positive coping responses to experiences, such as identity threats, include seeking control and/or influence over the outcome of the situation (Thompson, 1981). One way to exercise a sense of control is taking action to reduce the stress, referred to as problem focused coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Engaging in helping behaviour to reaffirm the group's threatened positive value (Ellemers et al., 1999; Haslam et al., 2000; van Knippenberg, 2000) and social position (Ouwerkerk, de Gilder, & de Vries, 2000) while

providing social support for coping with the identity threat is one way of regaining a sense of control. Several studies have suggested that individuals were more likely to help people who they perceived to be an ingroup member (Dovidio et al., 1997; Levine et al., 2002; Sturmer, Snyder, & Omoto, 2005), and some research has demonstrated that experiencing mistreatment encouraged helping behaviour (Wang et al., 2011). Specifically, in a recent study, employees who experienced mistreatment by customers were more likely to help others on the following day (Yue et al., 2017). However, what is not clear is whether social identity threats motivate helping behaviour.

In the present study, I examine OCB as a form of employee helping behaviour directed toward coworkers and the organization that is discretionary. Examples of OCB include mentoring new employees without a formal assignment to do so, taking on extra tasks to help a sick coworker, or completing work assignments before the deadline. Employees use OCB to strengthen the effectiveness and performance of their organization (Koys, 2001; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997) as well as to strengthen social relationships within the workplace (Bolino, Turnley, & Bloodgood, 2002). Given the research suggesting that people are motivated to help ingroup members and that helping may be particularly motivated when their ingroup is derogated, I propose:

*Hypothesis 3:* Experiencing social identity threats from customers (an outgroup) will have a positive relationship with OCB towards coworkers and the organization (an ingroup).[12]

[12] There are no hypotheses examining a potential relationship between personal identity threat and organizational citizenship behaviour. Personal identity threats are individually-focused and increases self-serving bias, where individuals tend to use external attributions to explain events, such as luck, unfair outcomes, or difficulty (Campbell & Sedikides, 1999). In response, individuals are likely to enact defensive behaviours, which may occur at the expense of one's coworkers (Campbell & Sedikides, 1999). Unlike, social identity threat, there is little theoretical guidance on potential positive outcomes from personal identity threat.

***Moderators of the identity threat-behavioral outcomes relationship.*** Individuals' responses to identity threats may depend on relevant moderating factors (Turner, 1982). Herein, I look at two moderators of the relationships of identity threats with workplace aggression and OCB, respectively, narcissism and organizational identification. I propose that narcissism will moderate the relationship between personal identity threat and aggression, and that organizational identification will moderate the relationships between social identity threats and both aggression and OCB. Each of these constructs represent a personal investment in one's sense of identity. Narcissism represents an investment in maintaining a very high level of self-esteem, and therefore I see it as particularly relevant to an individuals' reaction to personal identity threat. Organizational identification involves and investment in one's place or fit within a social group, and therefore I see it as particularly relevant to an individuals' reaction to social identity threat.

*Narcissism as a moderator of the personal identity threat and workplace aggression relationship***.** Individuals with a highly inflated and unstable self-esteem, referred to as narcissism, are more likely to exhibit aggression, and to do so at higher levels (Baumeister, Bushman, & Campbell, 2000; Baumeister et al., 1996). Narcissists are often described as seeking attention, feeling self-important, asserting dominance in social situations, and having a grandiose sense of self (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). In addition, those high in narcissism tend to have an unstable sense of self (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). That is, when narcissists encounter evidence that counters their inflated self-perceptions, they are more sensitive to the possibility of personal identity threats during primary appraisal. As a result, they are more reactive when they encounter situations that threaten their self-image, making it more likely that they will respond to

identity threats with aggression (Baumeister et al., 2000, 1996). In line with this perspective, researchers have found that narcissists reported higher levels of anger, hostility proneness (Kernis, Grannemann, & Barclay, 1989), and aggression in response to personal identity threat (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). For instance, research has suggested that individuals with elevated levels of narcissism were more likely to drive aggressively because they perceived common negative driving situations as personal insults (Schreer, 2002). Based on this research, I propose the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 4:* Narcissism will moderate the relationship between personal identity threats from others in the work environment and workplace aggression towards customers. Specifically, personal identity threats will be more strongly related to workplace aggression when narcissism is high.

*Organizational identification as a moderator of the relationship between social identity threat and workplace aggression***.** Researchers have suggested that individuals attended to and were more likely to respond to identity-related information when that information pertained to an identity that they considered important (Stryker & Serpe, 1994). Though an individual may be a member of many social groups, not every group is equally important to the individuals' identity. Individuals who are highly identified with a particular social group define themselves, at least partially, in terms of the group, see the group membership as important to their sense of self, and will internalize the group's successes and failures as their own (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). These individuals also think and behave in ways that enhance or restore their group's positive image and by extension, their own image (Branscombe et al., 1999).

For this reason, it is reasonable to expect that individuals with strong organizational identification are more likely to strongly defend the organization (through aggression) and/or attempt to restore the integrity of the organization (through OCBs) when threatened as the threat is of greater concern to their own identity (Bourhis et al., 1979; Branscombe et al., 1999). Indeed, with respect to aggression, research has suggested that individuals who were highly identified with a religion who perceived a conflict between their religious in-group and an out-group were more likely to have aggressive intentions towards the out-group (Struch & Schwartz, 1989). Further, sports spectator aggression research has suggested that stronger group identification is a critical determinant of arousal, hostility, and aggression towards out-groups particularly when the in-group is defeated, a threat to team success and competence (Branscombe & Wann, 1992). As such, I expect:

*Hypothesis 5.* Organizational identification will moderate the relationship between social identity threats and workplace aggression such that when organizational identification is high, individuals who experience greater social identity threats will be more likely to engage in workplace aggression.

*Organizational identification as a moderator of the relationship between social identity threat and OCB.* With respect to OCB, people who are highly identified with their organization, by definition, see the organization's reputation, successes, and failures to be particularly important to their sense of self. When one's organization is criticized, an individual who is highly identified with the organization holds their own identity on the line, and they are particularly motivated to seek ways to reaffirm the threatened identity and put their group in a more favourable light (Dietz-Uhler & Murrell, 1998). These actions serve to restore the ingroup's position relative to the outgroup (Branscombe et al.,

1999; Ouwerkerk et al., 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Studies have found that highly identified individuals preferred giving rewards to an in-group versus an outgroup (Hackel, Zaki, & Van Bavel, 2017), and gave more to an in-group than an outgroup when the ingroup was under threat (Ellemers, Speakers, & Doosje, 1999). Further, within the workplace, individuals who were more committed to their organization and had a strong sense of self, were more likely to engage in OCB (Johnson & Chang, 2010). Based on this research, it is possible that, within the workplace, highly identified employees facing social identity threat towards their organization, would respond through the discretionary effort of OCB to fortify favorable views of their organization. Thus, I propose the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 6.* Organizational identification will moderate the relationship between social identity threats and OCB such that when organizational identification is high, individuals who experience greater social identity threats will be more likely to engage in OCB.

**Overview of the Present Study**

The methodological approach for this study was to measure identity threats, aggression, and OCB longitudinally on three measurement occasions with three weeks between each measurement occasion. Personal identity threats were measured by assessing participants threats experienced from others in the work environment, while social identity threats focused on threats from an outgroup, namely customer, patients, or clients, directed towards an ingroup, one's organization. Outgroup-targeted aggression and ingroup-targeted OCB were measured as the outcomes. A longitudinal design was used to examine patterns in participants' behaviour over time and to assess temporal order (Burkholder &

Harlow, 2003; Kenny, 2014). I used cross-lagged models to test the hypotheses. These models are a type of structural equation model commonly used with longitudinal data (Selig & Little, 2012). Cross-lagged models test autoregressive effects within variables across time and the cross-effects between two sets of variables across time. In the current study, as can be seen in Figure 3.1, the autoregressive effects within identity threats at Time 1, 2, and 3 as well as the autoregressive effects within discretionary behaviours at Time 1, 2, and 3 are shown. Further, the cross-effects between Time 1 identity threats and Time 2 discretionary behaviours and Time 2 identity threats and Time 3 discretionary behaviours are also shown. This approach also allows the testing of reciprocal effects or reverse causality (Selig & Little, 2012), potentially reducing the suspicion of reverse causation in the tested models.

**Method**. To examine the hypothesized relationships, I adopted a self-report online survey. This approach was chosen due to underreporting of workplace mistreatment through formal channels, such as grievances towards one's employer (Painter, 1987; Snyder et al., 2007; Tutt, 1989). Using this approach, I examined the relationships between personal and social identity threats, the moderators, and resulting discretionary behaviours longitudinally over three measurement occasions with three weeks between survey administrations. At each time point, the online survey was administered to the same participants.

***Participants.*** Participants were recruited through Qualtrics Panels from Precision Sample's pool of potential participants. At the time of data collection, Precision Sample had over 2 800 000 individuals in the United States, Canada, United Kingdom, and Australia who had signed up to take part in research studies. To determine the target

sample size, I reviewed common guidelines for sample size in structural equation models, which suggested at least 200 observations (Tomarken & Waller, 2005) and between 5:1 to 10:1 ratio of sample size to parameters estimated in the model (Bentler & Choi, 1987). From these guidelines, I estimated a target sample size of over 200 or between 90 to 360 observations (parameters in the models ranged from 18 to 36 with the moderator models having high numbers of parameters). To account for potential poor-quality data, outliers, and missing data, I set a target sample size of 250. Precision Sample used 250 as a guideline in recruiting participants along with 30% oversampling anticipating that not everyone invited would choose to participate. Precision Sample randomly invited individuals from their pool who were residents of the United States and Canada until the survey completion neared the target number of participants. At Time 1, Precision Sample invited 70% more individuals to participate in the survey as they anticipated initial response rates of 20-30%, in line with Precision Samples average response rates and previous research using online surveys (Sax, Gilmartin, & Bryant, 2003). In addition, to aid with data quality, Precision Samples checked IP addresses to ensure participants had not already completed the study as a different user and that individuals were completing the survey from the United States and Canada.

At Time 1, 758 individuals completed the survey, at Time 2, 524 individuals completed the survey, and at Time 3, 341 individuals completed the survey. Attrition between survey waves was between 30-35%. This rate is in line with previous longitudinal mistreatment studies, for example, studies reported attrition rates between 30-60%, albeit attrition rates varied depending on the time between study waves (Hoobler, Rospenda, Lemmon, & Rosa, 2010; Nielsen, Hetland, Matthiesen, & Einarsen, 2012; Rodríguez-

Muñoz et al., 2009; Tepper, 2000). To check for the potential influence of selection bias and if study variables were influenced by attrition, I compared responses to demographic variables using independent samples t-tests among those who completed the study and those who did not (Cavallari, Eisen, Wegman, & O'Neill, 2011). I compared these groups on gender, age, education, job tenure, hours worked per week, and country of residence using t-tests. The t-test results showed that the groups were not significantly different in their demographic makeup.

As discussed below, initial data quality checks reduced the final sample to 254 full-time employees from the United States and Canada.[13] Of these individuals, 132 identified as male and 122 identified as female. Participants ranged in age from 20 to 69 ($M$ = 47.53, $SD$ = 13.23). Participants tenure with their current organization ranged from 1 year to 46 years ($M$ = 13.76, $SD$ = 10.29). As a thank you for time spent completing the study, Precision Sample assigned points to participants that can be traded for gift certificates from several companies.

***Measures.*** At all three time points, identity threats, organizational identification, narcissism, OCB, and workplace aggression were measured with three weeks between survey administration. At Time 1, demographic variables, including age and gender were measured as well as work information, including industry, job, and tenure. Measures were administered to participants in an online survey format and all participants were asked to review the informed consent information prior to beginning each survey.

[13] Data from Study 2 and 3 were collected in the same surveys, using different scales. That is, although some variables are measured in both studies (e.g., workplace aggression), two scales were used to measure the construct with one used in Study 2 and one used in Study 3.

*Personal identity threats***.** To measure personal identity threats, I used Aquino and Douglas'(2003) nine-item measure of personal identity threat. Participants rated how often they experienced personal identity threats from others in the work environment (e.g., supervisors, coworkers or customers/clients/patients) over the past month on a five-point scale (1 = Never, 2 = 1–3 times, 3 = 4–6 times, 4 = 7–9 times, and 5 = 10 or more times). For example, participants were asked how often someone "did something to make you look bad" or "criticized you unfairly" while they were at work. Across the three waves of the study, Cronbach's alphas were greater that .93, suggesting acceptable reliability.

*Social identity threats.* For social identity threats, I used adapted items from three existing scales. I adapted two items from Aquino and Douglas' (2003) scale, two items from Crocker and Luhtanen's (1992) scale, and one item from Wilson and Holmvall's (2013) scale (see Table 3.1). I chose items that closely reflected the definition of social identity threats, that is, items that described the value of one's social group being threatened (Tajfel, 1981). Participants rated how often they experienced social identity threats targeting their organization (an ingroup) from customers, clients, and/or patients (an out group) over the past month on the same five-point scale as for personal identity threats (1=Never, 2=1–3 times, 3=4–6 times, 4=7–9 times, and 5=10 or more times). An example social identity threat item states, "someone made negative remarks about your organization" and "someone questioned your organization's ability to get things done." To examine the scale's initial factor structure and reliability, I computed item-total statistics, Cronbach's alpha, and conducted exploratory factor analyses. Analyses showed Cronbach's alphas at Time 1, 2, and 3, were .81, .83, and .83, respectively. All corrected item-total correlations were above .39, indicating that the items had a sufficient level of

discrimination (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Exploratory factor analyses suggested the presence of two factors. However, the second factor included the two items that were the only positively worded items on the scale, despite these items being recorded in the dataset. This finding may suggest that the presence of a construct is different from the absence of a construct. For example, a lack of positive praise for an organization is different from explicit criticism of the organization, even if an item is recoded for data analysis. As a result, I deleted items 5 and 6 from the final scale. Cronbach's alphas for the final scale were .92, .92, and .91 across the surveys in this study, suggesting good reliability.

*Workplace aggression.* Greenberg and Barling's (1999) adapted 25-item measure of workplace aggression was used to measure the frequency of aggressive behaviours towards customers. Participants were asked about the frequency of experiencing aggressive behaviors while at work on a seven-point scale (0 = never, 1 = once, 2 = twice, 3 = 3-5 times, 4 = 6-10 times, 5 = 11-20 times, 6 = more than 20 times). Scale items were averaged to calculate the composite variable. Sample items asked the frequency in which participants "swore at" or "threatened to hit" customers. As this scale is a behavioural inventory, some reliability indices, such as Cronbach's alpha are not appropriate (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005). Test re-test reliability was instead examined (MacKenzie et al., 2005), showing moderate levels of reliability, ranging from $r = .50$, $p < .001$ to $r = .63$, $p < .001$.

*OCB.* I adopted the 16-item scale by Lee and Allen (2012) on OCB directed toward individuals working in the organization (e.g., coworkers) and the organization itself. Participants reported how often they engaged in a series of helping behaviors on a seven-

point scale (1 = *Never*, 7 = *Always*). Sample items asked, how often participants "help others who have been absent" and "attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image." Cronbach's alphas across the three time points were greater than .94, suggesting acceptable reliability.

*Organization identification.* Employees' identification with their organization was measured with Mael's (1988) 6-item Identification with Psychological Group measure (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). The scale was adapted to say *my company* rather than *my school.* The items were measured on a 5-item agree-disagree scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree). An example item stated, "When someone criticizes my company, it feels like a personal insult." Cronbach's alphas across the three waves of the study were above .91, suggesting good reliability.

*Narcissism.* A 13-item short version of the Narcissism Personality Inventory measured narcissism (Gentile et al., 2013). Participants were asked to respond where the statement was true or false for them. Sample items stated, "I like to look at my body" and "I am a born leader." Cronbach's alphas across the three waves of the survey were .77, suggesting acceptable reliability.

**Procedure.** All measures, except demographic and work questions, were presented in a randomized order to reduce potential item priming effects (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Item priming effects refer to the position of the variables in a survey and can cause earlier variables in the survey to be more salient to the participants and suggest to the participant that there is a causal relationship with other variables in the survey (see for example, Podsakoff et al., 2003).

To control data quality, two procedures were followed during data collection. First, two attention check questions were included in each survey. These questions stated, "Attention check: If you are reading this question, please select strongly disagree". Participants who failed the two attention checks on the survey were flagged for closer screening. Second, participants who completed the survey much quicker than pre-testing times were also flagged for closer screening. Pre-testing suggested that completing the surveys took approximately 15 minutes. As such, individuals taking five minutes or less to complete the survey were more closely screened. Many of these participants also failed attention checks and provided repetitive responses to questions (i.e., answered many items in a row with the same response). In total, 15 participants were excluded from analyses following data quality checking for data quality concerns.

**Results**

All variables were screened for out of range values, outliers, linearity, normality, independence of observation, and multicollinearity. There were multivariate outliers identified by Mahalanobis' and Cook's Distance. As the outliers did not influence the significance of the results, they were included in the statistical analyses. I used cross-lagged autoregressive structural equation model analyses to examine the hypotheses. Mplus version 8.0 was used to test the cross-lagged autoregressive models. Positive skewness is typical in workplace aggression research as participants commonly report no or lower frequency of aggression. As a result, I used an estimator that can better handle non-normal data, called MLR. This estimator uses maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors needed for the workplace aggression data's characteristic non-

normal distribution. In addition, the data was standardized using z-scores to further correct the non-normal distribution for analysis.

Correlations, means, and Cronbach's alpha reliability for all study variables are presented in Table 3.2. For each hypothesis, I tested three structural equation models using Mplus (see Figure 3.1). First, a stability model tested whether the same variable predicted itself across the three-time points. For example, Time 1 personal identity threat predicting Time 2 personal identity threat, and in turn, predicting Time 3 personal identity threat. Second, to examine reverse causation, I added cross-lagged paths to the initial stability model in the opposite than direction to what I expected (i.e., from the dependent variables to the independent variables). Third, I added cross-lagged paths to the initial stability model in the hypothesized directions. For each model, I used Hu and Bentler's (1999) recommendations for fit indices levels in structural equation modeling to assess acceptable fit. Namely, I used fit indices levels for CFI and TLI values of close to or greater than .95 and RMSEA and SRMR values of lower than .06 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). After testing the stability, reversed causation, and hypothesized models, I conducted chi-square difference tests to determine whether the hypothesized model showed superior fit to the stability and reversed causation models. To correct the chi-square value under non-normality, I used the Satorra-Bentler scaled chi square test (Satorra, 2000; Satorra & Bentler, 2001). In addition, the moderation hypotheses were tested by using the multiplicative products of the moderator variable and independent variable and adding the moderator and the multiplicative product variables to the model. The effect of the product term indicates whether moderation exists (Selig & Little, 2012).

**Main hypotheses**. Hypothesis 1 stated that personal identity threat would predict aggression experienced in the workplace across the three-time points. As can be seen in Table 2.3, results showed that the hypothesized model fitted the data. The chi square value was 4.64 (2, $n$ = 239), the CFI is .97, TLI is .80, RMSEA is .07, $p$ = .23, and SRMR = .02. The cross-lagged model showed significantly better fit to the auto-regressive stability model, $X^2_{diff}$ = 18.47, $p$ < .01, $df_{diff}$ = 8, suggesting that there was a cross lagged relationship between personal identity threat and workplace aggression. The cross-lagged model yielded significantly superior fit to the reversed causation model, suggesting that reversed causation could be ruled out, $X^2_{diff}$ = 11.63, $p$ < .01, $df_{diff}$ = 4. Figure 3.3 shows standardized coefficients and standard errors for Hypothesis 1. These findings suggested that experienced personal identity threats at one point in time predict enacted workplace aggression at a later point in time and that the hypothesize order was the likely order of the relationship, that is, there was weak evidence for the reverse causation model (workplace aggression predicting personal identity threat).

Hypothesis 2 stated that social identity threat would predict workplace aggression across three time points. As can be seen in Table 2.3, results showed that the cross lagged model fitted the data. For the cross lagged model, the chi square value was 3.17 (2, $n$ = 238), the CFI is 1, TLI is 1, RMSEA is .0, $p$ = .92, and SRMR is .005. The cross-lagged model showed significantly better fit to the auto-regressive stability model, $X^2_{diff}$ = 25.94, p < .01, $df_{diff}$ = 8, suggesting there was a relationship between the social identity threats (predictor) and workplace aggression (outcome) over time. In addition, the cross-lagged model yielded significantly superior fit to the reversed causation model, suggesting that reversed causation could be ruled out, $X^2_{diff}$ = 15.31, $p$ < .01, $df_{diff}$ = 4. Figure 3.4 shows

standardized coefficients and standard errors for Hypothesis 2. These findings supported that experienced social identity threats at one point in time predicted enacted workplace aggression at a later point in time, and that there was weak evidence for a reverse relationship between these variables.

Hypothesis 3 stated that social identity threat would predict OCB across the three-time points. As can be seen in Table 2.3, results showed support for this hypothesis. For the cross lagged model, the chi square value was 2.22 (2, $n$ = 233), the CFI is .99, TLI is .98, RMSEA is .02, $p$ = 52, and SRMR is .02. In comparison to other models, the cross-lagged model showed significantly better fit to the auto-regressive stability model, $X^2_{diff}$ = 18.93, p < .01, $df_{diff}$ = 8, suggesting there was a relationship between the social identity threats (predictor) and OCB (outcome) over time. In addition, the cross-lagged model yielded significantly superior fit to the reversed causation model, suggesting that reversed causation can be ruled out, $X^2_{diff}$ = 10.37, $p$ < .05, $df_{diff}$ = 4. Figure 3.5 shows standardized coefficients and standard errors for Hypothesis 3. Taken together, these findings suggested that experienced social identity threats at one point in time predict enacted OCB at a later point in time, and that there was weak evidence for a reverse temporal relationship between these variables.

**Moderation results.** Hypothesis 4 stated the narcissism would moderate the relationship between personal identity threats and workplace aggression, such that when narcissism was high, individuals who experienced greater personal identity threats would be more likely to engage in workplace aggression. The results showed that the test of absolute fit did not show adequate fit between the data and the model, $X^2$ (25, $n$ = 204) = 82.82, $p$ < .001, RMSEA = .11, $p$ = .001, 90% CI[.08, .13], SRMR = .10. The comparative

fit indices also did not show adequate fit, CFI = .87, TLI = .69 according to commonly accepted levels (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Standardized coefficients and standard errors for Hypothesis 4 can be seen in Figure 3.6. Thus, Hypothesis 4b was not supported; Narcissism was not a significant moderator of the relationship between personal identity threats and retaliatory workplace aggression over time.

Hypothesis 5 stated that organizational identification would moderate the relationship between social identity threats and workplace aggression. Specifically, I expected that when organizational identification was high, individuals who experienced greater levels of social identity threats would be more likely to engage in workplace aggression. Results showed good fit, $X^2$ (26, $n$ = 205) = 32.13, $p$ = .19, RMSEA = .03, $p$ = .75, 90% CI[.00, .07], SRMR = .06, CFI = .98, TLI = .96. In addition, the cross-lagged model yielded significantly superior fit to the stability ($X^2$ = 53.90, $df$ = 27, $p$ < .01) and reverse causation model ($X^2$ = 62.85, $df$ = 20, $p$ < .01). Further, the multiplicative product of identity threat X organizational identification from standardized coefficients significantly predicted workplace aggression, Time 2→3: β = -.14, p < .05, but not Time 1→Time 2: β = .10, p = .90. Figure 3.7 shows standardized coefficients and standard errors for Hypothesis 5. Taken together, organizational identification significantly moderated the relationship between experienced social identity threats and retaliatory workplace aggression between Time 2 to Time 3, but not from Time 1 to Time 2.

Post hoc multiple regression analyses examined the significant organizational identification moderation relationships more closely. First, I examined Time 1 to Time 2 moderation relationships on workplace aggression at Time 2. On step 1, I entered control variables, including Time 1 workplace aggression, Time 2 social identity threat, and Time

2 organizational identification. On Step 2, I entered social identity threat and organizational identification as main effects. On Step 3, I entered the social identity threat X organizational identification interaction term with retaliatory workplace aggression at the next time point as the dependent variable. On step 3, the omnibus results were statistically significant, $R^2 = .59$, $F(6, 151) = 13.68$, $p < .001$. However, social identity threat X organization identification did not account for significant variance over and above the main effects, $\beta = -.06$, $t\ (157) = -.88$, $p = .38$, $\Delta R^2 = .003$, $\Delta F\ (1, 151) = .38$.

Second, the Time 2 main and interaction effects of social identity threat and organizational identification were regressed on Time 3 retaliatory workplace aggression, controlling for Time 2 retaliatory workplace aggression, Time 1 social identity threat, and Time 1 organizational identification. Time 2 workplace aggression, Time 1 social identity threat and organization identification were entered as control variables on step 1. On step 3, the omnibus results were statistically significant, $R^2 = .43$, $F(6, 158) = 19.48$, $p < .001$. Figure 3.2 shows the Time 2 social identity threat X organizational identification interaction that made a statistically significant contribution to the equation, $\beta = -.15$, $t\ (164) = -2.38$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $\Delta F\ (1, 158) = 5.64$, $p < .05$. Taken together, these post hoc findings showed that Time 2 organizational identification moderated the Time 2 social identity threat and Time 3 retaliatory workplace aggression relationship, but not between Time 1 with retaliatory workplace aggression at Time 2. This finding indicated partial support for Hypothesis 5, higher levels of experienced social identity threat and organizational identification was associated with higher levels of enacted workplace aggression towards customers, later on in the model.

Hypothesis 6 stated that organizational identification would moderate the relationship between social identity threats and OCB. I expected that when organizational identification was high, individual who experienced greater levels of social identity threats would be more likely to engage in greater levels of OCB. Results showed marginally acceptable fit for the tests of absolute model fit, $X^2$ (25, $n$ = 216) = 53.19, $p$ < .001, RMSEA = .07, $p$ = .08, 95%CI[.05, .10], SRMR = .05. The comparative fit indices showed good fit, CFI = .94 and marginal fit, TLI = .87. In addition, the cross-lagged model yielded significantly superior fit to the stability and reverse causation models. However, the multiplicative product of identity threat X organizational identification did not significantly predict OCB from Time 1→Time 2: β = -.07, p = .40, nor from Time 2→3: β = .06, p = .22. Thus, Hypothesis 6 was not supported. Figure 3.8 shows standardized coefficients and standard errors for Hypothesis 6.

