LEADER-MEMBER-EXCHANGE AND THE WORKPLACE BULLY

by

PAMELA J. FOSTER

B. S., University of Nebraska Kearney, 1975
B. S., University of Nebraska Medical Center, 1995
M.B.A., Kansas State University, 2000

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Psychology
College of Arts and Sciences

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

2012

Abstract

This dissertation investigated the relationship between a low-quality leader-member exchange (LMX) relationship and whether participants felt they were bullied at work. The study looked at retaliatory behavior as an outcome of experiencing bullying behavior. The study investigated whether ostracism would mediate the effect between LMX and workplace bullying and whether social support would moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and retaliatory behavior. The sample was comprised of 209 participants who were either employed by Kansas State University or were taking classes as non-traditional students at Kansas State University. The study sample was demographically 49.76% female and 50.24% male. The survey was administered using K-State's on-line AXIO survey system, which ensured confidentiality and accurate data entry. The study found that a low-quality LMX relationship predicted workplace bullying and workplace bullying behavior predicted retaliatory behavior. Ostracism did not mediate the relationship between a low-quality LMX relationship and workplace bullying behavior, but social support did have moderating effects between workplace bullying behavior and retaliatory behavior. The moderated effects of social support showed a buffering effect for men with coworker support and an increase in retaliatory behavior for women for all forms of social support. The results are discussed in the context of understanding how organizational leadership can reduce the negative effects of workplace bullying behavior.

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Approved by:

Major Professor
Dr. Clive Fullagar

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Acknowledgements

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my family for whom I am eternally grateful to for their love, encouragement, support, and encouragement.

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William E. Foster

Deloris J. Foster

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Max E. Fellows

Travis R. Wilkie

Tabitha Wilkie

Lexi J. Wilkie

Wyatt Lackman

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Chapter 1 - Overview of Workplace Bullying

Public awareness of workplace violence and public concern about the consequences of workplace violence has increased since the school shootings in Littleton, Colorado's Columbine High School on April 20, 1999. Workplace violence has become salient to the point that the term "going postal" has become common place to describe workplace violence. "Going postal" was coined to describe the workplace violence perpetrated by United States postal workers beginning in 1983 that resulted in coworker deaths (Barling, Dupre, & Kelloway, 2009; Wilkipedia, 2011). The need to address bullying and aggression in the public schools has been recognized by the U. S. Department of Education. For example, in an October 26, 2010 letter the U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights (OCR) urged administrators to look at their bullying and harassment policies and to ramp them up as necessary to reduce the occurrence of student-on-student bullying:

> Bullying fosters a climate of fear and disrespect that can seriously impair the physical and psychological health of its victims and create conditions that negatively affect learning, thereby undermining the ability of students to achieve their full potential. The movement to adopt anti-bullying policies reflects schools' appreciation of their important responsibility to maintain a safe learning environment for all students (OCR, 2010).

The background, summary, and fast facts (OCR, 2010) listed the possible effects of student-on-student aggressive behavior which included sequela to being bullied such as lowered academic achievement and aspirations, increased anxiety, loss of self-esteem and confidence, depression and post-traumatic stress, deterioration in physical health, self-harm and suicidal thinking, feelings of alienation (i.e., fear of other children), and absenteeism. Since the

catastrophe of the school shootings at Columbine High School in Colorado in 1999 public schools have been more proactive in preventing student-on-student bullying even though the bullying may not have occurred in violation of a form of Title VII harassment (i.e., race, sex, color, national origin, religion) (U. S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), 2011).

Organizations have lagged behind the public schools in taking notice of the deleterious effects of workplace bullying on employees and implementing measures to prevent forms of pernicious behavior that is not prohibited by Federal law such as harassment and discrimination based on membership in a protected group (i.e., race, gender, age, disability). Unfortunately, workplace violence has shown an increase since 1992. Workplace suicides have increased by 28% since 2007 with the largest increase in the protective service occupations (33% of these suicides were police officers) and transportation and material occupations (U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), 2009). The BLS (July 2010) reported that 526 workplace homicides occurred in 2008 of those 2008 homicides, 80% were shootings in which 12% were perpetrated by coworkers and former coworkers and another 40% were carried out by robbers.   Eighty-six percent of the shootings occurred in the private sector and 88% of these occurred within the service-providing industries (i.e., trade, transportation, utilities); nearly half (48%) of the shootings occurred in public buildings which not only endangered the employees but bystanders as well (BLS, 2010).