**Discussion**

This research aimed to advance understanding of the organizational behaviours that result from experiencing personal and social identity threats in the workplace. In this longitudinal study, I examined the role of personal identity threats in motivating workplace aggression, with narcissism as a moderator of the relationship. Personal identity threat predicted workplace aggression, but counter to my expectation, narcissism was not a significant moderator of the relationship. In addition, I examined the role of social identity threats in predicting negative (aggression) and positive (OCB) discretionary employee behaviors with organizational identification examined as a moderator of these relationships. Social identity threat predicted workplace aggression and OCB. Organizational identification was a significant moderator of the relationship between social

identity threats and workplace aggression between Time 2 and 3, but not between Time 1 and 2 and not in the relationship between social identity threats and OCB.

**Identity threats and discretionary behaviours**. The findings of the present study generally supported the assertion that experiencing identity threats exacerbated participants' aggression and OCB. With respect to personal identity threat, these threats experienced from others at work predicted participants' levels of aggression towards customers. Similarly, results showed that social identity threats targeted at the organization from outgroup members (i.e., customers) also predicted workplace aggression towards customers. These findings are in line with the extant literature that has reported that individuals have engaged in aggression to defend a threatened identity (Felson, 1978; Swann, 1990) with the goal of maintaining a positive sense of self (Baumeister et al., 1996; Felson, 1978; Inzlicht & Kang, 2010; Maass et al., 2003), regardless of whether that sense of self came from one's personal image or a social group. In either case, it is important to the individual to defend their identity. Further, these findings are consistent with Social Identity Theory and work on stereotype threat positing that once an individual has perceived an identity threat they exhaust important cognitive resources to cope with the threat (Schmader & Beilock, 2012), resulting in impulsivity (Schmader & Beilock, 2012) and aggression (DeWall et al., 2007; Inzlicht & Kang, 2010; Stucke & Baumeister, 2006).

Social identity threats from customers predicted OCB enacted to support the organization, an ingroup, over time, and the results supported this temporal order of the variables. This finding is in line with previous research that suggested that when one's group was under threat, individuals had a desire to strengthen and fortify their group (Wohl, Branscombe, & Reysen, 2010). Indeed, a recent study showed that employees'

experiences of customer mistreatment predicted higher levels of coworker helping the following day (Yue et al., 2017). The findings herein suggest that employees may go above and beyond for their employer when they experience identity threatening behaviour from the people they serve.

Considered together, the social identity threat results suggest that negative work experiences, specifically identity threats, can motivate both positive and negative discretionary work behaviors, namely aggression and OCB. Organizational behavior research has generally examined positive person and situation factors that, rationally, positively contribute in organizations (e.g., Borman et al., 2001; Organ & Ryan, 1995) and negative person and situations factors that, also rationally, counter productively contribute in organizations (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hershcovis et al., 2007). This finding extends current workplace identity threat and aggression research to suggest that positive, organizationally-supportive behaviour results from negative experiences, namely social identity threats. Not only do mistreated employees respond positively through helping others (Yue et al., 2017), but they also acted in ways that help the organization in this study. This study, however, highlights that when employees experience social identity threats, they can also respond positively in ways that contribute to the organization and support their own coping by acting to reduce the impact of the threat via problem-focused coping.

In addition, to my knowledge this was the first study that examined the impact of social identity threats on workplace aggression. This study contributed to work exploring the relationships between identity threat and organizational outcomes (Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Petriglieri, 2011). The longitudinal relationship between social identity threats and

workplace aggression, supports Anderson and Pearson's (1999) incivility spiral model. The incivility spiral model suggested that when individuals experience identity threat, the mistreatment exchanged between the parties involved will escalate into increasingly harmful behaviours, such as aggression, as found in this research. Further, the longitudinal social identity threat relationships with aggression and OCB found in this research also lend support to the pervasive influence of social groups in the workplace (Hackman, 1992), and suggest that intergroup relations influence workplace aggression.

**Moderation relationships.** I also examined whether narcissism and organizational identification moderated the identity threat—discretionary behaviors relationships. For narcissism, I predicted that this person factor would show that those high in this trait would be particularly susceptible to aggressive behaviour under threat. Contrary to this hypothesis, narcissism did not significantly moderate the relationship between personal identity threat and retaliatory workplace aggression towards customers over time. Results showed limited variability for this variable across the time points of the study. One possible explanation for this finding may be that the scale used in the study was dichotomous (yes, no), resulting in lower variability in the data. Another possible issue is that narcissism has a diagnosis incidence rate of only 1-6% in the general population (Reich, Yates, & Ndvaguba, 1989; Stinson et al., 2008).

For organizational identification, I predicted that this feeling would moderate the relationships between social identity threats and discretionary behaviour, including workplace aggression and OCB. Organizational identification significantly moderated the relationship between social identity threats and retaliatory aggression towards customers between Time 2 to 3, but not between Time 1 and 2. Counter to expectation, results for

Time 2 to 3 suggested that when highly identified individuals experienced social identity threats, they were less likely to respond with customer aggression. This finding suggests that highly identified employees may suppress their aggressive retaliation in response to social identity threat. This is somewhat contrary to previous research as researchers have found that stronger identification is associated with defensive behaviour (Bourhis et al., 1979; Branscombe et al., 1999; Inzlicht & Kang, 2010). However, it is possible that individuals who are highly identified with their organization, who desire to cast their organization in a positive light, would actively refrain from negative behaviors, such as aggression, following a social identity threat. This finding may be construed as a form of OCB in and of itself, that is, remaining calm in the face of a negative and anger-invoking experience to show the organization in a more positive light. It is notable that there may be other situational factors at play limiting aggressive responses to identity threat for highly identified individuals, such as management responses to misconduct, the likelihood of being punished, and modeling of aggressive behaviour by superiors. However, the organizational identification moderation results should be interpreted cautiously as they were not observed at all time points in the study.

Organizational identification did not significantly moderate the relationship between social identity threat and OCB. This finding was counter to earlier research suggesting that people who identified highly with a social group were more likely to help others in their group when under social identity threat (Branscombe & Wann, 1992). OCB is directed towards the organization and other employees, however engaging in this behaviour also means that customers will benefit. For example, customers would experience increased service because employees are helping each other and going above

and beyond to support the organization and each other in doing their jobs. Considering the results of the current study, to potentially buffer the impact of the social identity threat, highly identified employees may engage in other positive behaviours that do not contribute as directly to the outgroup (customers), but will support the ingroup (the workgroup) in the short term, such as efforts to build their sense of belonging to their in-group (Shnabel, Purdie-Vaughns, Cook, Garcia, & Cohen, 2013) by providing and receiving support to peers after customer mistreatment (Baranik, Wang, Gong, & Shi, 2017).

This research contributes to knowledge of workplace aggression and organizational behavior by examining the role of identity *threats* in organizations (Petriglieri, 2011). The results of this study suggest that the temporal order of the perception of identity threats precede retaliatory workplace aggression for both personal and social identity threats. This finding lends support to theoretical models of mistreatment increasing in intensity between individuals over time (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; DeWall et al., 2011; Douglas et al., 2008). However, for employees who highly identify with their organization, there seems to be an organizational-protection effect as individuals were less likely to respond aggressively to social identity threats from customers. This finding has practical implications for organizations. There are many noted benefits of highly identified employees (e.g., He & Brown, 2013), and this study contributes an additional benefit; there is a protective feature of organizational identification that may lower the likelihood of aggressive retaliation when employees are mistreated.

In addition, this study extended work on identity threats in organizations by examining positive responses to negative experiences. Organizational behavior research has focused on positive factors that positively contribute to organizations (e.g., Borman et

al., 2001; Organ & Ryan, 1995) and negative factors that counter productively contribute to organizations (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hershcovis et al., 2007). However, the findings of this study suggest that the negative experience of social identity threats can result in behaviour that is inherently positive for the organization, namely OCB. From a practical standpoint, recommending organizations increase levels of identity threats to encourage OCB is, rationally, not advisable. However, this finding does suggest that good things can come out of a bad situation.

In addition, researchers have suggested that identity threats could occur anytime a cue suggests that one's identity or one of their social identities are devalued and disregarded (Steele, Spencer, & Aronson, 2002). Further, the possibly of being in identity threatening situations is likely abundant in the workplace, particularly considering the extant research on the frequency of rudeness and entitlement of customers and clients (Grandey et al., 2007; Leblanc & Kelloway, 2002). The results of this study support the notion that perceptions of identity threat are an important area of study in organizational behaviour research.

**Limitations.** The cross-lagged models used in this study examine whether one variable precedes another or temporal order (Campbell & Kenny, 1999), lending support to personal identity threat and social identity threat preceding workplace aggression. However, cross lagged models are not able to establish cause and effect, meaning that the results of this study do not confirm that identity threats *cause* employee behaviour (Campbell & Kenny, 1999), a notable limitation of these results. However, this study does take a step towards understanding the temporal order among the variables of interest.

Further, given that this study used a self-report survey, the same measurement method was used for all variables. As a result, monomethod bias may have inflated or deflated the relationships in this study (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Monomethod bias may contribute variance to statistical results that is attributable to the measurement methods instead of the actual target constructs (Podsakoff et al., 2003), potential leading to misleading conclusions (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). To reduce the potential influence of monomethod bias, following the recommendation of Podsakoff and colleagues (2003), several steps were taken in the methodological design of the study. In particular, the predictors and criterion were examined at separate times with three weeks between measurement occasions, question order was randomized in the surveys, and participants were informed of the anonymity of their responses to the researchers.

In addition, as noted in Study 1, specification of the time lag between survey waves is crucial to observe the change that is of interest (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). This study had a timeframe of three weeks between survey administrations. Although existing aggression and violence studies were reviewed for guidance (Murphy & O'Leary, 1989; O'Leary et al., 1989), given a lack of theory on when workplace aggression interactions and retaliation should occur and how long that relationship should persist, I acknowledge that I may not have completely captured the effects this study aimed to examine. However, given the significant relationships reported in the study, the results suggest the relationships examined in this study may have been captured within this timeframe. Future theoretical work on workplace aggression should consider the timing of exchanges of aggressive behaviour to inform future longitudinal research.

**Future Research Directions.** To date, much of the literature on personal and social identity threats is experimental (for an exception see Aquino & Douglas, 2003). However, there are many fruitful opportunities to examine identity threats in context. For example, to observe group development, the effects of organizational change, and interpersonal treatment over time, such as the impact of changes in group membership, dealing with new intergroup relationships in the organization, or negative social comparisons, among groups with histories and futures (Doosje, Spears, & Ellemers, 2002, p. 73). Further, several threatening environments have been found to reduce performance (Inzlicht & Ben-Zeev, 2000; Steele et al., 2002), suggesting that identity threats in organizations may be associated with diminished job performance, with concomitant implications for organizations. Thus, future research should examine the types and sources of identity threats that may lead to decreased job performance as well as increases in positive behaviours, as suggested by this study.

In addition, researchers have examined the important role that authorities, such as supervisors, play in distributing resources, promotion decisions, and work assignments (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002) as well as the serious impact abusive supervisors have on employees (Tepper, 2000). However, social identity perspectives suggest that authorities also provide information on the individual's value to the group (Smith, Tyler, & Huo, 2003) and the quality of treatment from authorities indicates identity-relevant information to individuals (Tyler & Smith, 1999). For example, mistreatment from authorities communicates that individuals are marginal or excluded from the group or organization (Smith et al., 2003). Therefore, future research should examine identity threats from organizational authorities, such as supervisors, as this type of mistreatment may predict

employees' discretionary behaviours to reinforce their value to the group in their supervisor's eye.

## Conclusion

In conclusion, this study aimed to extend workplace identity threat research by examining discretionary behavioral outcomes of personal and social identity threats and moderators of these relationships. In this research, workplace aggression and OCB as negative and positive behavioural outcomes, respectively, of identity threats were examined. Results showed that personal identity threats led to retaliatory workplace aggression, and that workplace aggression and OCB were outcomes of social identity threats.

Table 3.1

*Social Identity Threat Scale Items*

| No. | Item | Source Adapted From | Time 1 Item-Total Correlation | Time 2 Item-Total Correlation | Time 3 Item-Total Correlation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Made negative remarks about your organization | Wilson & Holmvall, 2013 | .68 | .68 | .72 |
| 2 | Questioned your organization's ability to get things done | Aquino & Douglas, 2003 | .70 | .73 | .69 |
| 3 | Judged your organization in an unfair manner | Aquino & Douglas, 2003 | .67 | .74 | .70 |
| 4 | Said your organization was ineffective compared to others | Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992 | .66 | .68 | .63 |
| 5 | Said your organization was good* + | Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992 | .40 | .45 | .50 |
| 6 | In general, your organization is respected by others* + | Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992 | .39 | .39 | .49 |
| 7 | In general, others think that your organization is unworthy. | Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992 | .53 | .54 | .45 |

*Note.* *Item recoded for analysis.

+ Item subsequently removed from the final scale.

Table 3.2

*Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations Among the Study Variables*

| Variable | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. T1 PID Threat | 1.40 | .69 | (.94) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. T1 SID Threat | 1.68 | .90 | .57* | (.92) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. T1 Aggression | 1.15 | .42 | .54* | .35* | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. T1 OCB | 3.77 | .94 | .21* | .12 | .10 | (.94) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. T1 Narcissism | 1.54 | .24 | -.08 | -.04 | .04 | -.09 | (.77) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. T1 Org ID | 3.64 | .87 | .20* | -.12 | -.13** | .15* | -.16* | (.91) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. T2 PID Threat | 1.32 | .59 | .71* | .52* | .45* | .15* | -.04 | -.21* | (.93) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8. T2 SID Threat | 1.62 | .92 | .38* | .72* | .21* | .06 | .01 | -.08 | .42* | (.92) | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9. T2 Aggression | 1.12 | .36 | .27* | .28* | .63* | -.05 | -.09 | -.08 | .41* | .29* | - | | | | | | | | | |
| 10. T2 OCB | 3.71 | .94 | .26* | .11 | .15** | .66* | -.04 | .22* | .24* | .09 | .07 | (.95) | | | | | | | | |
| 11. T2 Narcissism | 1.55 | .25 | -.07 | -.001 | -.08 | -.13* | .78 | -.16* | -.07 | .01 | -.11 | -.04 | (.77) | | | | | | | |
| 12. T2 Org ID | 3.63 | .85 | .21* | -.20* | -.15** | .05 | -.21* | .76* | .20* | -.19* | -.13** | .20* | -.16* | (.91) | | | | | | |
| 13. T3 PID Threat | 1.28 | .57 | .71* | .52* | .37* | .22* | -.03 | -.19* | .72* | .42* | .41* | .23* | -.06 | -.20* | (.94) | | | | | |
| 14. T3 SID Threat | 1.56 | .85 | .36* | .61* | .27* | .16* | .01 | -.01 | .39* | .71* | .24* | .13* | .02 | -.12 | .45* | (.91) | | | | |
| 15. T3 Aggression | 1.14 | .46 | .33* | .17* | .50* | -.01 | -.11 | -.16* | .40* | .18* | .46* | .02 | -.08 | -.17* | .38* | .38 | - | | | |
| 16. T3 OCB | 3.68 | .92 | .12 | -.03 | .01 | .64* | -.07 | .22* | .06 | -.004 | .03 | .67* | -.21* | .28* | .11 | .08 | .03 | (.95) | | |
| 17. T3 Narcissism | 1.54 | .25 | -.10 | -.04 | .07 | -.09 | .83* | -.15* | -.03 | .01 | -.09 | -.07 | .83* | -.25* | .02 | -.08 | .01 | -.15** | (.77) | |
| 18. T3 Org ID | 3.58 | .98 | .15 | -.17* | -.16** | .04 | -.14* | .75* | .15* | -.11 | -.07 | .15* | -.14* | .82* | -.19* | -.02 | -.16* | .24 | -.22* | (.94) |

*Notes.* $n = 218$. Where relevant internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's coefficient alpha) in parentheses on the diagonal. Personal identity threat, social identity threat, and organizational identification were measured on a five-point scale. Aggression and OCB were measured on a seven-point scale. Narcissism was measured on a two-point scale. Higher values for all measures indicate more of the construct. T1 = Variable measured at Time 1, T2 = Variable measured at Time 2, T3 = Variable measured at Time 3.

* $p < .01$., ** $p < .05$.

Table 3.3

*Structural Equation Model Results for Competing Models Testing Hypothesis 1-3.*

| Model | $X^2$ | Df | RMSEA | CFI | TLI | SRMR | $\Delta X^2$ | $\Delta df$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Hypothesis 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Hypothesized | 4.64 | 2 | .05 | .97 | .80 | .02 | | |
| Stability | 23.10* | 10 | .08 | .86 | .80 | .12 | 18.47* | 8 |
| Reverse | 11.47** | 6 | .05 | .94 | .87 | .06 | 11.63* | 4 |
| Hypothesis 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Hypothesized | .32 | 2 | .001 | 1.0 | 1.0 | .05 | | |
| Stability | 28.94 | 10 | .09** | .83 | .77 | .09 | 25.94* | 8 |
| Reverse | 19.92 | 6 | .08 | .89 | .72 | .08 | 15.31* | 4 |
| Hypothesis 3 | | | | | | | | |
| Hypothesized | 2.22 | 2 | .02 | .99 | .97 | .02 | | |
| Stability | 22.07* | 10 | .07 | .84 | .77 | .11 | 18.93* | 8 |
| Reverse | 14.07 | 6 | .06 | .91 | .78 | .08 | 10.37** | 4 |

Notes: *$p < .01$, ** $p < .05$

Table 3.4

*Structural Equation Model Results for Competing Models Testing Hypothesis 4-6.*

| Model | $X^2$ | Df | RMSEA | CFI | TLI | SRMR | $\Delta X^2$ | *Df* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Hypothesis 4 | | | | | | | | |
| Hypothesized | 82.82* | 25 | .11 | .87 | .69 | .10 | | |
| Stability | 196.86* | 52 | .12 | .68 | .63 | .13 | 109.37* | 27 |
| Reverse | 138.30* | 40 | .09 | .79 | .66 | .11 | 53.48* | 15 |
| Hypothesis 5 | | | | | | | | |
| Hypothesized | 53.19* | 25 | .07 | .94 | .87 | .05 | | |
| Stability | 106.55* | 52 | .07** | .89 | .88 | .09 | 53.90* | 27 |
| Reverse | 109.29* | 46 | .06* | .84 | .77 | .10 | 62.85* | 20 |
| Hypothesis 6 | | | | | | | | |
| Hypothesized | 53.19* | 25 | .07 | .94 | .87 | .05 | | |
| Stability | 106.55* | 52 | .07 | .89 | .87 | .09 | 53.90* | 27 |
| Reverse | 105.04* | 46 | .08 | .89 | .85 | .08 | 50.00* | 21 |

Notes: *$p < .01$, ** $p < .05$

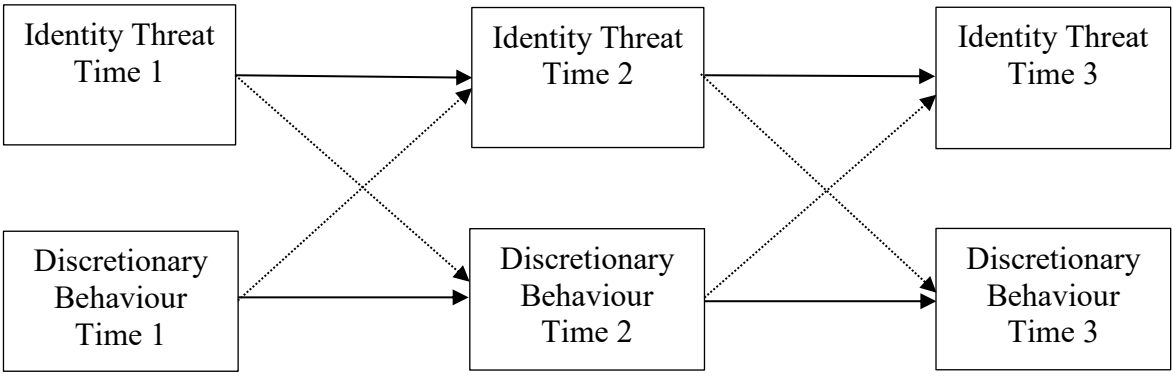


*Figure 3.1*. Structural equation models testing cross-lagged models. I tested the solid lines for the stability model. I tested the solid and dotted lines for the hypothesized models. For the reversed causation models, I tested the solid lines and the dotted lines in the opposite direction than the hypothesized model. For Hypothesis 1, I tested personal identity threats and workplace aggression as a discretionary behaviour. For Hypothesis 2, I tested social identity threats and workplace aggression as a discretionary behaviour. For Hypothesis 3, I tested social identity threats and organizational citizenship behaviour as discretionary behaviour.

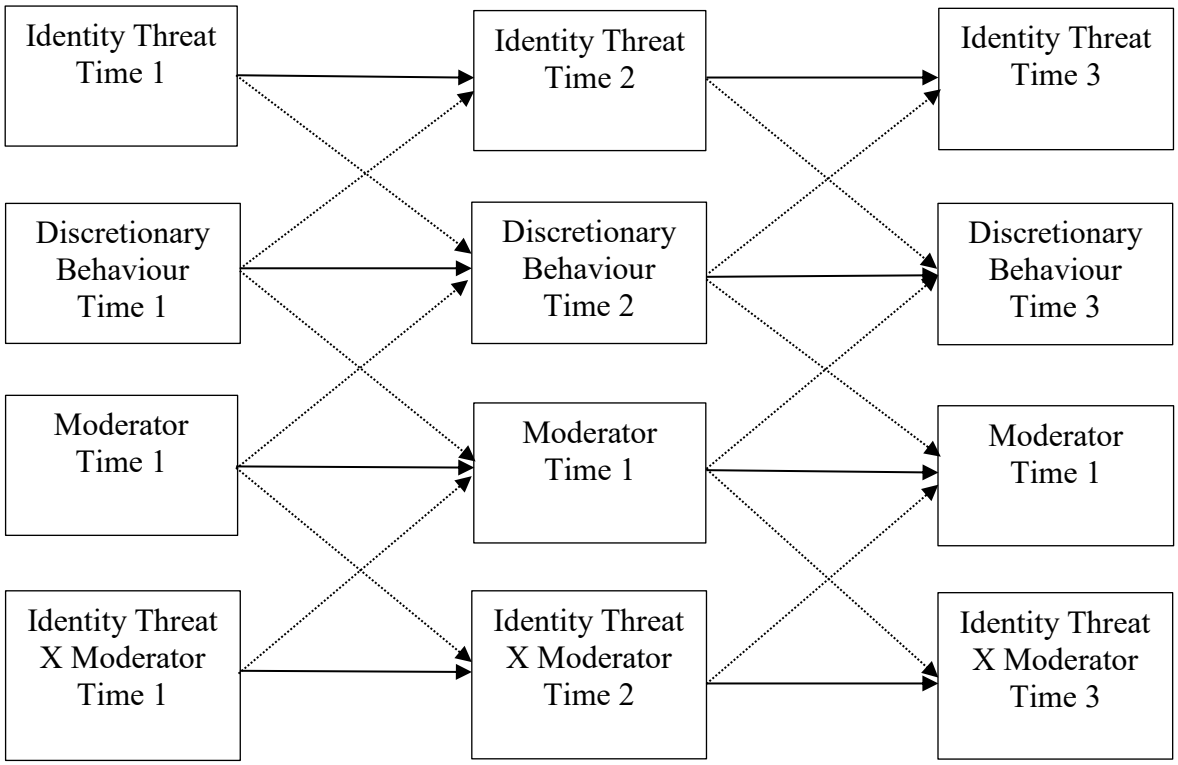


*Figure 3.2.* The structural equation model testing the moderating effects on the relationship between identity threats and discretionary behaviour. I tested the solid lines for the stability model. I tested the solid and dotted lines for the hypothesized models. For the reversed causation models, I tested the solid lines and the dotted lines in the opposite direction than the hypothesized model.

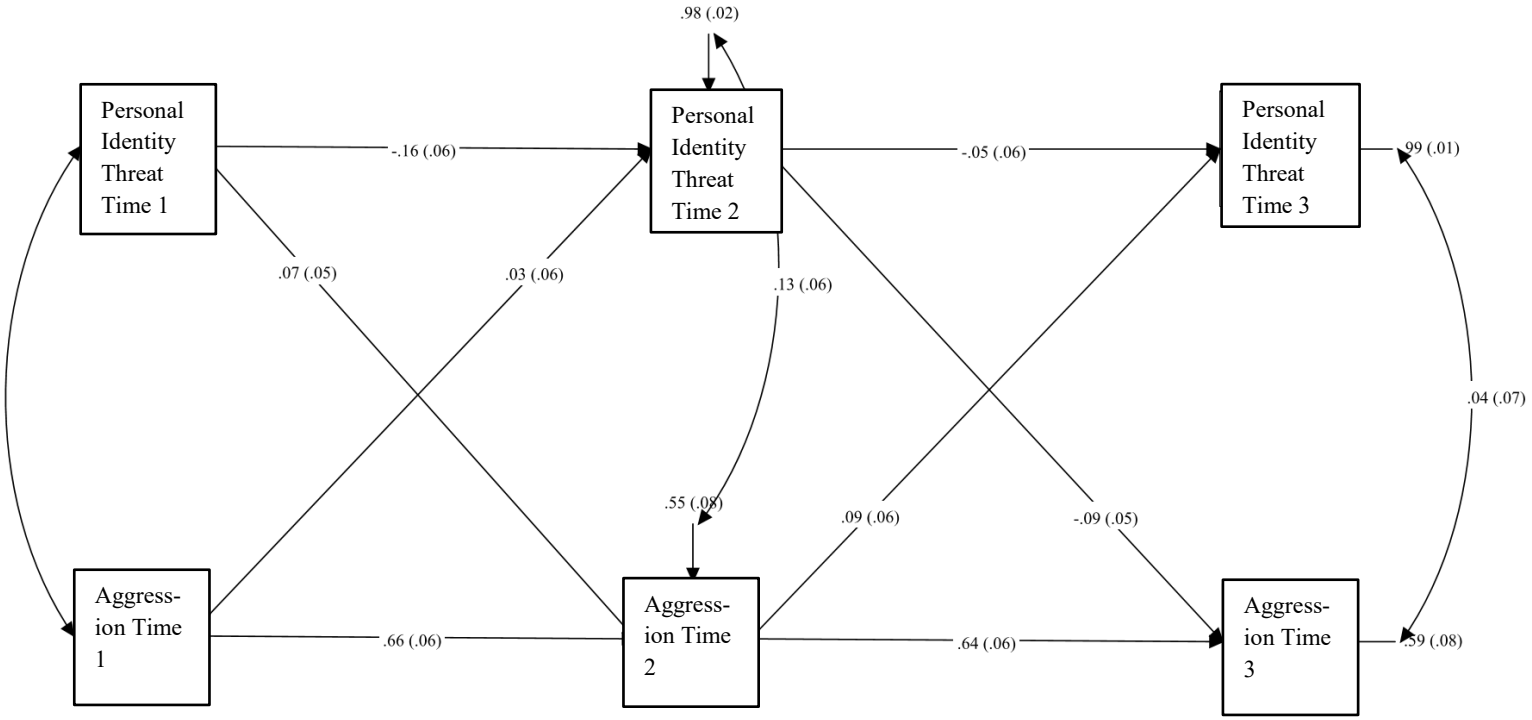


*Figure 3.3.* Standardized coefficients and standard errors for the Hypothesis 1 model examining the relationship between personal identity threat and workplace aggression towards customers.

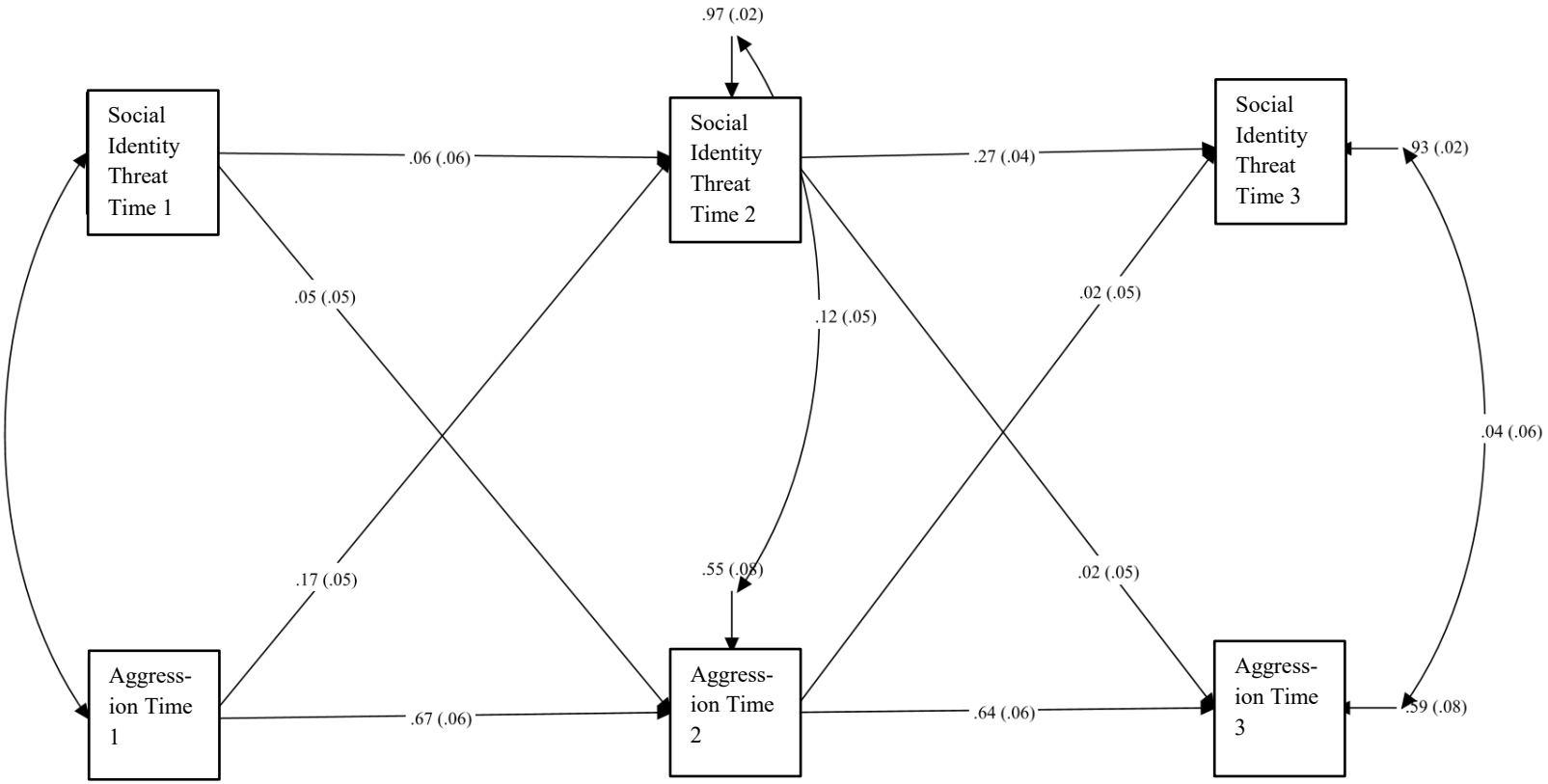


*Figure 3.4.* Standardized coefficients and standard errors for the Hypothesis 2 model examining the relationship between social identity threat and workplace aggression towards customers.

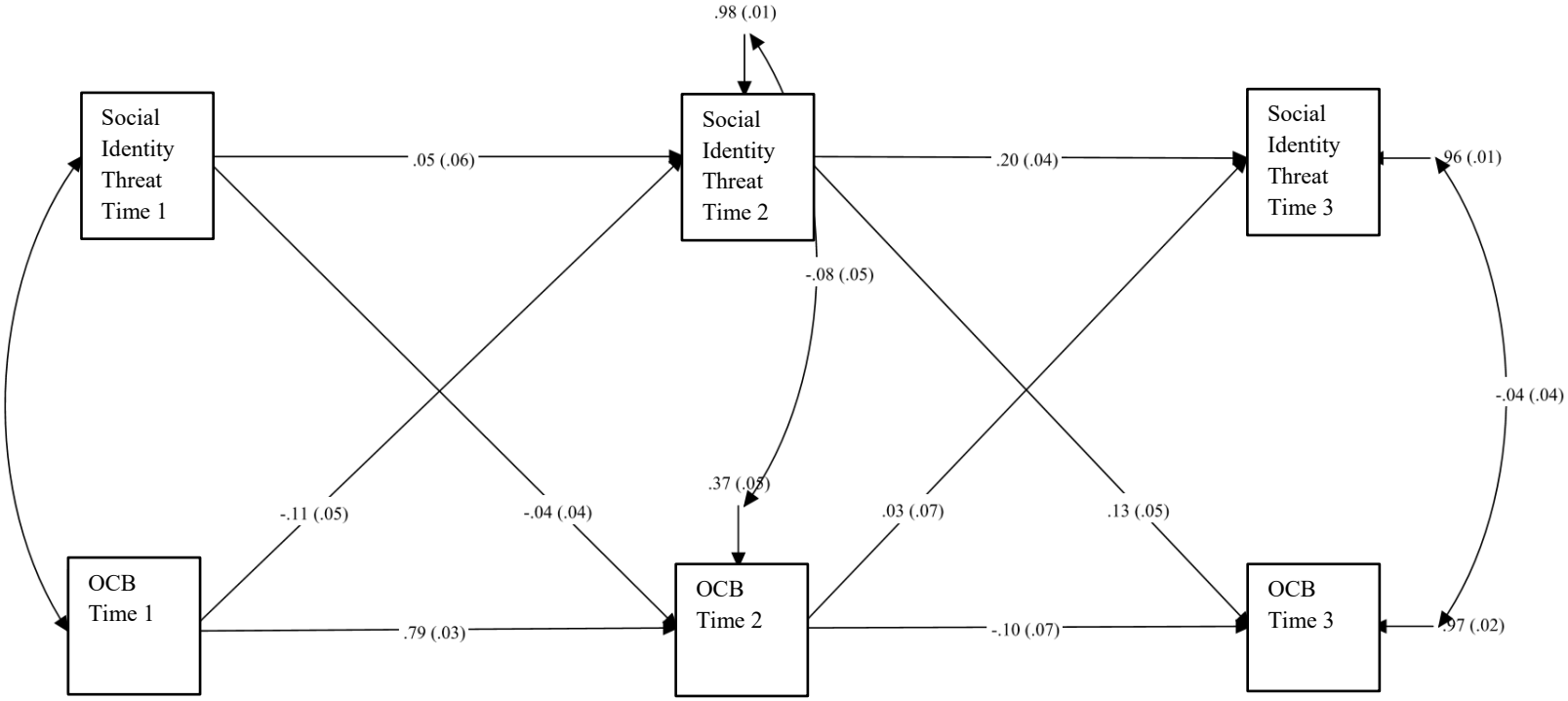


*Figure 3.5.* Standardized coefficients and standard errors for the Hypothesis 3 model examining the relationship between social identity threat and OCB.

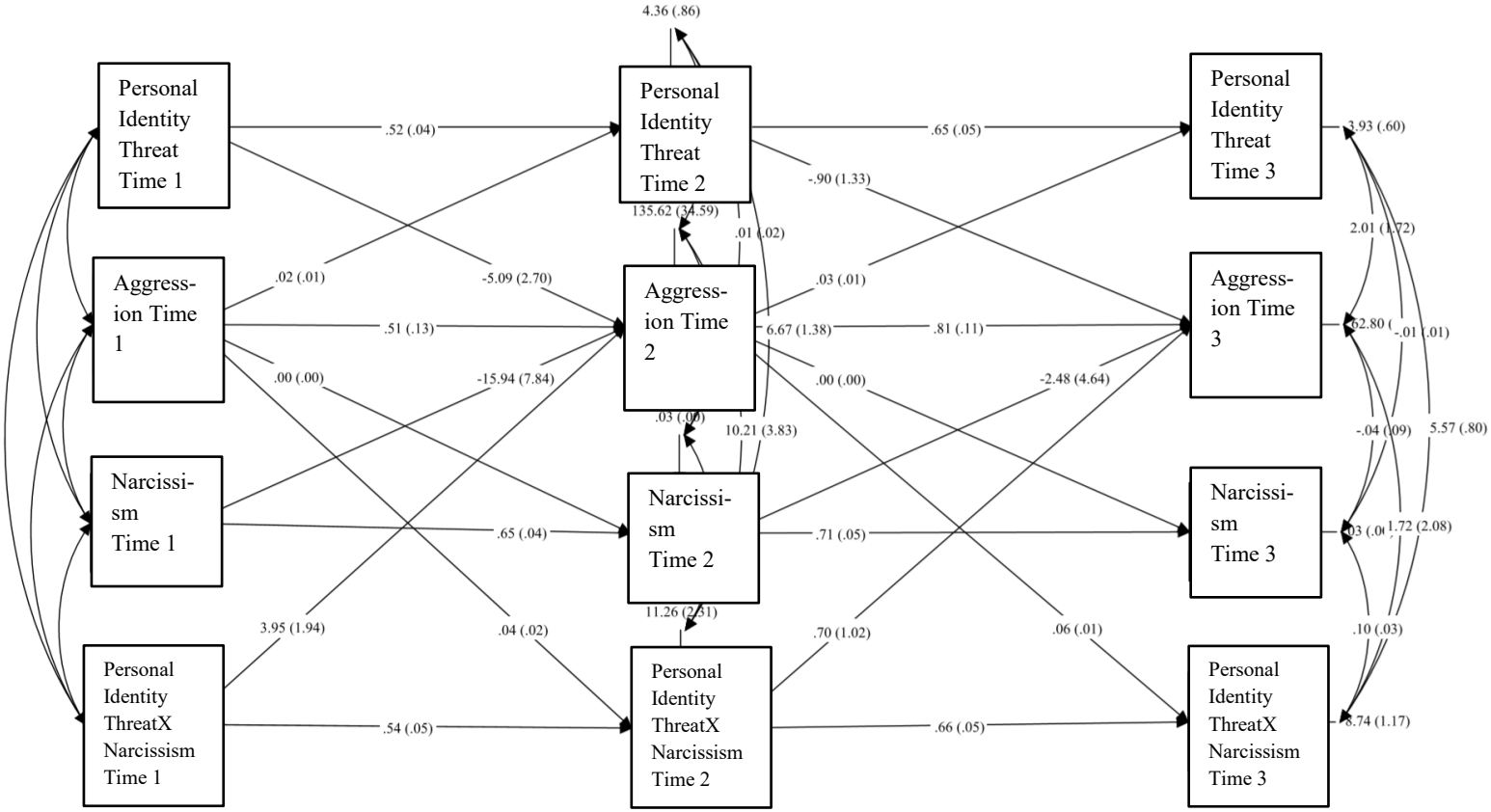


*Figure 3.6.* Standardized coefficients and standard errors for the Hypothesis 4 model examining the moderating effect of narcissism on the relationship between personal identity threat and workplace aggression towards customers.

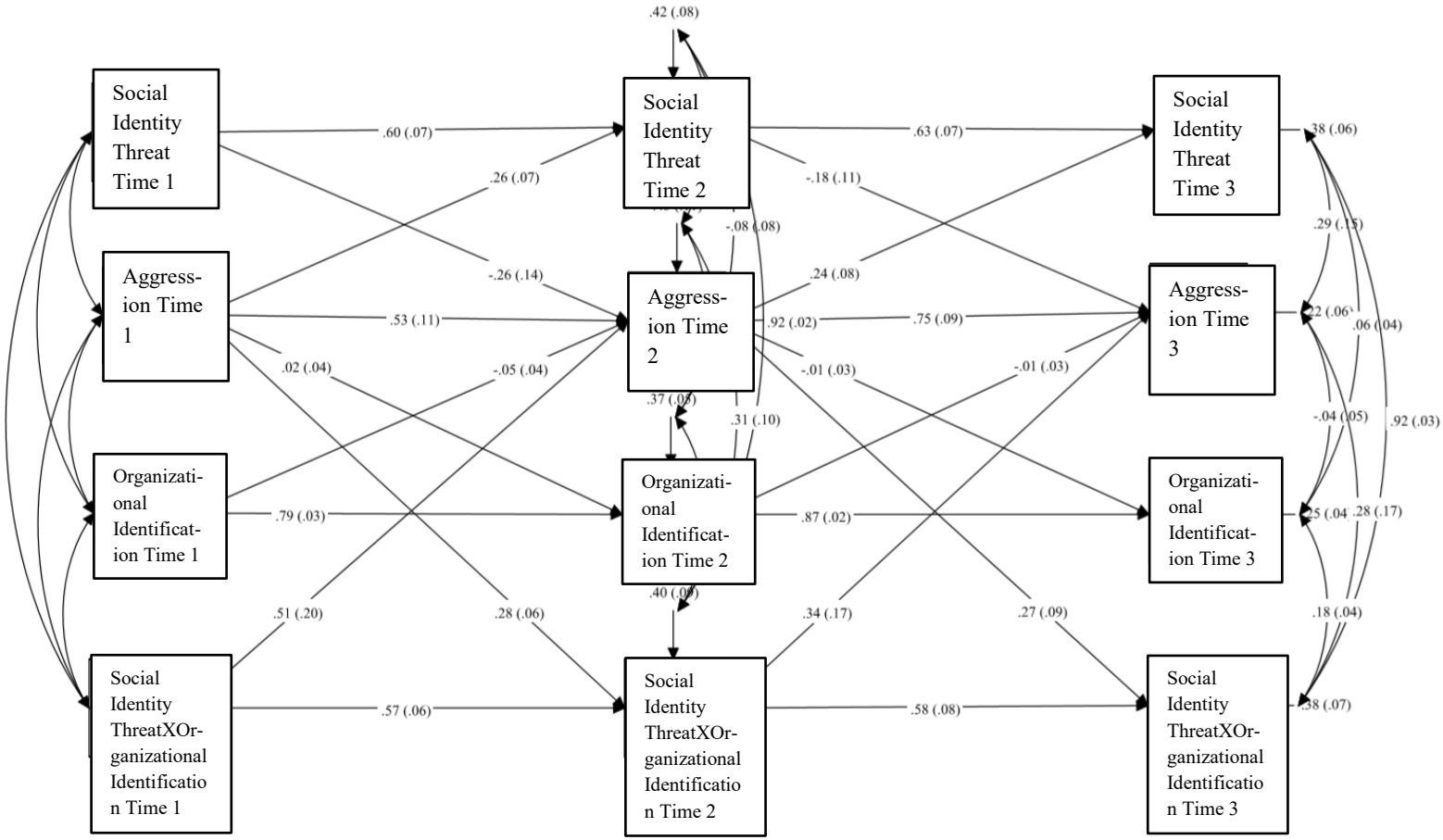


*Figure 3.7.* Standardized coefficients and standard errors for the Hypothesis 5 model examining the moderating effect of organizational identification on the relationship between social identity threat and workplace aggression towards customers.

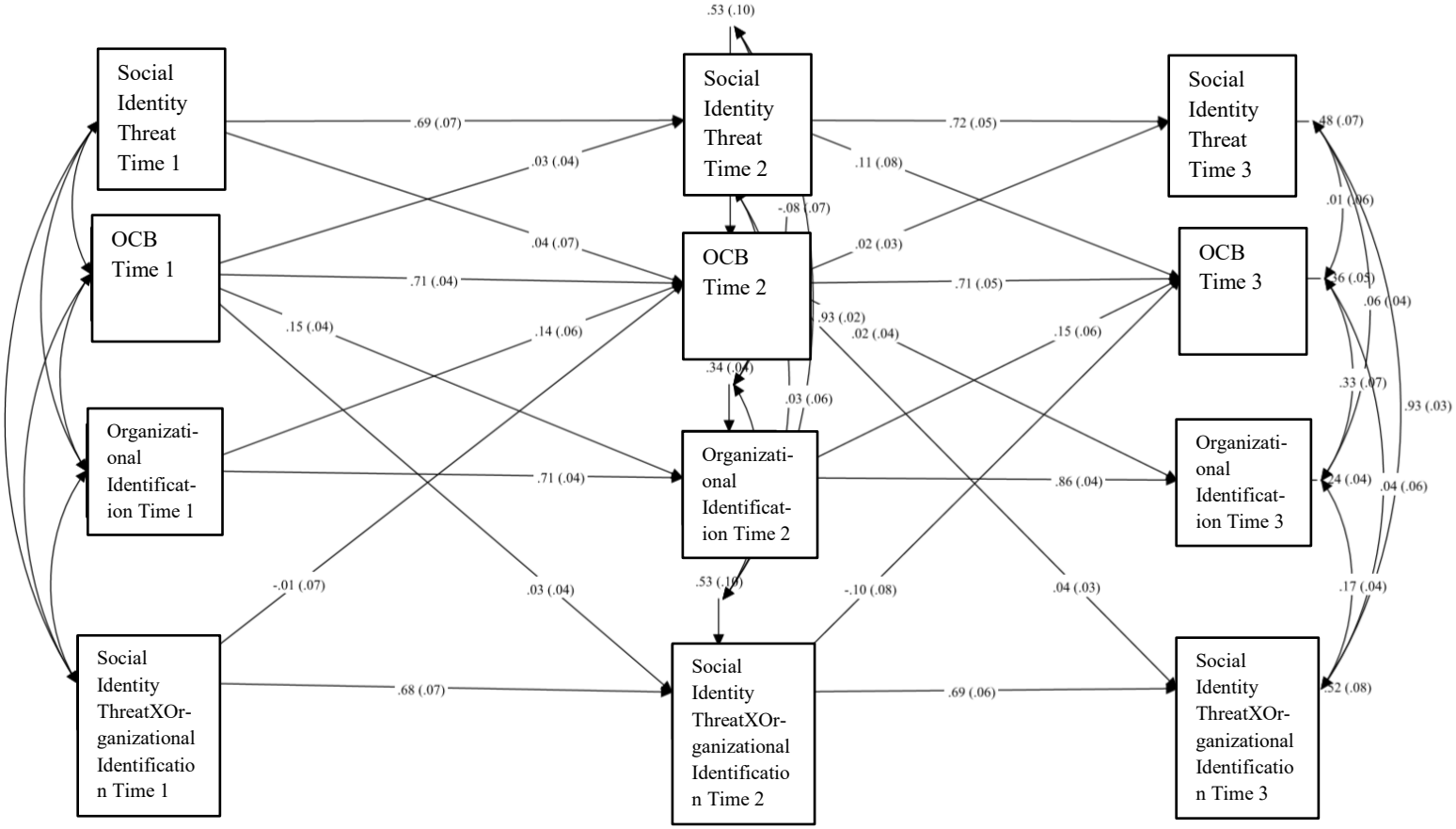


*Figure 3.8.* Standardized coefficients and standard errors for the Hypothesis 6 model examining the moderating effect of organizational identification on the relationship between social identity threat and OCB.

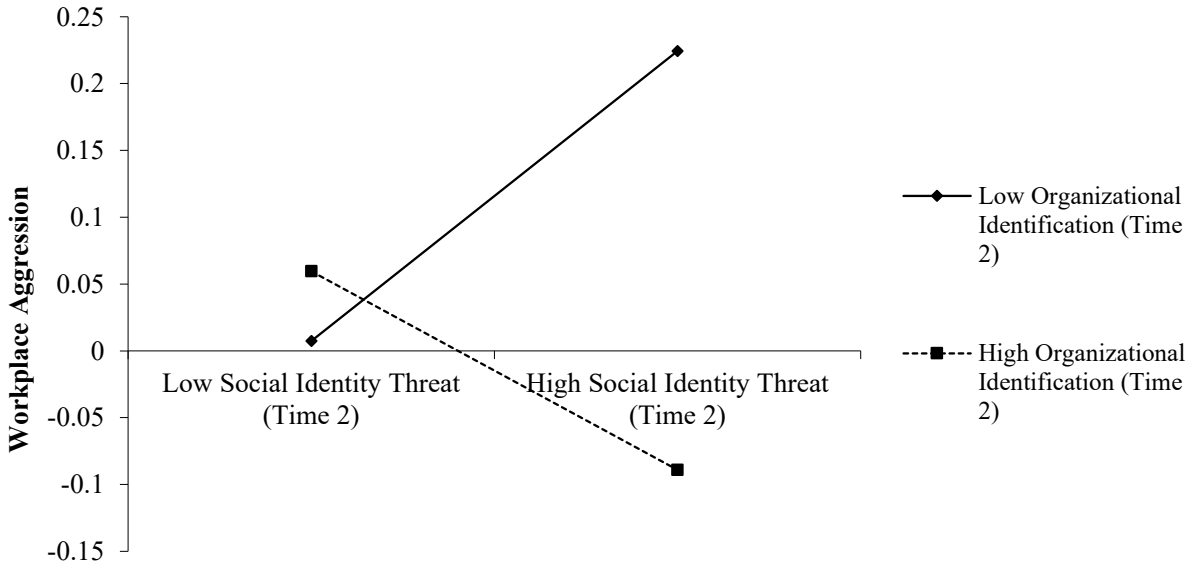


*Figure 3.9.* Moderating effect of Time 2 organizational identification on the relationship between Time 2 social identity threats and Time 3 retaliatory workplace aggression.

# CHAPTER 4: Customer as Punching Bag? Employees' Retaliatory and Displaced Aggression Towards Customers

Despite the industry mantra, *the customer is always right,* employee mistreatment of customers appears to be commonplace in customer service organizations (Mullen & Kelloway, 2013; Skarlicki et al., 2008; van Jaarsveld et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2011). However, the mistreatment of customers is unlikely to occur spontaneously. Employees are often mistreated while on-the-job (Grandey et al., 2007), and while this mistreatment is sometimes at the hands of frustrated or dismissive customers (Grandey et al., 2004; Rafaeli et al., 2012; Yagil, 2008), at other times, it is at the hands of their own colleagues (Grandey et al., 2007). Employees may, therefore, experience mistreatment from both organizational outsiders and insiders. In this study, I examined customer-targeted aggression by front line employees as both a form of retaliation for experienced aggression by customers (direct aggression), and as a form of displaced aggression toward customers following experiencing mistreatment by insiders (displaced aggression). Both outsider and insider workplace aggression has serious negative consequences for employees' well being and organizational performance (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Leblanc & Kelloway, 2002).

To further understand the conditions under which retaliation and displacement occur, I examined two moderators of these direct and displaced aggression relationships. First, I examined whether surface acting, by showing faked emotions on the outside, influences the direct and displaced aggression relationships. Second, I look at the degree to which employees were expected to satisfy, placate, and avoid upsetting customers (customer sovereignty) on these relationships as a means to understand the influence of organizational factors in direct and displaced aggression.

**Customer-Targeted Workplace Aggression**

Customer service employees are expected by their employer to follow a *customer is always right* mantra in many customer service organizations (e.g., Craven, 2010), suggesting that employees fear reprimand or discipline from their organization for not pleasing customers. Despite this, extant research has shown that employees (occasionally) mistreated and/or provided poor service to customers (Skarlicki et al., 2016, 2008; van Jaarsveld et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2011). In fact, organizational 'outsiders', such as customers, may be a relatively safe and readily available target of aggression in comparison to organizational insiders for several reasons. Employees who work in service industries interact with many more organizational outsiders than insiders in a work day given that they spend considerably more time interacting with outsiders through service interactions than with insiders. In one study, among the types of events that induced anger due to rude or aggressive interpersonal encounters in a two week period, the greatest number of events stemmed from customer interactions (Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002b). Notably, researchers have argued that organizational outsiders have limited direct influence on employees' long-term work experiences and employment as compared to insiders, with superiors, in particular, having considerable control over important aspects of employees' jobs, including promotions, pay allocation, and discipline (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002), making them a high-power influencer for employees. Further, research have demonstrated that organizational outsiders also have relatively less influence than supervisors and coworkers over employees' job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to quit (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). In some cases, customers may have the recourse of filing a complaint against an employee, however organizations vary in their

responses to these complaints. Thus, organizational outsiders have limited direct influence over individual employees.

The nature of the service encounter is also important to consider. In some types of service jobs, such as those that involve encounter-type customer interactions, as in the case of large retail stores, call centers, and taxi companies to name a few, employees are likely to interact with a particular customer only once and rarely, or never, see them again, creating a sense of anonymity (Gutek, 1995; Gutek, Bhappu, Liao-Troth, & Cherry, 1999). Researchers have claimed that this sense of anonymity leads to higher levels of mistreatment from customers toward employees (Grandey et al., 2007; Yagil, 2008). With this sense of anonymity, the opposite may also occur. That is, employees may mistreat customers. Indeed, research on customer-directed sabotage(Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002; Skarlicki et al., 2016, 2008), retaliation (Mullen & Kelloway, 2013), and counterproductive work behaviour (Hunter & Penney, 2014) has shown that employees do treat customers poorly.[14] Taken together, previous research has suggested that customers are relatively available and viable targets for mistreatment from employees.

**Retaliatory (direct) aggression toward organizational outsiders.** In the organizational behaviour literature, retaliatory aggression refers to aggression that is targeted towards the culprit of a perceived provocation (Dupré & Barling, 2006; Skarlicki

[14] Sabotage refers to behaviour that "damages or disrupts the organization's operations by creating delays in production, damaging property, the destruction of relationships, or the harming of employees or customers" (Crino, 1994, p. 312). Example behaviours include "intentionally put a customer on hold for a long period of time" and "told a customer that you fixed something but didn't fix it". Sabotage is thought to be a form of workplace deviance that is seen as more subtle and covert than other types of deviance, such as aggression (Ambrose et al., 2002). Sabotage is often investigated as a retaliatory response to mistreatment (e.g., Ambrose et al., 2002; Skarlicki et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2011) and may be directed towards the organization, individuals, or organizational units (Giacalone et a. 1997, p. 121). Workplace aggression on the other hand is investigated in retaliatory and non-retaliatory situations and is always interpersonally directed (Schat & Kelloway, 2005).