These BLS statistics on workplace violence may seem excessively abhorrent; however, bullying behavior may lead to severe outcomes if it is not addressed early. For example, on July 30, 2010 Kevin Morrissey, managing editor for the Virginia Quarterly Review at the University of Virginia shot himself because his immediate supervisor, Ted Genoways, Journal Editor, had

over the past three years screamed at Mr. Morrissey, excluded Mr. Morrissey from key decisions, distanced Mr. Morrissey from himself and the office, and failed to answer Mr. Morrisey's e-mail messages (Wilson, 2010). People who knew Mr. Morrissey said Mr. Morrissey did not feel that his problems with Mr. Genoways would be resolved and Mr. Morrissey felt trapped because he lacked a college degree and feared that he would not be able to secure employment elsewhere that would offer him the same level of salary and allow him to maintain his current standard of living (Wilson, 2010).

Mr. Morrissey had made several attempts to garner assistance in resolving his differences with Mr. Genoways within the University of Virginia system; Mr. Morrissey contacted the ombudspersons, human resources, and the university president (Wilson, 2010). Mr. Morrissey was told that Mr. Genoways was a creative genius, "saying that creative people like Mr. Genoways could be difficult to work with and were often bad managers" (Wilson, 2010). This story demonstrates a pattern of bullying behavior that meets the proverbial definition(s) of past research (i.e., social isolation, withholding information, verbal abuse).

The story goes on to demonstrate how important good leadership is for preventing a dysfunctional work environment, and illustrates that a system that fails to provide an environment of positive interactional justice risks unfavorable exposure.

Incidents such as Mr. Morrissey, the Columbine High School shootings, and the shootings by disgruntled U. S. Postal workers in the 1980's received a great deal of media attention. However, in reality these incidents are examples of violence and represent an uncommon form of the aggression experienced by workers in the U.S.A. (Barclay & Aquino, 2011; Greenberg & Barling, 1999; Schat, Frone, Kelloway, 2006). It is more likely that workers will experience physical and psychological forms of aggression such as shouting obscenities,

name calling, ostracism, or gossiping (Schat & Kelloway, 2003) rather than violent acts of aggression, such as assault with a weapon (Dupre & Barling, 2006). Therefore, this study will focus on acts of aggression that are directed at someone at work in a work-related context that do not involve violence associated with weapons or physical assault.

Workplace bullying has been associated with adverse outcomes for the targets of the behavior (LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002) and has received increased empirical research interest over the past decade (Crothers, Lipinski, & Minutolo, 2009; Salin, 2003; Stewart, Bing, Davison, Woehr, & McIntyre, 2009). The BLS defines workplace violence "as violent acts towards a person at work or on duty (i.e., physical assaults, threats of assault, harassment, intimidation, or bullying)" (BLS, 2006). A survey conducted by the BLS in 2006 found that approximately 5% of the 7.1 million business organizations they surveyed (including private, State, and local governments) reported at least one incident of workplace violence in the 12 months prior to the survey. State governments reported a higher incidence of all types of violence than either private industries or local governments; 32% of the State government establishments surveyed reported workplace violence among their workforce (BLS, 2006). The survey found that coworker initiated violence was more prevalent in the goods-producing industries, whereas, service providing industries (e.g., healthcare, public safety) were more likely to experience violence initiated by a customer or outside perpetrator (BLS, 2006). Even though the organizations surveyed admitted that an incident of workplace violence caused a negative effect (e.g., fear, decreased morale, absenteeism, increased health insurance premiums, decreased productivity, turnover), a majority of the employers had not taken steps to eradicate the violent behavior from their workplace by modifying security measures, revising/implementing policies, or training their workforce (BLS, 2006).

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There are costs associated with workplace violence/aggression for both the organization and employees. It has been estimated that workplace violence costs employers between $6.4 and $36 billion in terms of absenteeism, increased health insurance premiums, turnover, lost productivity, decreased employee morale, increased security (BLS, 2006; Elangovan & Xie, 2000; Gray, Myers, & Myers, 1999; Salin, 2003). Costs to employees, both the individual targeted and employees who witness the aggressive behavior, are indicated in increased stress levels and reduced physical and psychological levels of well-being which is manifested as increased anxiety, depression, loss of memory, fear, mistrust, and post-traumatic stress (Escartin, Rodriguez-Carballeira, Zapf, Porrua, & Martin-Pena, 2009; Glomb et al., 1997; Poilpot-Rocaboy, 2006; Sperry & Duffy, 2009). The ultimate cost to employees is indicated in the increase in work related fatalities due to suicide. The BLS (2009) reported that workplace suicides in 2008 were 28% higher than those reported in 2007 (note: data included suicides that occurred at work and also those that occurred away from work but were documented to have occurred due to a work relationship).