& Folger, 1997). Several lines of evidence have suggested that working with aggressive or abusive customers may lead to customer-targeted retaliation (Mullen & Kelloway, 2013; Skarlicki et al., 2008; van Jaarsveld et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2011) as a result of depleted of coping resources (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005; Yagil, Luria, & Gal, 2008), increased burnout (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, Fisk, & Steiner, 2005), induced anger (Grandey et al., 2002b), and several other motivators including seeking to restore one's self-image (Bies & Tripp, 1996, 2005), restore or gain power (Cortina & Magley, 2003; Vallade, Booth-Butterfield, & Vela, 2013), or restore equity (Cropanzano, Goldman, & Folger, 2003; Skarlicki & Folger, 2004).

One line of evidence has proposed that working with customers can deplete coping resources. Conservation of Resources Theory (Hobfoll, 1989) proposes that stressful experiences, such as being mistreated, can deplete the resources individuals have to cope with stressors (for a discussion see Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Grandey et al., 2004). Further, mistreatment has been shown to reduce self-regulation, including an individual's ability to regulate their aggressive behaviour (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998; Scheichel, Vohs, & Baumeister, 2003). One study showed that dealing with customers was a major source of strain for employees (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005; Grandey et al., 2004), and several studies showed that customer service workers experienced high rates of incivility (Kern & Grandey, 2009; Sliter et al., 2010; Wilson & Holmvall, 2013) and aggression from customers (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005; Grandey et al., 2007; Karatepe, Yorganci, & Haktanir, 2009; Rafaeli et al., 2012; Yagil, 2008). In a qualitative study of customer service employees, employees sought ways to regain control following the stress

of customer mistreatment and reported responding unpleasantly or ignoring customers (Lawless, 2014).

Dealing with ongoing stressors on-the-job, particularly those of an interpersonal nature, can lead to burnout. In human service work, rates of burnout are particularly high (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Singh, Goolsby, & Rhoads, 1994), as a result of the "interpersonal and emotional challenges of working intensively with other people" in roles such as service provider or caregiver (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001, p. 407). Burnout researchers have suggested that individuals' experiencing high levels of burnout may begin to dehumanize those they serve (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Seeing others as less than human is suggested to coincide with perceptions that they are deserving of callousness (Bandura, 1978) and contributes to a rationalization of one's own cruel behaviour towards others who are construed as sub-human objects, without feelings, hopes, and concerns (Bandura et al., 1975). And this perspective may, in turn, lead to aggressive behaviour (Bandura et al., 1975).

The General Aggression Model and associated research has shown that anger resulting from a perceived provocation is the strongest predictor of aggressive behaviour (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002). Researchers have found higher anger, frustration, (Rupp & Spencer, 2006), and anger rumination (Wang et al., 2013) among employees who experienced mistreatment from customers. In addition, in a study of call centre employees, a strong positive correlation was found between mistreatment from customers, and employees retaliated directly towards customers by sabotaging their service experience (van Jaarsveld et al., 2010). This finding was also reported in an analysis of daily surveys from call centre employees (Wang et al., 2011). Typical retaliatory behaviours toward

customers in these studies included hanging up on customers, keeping customers on hold for extended periods, and telling the customer a problem was fixed when it was not (Skarlicki et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011). Another study reported that experiencing stress-induced mistreatment from customers predicted customer-directed counter productive work behaviours among employees, including insults, arguments, and threats towards customers (Hunter & Penney, 2014). This finding supports the notion that when employees are mistreatment by customers, they can retaliate.

In service work, individuals may interact with a number of customers in a given day, and rather than seeing those they serve as individuals, over time they may begin to view customers as unidentified and nameless instances of a broader group (Gutek, 1995). Thus, "the customer" as a group may be seen increasingly as a source of stress as negative interactions accumulate. Indeed, researchers have suggested that workplace stressors, such as mistreatment, can accumulate (Zapf, Dormann, & Frese, 1996), resulting in less adaptive coping strategies over time, as supported by studies that examined the relationships between chronic customer abuse and lower helping (Shao & Skarlicki, 2014), sabotage (Wang et al., 2011), and retaliation (Morganson & Major, 2014). Taken together, this research has suggested that employees may be more volatile towards customers they have only just met because of previous interactions, built up emotions, and maladaptive coping strategies. As a result, these lines of research converge to support a positive relationship between experienced mistreatment and direct retaliation towards that party. As such, I expect:

*Hypothesis 1.* Employees' experiences of customer aggression will be related to their direct retaliatory aggression towards customers.

**Displaced aggression toward organizational outsiders.** The Displaced Aggression Hypothesis is one model within the General Aggression Model (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002) and has argued that when there is a perception that retaliating against the source of mistreatment is somehow risky or is not possible, displaced aggression may occur (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001; Bushman et al., 2005; N. E. Miller, 1941). Displaced aggression refers to aggression that, due to aspects of the situation, is directed towards a secondary target or someone other than the initial source of provocation (Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000; Tedeschi & Norman, 1985). This secondary target may be innocent of any wrongdoing (Bushman et al., 2005). That is, secondary targets may trigger aggressive behaviour following a seemingly minor perceived provocation (relative to the initial provocation) or no provocation at all (Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000). Displaced aggression is most likely when direct retaliation is not feasible due to some kind of constraint within the situation, such as when the primary target is not physically available or when subsequent retaliation or punishment of the primary target is a concern (N. E. Miller, 1941). In these circumstances, individuals are likely to control their aggression towards the primary target and may displace it toward less powerful and/or more readily available targets (N. E. Miller, 1941). In the current study, I examined employees' experiences of aggression at the hands of other organizational insiders (i.e., their supervisors, coworkers, subordinates) and their retaliatory, displaced responses towards customers.

Workplace aggression from organizational insiders has been extensively studied, and includes such behaviour by those employed by the organization, including aggression by supervisors, peers, and subordinates (L. Greenberg & Barling, 1999; Inness et al., 2008;

Leblanc & Barling, 2004; Schat et al., 2006). Organizational insiders have existing and ongoing relationships. Researcher have suggested that insiders influence the individual's access to organizational resources, such as desirable work assignments, promotions, or wage raises, and their feelings of belongingness to the coworker group and thus can induce a stress reaction (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). Meta analytic evidence has demonstrated that aggressive behaviour from organizational insiders was more impactful on individuals' job satisfaction and well being than that from customers (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010), likely due to the ongoing nature of the relationships and the organizational resources insiders may influence. Further, the concept of abusive supervision, or ongoing hostile psychological treatment from one's supervisor, also suggests supervisors enact workplace aggression and such experiences have considerable impact on employees job attitudes and stress (Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2009).

To my knowledge, this study is the first to examine the impact of employees' experiences of insider aggression on displaced aggression targeted toward organizational outsiders. However, there have been studies looking at displaced workplace aggression between other parties. In one study, supervisor aggression predicted retaliatory aggression displaced towards coworkers (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2012). Further, employees who experienced abuse from their supervisors were more likely to displace their aggression towards family members in another study (Hoobler & Brass, 2006). In a daily diary study, researchers found that morning work-family conflict was related to afternoon emotional exhaustion, which in turn predicted displaced aggression towards supervisors, coworkers, and family members in the afternoon and evening, respectively (Liu et al., 2015). Thus, displaced aggression research has suggested that interpersonal stressors and perceived

mistreatment in the workplace exacerbates aggression towards non-organizational members.

Extant research has proposed that unjust treatment from the organization or its agents may lead employees' aggression to spillover to customers. This spillover may occur through projection of anger toward anyone significant to the organization, including customers, or to get even with the insider who mistreated them in the first place (Jawahar, 2002). For example, the employee have called customers names, ignored their requests, or argued with them in previous research and in the longer term, negative experiences are associated with lower levels of repeat business and organizational reputation (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 1999, 2004). Customer-targeted aggression could also serve as a means to expel anger as well as retaliate towards the organization as the individual may see the organization as responsible for allowing insider aggression as, for example, the organization did not discipline the culprit (Jawahar, 2002). That is, customers may be used as a punching bag or as a means to some other end, suggesting that they are seen as less powerful. Taken together, displaced aggression theory and customer research suggests that employees are likely to displace experienced insider aggression towards customers. Therefore, I propose:

*Hypothesis 2:* Employees' experiences of insider aggression will be related to their displaced aggression towards customers.

**Moderators of the Displaced and Direct Aggression Relationships**

Organizations have expectations for employees conduct, and these expectations are reinforced when peers and superiors model and reinforce that expected behaviour (Bandura, 1978). In this study, I examined two situational factors as moderators that reflect

organizational 'rules' regarding service encounters and the emotional influences of these rules. First, I examine faking emotions (surface acting), a type of emotional labour (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005; Grandey et al., 2004). Second, I examined organizational expectations, written or unwritten, regarding the extent to which employees are expected to satisfy, placate, and avoid upsetting customers, referred to as customer sovereignty (A. C. H. Schat, 2010, personal communication).

**The moderating role of surface acting.** Organizations seek to increase customer loyalty and satisfaction by communicating, explicitly or implicitly, that employees conform to certain rules regarding the display of emotions to customers, which are most often positive even in the face of rude or disrespectful customers (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005; Diefendorff, Richard, & Croyle, 2005; Grandey et al., 2004). In alignment with display rules, emotional labour involves expressing or withholding emotions that may be felt or not felt (Glomb & Tews, 2004). One type of emotional labour that is commonly studied is surface acting.

Surface acting involves manipulation of external emotional displays (e.g., body language, facial expression, and tone of voice), while internal emotion is unchanged (Hochschild, 1983). Surface acting is particularly stressful as it creates a disconnect between the emotions felt and the emotions displayed (Hochschild, 1983) and has been shown to be associated with increased levels of depression, negative emotions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Erickson & Wharton, 1997) and emotional exhaustion (Grandey, 2003). Over time, research has demonstrated that negative emotions are associated with greater distancing of oneself from customers and treating customers as objects, called

depersonalization (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002), which, as discussed earlier, predicts aggressive behaviour.

Regarding direct, retaliatory aggression from and to customers, surface acting is more often used when employees experience customer aggression. To conform with display rules in customer service interactions, the negative emotions employees experience following aggression from customers will need to be hidden (Grandey, 2000; Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002a). Previous research has suggested that negative emotions result from the dissonance of surface acting and, in turn, these negative emotions motivate employees negative behaviours towards customers (Kumar Madupalli & Poddar, 2014). A study of call centre employees found that mistreatment from customers predicted surface acting and that negative emotions predicted retaliation behaviour, but the study did not directly test surface acting as a moderator of retaliation (Kumar Madupalli & Poddar, 2014). Taken together, given that engaging in greater surface acting was associated with increased negative emotions in previous research, these emotions may inhibit regulation and thus, direct retaliation may be more likely. Based on this research, I expect that:

*Hypothesis 3a:* Surface acting will strengthen the relationship between aggression from customers and enacted aggression towards customers. Specifically, greater surface acting will be associated with higher levels of retaliatory aggression towards customers when employees experience customer aggression.

Given that forms of emotional labour increased negative emotions and aggression, if an individual cannot enact the aggression through direct retaliation, they may re-direct it towards another target. Considering experienced aggression from insiders, if direct retaliation is not viable due to power differences and/or availability of the target, the

negative emotions invoked from surface acting may motivate the employee to re-direct their aggression towards customers as a more readily available target. Thus, I expect that:

*Hypothesis 3b:* Surface acting will moderate the displaced aggression relationship between aggression from insiders and enacted aggression towards customers. Specifically, greater surface acting will be associated with higher levels of displaced aggression towards customers when employees experience insider aggression.

**The moderating role of customer sovereignty on aggression towards customers.** The concept of customer sovereignty comes from literature in the field of marketing and refers to the organization's imperative to meet customer demands, including to what extent employees are expected to act in ways that satisfy, appease, and avoid upsetting customers (Korczynski & Ott, 2004). Phrases, such as "*the customer is always right"* and *"the customer is king*" are characteristic of customer sovereignty and are commonly used to convey expectations of courtesy, politeness, and fulfilling customer desires as important to good customer service (e.g., Craven, 2010). Organizations have adopted these approaches with the goal of preventing customer dissatisfaction (Lerner, 1972; Reynolds & Harris, 2006).

Customer sovereignty expectations and practices reinforce acceptable employee responses to mistreatment from customers (Yagil, 2008), and not surprisingly, are negatively associated with customer aggression (Schat, Holmvall, & Stevens, 2014). Thus, if customer sovereignty is high, employees' response to customer mistreatment is more likely to be focused on placating the customer by going above and beyond to satisfy customers rather than retaliating. As such, I hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 4a:* Customer sovereignty will buffer the relationship between aggression from customers and enacted aggression towards customers.

Regarding displaced aggression, experiencing insider aggression in an organization with higher customer sovereignty may motivate employees to direct their displaced aggression away from customers and potentially to another source. As customer service organizations often expect employees to satisfy customers, organizations with higher levels of customer sovereignty, may give more power to customers compared to employees, encouraging employees to displace aggression elsewhere or respond in more covert ways. Therefore:

*Hypothesis 4b:* Customer sovereignty will buffer the relationship between aggression from insiders and enacted aggression towards customers.

**Current Study**

The methodological approach for Study 3 was parallel to Study 2. I measured experienced aggression from insiders and customers, enacted aggression towards customers, as well as the moderating variables longitudinally, that is, on three measurement occasions with three weeks between each time point. I used cross-lagged models to test the hypotheses, as commonly used to analyze longitudinal data (Selig & Little, 2012) to examine patterns and the temporal order of the variables of interest (Burkholder & Harlow, 2003; Kenny, 2014). As can be seen in Figure 4.1, I examined experienced aggression at Time 1 predicting enacted aggression three weeks later at Time 2, and Time 2 experienced aggression predicting enacted aggression at Time 3.

## Method

A longitudinal design with three-time points over six weeks was used. A self-report online survey was administered at each time point. All measures were included in each of the survey time points, except demographics and work variables, which were only measured at Time 1. As in Study 2, participants were recruited from Precision Samples' online participation pool.

***Participants***. The same data set was used for this study as for Study 2, however different scales were used for Study 2 and 3. Participant recruitment, attrition rates, and quality data procedures are reported in Study 2. There were 254 full-time employees from the United States who completed the study. Of these individuals, 122 identified as male and 132 identified as female. Participants ranged in age from 20 to 69 (M = 47.53, SD = 13.23). Participants tenure with their current organization ranged from 1 year to 46 years (M = 13.76, SD = 10.29). Participants were given points by Precision Sample that they can trade in for gift certificates from a selection of companies.

***Measures***. The measures of study variables are summarized below. Measures of workplace aggression and the moderating mechanisms were measured at all time points. Demographic and work variables were measured in the Time 1 survey only.

*Workplace aggression*. I used Greenberg and Barling's (L. Greenberg & Barling, 1999) measure of employee aggression. The measure consisted of 25 behaviours that assessed psychological aggression (e.g., "gossiped about") and violence (e.g., "threatened to hit") on a seven-point scale (0=*never*, 1=*once*, 2=*twice*, 3=*three to five times*, 4=*six to ten times*, 5=*11 to 20 times*, 6=*more than 20 times*) over the past year. The workplace aggression scale measured three types of aggression: (1) employee aggression directed at

customers, (2) customer aggression directed at employees, and (3) coworker and supervisor aggression directed at employees. Thus, the surveys included the same scale three times with slightly modified instructions. For experienced insider aggression, instructions asked participants to focus on treatment from "people that you work with, such as coworkers, subordinates, and supervisors/management". For experienced outsider aggression, the instructions asked participants to report on treatment from "customers, clients, and/or patients". For enacted customers aggression, instructions asked participants, "how often they have experienced the following behaviours by customers, clients, and/or patients". Also, the items themselves were slightly modified to reflect different targets (e.g., "threw something at a *customer/client/patient*" and "grabbed *someone you work with*"). The scale items were randomly ordered to reduce influence of potential recall biases associated with completing the same scale multiple times. As this scale is a behavioural inventory, some reliability indices, such as Cronbach's alpha are not appropriate (MacKenzie et al., 2005). Test re-test reliability was instead examined (MacKenzie et al., 2005). Test re-test reliabilities for the workplace aggression variables were moderate, ranging from $r = .45$, $p < .001$ to $r = 66$, $p < .001$.

*Surface acting*. Participants' surface acting was measured with the 15-item Emotional Labour Scale (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). The scale measured duration of interactions with customers, frequency of emotional displays, intensity of expressed emotions, variety of emotions expressed, surface acting, and deep acting, although only surface acting items were used in the analyses for this study. A sample surface acting item asked how often, on an average day of work, individuals "hide [their] true feelings about a situation". Items were measured on a 5-point scale with labels of *never* (1)*, rarely* (2)*,*

*sometimes* (3)*, often* (4)*, always* (5). Cronbach's alphas were .86, .87. and .89 across the surveys in this study, suggesting good reliability.

*Customer sovereignty*. The Perceptions of Customer Sovereignty Scale was used to measure this construct (Schat, Richards, Bedi, Ababneh, & Mirowska, unpublished scale). This 9-item scale asked participants the extent to which statements are true in their organization on a 5-point scale, with labels of *not at all true* (1), *a little true* (2), *somewhat true* (3), *quite true* (4), and *very true* (5). A sample item stated, "In my organization employees are told, "The customer is always right". Two items from this scale showed low item total correlations with the rest of the items on the scale. These items were removed from the scale. Cronbach's alphas were .75, .79, and .77 across the surveys in this study, suggesting acceptable levels of reliability.

## Results

All variables were screened for out of range values, outliers, linearity, normality, independence of observation, and multicollinearity. There were multivariate outliers identified by Mahalanobis' and Cook's Distance. As the outliers did not influence the significance of the results, they were included in the data for all statistical analyses. I used cross-lagged autoregressive structural equation models analyses to examine the hypotheses. Mplus version 8.0 was using to test the cross-lagged autoregressive models. The MLR estimator was used and the data was standardized as z-scores as the workplace aggression data was non-normally distributed; positive skewness is typical in workplace aggression research.

Correlations, means, and Cronbach's alpha reliability for all study variables are presented in Table 4.1. For each hypothesis, I conducted the following analyses using

Mplus (see Figure 4.1). First, a stability model tested whether the same variable predicted itself across the three time points. That is, Time 1 experienced aggression predicting Time 2 experienced aggression, and in turn, predicting Time 3 experienced aggression. Second, to examine reverse causation, I added cross-lagged paths to the stability model in the opposite direction to what I expected (i.e., from the Time 3 dependent variables to the Time 2 independent variables and from the Time 2 dependent variables to the Time 1 independent variables). Third, to the stability model, I added cross-lagged paths in the hypothesized directions (i.e., Time 1 independent variables to the Time 2 dependent variables, and Time 2 independent variables to Time 3 dependent variables). Finally, I conducted chi-square difference tests to determine whether the hypothesized model showed superior fit to the stability and reversed causation models. To correct the chi-square value under non-normality, I used the Satorra-Bentler scaled chi square test (Satorra, 2000; Satorra & Bentler, 2001). To determine the fit of the models, I used Hu and Bentler's (1999) recommendations for fit indices in structural equation modeling. Namely, CFI and TLI values close to or greater than .95 and RMSEA and SRMR values lower than .06 (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

**Main results**. The main hypotheses examined retaliatory and displaced aggression towards customers using cross lagged structural equation modeling, as described above (see in Figure 4.1). Contrary to Hypothesis 1, employees' experienced customer aggression did not significantly predict their direct retaliatory aggression towards customers. Results showed that the hypothesized model did not fit the data, $X^2$ (4, $n$ = 232) = 27.19, $p < .01$, the CFI is 84, TLI is .45, RMSEA is .16, $p$ = .001, and SRMR is .12. Standardized coefficients and standard errors for Hypothesis 1 can be seen in Figure 4.2. Thus, there was

no support for a longitudinal relationship between experienced aggression from organizational outsiders and enacted aggression towards that same group (organizational outsiders).

Hypothesis 2 stated that employees' experienced insider aggression would predict their displaced aggression towards customer. As can be seen in Table 4.2, results demonstrated that the model fits the data. The chi square value was $X^2$ (4, $n$ = 230) = 3.33, p = .50, the CFI is 1.0, TLI is 1.0, RMSEA is .01, $p$ = .74, and SRMR is .03. The cross-lagged model yielded significantly superior fit to the reversed causation model, suggesting that reversed causation can be ruled out, $X^2_{diff}$ = 36.02, $p$ < .001, $df_{diff}$ = 3. Also, the cross-lagged model showed significantly better fit to the auto-regressive stability model, $X^2_{diff}$ = 31.32 $p$ < .001, $df_{diff}$ = 6. Figure 4.3 shows standardized coefficients and standard errors for Hypothesis 2. Thus, there was support for a longitudinal association between experienced aggression from organizational insiders and enacted aggression towards organizational outsiders.

**Moderation results**. For each moderation hypothesis, moderation was tested by computing the multiplicative product of the moderator variable, and then adding the independent variable, the moderator, and the multiplicative product to the model. The effect of the product term indicates whether moderation exists (Selig & Little, 2012). The results of this approach are summarized for each moderation hypothesis below.

Hypotheses 3a and 3b proposed that surface acting would moderate the relationship between experienced and enacted aggression for direct and displaced aggression, respectively. The hypotheses were not supported. For Hypothesis 3a, surface acting did not moderate the relationship between aggression experienced at the hands of customers and

customer-targeted aggression (i.e., the direct aggression relationship) as the model showed poor fit to the data, $X^2(28, n = 202) = 67.34$, $p < .01$ the CFI is .90, TLI is .79, RMSEA is .08, $p = .02$ and SRMR is .08. Figure 4.4 shows standardized coefficients and standard errors. For Hypothesis 3b, surface acting also did not moderate the relationship between insider aggression and customer-targeted aggression (i.e., the displaced aggression relationship) as this model also showed poor fit to the data, $X^2$ (28, $n = 209$) = 140.96, the CFI is .78, TLI is .53, RMSEA is .14, $p < .01$ and SRMR is .13. Figure 4.5 shows standardized coefficients and standard errors for Hypothesis 3b.

Hypotheses 4a and 4b proposed that customer sovereignty would moderate the relationship between experienced and enacted aggression for direct and displaced aggression, respectively. Hypothesis 4a was not supported; the customer sovereignty did not moderate the direct aggression relationship, which examined the relationship between aggression experienced at the hands of customers and customer-targeted aggression as the model did not show good fit to the data, $X^2$ (28, $n = 242$) = 330.14, $p < .01$, the CFI is .79, TLI is .55, RMSEA is .21, $p < .01$ and SRMR is .24. Standardized coefficients and standard errors for Hypothesis 4a can be seen in Figure 4.6. Hypothesis 4b was also not supported. Customer sovereignty also did not moderate the relationship between aggression experienced at the hands of insiders and customer-targeted aggression (i.e., the displaced aggression model) as this model did not show sufficient fit to the data, $X^2$ (28, $n = 220$) = 175.38, $p < .01$, the CFI is .63, TLI is .20, RMSEA is .16, $p < .01$ and SRMR is .12. Standardized coefficients and standard errors for Hypothesis 4b can be seen in Figure 4.7.

## Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to examine the longitudinal relationships of retaliatory and displaced aggression and the moderating mechanisms of these relationships. Previous research has shown that organizational insiders (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hershcovis et al., 2007) and outsiders (Grandey et al., 2004, 2007; Rafaeli et al., 2012; Yagil, 2008) are aggressive towards employees, and in response, employees may retaliate directly towards the source (Dupré & Barling, 2006; Kumar Madupalli & Poddar, 2014; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2012) or displace the aggression to a more readily available and relatively safe target (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Liu et al., 2015; Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000). Extant research suggested that employees enact more covert forms of mistreatment towards customers, such as sabotaging the service encounter (Skarlicki et al., 2016, 2008; Wang et al., 2011), and that overt aggression towards customers is also possible (Jawahar, 2002). This present study explored whether employees would be more likely to enact aggression towards customers if they had experienced aggression from other employees of the organization (i.e., displacing aggression to the customer) or experienced aggression from customers themselves (i.e., directly retaliating against the customer).

**Retaliatory and Displaced Aggression.** Contrary to Hypothesis 1, the model that tested the experienced customer aggression and enacted customer aggression over time did not show acceptable fit. In service organizations, employees are often expected to follow organizational expectations to respond calmly and provide good service even when mistreated by customers (Grandey et al., 2004). When these expectations are salient, customers are likely given higher legitimate power (by the organization) in customer-employee encounters, which is further bolstered when customers are aggressive as a form

of coercive power over employees. As a result, employees may not retaliate directly towards customers as, under the circumstances, they do not feel customers are a "safe target". Further, employees may also not enact aggression as they may be given formal training or informally receive guidance and support from coworkers to cope with negative treatment from customers. It is also possible that employees retaliate towards customers in more covert ways, such as sabotage (Ambrose et al., 2002; Skarlicki et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011).

Hypothesis 2 examined displaced workplace aggression and was supported; Experienced insider aggression at one point in time was related to enacted customer aggression at a later time. This finding suggests that, in line with displaced aggression theory (Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000), customers may be a relatively safer target of aggression than fellow insiders. Indeed, this finding lends support to the notion that organizational insiders have more control over employee outcomes (Bies & Tripp, 1996) and is in line with previous research that found that insider aggression was more impactful than outsider aggression for a number of work and well being factors (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). It is also possible that in the face of mistreatment by organizational insiders, the individual may start to perceive that interpersonal mistreatment is acceptable or tolerated by the organization, making aggression towards customers seem less risky. In addition, this finding is consistent with other studies that have suggested that employee conflicts can spillover to others who are not part of the organization. For instance, studies have found that workplace aggression can be displaced towards family (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Liu et al., 2015).

Taken together, these results suggest that employees may not to engage in direct retaliatory aggression towards customers after experiencing aggression from customers, but rather when experiencing aggression from other insiders, they may displace their aggression towards organizational outsiders. This research extended research on displaced aggression in organizations by examining another potential target of displaced aggression, namely customers of the organization. These findings highlight a potentially important practical implication regarding insider workplace aggression for organizations. That is, aggression between employees of a given workplace does not remain inside the organization, rather it may spillover to outsiders, with the most obvious and available targets being customers.

Undoubtably employees engaging in aggression towards those they serve has implications for organizations. Organizations may be subject to lawsuits, reputational concerns, and loss of customers, for example. Research has reported that higher numbers of customers reporting negative experiences is associated with lower unit sales (Schneider, Ehrhart, Mayer, Saltz, & Niles-Jolly, 2005). Further, dissatisfied customers have been shown to be less likely to be repeat customers and is associated weaker organizational reputation (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 1999, 2004). Thus, organizational efforts to reduce aggression are important. Organizations should continue efforts to prevent workplace aggression and doing so may be two-fold, reducing the aggression among insiders and that which may spillover to outsiders.

**Moderation Relationships.** I expected that surface acting and customer sovereignty would moderate the direct and displaced aggression relationships. Each of these moderators explores a different aspect of the types of interactions employees are

expected to engage in with customers. I tested these moderators to help to shed light on the retaliation and displaced aggression relationships.

I hypothesized that surface acting, or displaying organizationally expected emotions on the outside, regardless of actual internal feeling, would strengthen both the retaliatory and displacement aggression relationships. Neither hypotheses were supported. This finding was somewhat surprising given that previous research suggested that performing emotional labour, such as surface acting, played an important role in the stress response to experiencing mistreatment from customers (Grandey, 2000; Grandey et al., 2007). Surface acting inquired about the extent to which participants modified their emotional displays as required in their organization. It may be the case that customer service workers modify their emotional displays routinely and it has become so routinized that they do not recognize that they are doing so, and thus reported lower levels of surface acting. Of course, employees may also change their internal emotions to be in line with display rules for customer service work, and thus may have engaged in deep acting more so than surface acting. As deep acting is not associated with the same levels of dissonance, stress, and impulsivity, it is unlikely that workplace aggression would result from higher levels of this emotional strategy.

Contrary to Hypothesis 4a and 4b, customer sovereignty did not moderate the retaliatory and displaced aggression relationships. This finding was unexpected given that, in organizations with high customer sovereignty, I would have expected lower rates of customer-targeted aggression given that high-quality service to customers is paramount even when customers are abusive. However, employees may not perceive that customers are a safe target for aggression even though they have been mistreated by them due to the

organizational expectations to smooth over difficult interpersonal interactions with customers. As a result, employees may focus more on determining what customers want and giving it to them versus swearing and yelling back at the customer or ending the service encounter. Alternatively, in organizations that take extensive steps to placate customers, employees may only be motivated to keep customers happy up to a point. It is possible that when customers are aggressive, employees may no longer worry about pleasing the customer, but rather provide a minimal level of service to complete the transaction and end the service encounter, thereby ending the mistreatment.

**Future Research Directions**. This research contributed to workplace aggression literature by examining direct (outsider-initiated) and displaced (insider-initiated) aggression toward organizational outsiders. This study proposed that employees who had experienced aggression from outsiders would enact retaliatory aggression directly towards this same group. However, this hypothesis was not supported, suggesting there are other factors that may contribute to customer-targeted aggression. For example, it may be the case that employees follow organizational expectations to remain polite even in the face of experienced aggression from outsiders (Grandey et al., 2004, 2005) and thus find other, less obvious and more easily deniable ways to seek revenge (Mccoll-Kennedy, Patterson, Smith, & Brady, 2009; Skarlicki et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011). However, one study found that more obvious and public forms of poor service towards customers were reported more often than more covert forms of such behaviour (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). Of the obvious and public forms of poor service, employees chose to engage in acts where they could deny their intent to the customer (although their behaviour was intentional), such as purposely spilling beverages or food on customers or placing hot plates into customer's

hands (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). Thus, it appears that more work is needed to understand the types of mistreatment behaviours that employees deem "safe" as these appear to be dependent on deniability, covertness (as is characteristic of sabotage), and workgroup norms (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). Future research should examine the mechanisms involved in employees' responses to mistreatment from customers, including workplace incivility (given its ambiguous intent), workplace aggression, sabotage, and withdrawal of service.

Researchers suggest that within a target group, aggression may spillover to another person within the same group. For example, Groth and Grandey (2002) suggested that negative exchanges with customers create a negative exchange spiral and this negativity may spillover to other encounters with customers or to employees. Indeed, previous research have reported that customer service workers carry negative emotions following negative customer service encounters (Barger, 2010), and negative emotions, such as anger, are key predictor of aggression (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002). Examining individual customer encounters to understand better the spillover of negative exchanges from one customer encounter to another would shed more light on within-target displaced aggression (i.e., aggression displaced from one customer encounter to a subsequent customer encounter). Practically speaking, this research would contribute to our understanding of whether one bad customer encounter stays with the employee for subsequent service encounters.

**Limitations**. As this study drew from the same data set, methodological approach, and statistical methodology as Study 2, this study is susceptible to the limitations of cross lagged models, self-reported data from the same source, and lack of theoretical guidance

for time between survey waves, as discussed in Study 2. An additional limitation of Study 3 is that the same scale was used to measure multiple variables. That is, the workplace aggression scale, administered three different times within the same survey, was used to measure three types of aggression: (1) experienced aggression from organizational insiders, (2) experienced aggression from organizational outsiders, and (3) enacted aggression towards organizational outsiders. For each type of aggression, I modified the instructions and items. I also randomized the order of the questions in the scales to reduce the potential for participants perceiving that the scale was mistakenly repeated and to lessen potential familiarity effects. Correlations among these variables were below .65, well below .90 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) and close to 1 (Le, Schmidt, Harter, & Lauver, 2010) guidelines for assessing redundancy, suggesting that the aggression variables were distinct. However, these scales are still susceptible to common method bias as they used the same method as well as similar items (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, this study sought to examine the role of employee direct and displaced retaliation after experiencing workplace aggression. Results suggested that aggression from organizational insiders spilled over to customers (displaced aggression), but employees did not directly retaliate towards customers when they experienced aggression from this source. In addition, the moderators of surface acting and customer sovereignty were investigated, however these variables did not show a significant effect in the direct and displaced aggression relationships. Taken together, this research lends support to the notion that insider aggression may not remain within the organization, rather it may spillover to organizational outsiders, including customers.

Table 4.1

*Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations Among the Study Variables*

| Variable | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. T1 outsider aggression | 1.24 | .52 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. T1 insider aggression | 1.18 | .43 | .61* | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. T1 aggression to outsiders | 1.04 | .14 | .54* | .46* | - | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. T1 surface Acting | 7.91 | 2.81 | .25* | .27* | .29* | (.86) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. T1 Customer Sovereignty | 2.70 | .83 | .26* | .20* | .14** | .22* | (.75) | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. T2 Outsider Aggression | 1.20 | .52 | .66* | .50* | .52* | .24* | .13** | - | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. T2 Insider Aggression | 1.16 | .47 | .38* | .58* | .39* | .19* | .23 | .67* | - | | | | | | | | |
| 8. T2 Aggression to Outsiders | 1.08 | .42 | .27* | .46* | .52* | .29* | .15* | .74* | .78* | - | | | | | | | |
| 9. T2 Surface Acting | 7.69 | 2.99 | .30* | .31* | .23* | .16* | .22* | .25* | .27* | .21* | (.87) | | | | | | |
| 10. T2 Customer Sovereignty | 2.76 | .88 | .26* | .24* | .15** | .13** | .55* | .18* | .26* | .17* | .21* | (.79) | | | | | |
| 11. T3 Outsider Aggression | 1.14 | .38 | .63* | .37* | .55* | .29* | .20* | .69* | .33* | .47* | .25* | .22* | - | | | | |
| 12. T3 Insider Aggression | 1.12 | .34 | .36* | .45* | .45* | .20* | .07 | .64* | .73* | .78* | .25* | .12** | .62* | - | | | |
| 13. T3 Aggression to Outsiders | 1.05 | .27 | .33* | .50* | .63* | .16* | .04 | .52* | .39 | .68* | .16* | .13** | .68* | .67* | - | | |
| 14. T3 Surface Acting | 7.44 | 3.05 | .21* | .27* | .23* | .18* | .20* | .28* | .27* | .24* | .57* | .22* | .26* | .29* | .18* | (.89) | |
| 15. T3 Customer Sovereignty | 2.64 | .96 | .19* | .19* | .14** | .10 | .52* | .06 | .17* | .10 | .15* | .69* | .24* | .18* | .10 | .20** | (.77) |

*Notes.* $n = 218$. Where relevant, average internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's coefficient alpha) across the study time points are reported in parentheses on the diagonal. Workplace aggression variables were measured on seven-point scales, surface acting and customer sovereignty were measured on five-point scales. Higher values for all measures indicate more of the construct. T1 = Variable measured at Time 1, T2 = Variable measured at Time 2, T3 = Variable measured at Time 3.

*$p < .01$., ** $p < .05$.

Table 4.2

*Structural Equation Model Results for Competing Models Testing Hypothesis 1 and 2.*

| Model | $X^2$ | df | RMSEA | CFI | TLI | SRMR | $\Delta X^2$ | $\Delta df$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Hypothesis 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Hypothesized | 27.19** | 4 | .16** | .84 | .45 | .13 | | |
| Stability | 148.12** | 10 | .24 | .07 | .31 | .30 | 158.74* | 6 |
| Reverse | 688.52** | 7 | .55 | .06 | .7 | .06 | 152.31* | 3 |
| Hypothesis 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Hypothesized | 3.33 | 4 | .01 | 1.0 | 1.0 | .03 | | |
| Stability | 43.01* | 10 | .12 | .54 | .35 | .29 | 31.32* | 6 |
| Reverse | 50.86* | 7 | .14 | .49 | .10 | .11 | 36.02* | 3 |

Notes: *$p < .01$, ** $p < .05$

Table 4.3

*Structural Equation Model Results for Competing Models Testing Hypothesis 3a-4b.*

| Model | $X^2$ | df | RMSEA | CFI | TLI | SRMR | $\Delta X^2$ | $\Delta df$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Hypothesis 3a | | | | | | | | |
| Hypothesized | 67.34* | 28 | .08 | .90 | .79 | .08 | | |
| Stability | 354.70* | 52 | .17 | .23 | .12 | .29 | 128.32* | 24 |
| Reverse | 409.39* | 40 | .17 | .33 | .11 | .13 | 522.72* | 12 |
| Hypothesis 3b | | | | | | | | |
| Hypothesized | 140.96* | 28 | .14 | .78 | .53 | .13 | | |
| Stability | 487.37* | 52 | .20 | .16 | .03 | .29 | 328.02* | 24 |
| Reverse | 305.43* | 40 | .14 | .69 | .49 | .16 | 152.67* | 12 |
| Hypothesis 4a | | | | | | | | |
| Hypothesized | 330.14* | 28 | .21* | .79 | .55 | .24 | | |
| Stability | 1111.82* | 52 | .29* | .27 | .16 | .31 | 781.67* | 24 |
| Reverse | 477.57* | 40 | .18* | .72 | .55 | .27 | 145.05* | 12 |
| Hypothesis 4b | | | | | | | | |
| Hypothesized | 233.86* | 34 | .16* | .23 | .03 | .23 | | |
| Stability | 210.38* | 52 | .12* | .39 | .29 | .31 | 36.02 | 18 |
| Reverse | 215.39* | 40 | .12* | .71 | .53 | .21 | 17.60 | 6 |

Notes: *$p < .01$, ** $p < .05$

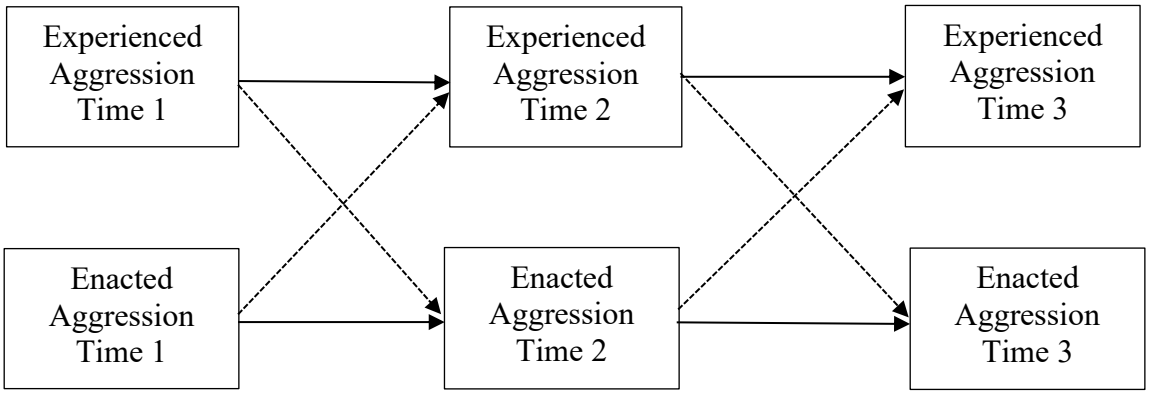


*Figure 4.1*. Structural equation models testing cross-lagged effects. For Hypotheses 1 and 2, I tested the solid lines for the stability model. I tested the solid and dotted lines for the hypothesized models and the solid and dotted lines in the reverse direction for the reversed causation model. Experienced aggression at Time 1, 2, and 3 were correlated with each other in all models tested.

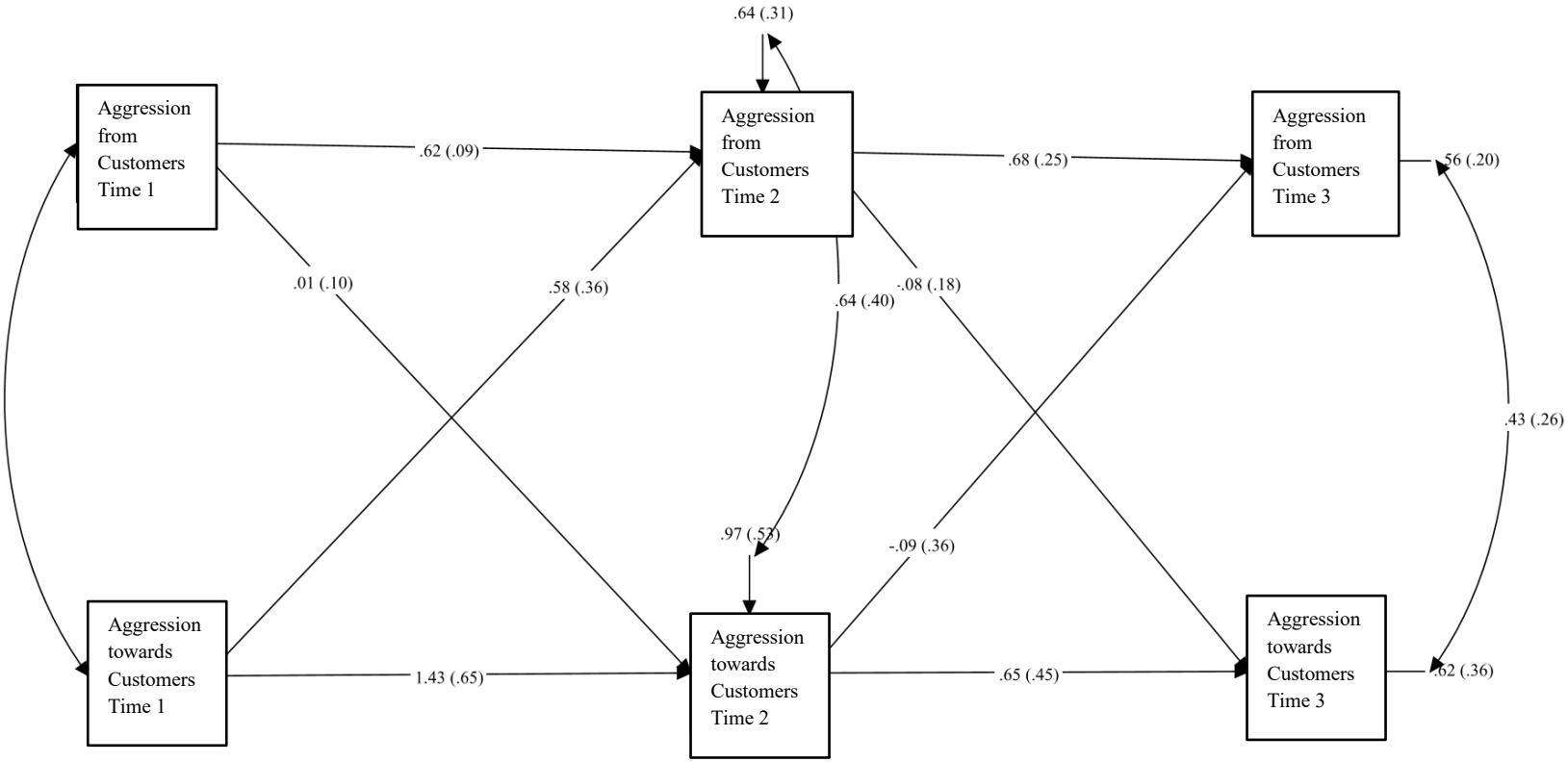


*Figure 4.2.* Standardized coefficients and standard errors for the Hypothesis 1 model examining the relationship between experienced aggression from customers and direct, retaliatory customer-targeted aggression.

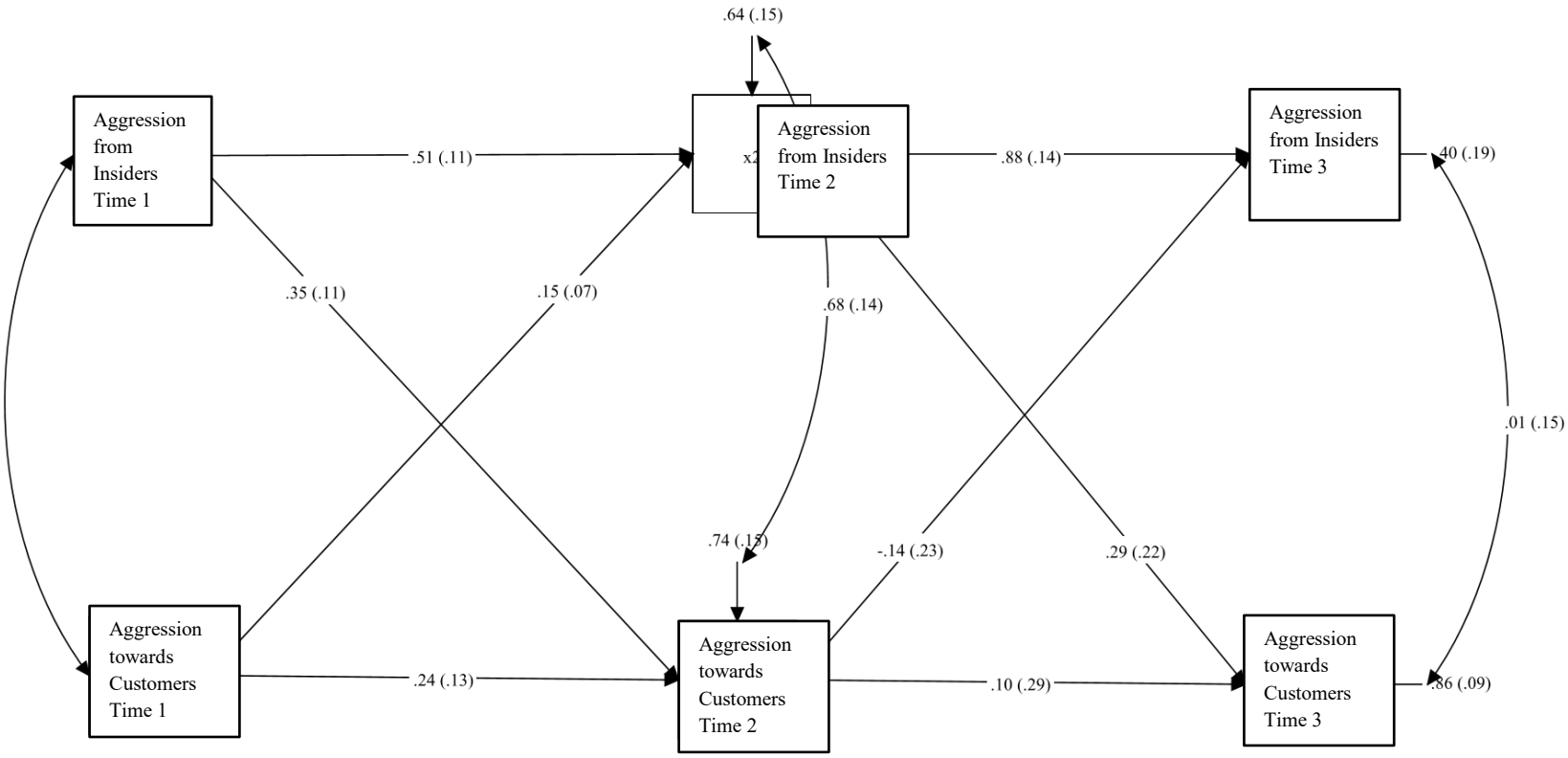


*Figure 4.3.* Standardized coefficients and standard errors for the Hypothesis 2 model examining the relationship between experienced aggression from insiders and displaced aggression towards customers.

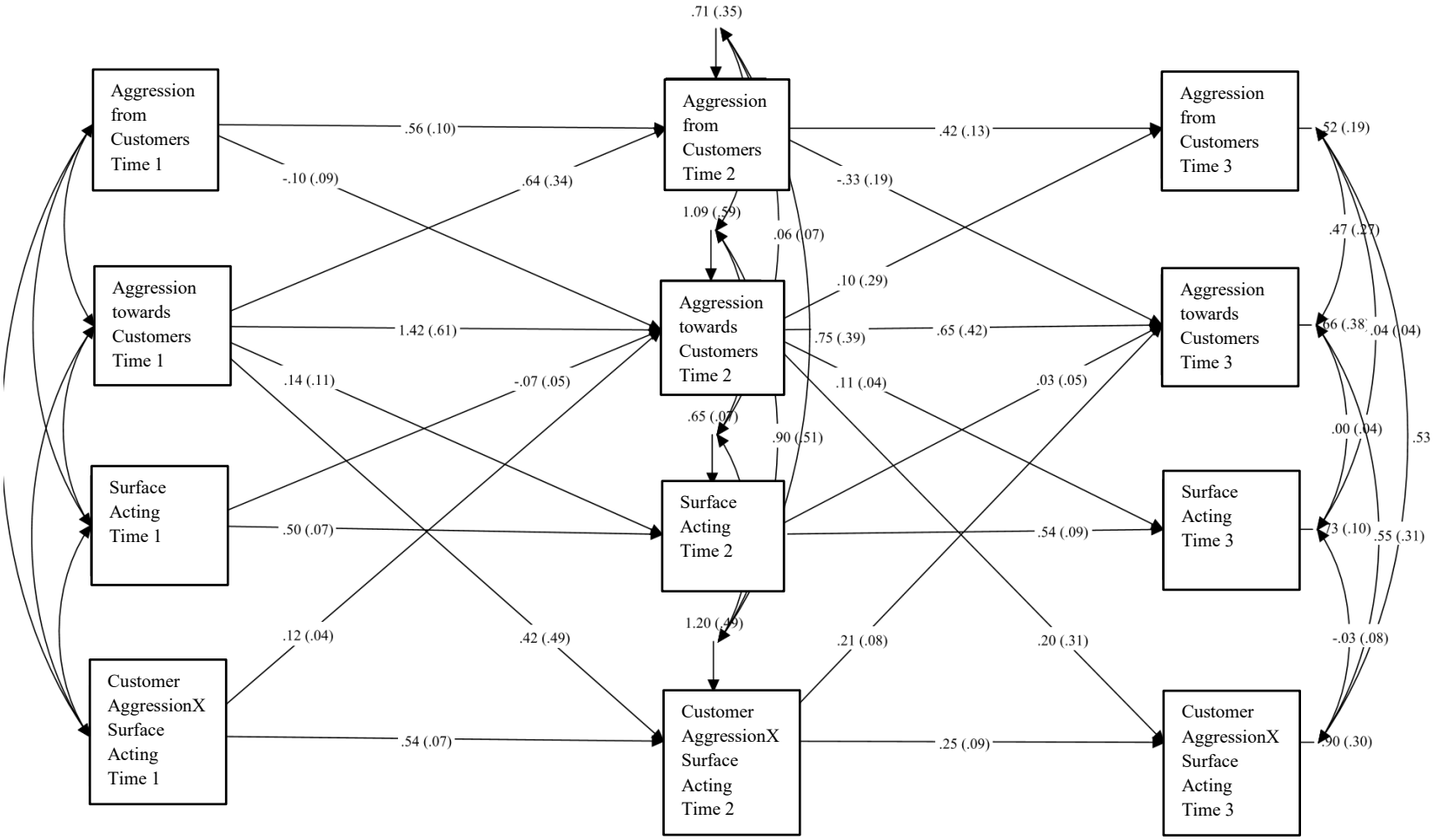


*Figure 4.4.* Standardized coefficients and standard errors for the Hypothesis 3a model examining the moderating role of surface acting on the relationship between experienced aggression from customers and direct, retaliatory aggression towards customers.