A February 13, 2011 PsychINFO search was conducted to determine the research interest in bullying behavior in the workplace. Several terms were entered into the search engine that have been used in the literature to describe aggressive behavior. Each term was paired with the term "work." The results indicated that there were a limited number of articles in 1990 that looked at workplace aggression compared to the number of articles noted in 2010. Based on the search the most frequently researched topics related to aggressive workplace behavior were abuse, violence, discrimination, victimization, aggression, harassment, and hostility. As indicated by the PsychINFO search, until recently there has been very little research on bullying, relational aggression, anti-social behavior, mobbing, incivility, and social undermining at work.

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While the research interest in harassment and discrimination has continued, in the past six years there has also been an increased interest in the research relating to workplace bullying and workplace violence. Topics such as relational aggression, anti-social behavior, incivility, and social undermining at work have shown increased interest among researchers. However these topics are typically subsumed in the many and varied definitions of workplace bullying which may explain why there is a paucity of research related to these specific terms. Considering the increased interest in workplace bullying, a subsequent research question arises, and that is, what causes people to bully their coworkers, subordinates, and supervisors at work?

Several antecedents have been suggested that contribute to the increased incidence of aggressive workplace behavior. For example, research has looked at both the situation and person factors that are antecedents to workplace bullying. Situational factors that have been studied include interactional injustice, procedural injustice, and job security. The person factors that have been studied include trait anger, trait aggression, alcohol use, social dominance orientation, and self-esteem. The antecedents of workplace bullying are important because if we can identify the antecedents to the aggression we stand a better chance of being able to implement practices that will serve to reduce and hopefully eliminate workplace bullying.

This dissertation will address the issues associated with aggression directed toward another coworker (insider aggression) and the role of organizational leadership in addressing the aggression. Specifically, the research looked at how leader-member-exchange (LMX) relationships affect the incidence of bullying within the organization by either a coworker or the supervisor. This dissertation focused on how LMX relationships influence workplace bullying and the direct effect of workplace bullying on retaliatory behavior. Secondly, this dissertation investigated the mediating effects of ostracism on the relationship between LMX and workplace

bullying. Finally, the moderating effects of social support on ameliorating the negative outcomes of workplace bullying will be examined. Chapter 1 will provide an overview of workplace bullying behavior, Chapter 2 will review the literature on leadership and present the research model. Chapter 3 will describe the methodology, including a description of the sample, procedure, measures, and results. Chapter 4 presents the results, and Chapter 5 will contain a discussion of the results, practical implications, the strengths and limitations of the research, and directions for future studies.

Workplace Bullying

Workplace aggression is an unprovoked attack on another individual and includes such behaviors as ostracism, gossip, sabotage, verbal aggression (e.g., name calling, shouting, accusing), destruction of property, excessive supervision, withholding information, harassment, and discrimination (Berdahl & Raver, 2011; Hallett, Harger, Eder, 2009; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Le Blanc & Barling, 2004; Lee, 2009; Poilpot-Rocaboy, 2006; Raskauskas & Stoltz, 2004). The aggressive act is intentional and negatively affects the emotional and psychosomatic well-being, as well as the affective commitment (LeBlanc, & Kelloway, 2002) of the target of the behavior. The research on workplace violence has classified violent acts into four types of situations (1) criminal, where the perpetrator does not have a relationship with the organization (e.g., robbery); (2) customer or client, where the perpetrator is utilizing the services of the organization and becomes violent while being served; (3) coworker, where the perpetrator is an employee; and (4) domestic violence, in which the perpetrator does not have a legitimate relationship with the business, but has a relationship with an employee (e.g., estranged spouse) (Barling, Dupre, & Kelloway, 2009; BLS, 2006; LeBlanc & Barling, 2004; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002).

Research has also looked at the source of aggression (i.e., coworker, customer, patient, thief, or former employee) (Barling et al., 2009) as well as the individual characteristics of the perpetrator and the effects of the behavior on individuals and the organization. Aggression associated with a perpetrator external to the organization and unassociated with the organization occurs in specific types of organizations such as industries related to service and sales (Hershcovis & Barling, 2006; Schat et al., 2006). Of the four types of workplace violence, coworker initiated violence has been identified as the primary form of aggression identified across organizations (private industry, goods producing, service producing, State government, and local government) (BLS, 2006).