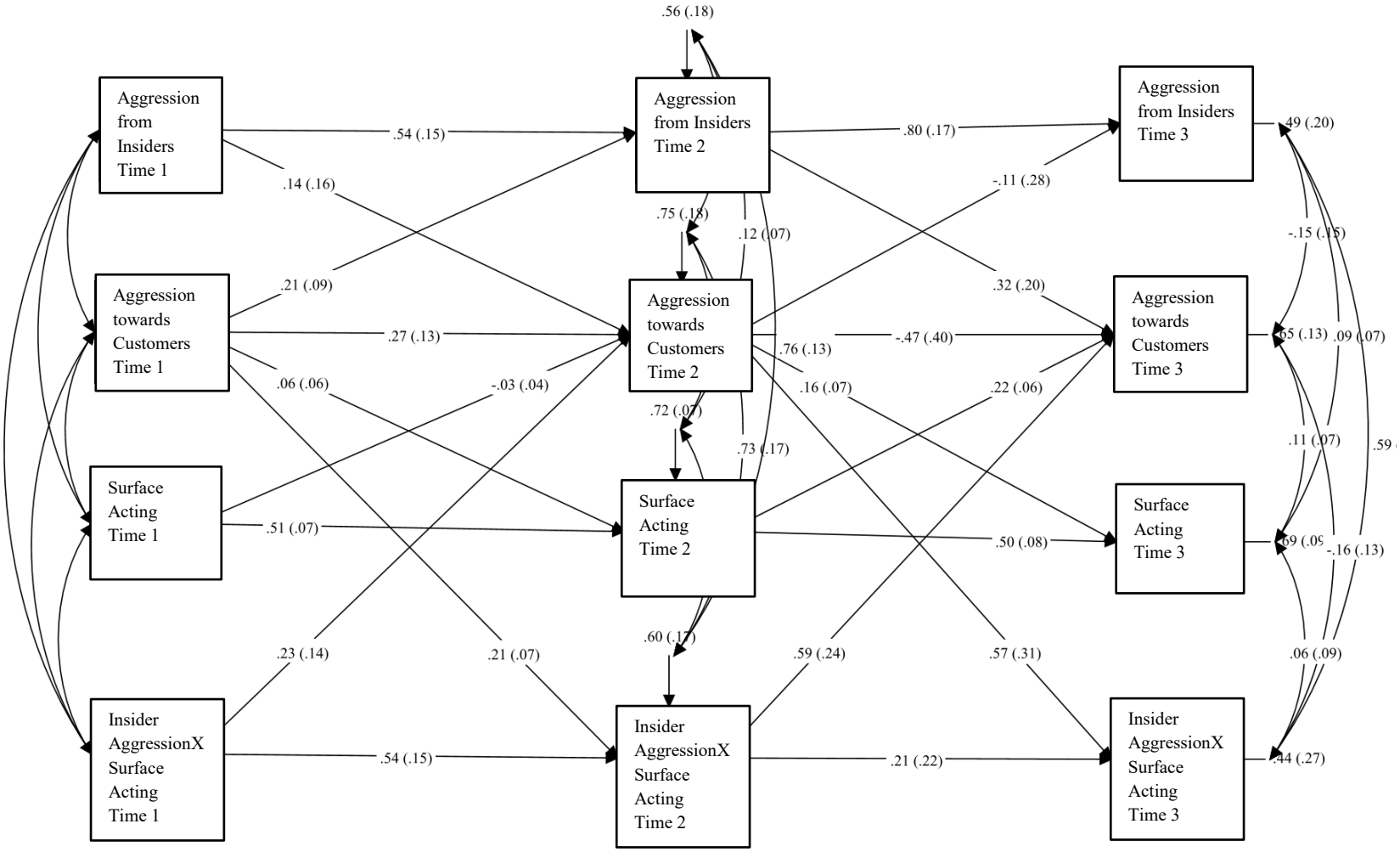


*Figure 4.5.* Standardized coefficients and standard errors for the Hypothesis 3b model examining the moderating role of surface acting on the relationship between experienced aggression from insiders and displaced aggression towards customers.

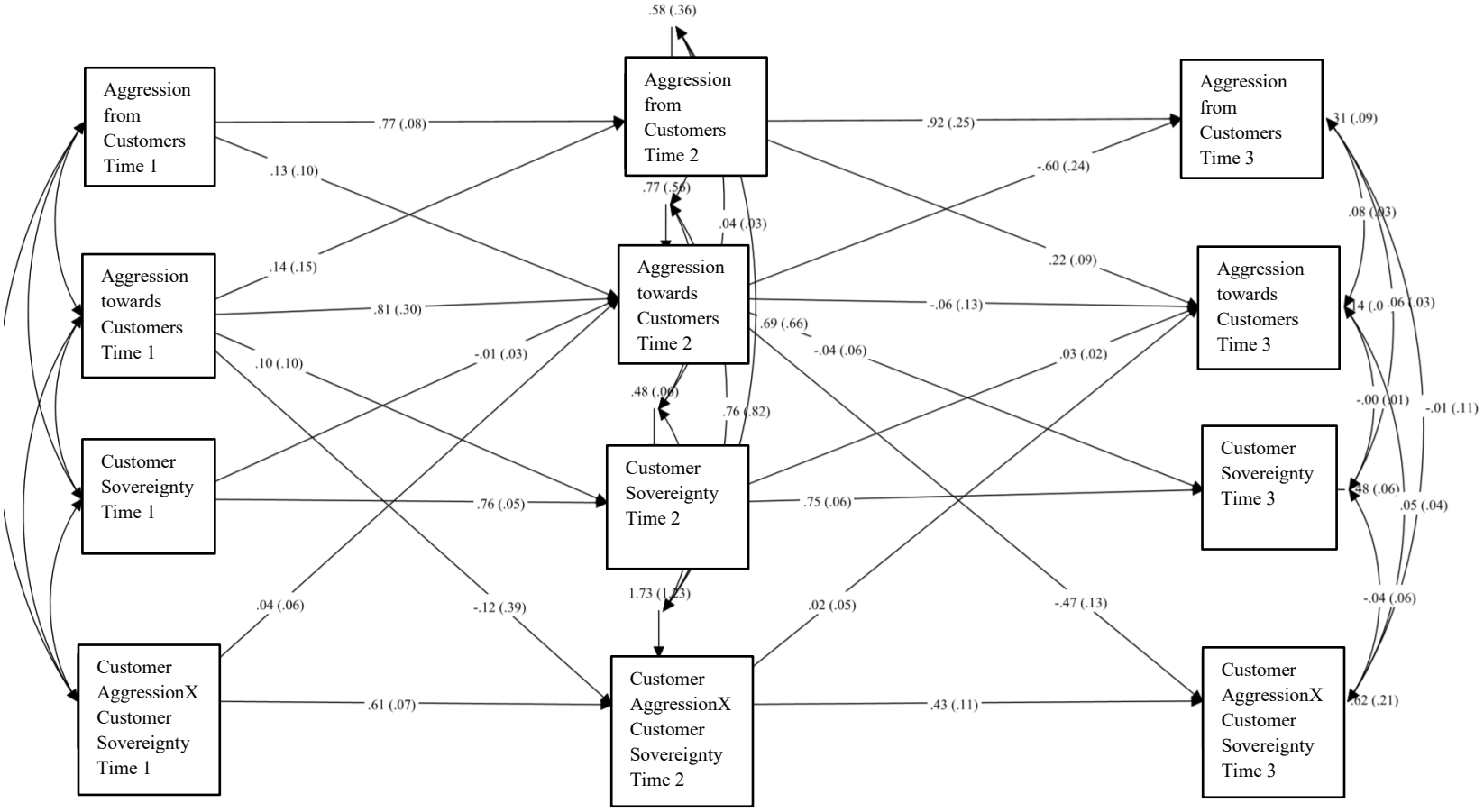


*Figure 4.6.* Standardized coefficients and standard errors for the Hypothesis 4a model examining the moderating role of customer sovereignty on the relationship between experienced aggression from customers and direct, retaliatory aggression towards customers.

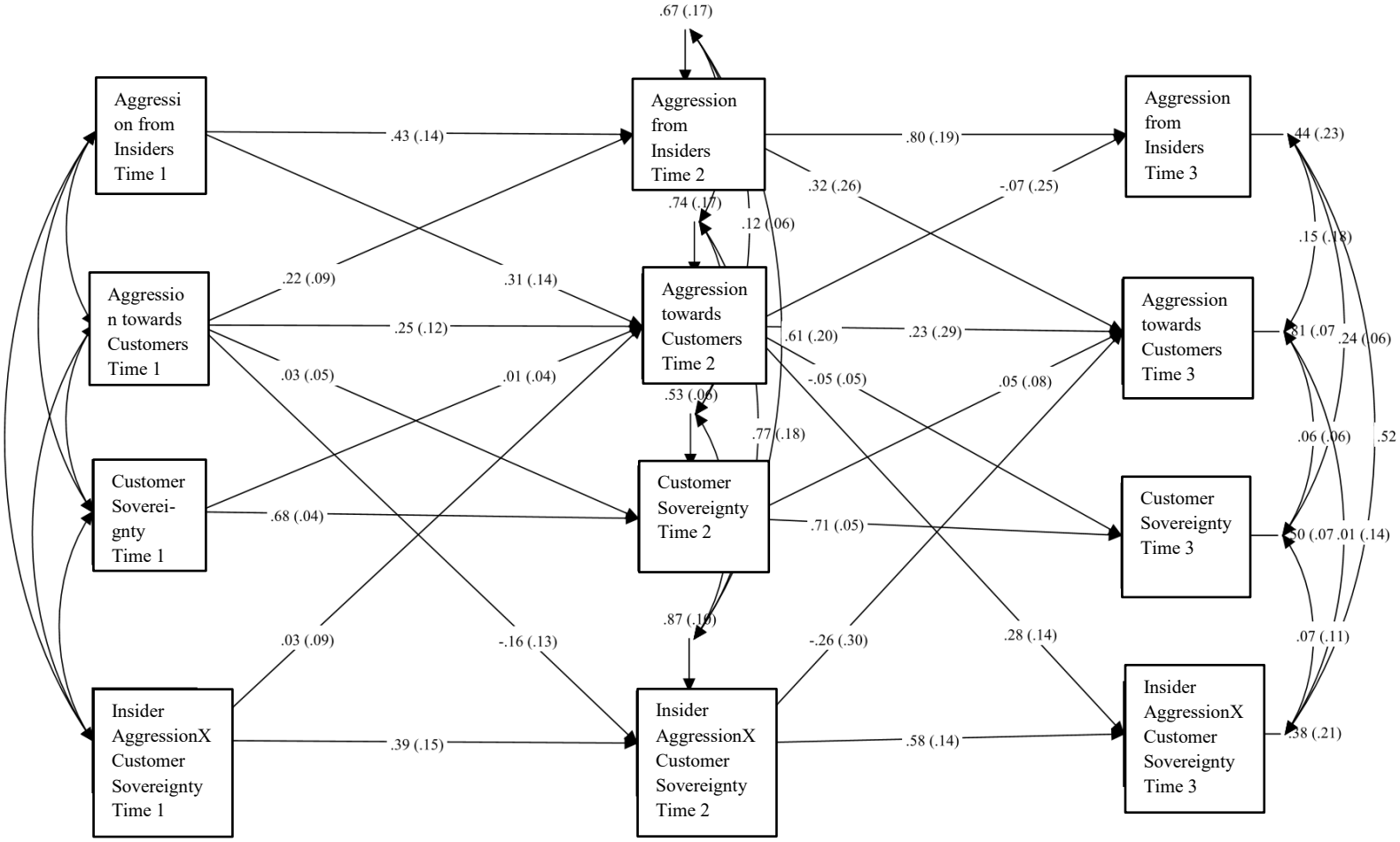


*Figure 4.7.* Standardized coefficients and standard errors for the Hypothesis 3a model examining the moderating role of customer sovereignty on the relationship between experienced aggression from insiders and displaced aggression towards customers.

# CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

The studies presented in this dissertation examined employee aggression in response to being mistreated in the workplace, and did so in new ways, examining intensity of aggression (Study 1), the use of negative and positive behaviour to cope with identity threats (Study 2), and displaced aggression towards another target (Study 3). I also investigated the situation and person factors as moderators of these relationships. Overall, the results of these three studies have several implications for research and theory. For Study 1, intensity (as well as frequency) is a viable and potentially important way to measure workplace aggression and may have a different path over time than commonly used frequency measures of aggression. For Study 2, aggression is one possible response to identity threats, and a set of more positive discretionary behaviours, OCB, is another. For Study 3, aggression that occurs within an organization between coworkers can be displaced to customers, and therefore does not remain within the organization.

In addition, another goal of this work was to examine the moderating mechanisms of the relationships in each study. In Study 1, stronger climates of mistreatment moderated the relationships, such that aggression was buffered. Previous research suggested that sanctions for aggressive behavior and management's reinforcement of sanctions (Inness et al; Dupre & Barling 2008) as well as the behavior of coworkers (Robinson & O-Leary Kelly, 2008) are important situational predictors of workplace aggression. Study 1 reinforces the importance of creating a climate of interpersonal respect as an important prevention strategy. In Study 2, the relationship between social identity threat and workplace aggression was moderated by organizational identification, such that people who highly identified with the organization were less likely to enact aggression at later

points in the study. This finding suggests that organizations who provide employees with a sense of identity or membership may also have an advantage when it comes to the prevention of aggression. In Study 3, the factors I hypothesized would moderate the relationships between experienced and enacted aggression towards customers (either direct or displaced), were not significant. I had opted to examine factors that reflected the organization's expectations for customer interactions: customer sovereignty (the extent to which the organization reinforces *the customer is always right*) and surface acting (the display of an appropriate array of emotions when dealing with customers). It is possible that, as with Studies 1 and 2, factors that may moderate customer-targeted aggression may be those more explicitly related to aggression reduction, such as organizational sanctions, or more intensely personal, such as identification with the organization, or anger-related emotions.

**Theoretical Contributions**

This research makes several contributions to the theoretical work in organizational behaviour by advancing understanding of how employees respond to mistreatment in the workplace. Much research has examined the retaliatory behaviour of employees following mistreatment (e.g., Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Dupré & Barling, 2006; Kumar Madupalli & Poddar, 2014; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). This research examined measurement approaches to understanding retaliatory responses (Study 1), a specific type of provocation of retaliation, identity threat (Study 2), and particular targets of retaliatory behaviour, namely coworkers (Study 1) and customers (Study 2 and Study 3). Each of these will be discussed in turn.

First, this research advanced understanding of the intensity of workplace aggression, aiming to shift the focus from examining *how much* aggression occurs to *how bad* it gets in the context of interpersonal interactions in the workplace. Much aggression research in the field of organizational behaviour has measured aggression by assessing the frequency of representative behaviours, while research in the social psychology tradition has tended to measure aggression by assessing behavioural intensity (e.g., C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 1997). The current research examined both frequency and intensity measures of workplace aggression and moderators of these relationships at two time points. Results showed that both the frequency of mistreatment and intensity of mistreatment models were significant, suggesting that both methods of measuring workplace mistreatment are valid. Moderation results showed that, for both frequency and intensity, stronger norms against workplace mistreatment were associated with greater aggression, suggesting that employees may punish those who violate norms to bring those individuals in line with the group. Further, norms for mistreatment moderated the incivility-enacted aggression relationship in the short term for frequency variables, while moderating the enacted aggression Time 1-Time 2 relationship in the longer term for intensity variables, suggesting that at higher intensities of aggression employees may be even more likely to punish others to thwart future aggression. Anger rumination moderated the incivility-enacted aggression relationship for both frequency and intensity, but not between Time 1 and 2, suggesting that anger rumination was more important in initial retaliation than longer term aggression. Taken together, the results of this study suggest that it is not only important for researchers to examine how often mistreatment happens but also how severe it gets.

Second, this research advanced workplace aggression research by examining the influence of one type of mistreatment, identity threats, in motivating employees' discretionary behaviour. To my knowledge, this was the first study to examine social identity threats in the workplace. Results showed that both individually-focused personal identity threats and group-focused social identity threats predicted enacted workplace aggression longitudinally. Further, while much of the theory and research on workplace aggression focuses on negative responses, this research showed that social identity threats also motivated a positive response in participants, namely OCB. From a social identity threat perspective, researchers have suggested that individuals are motivated to engage in OCB to cast their group in a more positive light following a social identity threat towards that group (Ellemers et al., 1999; Haslam et al., 2000; van Knippenberg, 2000). Further, this research advanced the literature by demonstrating positive employee responses to mistreatment that have been ignored in workplace aggression theories and the General Aggression Model. The primary focus of much of the theoretical work to date has been on negative responses to mistreatment. Although the General Aggression Model has articulated that there are several possible negative outcomes of mistreatment, it does not explore the potential positive outcomes of such behaviour. Study 2 suggests that these positive outcomes of mistreatment are indeed possible. Further, by examining organizational identification as a moderator this research advanced understanding of the conditions under which behavioural responses to identity threats occur. Individuals who highly identified with the organization and who experienced social identity threats were less likely to retaliate aggressively, suggesting that these individuals may find other ways to reinforce their organizations positive value.

Third, Study 3 advanced the literature on displaced aggression in the workplace as well as the literature on customer mistreatment. Displaced Aggression Theory is a classic in the psychology literature, however little research has examined displaced aggression in workplace settings (for an exception see Hoobler & Brass, 2006). This study extended the literature on displaced aggression in organizations by examining the dynamics in the service encounter and results showed that employees can and do displace their aggression to those they serve. Further, the workplace aggression literature has examined several possible sources and targets of aggression and this study contributes to the literature by examining customers as targets of employee aggression. Customer-targeted mistreatment has primarily focused on more covert behaviours, such as sabotage, to date (e.g., Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Skarlicki et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011). This study found that while employees did not directly retaliate aggressively towards customers, they did displace their aggression. That is, after experiencing aggression from organizational insiders, employees displaced aggression towards organizational outsiders. Taken together, the results of Study 3 suggest that workplace aggression does not necessarily stay inside the organization, but rather can spillover to those outside of the organization.

**Practical Implications**

This research has practical implications for understanding aggression in organizations at more than a single point in time (e.g., longitudinally). First, this research, in line with earlier work (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Douglas et al., 2008; Dupré & Barling, 2006), suggests that the tit-for-tat exchange of mistreatment behaviours indicates that the typical legal approach focusing on identifying a single perpetrator and a single victim in a given incident may not provide the full picture of the mistreatment behaviours

between the individuals involved. Rather, there may be multiple incidents leading up to the reported incident and the individuals involved may be both be a victim and a perpetrator of aggression. As a result, all parties may be deserving of some level of disciplinary action. However, it is preferable for organizations to recognize when negative or aggression interactions are occurring and intervene before the mistreatment escalates into more serious forms of aggression and violence. Further, organizations can provide employees with the training and supports to handle interpersonal situations that have the potential to become negative, for example skill development in handling negative conflict, self-awareness, and bystander intervention as well as clear organizational policies and consequences aggressive colleagues and customers.

Second, extant research suggests that when things "get personal" (as is the case for identity threats), mistreatment quickly escalates in terms of the intensity of the behaviours involved (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Identity threatening behaviour may be a common problem in workplaces, particularly for those where members or groups of people engage in social comparisons of the value or competence of individuals or groups. Derogation of others is a precursor to aggression as a form of retaliation. As one possible approach, organizations may consider the common conflict management advice to "attack the problem, not the people". This is consistent with Social Identity Theory in that when people feel their ideas, competence, or character are attacked, the discussion gets personal, an identity threat may be perceived, and, as a result, the conversation may deteriorate into insults and more personal attacks. Rather, active listening to understand others point of view and pointing out where their thinking is similar as commonly recommended. It is also

important that organizations create a cooperative and respectful culture where derogation of individuals or groups is unlikely in the first place.

On the positive side, though, this research suggested that members of derogated groups work to fortify their own group as a response to identity threats, thus potentially strengthening their group over time. I caution organizations in taking away from these results that identity threats are 'good' for employees, organizations, or customers. Rather, I believe this finding is an example of where employees can turn a bad situation into something good.

Third, the results of Study 3 suggested that not only do employees retaliate after experiencing aggression, but they take it out on others in the work environment who were not involved in the first experience of mistreatment, namely customers. That is, employees can turn the tables on those who they serve, enacting aggression towards customers due to the mistreatment they experience within the organization, from their own colleagues. Much research has found that mistreatment from customers is frequent and has considerable influence on employees well being (Grandey et al., 2004; Rafaeli et al., 2012; Yagil, 2008), and research suggests employees also mistreat customers. Research has even reported that employee can potentially displace the aggression they experience while on the job to organizational outsiders, such as their spouse (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Liu et al., 2015). Customers experiences of aggression could influence organizations in a negative way, such as loss of repeat business, reputational concerns, poor word of mount advertising (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 1999, 2004), reductions in unit sales (Schneider et al., 2005) as well as potential law suits. Taken together, the results of this study suggest that organizations

should focus inside on their prevention of aggression in addition to reinforcing customer service expectations and supports for when service encounters are negative.

**Future Research**

There are several interesting new directions for research illuminated by these studies that can continue to extend workplace mistreatment theory and research. First, Study 1 suggested that the intensity of workplace aggression, in addition to the frequency, offers opportunities to understand the workplace aggression over time and may be important in understanding and advancing the measurement of workplace aggression. Future research should further examine the role of intensity of workplace aggression in the predictors, outcomes, moderating and mediating mechanisms, and aggression over time. For example, examining the intensity of workplace aggression longitudinally may shed more light on whether aggression occurs spontaneously with a single highly intense event or if it involves a slower tit-for-tat escalation with more frequent aggression that increases in intensity slowly over several exchanges of aggression. Certainly, this research suggests a slower tit-for-tat escalation occurs, and future research could examine the escalation longitudinally to observe change in aggression over time. Further, by using existing measures of aggression to form the basis of a measure of aggression intensity, researchers can use archival data to begin to explore questions around aggression intensity, its causes and consequences, and potentially its occurrence over time.

Second, Study 2 examined the role of identity threats in motivating discretionary behaviours in response (aggression and OCB) and identified several avenues for future research. Examining social identity threats and workplace aggression has many fruitful opportunities to merge the literatures on teams and workgroups with that of workplace

aggression. For example, it may be of interest to explore the varying roles that social identity threats play in intergroup relations, particularly among different groups working for the same organization. Indeed, research have reported that when an individual ingroup is mistreated, others in that group may seek retribution towards the outgroup (Lickel et al., 2006). A potential area of future study is whether employees find ways to seek retribution for customers mistreating their coworkers towards customers as group as a form of bystander retaliation. This notion supports that workplace aggression may be target specific (e.g., customers), but not person specific (e.g., the aggressive customer) in some circumstances. That is, individuals may seek retaliation towards the group to which the perpetrator belongs, but not necessarily the individual themselves.

In addition, this research examined positive employee responses, namely OCB, following being the target of social identity threat, opening a promising area of research. It is counterintuitive to think of bad behaviour motivating good. However, Social Identity Theory provides guidance for understanding the underlying motivation of why employees may respond to mistreatment positively. That is, when ingroup members feel that their group identity has been threatened, they seek to show that the group's value and worth. It may be of interest for future research to examine possible links between identity threats and how group connections may be strengthened following mistreatment, such as group cohesion and identification. Future research could also examine additional positive responses as a possible way of responding to mistreatment. For example, are there circumstances under which an employee might engage positive behaviours towards an *outgroup*, such as attempting to openly communicate with the outgroup or build cooperate relationships, with the goal of fortifying the ingroup. Social psychological research have

found that outgroup helping is a possible response to identity threat, especially when the outgroup is facing misfortune (Nadler, Harpaz-Gorodeisky, & Ben-David, 2009; Van Leeuwen & Täuber, 2010).

Third, with respect to Study 3, outsider-targeted aggression is one possible response to mistreatment from insiders. Future research could examine additional factors that may influence whether employees enact mistreatment towards organizational outsiders. For example, researchers suggests that customer's sense of anonymity may influence their likelihood of mistreating employees (Gutek, 1995; Gutek, Bhappu, Liao-Troth, & Bennett, 1999). Based on this, the reverse may be true, research could examine whether employees' own sense of anonymity (e.g., all employees wear the same uniform, employees and customers do not get to know each other due to brief service encounters) might influence employees' mistreatment of customers.

Further, all three studies examined mistreatment behaviours at multiple time points. Although the time lags were rationally decided based on previous research and what theoretical guidance was available, there was a lack of clear theoretical guidance on the timeframe for aggression escalation and retaliation after experiencing workplace mistreatment. Experimental research suggests that aggressive responses can be invoked very quickly (e.g., C. A. Anderson et al., 2008; Stucke & Baumeister, 2006) and theories suggest aggression can impulsively occur shortly after provocation (C. A. Anderson & Bushman, 2002). Displaced Aggression Theory, on the other hand, suggests that individuals can suppress their aggressive behaviour in the moment and when they experience a minor triggering event, respond with aggression at a later point (Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000; N. E. Miller, 1941). Further, earlier longitudinal aggression research

has examined multiple instances of aggression over time frames of 1 to 30 months (Murphy & O'Leary, 1989; O'Leary, Barling, Arias, Rosenbaum, Malone, & Tyree, 1989; Rodriguez-Munoz, Baillien, De Witte, Moreno-Jimenez, & Pastor, 2009). As researchers seek to understand how workplace aggression changes over time and seek to understand the escalatory nature of aggression, guidance on the time frame of this change will help to isolate these patterns. In addition, it is likely that situational factors, such as power differential between those involved and the nature of the mistreatment (e.g., uncivil behaviour that leaves the target wondering whether the behaviour was intentionally harmful, joking, or poorly stated), may influence the type of retaliation behaviour and the time lags of aggression. For example, if aggressive behaviour is not perceived as safe towards one's supervisor, it may be suppressed, but then when the aggression continues the employee may eventually become fed up or think that they can get away with retaliating and become aggressive. More theoretical guidance is needed to understand and to more accurately examine workplace aggression over time.

## Conclusion

Overall, this dissertation examined workplace mistreatment over time drawing on the General Aggression Model. I examined the responses to aggressive behaviour and the moderating mechanisms influencing the likelihood of behavioural responses. Together, the current three studies advanced the workplace aggression literature by showing employees' responses to workplace mistreatment at multiple time points. Study 1 compared measures of frequency and intensity of workplace mistreatment and found that employees aggressively responded to experiencing workplace incivility from a coworker. Study 2 showed that employees' respond to personal identity threats with aggression and to social

identity threats with both aggression and OCB. Study 3 found that employees' experiences of aggression can motivate direct retaliation towards the source and re-directing of anger towards another target. The findings herein suggest that organizations should take whatever steps they can to prevent their negative retaliatory behavior in response when they are mistreated. In addition, organizations should identify workplace aggression early on to be able to intervene before a tit-for-tat exchange of mistreatment escalates into increasingly intense mistreatment behaviours.

## References

Aloia, L. S., & Solomon, D. H. (2015). Conflict Intensity, Family History, and Physiological Stress Reactions to Conflict Within Romantic Relationships. *Human Communication Research*, *41*(3), 367–389. https://doi.org/10.1111/hcre.12049

Ambrose, M. L., Seabright, M. A., & Schminke, M. (2002). Sabotage in the workplace: The role of organizational injustice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *89*(1), 947–965. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0749-5978(02)00037-7

American Psychiatric Association. (2013). *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*.

Anderson, C. A., Buckley, K. E., & Carnagey, N. L. (2008). Creating Your Own Hostile Environment: A Laboratory Examination of Trait Aggressiveness and the Violence Escalation Cycle. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *34*(4), 462–473. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167207311282

Anderson, C. A., & Bushman, B. J. (1997). External validity of "trivial" experiments: The case of laboratory aggression. *Review of General Psychology*, *1*(1), 19–41. https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.1.1.19

Anderson, C. A., & Bushman, B. J. (2002). Human Aggression. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *53*(1), 27–51. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.53.100901.135231

Anderson, C. A., & Dill, K. E. (2000). Video Games and Aggressive Thoughts, Feelings, and Behavior in the Laboratory and in Life. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *78*(4), 772–790. https://doi.org/10.1037//O022-3514.78.4.772

Anderson, E. W. (1998). Customer satisfaction and word of mouth. *Journal of Service Research*, *1*(1), 5–17.

Andersson, L. M., & Pearson, C. M. (1999). Effect of Tit for Tat ? the Spiraling in the Workplace Incivility. *Academy of Management Review*, *24*(3), 452–471. https://doi.org/10.2307/259136

Andreassen, T. W. (1999). What drives customer loyalty with complaint resolution? *Journal of Service Research*, *1*(4), 324–332. https://doi.org/10.1177/109467059914004

Anestis, M. D., Anestis, J. C., Selby, E. A., & Joiner, T. E. (2009). Anger rumination across forms of aggression. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *46*(2), 192–196. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2008.09.026

Aquino, K., & Douglas, S. (2003). Identity threat and antisocial behavior in organizations: The moderating effects of individual differences, aggressive modeling, and hierarchical status. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *90*(1), 195–208. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0749-5978(02)00517-4

Aquino, K., Grover, S. L., Bradfield, M., & Allen, D. G. (1999). The effects of negative affectivity, hierarchical status, and self determination on workplace victimization. *Academy of Management Journal*, *42*(3), 260–272. https://doi.org/10.2307/256918

Aquino, K., & Thau, S. (2009). Workplace Victimization: Aggression from the Target's Perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *60*(1), 717–741. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.60.110707.163703

Aquino, K., Tripp, T. M., & Bies, R. J. (2001). How employees respond to personal offense: The effects of blame attribution, victim status, and offender status on revenge and reconciliation in the workplace. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(1), 52–59. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.1.52

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social Identity Theory and the Organization. *Academy of Management*, *14*(1), 20–39. https://doi.org/10.2307/258189

Baillien, E., Rodriguez-Muñoz, A., Van den Broeck, A., & De Witte, H. (2011). Do demands and resources affect target's and perpetrators' reports of workplace bullying? A two-wave cross-lagged study. *Work & Stress*, *25*(2), 128–146. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2011.591600

Bandura, A. (1973). *Aggression: A social learning analysis*. Oxford, England: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. (1978). Social learning theory of aggression. *Journal of Communications*, *28*(3), 12–29.

Bandura, A. (1983). Social learning theory. In R. G. Geen & E. I. Donnerstein (Eds.), *Aggression: Theoretical and Empirical Reviews* (pp. 1–40). New York, NY: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A., Underwood, B., & Fromson, M. E. (1975). Disinhibition of aggression through diffusion of responsibility and dehumanization of victims. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *9*, 253–269.

Barger, P. B. (2010). *Service without a smile?! exploring the roles of customer injustice, anger and individual differences in emotional deviance*. Bowling Green State University. Retrieved from http://ovidsp.ovid.com/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&CSC=Y&NEWS=N&PAGE=fulltext&D=psyc6&AN=2010-99020-171%5Cnhttp://opurl.bib.umontreal.ca:9003/sfx_local?sid=OVID:psycdb&id=pmid:&id=doi:&issn=0419-4217&isbn=9781109277883&volume=70&issue=7-

B&spage=4521&pages=4521&date=

Barling, J., Dupré, K. E., & Kelloway, E. K. (2009). Predicting Workplace Aggression and Violence. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *60*, 671–692. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.60.110707.163629

Barling, J., Rogers, A. G., & Kelloway, E. K. (2001). Behind closed doors: in-home workers' experience of sexual harassment and workplace violence. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *6*(3), 255–269. https://doi.org/10.1037//1076-8998.6.3.255

Baron, R. A., & Neuman, J. H. (1996). Workplace Violence and Workplace Aggression : Evidence on Their Relative Frequency and Potential Causes. *AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR*, *22*, 161–173.

Baron, R. A., Neuman, J. H., & Geddes, D. (1999). Social and personal determinants of workplace aggression: Evidence for the impact of perceived injustice and the Type A Behavior Pattern. *Aggressive Behavior*, *25*(4), 281–296. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1098-2337(1999)25:4<281::AID-AB4>3.0.CO;2-J

Barratt, E. S., Stanford, M. S., Dowdy, L., Liebman, M. J., & Kent, T. A. (1999). Impulsive and premeditated aggression: A factor analysis of self- reported acts. *Psychiatry Research*, *86*(2), 163–173. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0165-1781(99)00024-4

Baumeister, R. F., Bushman, B. J., & Campbell, W. K. (2000). Self-Esteem, Narcissism, and Aggression: Does Violence Result From Low Self-Esteem or From Threatened Egotism? *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *9*(1), 26–29. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.00053

Baumeister, R. F., Smart, L., & Boden, J. M. (1996). Relation of threatened egotism to violence and aggression: The dark side of high self-esteem. *Psychological Review*, *103*(1), 5–33. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.103.1.5

Ben-Zur, H., & Yagil, D. (2005). The relationship between empowerment, aggressive behaviours of customers, coping, and burnout. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *14*(1), 81–99. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320444000281

Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*(3), 349–360. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.3.349

Bernstein, D. (1984). *Company image and reality: A critique of corporate communications*. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Berry, C. M., Ones, D. S., & Sackett, P. R. (2007). Interpersonal deviance, organizational deviance, and their common correlates: A review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(2), 410–424. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.2.410

Bies, R. J. (1999). Interactional (in)justice: The sacred and the profane. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational behavior* (pp. 89–118). San Francisco, CA: The New Lexington Press.

Bies, R. J., & Tripp, T. M. (1996). Beyond distrust: "Getting even" and the need for revenge. *Trust in Organizations: Frontiers of Theory and Research.*, (November 2015), 246–260. https://doi.org/HM131 T715 1996

Bies, R. J., & Tripp, T. M. (2005). The study of revenge in the workplace: Conceptual, ideological, and empirical issues. In S. Fox & P. E. Spector (Eds.), *Counterproductive*

*work behavior: Investigations and actors and targets* (pp. 65– 81). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Bing, M. N., Stewart, S. M., Davison, H. K., Green, P. D., McIntyre, M. D., & James, L. R. (2007). An integrative typology of personality assessment for aggression: implications for predicting counterproductive workplace behavior. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.3.722

Blau, G., & Andersson, L. (2005). Testing a measure of instigated workplace incivility. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *78*(4), 595–614. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317905X26822

Bolino, M. C., Turnley, W. H., & Bloodgood, J. M. (2002). Citizenship behavior and the creation of social capital in organizations. *Acad. Manage. Rev.*, *27*(4), 505–522. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2002.7566023

Borman, W. C., Penner, L. A., Allen, T. D., & Motowidlo, S. J. (2001). Personality Predictors of Citizenship Performance. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, *9*(1&2), 52–69. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2389.00163

Bourhis, R. Y., Giles, H., Leyens, J. P., & Tajfel, H. (1979). Psycholinguistic distinctiveness: Language divergence in Belgium. In H. Giles & R. St. Clair (Eds.), *Language and Social Psychology* (pp. 158–185). Oxford, England: Blackwell.

Bowling, N. A., & Beehr, T. A. (2006). Workplace harassment from the Victim's perspective: A theoretical model and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(5), 998–1012. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.5.998

Branscombe, N. R., Ellemers, N., Spears, R., & Doosje, B. (1999). The context and content of social identity threat. *Social Identity: Context, Commitment, Content*, (January),

35–58. https://doi.org/MAI HM131 S58433 1999

Brotheridge, C. M., & Grandey, A. A. (2002). Emotional Labor and Burnout: Comparing Two Perspectives of "People Work." *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *60*(1), 17–39. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2001.1815

Brotheridge, C. M., & Lee, R. T. (2003). Development and validation of the Emotional Labour Scale. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *76*(3), 365–379. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317903769647229

Bunk, J. A., & Magley, V. J. (2013). The role of appraisals and emotions in understanding experiences of workplace incivility. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *18*(1), 87–105. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030987

Burkholder, G. J., & Harlow, L. L. (2003). An Illustration of a Longitudinal Cross-Lagged Design for Larger Structural Equation Models. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, *10*(773404022), 465–486. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15328007SEM1003_8

Bushman, B. J., & Anderson, C. A. (1998). Methodology in the study of aggression: Integrating experimental and nonexperimental findings. In R. G. Geen & E. Donnerstein (Eds.), *Human aggression: Theories, research, and implications for social policy* (pp. 23–48). San Diego, CA: Academic Press. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/B978-012278805-5/50003-1

Bushman, B. J., & Anderson, C. A. (2001). Is It Time to Pull the Plug on the Hostile Versus Instrumental Aggression Dichotomy? *Psychological Review*, *108*, 273–279.

Bushman, B. J., & Baumeister, R. F. (1998). Threatened egotism, narcissism, self-esteem, and direct and displaced aggression: Does self-love or self-hate lead to violence?

*Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *75*(1), 219–229. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.75.1.219

Bushman, B. J., Bonacci, A. M., Pedersen, W. C., Vasquez, E. A., & Miller, N. (2005). Chewing on It Can Chew You Up: Effects of Rumination on Triggered Displaced Aggression. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *88*(6), 969–983. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.88.6.969

Campbell, D., & Kenny, D. (1999). *A Primer on Regression Artifacts*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Cavallari, J. M., Eisen, E. A., Wegman, D. H., & O'Neill, M. S. (2011). Epidemiology. In B. S. Levy, D. H. Wegman, S. L. Baron, & R. K. Soaks (Eds.), *Occupational and Environmental Health* (pp. 507–526). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Cortina, L. M., & Magley, V. J. (2003). Raising voice, risking retaliation: Events following interpersonal mistreatment in the workplace. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *8*(4), 247–265. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.8.4.247

Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: incidence and impact. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *6*(1), 64–80. https://doi.org/10.1037//1076-8998.6.1.54

Craven, R. (2010). *Customer is King: How to Exceed Their Expectations*. London, UK: Virgin Books.

Cropanzano, R., Goldman, B., & Folger, R. (2003). Deontic justice: The role of moral principles in workplace fairness. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *24*(8), 1019–1024. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.228

de Léséleuc, S. (2004). *Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics Profile Series: Criminal*

*Victimization in the Workplace (No 85F0033MIE)*. Ottawa, ON.

Delongis, A., Coyne, J. C., Dakof, G., Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1982). Relationship of Daily Hassles, Uplifts, and Major Life Events to Health Status. *Health Psychology*, *1*(2), 119–136. https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-6133.1.2.119

Denson, T. F., Pedersen, W. C., Ronquillo, J., & Nandy, A. S. (2009). The Angry Brain: Neural Correlates of Anger, Angry Rumination, and Aggressive Personality. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, *21*(4), 734–744. https://doi.org/10.1162/jocn.2009.21051

DeWall, C. N., Anderson, C. A., & Bushman, B. J. (2011). The general aggression model: Theoretical extensions to violence. *Psychology of Violence*, *1*(3), 245–258. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0023842

DeWall, C. N., Baumeister, R. F., Stillman, T. F., & Gailliot, M. T. (2007). Violence restrained: Effects of self-regulation and its depletion on aggression. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *43*(1), 62–76. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2005.12.005

Dietz, J., Robinson, S. L., Folger, R., Baron, R. A., & Schulz, M. (2003). The Impact of Community Violence and and Organization's Procedural Justice Climate on Workplace Aggression. *Academy of Management*, *46*(3), 317–326. https://doi.org/10.2307/30040625

Dionisi, A. M., Barling, J., & Dupré, K. E. (2012). Revisiting the comparative outcomes of workplace aggression and sexual harassment. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *17*(4), 398–408. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029883

Doosje, B., Spears, R., & Ellemers, N. (2002). Social identity as both cause and effect : The development of group identi cation in response to anticipated and actual changes

in the intergroup status hierarchy, 57–76.

Douglas, S. C., Kiewitz, C., Martinko, M. J., Harvey, P., & Chun, J. U. (2008). Congnitions, Emotions, and Evaluations: an Elaboration Likelihood Model for Workplace Aggression. *Academy of Management Review*, *33*(2), 425–451. Retrieved from http://jerome.stjohns.edu:81/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/210985648?accountid=14068%5Cnhttp://yz3rj4vl2y.search.serialssolutions.com/?ctx_ver=Z39.88-2004&ctx_enc=info:ofi/enc:UTF-8&rfr_id=info:sid/ProQ:abiglobal&rft_val_fmt=info:ofi/fmt:ke

Douglas, S. C., & Martinko, M. J. (2001). Exploring the role of individual differences in the prediction of workplace aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.86.4.547

Dupré, K. E., & Barling, J. (2006). Predicting and Preventing Supervisory Workplace Aggression. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology Copyright*, *11*(1), 13–26. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.11.1.13

Dupré, K. E., Barling, J., Turner, N., & Stride, C. B. (2010). "Comparing perceived injustices from supervisors and romantic partners as predictors of aggression": Correction to Dupré et al. (2010). *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *15*(4), 370. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021607

Dutton, J. E., Roberts, L. M., & Bednar, J. (2009). Positive identities and organizations: An introduction and invitation. In L. M. Roberts & J. E. Dutton (Eds.), *Exploring positive identities and organizations: Building a theoretical and research foundation* (pp. 4–19). New York, NY: Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.

Einarsen, S. (2000). Harassment and bullying at work: A review of the Scandinavian approach. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, *5*(4), 379–401. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1359-1789(98)00043-3

Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., & Notelaers, G. (2009). Measuring exposure to bullying and harassment at work: Validity, factor structure and psychometric properties of the negative acts questionnaire-revised. *Work and Stress*, *23*(1), 24–44. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370902815673

Einarsen, S., & Skogstad, A. (1996). Bullying at work: Epidemiological findings in public and private organizations. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *5*(2), 185–201. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594329608414854

Ellemers, N. (1993). The influence of socio-structural variables on identity management strategies. *European Review of Social Psychology*, *4*(1), 27–57. https://doi.org/10.1080/14792779343000013

Ellemers, N., De Gilder, D., & Haslam, S. A. (2004). Motivating individuals and groups at work: A social identity perspective on leadership and group performance. *Academy of Management Review*, *29*(3), 459–478. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2004.13670967

Ellemers, N., Kortekaas, P., & Ouwerkerk, J. W. (1999). Self-categorisation, commitment to the group and group self-esteem as related but distinct aspects of social identity. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *29*(2–3), 371–389. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-0992(199903/05)29:2/3<371::AID-EJSP932>3.0.CO;2-U

Elsbach, K. D. (1999). An expanded model of organizational identification. *Research in Organizational Behaviour*, *21*(November), 163–199.

Elsbach, K. D. (2003). Relating Physical Environment to Self-Categorizations: Identity Threat and Affirmation in a Non-Territorial Office Space. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *48*(4), 622. https://doi.org/10.2307/3556639

Erez, M., & Earley, P. C. (1993). *Culture, self-identity, and work*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195075809.001.0001

Erickson, R. J., & Wharton, A. S. (1997). Inauthenticity and depression: Assessing the consequences of interactive service work. *Work and Occupations*, *24*(2), 188–213. https://doi.org/10.1177/0730888497024002004

Felson, R. B. (1978). Aggression as impression management. *Social Psychology*, *41*(3), 205–213. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/4121484 .

Felson, R. B. (1992). “Kick 'em when they re down”: Explanations of the relationship between stress and interpersonal aggression and violence. *The Sociological Quarterly*, *33*(1), 1–16. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/4121484 .

Felson, R. B., & Steadman, H. J. (1983). Situational factors in disputs leading to criminal violence. *Criminology*, *21*(1), 59–74.

Fine, G. A. (1996). Justifying Work: Occupational Rhetorics as Resources in Restaurant Kitchens. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *41*(1), 90. https://doi.org/10.2307/2393987

Fisher, R. J. (1990). Needs theory, social identity and an eclectic model of conflict. In *Conflict: Human needs theory* (pp. 89–112). Palgrave Macmillan.

Flippen, A. R., Hornstein, H. A., Siegal, W. E., & Weitzman, E. A. (1996). A comparison of similarity and interdependence as triggers for in-group formation. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *22*(9), 882–893.

https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167296229003

Folger, R., & Skarlicki, D. P. (1999). Unfairness and resistance to change: hardship as mistreatment. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, *12*(1), 35–50. https://doi.org/10.1108/09534819910255306

Folkman, S., Lazarus, R. S., Gruen, R. J., & DeLongis, A. (1986). Appraisal, coping, health status, and psychological symptoms. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *50*(3), 571–579. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.50.3.571

Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (2005). *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Fricker, S., Galesic, M., Tourangeau, R., & Yan, T. (2005). An experimental comparison of web and telephone surveys. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *69*(3), 370–392. https://doi.org/10.1093/poq/nfi027

Galesic, M. (2006). Dropouts on the Web : Effects of Interest and Burden Experienced During an Online Survey. *Journal of Official Statistics*, *22*(2), 313–328.

Giancola, P. R., & Parrott, D. J. (2008). Further evidence for the validity of the Taylor Aggression Paradigm. *Aggressive Behavior*, *34*(2), 214–229. https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.20235

Giancola, P. R., & Zeichner, A. (1995). Construct validity of a competitive reaction time aggression paradigm. *Aggressive Behavior*, *21*(3), 199–204. https://doi.org/10.1002/1098-2337(1995)21:3<199::AID-AB2480210303>3.0.CO;2-Q

Glomb, T. M. (1998). *Workplace aggression: Antecedents, behavioural components, and consequences*. University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Glomb, T. M. (2002). Workplace Anger and Aggression: Informing Conceptual Models

With Data From Specific Encounters. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *7*(1), 20–36. https://doi.org/10.1037//1076-8998.7.1.20

Glomb, T. M., & Liao, H. (2003). INTERPERSONAL AGGRESSION IN WORK GROUPS: SOCIAL INFLUENCE, RECIPROCAL, AND INDIVIDUAL EFFECTS. *Academy of Management Journal*. https://doi.org/10.2307/30040640

Glomb, T. M., & Tews, M. J. (2004). Emotional labor: A conceptualization and scale development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *64*(1), 1–23. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-8791(03)00038-1

Gottman, J. M., & Levenson, R. W. (2000). The Timing of Divorce: Predicting When a Couple Will Divorce Over a 14-Year Period. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *62*(3), 737–745. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2000.00737.x

Grandey, A. A. (2000). Emotional regulation in the workplace: A new way to conceptualize emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *5*(1), 95–110. https://doi.org/10.1037//1076-8998.S.1.9S

Grandey, A. A. (2003). When "The Show Must Go on": Surface Acting and Deep Acting as Determinants of Emotional Exhaustion and Peer-Rated Service Delivery. *Source: The Academy of Management Journal*, *46*(1), 86–96. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/30040678

Grandey, A. A., Dickter, D. N., & Sin, H.-P. (2004). The customer is not always right: Customer aggression and emotion regulation of service employees. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, *25*, 1–22. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.252

Grandey, A. A., Fisk, G. M., & Steiner, D. D. (2005). Must "Service With a Smile" Be Stressful? The Moderating Role of Personal Control for American and French

Employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(5), 893–904. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.5.893

Grandey, A. A., Kern, J. H., & Frone, M. R. (2007). Verbal Abuse From Outsiders Versus Insiders: Comparing Frequency, Impact on Emotional Exhaustion, and the Role of Emotional Labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *12*(1), 63–79. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.12.1.63

Grandey, A. A., Tam, A. P., & Brauburger, A. L. (2002a). Affective states and traits in the workplace: Diary and survey data from young workers. *Motivation and Emotion*, *26*(1), 31–55. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1015142124306

Grandey, A. A., Tam, A. P., & Brauburger, A. L. (2002b). Affective states and traits of young workers: A diary study. *Motivation and Emotion*, *26*(1), 31–55. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1015142124306

Greenberg, J., & Alge, B. J. (1998). Aggressive reactions to workplace injustice. In R. W. Griffin, A. M. O'Leary-Kelly, & J. M. Collins (Eds.), *Monographs in organizational behaviour and industrial relations* (pp. 83–117). US: Elsevier Science.

Greenberg, L., & Barling, J. (1999). Predicting employee aggression against coworkers, subordinates and supervisors: The roles of person behaviors and perceived workplace factors. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *20*(6), 897–913. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(199911)20:6<897::AID-JOB975>3.0.CO;2-Z

Gutek, B. A. (1995). *The dynamics of service: Reflections on the changing nature of customer/provider interactions*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Gutek, B. A., Bhappu, A. D., Liao-Troth, M. A., & Bennett, C. (1999). Distinguishing

Between Service Relationship and Encounters. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *84*(2), 218–233.

Gutek, B. A., Bhappu, A. D., Liao-Troth, M. A., & Cherry, B. (1999). Distinguishing between service relationships and encounters. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *84*(2), 218–233. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.84.2.218

Hackman, J. R. (1992). Group Influences on Individuals in Organizations. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 199–267). Palo Alto, CA, US: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Harris, L. C., & Ogbonna, E. (2002). Exploring Service Sabotage: The Antecedents, Types and Consequences of Frontline, Deviant, Antiservice Behaviors. *Journal of Service Research*, *4*(3), 163–183. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094670502004003001

Harris, L. C., & Ogbonna, E. (2006). Service sabotage: A study of antecedents and consequences. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *34*(4), 543–558. https://doi.org/10.1177/0092070306287324

Haslam, S. A., Powell, C., & Turner, J. (2000). Social Identity, Self-categorization, and Work Motivation: Rethinking the Contribution of the Group to Positive and Sustainable Organisational Outcomes. *Applied Psychology*, *49*(3), 319–339. https://doi.org/10.1111/1464-0597.00018

Hayes, A. F. (2015). An Index and Test of Linear Moderated Mediation. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *50*(1), 1–22. https://doi.org/10.1080/00273171.2014.962683

Hayes, A. F. (2016). The PROCESS macro for SPSS and SAS. Retrieved July 3, 2017, from http://processmacro.org/index.html

He, H., & Brown, A. D. (2013). Organizational identity and organizational identification:

A review of the literature and suggestions for future research. *Group and Organization Management*, *38*(1), 3–35. https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601112473815

Hepworth, W., & Towler, A. (2004). The Effects of Individual Differences and Charismatic Leadership on Workplace Aggression. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *9*(2), 176–185. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.9.2.176

Hershcovis, M. S. (2011). "Incivility, social undermining, bullying...oh my!": A call to reconcile constructs within workplace aggression research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *32*(3), 499–519. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.689

Hershcovis, M. S., & Barling, J. (2007). Towards a Relational Model of Workplace Aggression. *Research Companion to the Dysfunctional Workplace: Management Challenges and Symptoms*, (March 2016), 268–284. https://doi.org/10.4337/9781847207081.00024

Hershcovis, M. S., & Barling, J. (2010). Towards a multi-foci approach to workplace aggression: A meta-analytic review of outcomes from different perpetrators. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *31*(1), 24–44. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.621

Hershcovis, M. S., & Reich, T. C. (2013). Integrating workplace aggression research: Relational, contextual, and method considerations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *34*(SUPPL 1), S26–S42. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1886

Hershcovis, M. S., Reich, T. C., Parker, S. K., & Bozeman, J. (2012). The relationship between workplace aggression and target deviant behaviour: The moderating roles of power and task interdependence. *Work & Stress*, *26*(1), 1–20. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2012.660770

Hershcovis, M. S., Turner, N., Barling, J., Arnold, K., Dupré, K. E., Inness, M., …

Sivanathan, N. (2007). Predicting workplace aggression: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(1), 228–238. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.228

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, *44*(3), 513–524. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.44.3.513

Hogh, A., & Viitasara, E. (2005). A systematic review of longitudinal studies of nonfatal workplace violence. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *14*(3), 291–313. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320500162059

Hoobler, J. M., & Brass, D. J. (2006). Abusive Supervision and Family Undermining as Displaced Aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(5), 1125–1133. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.5.1125

Hoobler, J. M., Rospenda, K. M., Lemmon, G., & Rosa, J. A. (2010). A within-subject longitudinal study of the effects of positive job experiences and generalized workplace harassment on wellbeing. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *15*(4), 434–451. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021000

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, *6*(1), 1–55. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118

Hunter, E. M., & Penney, L. M. (2014). The Waiter Spit in My Soup! Antecedents of Customer-Directed Counterproductive Work Behavior. *Human Performance*, *27*(3), 262–281. https://doi.org/10.1080/08959285.2014.913595

Inness, M., Barling, J., & Turner, N. (2005). Understanding Supervisor-Targeted Aggression: A Within-Person, Between-Jobs Design. *Journal of Applied Psychology*,

*90*(4), 731–739. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.4.731

Inness, M., LeBlanc, M. M., & Barling, J. (2008). Psychosocial predictors of supervisor-, peer-, subordinate-, and service-provider-targeted aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(6), 1401–1411. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0012810

Inzlicht, M., & Ben-Zeev, T. (2000). A Threatening Intellectual Environment: Why Females Are Susceptible to Experiencing Problem-Solving Deficits in the Presence of Males. *Psychological Science*, *11*(5), 365–371. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9280.00272

Inzlicht, M., & Kang, S. K. (2010). Stereotype threat spillover: How coping with threats to social identity affects aggression, eating, decision making, and attention. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *99*(3), 467–481. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0018951

Jawahar, I. M. (2002). A Model of Organizational Justice and Workplace Aggression. *Journal of Management*, *28*(6), 811–834.

Jobe, J. B., Tourangeau, R., & Smith, A. F. (1993). Contributions of survey research to the understanding of memory. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, *7*(7), 567–584. https://doi.org/10.1002/acp.2350070703

Johnson, R. E., & Chang, C. D. (2010). COMMITMENT AND MOTIVATION AT WORK : THE RELEVANCE OF EMPLOYEE IDENTITY AND REGULATORY FOCUS, *35*(2), 226–245.

Kanner, A. D., Coyne, J. C., Schaefer, C., & Lazarus, R. S. (1981). Comparison of two modes of stress measurement: Daily hassles and uplifts versus major life events. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, *4*(1), 1–39. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00844845

Karatepe, O. M., Yorganci, I., & Haktanir, M. (2009). Outcomes of customer verbal

aggression among hotel employees. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *21*(6), 713–733. https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110910975972

Kaukiainen, A., Salmivalli, C., Björkqvist, K., Österman, K., Lahtinen, A., Kostamo, A., & Lagerspetz, K. (2001). Overt and covert aggression in work settings in relation to the subjective well-being of employees. *Aggressive Behaviour*, *27*, 360–371. https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.1021

Kenny, D. A. (2014). Cross-Lagged Panel Design. *Wiley StatsRef: Statistics Reference Online*, *1*, 450–451. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118445112.stat06464

Kent, S., Troth, A. C., & Jordan, P. J. (2014). Emotions and the Organizational Fabric Mapping the Terrain of Aggression Within the Workplace Context Article information :

Kern, J. H., & Grandey, A. A. (2009). Customer Incivility as a Social Stressor: The Role of Race and Racial Identity for Service Employees. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *14*(1), 46–57. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0012684

Kernis, M. H., Grannemann, B. D., & Barclay, L. C. (1989). Stability and level of self-esteem as predictors of anger arousal and hostility. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *56*(6), 1013–1022. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.56.6.1013

Kim, T., Shapiro, D. L., Aquino, K., Lim, V. K. G., & Bennett, R. J. (2008). Workplace offense and victims' reactions: The effects of victim-offender (dis)similarity, offense-type, and cultural differences. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, *29*, 415–433. https://doi.org/10.1002/job

Konrath, S., Bushman, B. J., & Campbell, W. K. (2006). Attenuating the link between

threatened egotism and aggression. *Psychological Science*, *17*(11), 995–1001. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2006.01818.x

Korczynski, M., & Ott, U. (2004). When production and consumption meet: Cultural contradictions and the enchanting myth of customer sovereignty. *Journal of Management Studies*, *41*(4), 575–599. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2004.00445.x

Koys, D. J. (2001). The effects of employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover on organizational effectiveness: a unit-level, longitudinal study. *Personnel Psychology*, *54*, 101–114. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2001.tb00087.x

Kriesberg, L. (2007). *Constructive conflicts: From escalation to resolution.* Rowman & Littlefield.

Kumar Madupalli, R., & Poddar, A. (2014). Problematic customers and customer service employee retaliation. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *28*(3), 244–255. https://doi.org/10.1108/JSM-02-2013-0040

Labour, O. S. and H. A. U. S. D. of. (n.d.). Workplace violence. Retrieved July 2, 2017, from https://www.osha.gov/SLTC/workplaceviolence/

Lapierre, L. M., Spector, P. E., & Leck, J. D. (2005). Sexual versus nonsexual workplace aggression and victims' overall job satisfaction: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *10*(2), 155–169. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.10.2.155

Lawless, M. E. (2014). *Checking Out: A Qualitative Study of Supermarket Cashiers ' Emotional Response to Customer Mistreatment*. University of South Florida.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. (S. Publishing, Ed.). New York, NY.

Le, H., Schmidt, F. L., Harter, J. K., & Lauver, K. J. (2010). The problem of empirical redundancy of constructs in organizational research: An empirical investigation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *112*(2), 112–125. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2010.02.003

Leblanc, M. M., & Barling, J. (2004). Workplace Aggression. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *13*(1), 9–12. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/20182896

Leblanc, M. M., & Kelloway, E. K. (2002). Predictors and Outcomes of Workplace Violence and Aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(3), 444–453. https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.87.3.444

Lee, K., & Allen, N. J. (2012). Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Workplace Deviance: The Role of Affect and Cognitions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(1), 131–142. https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.87.1.131

Lee, S., & Tedeschi, J. T. (1996). Effects of Norms and Norm-Violations on inhibition and instigation of Aggression, *22*, 17–25.

Leonard, K. E., Winters, J. J., Kearns-Bodkin, J. N., Homish, G. G., & Kubiak, A. J. (2014). Dyadic patterns of intimate partner violence in early marriage. *Psychological Violence*, *4*(4), 384–398. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0037483

Lerner, A. P. (1972). The Economics and Politics of Consumer Sovereignty. *The American Economic Review*, *62*(1/2), 258–266.

Levine, M., Prosser, A., Evans, D., & Reicher, S. (2005). Identity and emergency

intervention: How social group membership and inclusiveness of group boundaries shape helping behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *31*(4), 443–453. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167204271651

Lim, S., & Cortina, L. M. (2005). Interpersonal mistreatment in the workplace: the interface and impact of general incivility and sexual harassment. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.3.483

Lind, E. A., & Tyler, T. R. (1988). *The social psychology of procedural justice*. New York, NY: Springer Science and Business Media.

Liu, Y., Wang, M., Chang, C. H., Shi, J., Zhou, L., & Shao, R. (2015). Work-family conflict, emotional exhaustion, and displaced aggression toward others: The moderating roles of workplace interpersonal conflict and perceived managerial family support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(3), 793–808. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038387

Luhtanen, R., & Crocker, J. (1992). A Collective Self-Esteem Scale: Self-Evaluation of One's Social Identity. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *18*(3), 302–318. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167292183006

Lund, M. (2009). Conflict Prevention: Theory in Pursuit of Policy and Practice. In J. Bercovitch, V. Kremenyuk, & I. W. Zartman (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of conflict resolution* (pp. 287–321). London, UK: SAGE Publications. https://doi.org/10.4135/9780857024701.n15

Maass, A., Cadinu, M., Guarnieri, G., & Grasselli, A. (2003). Sexual harassment under social identity threat: The computer harassment paradigm. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *85*(5), 853–870. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.85.5.853

MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Jarvis, C. B. (2005). The Problem of Measurement Model Misspecification in Behavioral and Organizational Research and Some Recommended Solutions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(4), 710–730. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.4.710

Mael, F. (1988). Organizational identification: Construct redefinition and a field application with organizational alumni, 154.

Marcus-Newhall, A., Pedersen, W. C., Carlson, M., & Miller, N. (2000). Displaced aggression is alive and well: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *78*(4), 670–689. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.78.4.670

Martin, R. J., & Hine, D. W. (2005). Development and validation of the Uncivil Workplace Behavior Questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *10*(4), 477–490. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.10.4.477

Martinko, M. J., Harvey, P., & Dasborough, M. T. (2011). Attribution theory in the organizational sciences: A case of unrealized potential. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *32*(1), 144–149. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.690

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. (1981). The measurement of experienced Burnout. *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, *2*(2), 99–113. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030020205

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job Burnout. *Annu. Rev. Psychol*, *52*, 397–422. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.397

Maxwell, J. P. (2004). Anger rumination: An antecedent of athlete aggression? *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *5*(3), 279–289. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1469-0292(03)00007-4

Mccoll-Kennedy, J. R., Patterson, P. G., Smith, A. K., & Brady, M. K. (2009). Customer Rage Episodes: Emotions, Expressions and Behaviors. *Journal of Retailing*, *85*(2),

222–237. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretai.2009.04.002

Meier, L. L., & Spector, P. E. (2013). Reciprocal effects of work stressors and counterproductive work behavior: A five-wave longitudinal study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *98*(3), 529–539. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031732

Miller, N. E. (1941). I. The frustration-aggression hypothesis. *Psychological Review*, *48*, 337–342. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0055861

Miller, N., Pedersen, W. C., Earleywine, M., & Pollock, V. E. (2003). A theoretical model of triggered displaced aggression. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *7*(1), 57–97. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327957PSPR0701_5

Mitchell, M. S., & Ambrose, M. L. (2012). Employees' behavioral reactions to supervisor aggression: An examination of individual and situational factors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *97*(6), 1148–1170. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029452

Moliner, C., Martinez-Tur, V., Ramos, J. J. J., Peiro, J. M., Cropanzano, R., Martínez-Tur, V., … Cropanzano, R. (2008). Organizational justice and extrarole customer service: The mediating role of well-being at work. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *17*(3), 327–348. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320701743616

Morganson, V. J., & Major, D. A. (2014). Exploring Retaliation as a Coping Strategy in Response to Customer Sexual Harassment. *Sex Roles*, *71*(1–2), 83–94. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-014-0373-9

Morrison, E. W. (2006). Doing the Job Well: An Investigation of Pro- Social Rule Breaking. *Journal of Management*, *32*(1), 5–28. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206305277790

Mullen, J. E., & Kelloway, E. K. (2013). The effects of interpersonal customer mistreatment on employee retaliation. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, *6*(2), 118–128. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJWHM-07-2010-0020

Murphy, C. M., & O'Leary, K. D. (1989). Psychological aggression predicts physical aggression in early marriage. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *57*(5), 579–582. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.57.5.579

Nadler, A., Harpaz-Gorodeisky, G., & Ben-David, Y. (2009). Defensive helping: Threat to group identity, ingroup identification, status stability, and common group identity as determinants of intergroup help-giving. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *97*(5), 823–834. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0015968

Neuman, J. H., & Baron, R. A. (1997). Aggression in the Workplace: A Social-Psychological Perspective. In *Antisocial Behaviour in Organizations* (pp. 13–40). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications. https://doi.org/10.1037/10893-001

Neuman, J. H., & Baron, R. A. (1998). Workplace Violence and Workplace Aggression: Evidence Concerning Specific Forms, Potential Causes, and Preferred Targets. *Journal of Management*, *24*(3), 391–419.

Nielsen, M. B., Hetland, J., Matthiesen, S. B., & Einarsen, S. (2012). Longitudinal relationships between workplace bullying and psychological distress. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment and Health*, *38*(1), 38–46. https://doi.org/10.5271/sjweh.3178

Nomura, N., & Barnlund, D. (1983). Patterns of interpersonal criticism in Japan and United States. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, *7*(1), 1–18.

Nunnally, J., & Bernstein, I. (1994). *Psychological theory*. New York, NY: MacGraw-Hill.

O'Leary, K. D., Barling, J., Arias, I., Rosenbaum, A., Malone, J., & Tyree, A. (1989). Prevalence and stabilty of physical aggression between spouses A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *57*(2), 263–268. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.57.2.263

O'Neil, K. M., & Penrod, S. D. (2001). Methodological variables in Web-based research that may affect results: sample type, monetary incentives, and personal information. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, *33*(2), 226–233. https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03195369

O'Neil, K. M., Penrod, S. D., & Bornstein, B. H. (2003). Web-based research: methodological variables' effects on dropout and sample characteristics. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, and Computers*, *35*(2), 217–226. https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03202544

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Citizenship havior The Good Soldier Syndrome*. Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company.

Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analitic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behaviour. *Personnel Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1995.tb01781.x

Osofsky, M. J., Bandura, A., & Zimbardo, P. G. (2005). The role of moral disengagement in the execution process. *Law and Human Behavior*, *29*(4), 371–393. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10979-005-4930-1

Ouwerkerk, J. W., de Gilder, D., & de Vries, N. K. (2000). When the Going Gets Tough, the Tough Get Going: Social Identification and Individual Effort in Intergroup Competition. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *26*(12), 1550–1559.

https://doi.org/10.1177/01461672002612009

Painter, K. (1987). It's part of the job: Violence at work. *Employee Relations*, *9*(5), 30–40. https://doi.org/10.1108/eb055106

Parkin, M. (2008). Priming. In P. J. Lavrakas (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Survey Research Methods* (p. 612). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412963947

Pearson, C. M., Andersson, L. M., & Porath, C. L. (2000). Assessing and attacking workplace incivility. *Organizational Dynamics*, *29*(2), 123–137. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0090-2616(00)00019-X

Peled, M., & Moretti, M. M. (2010). Ruminating on rumination: Are rumination on anger and sadness differentially related to aggression and depressed mood? *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment*, *32*(1), 108–117. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10862-009-9136-2

Petriglieri, J. L. (2011). Under threat: Responses to and the consequences of threats to individuals' identities. *Academy of Management Review*, *36*(4), 641–662. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2009.0087

Pizzino, A. (2002). Dealing with violence in the workplace: The experience of Canadian unions. In M. Gill, B. Fisher, & V. Bowie (Eds.), *Violence at Work: Causes, Patterns, and Prevention* (pp. 165–179). Cullompton, UK: Willan.

Ployhart, R. E., & Vandenberg, R. J. (2010). Longitudinal Research: The Theory, Design, and Analysis of Change. *Journal of Management*, *36*(1), 94–120. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206309352110

Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1997). Impact of organizational citizenship

behaviour on organizational performance: A review and suggestion for future research. *Human Performance*, *10*(2), 133–151. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327043hup1002_5

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(5), 879–903. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879

Pratt, L. I., & Barling, J. (1988). Differentiating between daily events, acute and chronic stressors: A framework and its implications. In J. J. J. Hurrell, L. R. Murphy, S. L. Sauter, & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Occupational Stress: Issues and Developments in Research* (pp. 39–52). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.

Pratt, M. G. (1998). To be or not to be? Central question in organizational identification. In D. A. Whetten & P. C. Godfrey (Eds.), *Identity in Organizations: Building Theory Through Conversations* (pp. 171–207). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Public Service Commission of Canada. (2003). *2002 Public Service Employee Survey: Results Related to the Health of the Merit System (No. SC3-96/2002)*. Ottawa, ON.

Rafaeli, A., Erez, A., Ravid, S., Derfler-Rozin, R., Treister, D. E., & Scheyer, R. (2012). When customers exhibit verbal aggression, employees pay cognitive costs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *97*(5), 931–950. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0028559

Rayner, C., & Hoel, H. (1997). A summary review of literature relating to workplace bullying. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*, *7*(3), 181–191. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1298(199706)7:3<181::AID-CASP416>3.0.CO;2-Y

Resick, P. A., Barr, P. K., Sweet, J. J., Kieffer, D. M., Ruby, N. L., & Spiegel, D. K. (1981). Perceived and actual discriminators of conflict from accord in marital communication. *American Journal of Family Therapy*, *9*(769141974), 58–68. https://doi.org/10.1080/01926188108250386

Reynolds, K. L., & Harris, L. C. (2006). DEVIANT CUSTOMER BEHAVIOR: AN EXPLORATION OF FRONTLINE EMPLOYEE TACTICS. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice; Spring*, *14*(2).

Roberts, L. M. (2005). Changing Faces : Professional Image Construction in Diverse Organizational Settings. *Academy of Management Review*, *30*(4), 685–711. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/20159163

Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multdimensiona. *Academy of Management Journal*, *38*(2).

Robinson, S. L., & O'Leary-Kelly, A. (1998). MONKEY SEE , MONKEY DO : THE INFLUENCE OF WORK GROUPS ON THE ANTISOCIAL BEHAVIOR OF EMPLOYEES. *Management, Academy of Journal*, *41*(6), 658–672. https://doi.org/10.2307/256963

Rodríguez-Muñoz, A., Baillien, E., De Witte, H., Moreno-Jiménez, B., & Pastor, J. C. (2009). Cross-lagged relationships between workplace bullying, job satisfaction and engagement: Two longitudinal studies. *Work & Stress*, *23*(3), 225–243. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370903227357

Rogers, K.-A., & Kelloway, E. K. (1997). Violence at Work: Personal and Organizational Outcomes. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology Copyright*, *2*(1), 63–71. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.2.1.63

Rothbard, N. P. (2001). Enriching or Depleting? The Dynamics of Engagement in Work and Family Roles. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *46*(4), 655. https://doi.org/10.2307/3094827

Rubin, D. C., & Wenzel, A. E. (1996). One hundred years of forgetting: A quantitative description of retention. *Psychological Review*, *103*(4), 734–760. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.103.4.734

Rupp, D. E., & Cropanzano, R. (2002). The mediating effects of social exchange relationships in predicting workplace outcomes from multifoci organizational justice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *89*(1), 925–946. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0749-5978(02)00036-5

Rupp, D. E., & Spencer, S. (2006). When customers lash out: the effects of customer interactional injustice on emotional labor and the mediating role of discrete emotions. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.4.971

Satorra, A. (2000). Scaled and adjusted restricted tests in multi-sample analysis of moment structures. In D. S. Heijmans, S. G. Pollock, & A. Satorra (Eds.), *Innovations in Multivariate Statistical Analysis* (pp. 233–247). London, UK: Kluwer Academic.

Satorra, A., & Bentler, P. M. (2001). A scaled difference chi-square test statistic for moment structure analysis. *Psychometrika*, *66*(4), 507–514. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02296192

Sax, L. J., Gilmartin, S. K., & Bryant, A. N. (2003). Assessing Response Rate and Nonreponse bias in Web and Paper Surveys. *Research in Higher Education*, *44*(4), 409–432. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1024232915870

Schat, A. C. H., Frone, M. R., & Kelloway, E. K. (2006). Prevalence of Workplace

Aggression in the U.S. Workforce: Findings From a National Study. In E. K. Kelloway, J. Barling, & J. J. J. Hurrell (Eds.), *Handbook of workplace violence* (pp. 47–90). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412976947.n4

Schat, A. C. H., Holmvall, C., & Stevens, S. (2014). Linking Customer Sovereignty to Employee Strain: The Mediating Roles of Experienced Customer Aggression and Perceived Organizational Support. In *11th European Academy of Occupational Health Psychology Conference*. London, UK.

Schat, A. C. H., & Kelloway, E. K. (2000). Effects of perceived control on the outcomes of workplace aggression and violence. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *5*(3), 386–402. https://doi.org/10.1037//1076-8998.5.3.386

Schat, A. C. H., & Kelloway, E. K. (2005). Workplace Aggression. In J. Barling, E. K. Kelloway, & M. R. Frone (Eds.), *Handbook of Work Stress* (pp. 189–215). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412975995.n8

Schmader, T., & Beilock, S. (2012). An integration of processes that underlie stereotype threat. In *Stereotype threat: Theory, process, and application* (pp. 34–50). Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Schneider, B., Ehrhart, M. G., Mayer, D. M., Saltz, J. L., & Niles-Jolly, K. (2005). Understanding organization-customer links in service settings. *Academy of Management Journal*, *48*(6), 1017–1032. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2005.19573107

Schumacher, J. A., & Leonard, K. E. (2005). Husbands' and Wives' Marital Adjustment, Verbal Aggression, and Physical Aggression as Longitudinal Predictors of Physical

Aggression in Early Marriage. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *73*(1), 28–37. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.73.1.28

Selig, J. P., & Little, T. D. (2012). Autoregressive and cross-lagged panel analysis for longitudinal data. In B. Laursen, T. D. Little, & N. A. Card (Eds.), *Handbook of Developmental Research Methods* (pp. 265–278). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Singh, J., Goolsby, J. R., & Rhoads, G. K. (1994). Behavioral and Psychological Consequences of Boundary Spanning Burnout for Customer Service Representatives. *Source Journal of Marketing Research*, *31*(4), 558–569. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/3151883

Skarlicki, D. P., & Folger, R. (1997). Retaliation in the Workplace: The Roles of Distributive, Procedural, and Interactional Justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *82*(3), 434–443. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.82.3.434

Skarlicki, D. P., & Folger, R. (2004). Broadening our understanding of organizational retaliatory behavior. In R. W. Griffin & A. O'Leary-Kelly (Eds.), *The dark side of organizational behavior* (pp. 373–402). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Skarlicki, D. P., Folger, R., & Tesluk, P. (1999). Personality as a Moderator in the Relationship between Fairness and Retaliation. *Source: The Academy of Management Journal*, *42*(1), 100–108. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/256877

Skarlicki, D. P., van Jaarsveld, D. D., Shao, R., Song, Y. H., & Wang, M. (2016). Extending the multifoci perspective: The role of supervisor justice and moral identity in the relationship between customer justice and customer-directed sabotage. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *101*(1), 108–121. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000034

Skarlicki, D. P., van Jaarsveld, D. D., & Walker, D. D. (2008). Getting even for customer mistreatment: the role of moral identity in the relationship between customer interpersonal injustice and employee sabotage. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0012704

Sliter, M., Jex, S., Wolford, K., & McInnerney, J. (2010). How rude! Emotional labor as a mediator between customer incivility and employee outcomes. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *15*(4), 468–481. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020723

Smith, H. J., Tyler, T. R., & Huo, Y. J. (2003). Interpersonal treatment, social identity, and organizational behaviour. In S. A. Haslam, D. van Knippenberg, M. J. Platow, & N. Ellemers (Eds.), *Social Identity at Work: Developing Theory for Organizational Practice* (pp. 155–173). New York, NY: Psychology Press.

Snyder, L. A., Chen, P. Y., & Vacha-Haase, T. (2007). Underreporting gap in aggressive incidents from geriatric patients against certified nursing assistants. *Violence and Victims*, *22*(3), 367–379. https://doi.org/10.1891/088667007780842784

Spector, P. E., Yang, L.-Q., & Zhou, Z. E. (2015). A longitudinal investigation of the role of violence prevention climate in exposure to workplace physical violence and verbal abuse. *Work & Stress*, *29*(4), 325–340. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2015.1076537

Steele, C. M. (1988). The psychology of self-affirmation: Sustaining the integrity of the self. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 21, pp. 261–302). New York, NY: Academic Press.

Steele, C. M., Spencer, S. J., & Aronson, J. (2002). Contending with group image: The psychology of stereotype and social identity threat, *34*, 379–440.

https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(02)80009-0

Stucke, T. S., & Baumeister, R. F. (2006). Ego depletion and aggressive behavior: Is the inhibition of aggression a limited resource? *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *36*(1), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.285

Sukhodolsky, D. G., Golub, A., & Cromwell, E. N. (2001). Development and validation of the anger rumination scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *31*(5), 689–700. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(00)00171-9

Swanberg, J. E., Logan, T., & Macke, C. (2005). Intimate Partner Violence, Employment,and The Workplace. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, *6*(4), 286–312. https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838005280506

Swann, W. B. J. (1990). To be adored or to be known? The interplay of self-enhancement and self-verification. In E. T. Higgins & R. M. Sorrentino (Eds.), *Handbook of motivation and cognition (Vol. 2)* (pp. 408–450). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Tajfel, H. (1974). Social identity and intergroup behaviour. *Social Science Information*, *13*(2), 65–93. https://doi.org/10.1177/053901847401300204

Tajfel, H. (1981). *Human groups and social categories: Studies in social psychology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from https://books.google.ca/books?hl=en&lr=&id=ldA8AAAAIAAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PR9&dq=tajfel+and+turner+1981&ots=mn8W0bfYMw&sig=HRPXo4vTyS8eK3omsuwrV1AV_3M#v=onepage&q=tajfel and turner 1981&f=false

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behaviour. In S.

Worchel & W. Austin (Eds.), *Psychology of Intergroup Relations* (pp. 7–24). Chicago, IL: Nelson-Hall.

Taylor, S. G., & Kluemper, D. H. (2012). Linking perceptions of role stress and incivility to workplace aggression: The moderating role of personality. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *17*(3), 316–329. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0028211

Tedeschi, J. T., & Felson, R. B. (1994). Frustration, aversiveness, and aggression. In J. T. Tedeschi & R. B. Felson (Eds.), *Violence, Aggression, and Coerciver Actions* (pp. 37–69). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Tedeschi, J. T., & Nesler, M. S. (1993). Grievances: Development and reactions. In R. B. Felson & J. T. Tedeschi (Eds.), *Aggression and Violence: Social Interactionist Perspectives* (pp. 13–45). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Tedeschi, J. T., & Norman, N. (1985). Social power, self-presentation, and the self. *The Self and Social Life*, *2*, 29.

Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, *43*(2).

Tepper, B. J., Carr, J. C., Breaux, D. M., Geider, S., Hu, C., & Hua, W. (2009). Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes Abusive supervision , intentions to quit , and employees ' workplace deviance : A power / dependence analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *109*(2), 156–167. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2009.03.004

Thompson, S. C. (1981). Will it hurt less if I can control it? A complex answer to a simple question. *Psychological Bulletin*, *90*(1), 89–101. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.90.1.89

Toch, H. (1993). Good violence and bad violence: Through self-presentations of aggressors accounts and war stories. In R. B. Felson & J. T. Tedeschi (Eds.), *Aggression and violence: Social interactionist perspectives* (pp. 193–206). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Turner, J. C. (1982). Towards a cognitive redefinition of the social group. In H. Tajfel (Ed.), *Social identity and intergroup relations* (pp. 15–40). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Tutt, N. (1989). Violence to staff. *Practice*, *Spring*(1), 80–91.

Tyler, T. R., & Smith, H. J. (1999). Justice, social identity, and group processes. The psychology of the ... In T. R. John, O. Tyler, & R. Kramer (Eds.), *The Psychology of the Social Self* (pp. 223–264). New York, NY: Laurence Erlbaum.

Vallade, J. I., Booth-Butterfield, M., & Vela, L. E. (2013). Taking Back Power: Using Superiority Theory to Predict Humor Use Following a Relational Transgression. *Western Journal of Communication*, *77*(2), 231–248. https://doi.org/10.1080/10570314.2012.669018

van Jaarsveld, D. D., Walker, D. D., & Skarlicki, D. P. (2010). The Role of Job Demands and Emotional Exhaustion in the Relationship Between Customer and Employee Incivility. *Journal of Management*, *36*(6), 1486–1504. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310368998

van Knippenberg, D. (2000). Work Motivation and Performance: A Social Identity Perspective. *Applied Psychology*, *49*(3), 357–371. https://doi.org/10.1111/1464-0597.00020

Van Leeuwen, E., & Täuber, S. (2010). The Strategic Side of Out-Group Helping. In S.

Stürmer & M. Snyder (Eds.), *The Psychology of Prosocial Behavior: Group Processes, Intergroup Relations, and Helping* (pp. 81–99). West Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781444307948.ch4

Walsh, B. M., Magley, V. J., Reeves, D. W., Davies-Schrils, K. A., Marmet, M. D., & Gallus, J. A. (2012). Assessing Workgroup Norms for Civility: The Development of the Civility Norms Questionnaire-Brief. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *27*(4), 407–420. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-011-9251-4

Wang, M., Liao, H., Zhan, Y., & Shi, J. (2011). Daily customer mistreatment and employee sabotage against customers: Examining emotion and resource perspectives. *Academy of Management Journal*, *54*(2), 312–334. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2011.60263093

Wang, M., Liu, S., Liao, H., Gong, Y., Kammeyer-Mueller, J., & Shi, J. (2013). Can't get it out of my mind: Employee rumination after customer mistreatment and negative mood in the next morning. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *98*(6), 989–1004. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0033656

Weiner, B. (2011). Attribution theory. *Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning*, 37–50.

Weiss, H. M., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). *Affective Events Theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work*. *Research in Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 18). https://doi.org/1-55938-938-9

White, B. A., & Turner, K. A. (2014). Anger rumination and effortful control: Mediation effects on reactive but not proactive aggression. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *56*(1), 186–189. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2013.08.012

Wills, T. A. (1991). Social support and interpersonal relationships. In *Prosocial behavior.*

(pp. 265–289). Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications, Inc.

Wilson, N. L., & Holmvall, C. M. (2013). The development and validation of the incivility from customers scale. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *18*(3), 310–326. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0032753

Yagil, D. (2008). When the customer is wrong: A review of research on aggression and sexual harassment in service encounters. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2008.03.002

Yagil, D., Luria, G., & Gal, I. (2008). Stressors and resources in customer service roles. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *19*(5), 575–595. https://doi.org/10.1108/09564230810903479

Yue, Y., Wang, K. L., & Groth, M. (2017). Feeling bad and doing good: The effect of customer mistreatment on service employee's daily display of helping behaviors. *Personnel Psychology*, *70*(4), 769–808. https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12208

Zapf, D., & Gross, C. (2001). Conflict escalation and coping with workplace bullying: A replication and extension. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *10*(4), 497–522. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320143000834

Zeelenberg, M., & Pieters, R. (1999). Comparing Service Delivery to What Might Have Been. *Journal of Service Research*, *2*(1), 86–97. https://doi.org/10.1177/109467059921007

Zeelenberg, M., & Pieters, R. (2004). Beyond valence in customer dissatisfaction: A review and new findings on behavioral responses to regret and disappointment in failed services. *Journal of Business Research*, *57*(4), 445–455. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0148-2963(02)00278-3

Zhang, C., & Conrad, F. G. (2013). Speeding in web surveys: The tendency to answer very fast and its association with straightlining. *Survey Research Methods*, *8*(2), 127–135. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.18148/srm/2014.v8i2.5453