Insider bullying behavior can be engaged in by either a supervisor or a coworker. When a supervisor engages in bullying behavior the target of the behavior is likely to perceive that interactional justice (being treated respectfully) climate is diminished, which may lead to higher turnover, job satisfaction, family-to-work conflict, and psychological distress (Tepper, 2000). Abusive supervision has been defined as "subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors excluding physical contact" (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). Tepper (2000) developed an Abusive Supervision Scale to specifically measure aggressive behavior engaged in by a supervisor that was targeted toward a subordinate, this scale was used to measure bullying behavior by supervisors (Appendix A). Coworkers can also direct abusive behavior toward other coworkers. For example, coworkers may spread rumors, make threats, withhold information, or assault (verbal or physical) another coworker. Glomb's (2010) Angry Experiences Scale captures behaviors that are not specific to supervisory bullying behavior, but includes bullying behaviors that coworkers may engage in at work (Appendix A). Both supervisor and coworker bullying behavior were

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measured based on the subjective evaluation of the target of the behavior as to whether he/she had experienced behavior that would be considered either supervisor or coworker bullying behavior (Escartin et al., 2009; Tepper, 2007)

Research has shown that overt and violent forms of aggression do not occur as frequently as milder forms of aggression such as ostracism, exclusion, shouting and gossiping (Dupre & Barling, 2006). Therefore, the focus of this dissertation will be on workplace bullying that is perpetrated by an organizational insider (i.e., supervisor or coworker) because it is the most common form of aggression and organizations are more likely to be able to affect the situational factors that may lead to workplace bullying by their employees than they are for aggression directed at their employees by perpetrators outside their organizations.

The form of bullying that will be studied in this dissertation is behavior that includes milder forms of aggression such as yelling at a coworker, talking behind a coworker's back, or withholding needed resources from a coworker; rather than the violent forms of aggression that cause physical pain, injury, or death, such as hitting, beating, kicking, etc. (Greenberg & Barling, 1999). In this dissertation the term workplace bullying will be used to refer to aggressive behavior that occurs at work between supervisors (leaders) and their subordinates and between coworkers.

Federal law prohibits aggressive behavior such as sexual harassment and racial discrimination in the workplace (Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2011) and until recently there has been little governmental intervention to stop workplace aggression/bullying that is not based on membership in a federally protected group (i.e., race, sex, color, religion, ethnicity, age, or disability). Discrimination, harassment, and bullying share some common determinants, however a distinction needs to be made between these three phenomena.

Discrimination is primarily prejudice and is based on an individual's membership in a protected group (e.g., race, age, gender, religion, disability) (EEOC, 2011) whereas the victims of bullying are chosen based on their individual characteristics. Therefore bullying and discrimination are unique constructs and one is not merely a subset of the other (Parkins, Fishbein, & Ritchey, 2006). Bullying behavior, unlike harassment and discrimination that is based on membership in a protected group, is not illegal even though the negative effects of bullying behavior on the target may be more detrimental to the target of the bullying behavior than it is on the target of harassment or discrimination (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; O'Leary-Kelly, Bowes-Sperry, Bates, & Lean; 2009). Moreover, people who are harassed due to their membership in a protected group tend to attribute the incivility to their membership in that particular group rather than to a fault of their own. For example, women may feel sexual harassment occurs because they are women (Maass, Cadinu, Guarnieri, & Grasselli, 2003) and not because they have low self-esteem. Whereas, people who are bullied at work tend to internalize the aggression, which creates feelings of inadequacy because the target attributes the bullying behavior to his/her personal characteristics (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). When the target internalizes the bullying behavior, the negative effects of the bullying behavior are exacerbated and the target's self-esteem may be diminished (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010).

Mobbing and bullying are often used interchangeably in the research to describe aggressive behavior. However, Sperry (2009) differentiated between mobbing and bullying by defining mobbing as the nonsexual harassment of a supervisor or coworker by a group of employees in the organization, whereas, bullying is the abuse and humiliation directed at a supervisor or coworker by an individual perpetrator. Bullying occurs when there is an imbalance of power. For example, bullying may be initiated by someone in a managerial or supervisory

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role or by a coworker who is physically, socially, or psychologically dominant and where bullying is directed toward an individual with less power (Raskauskas & Stoltz, 2004). Mobbing on the other hand is initiated by a group of coworkers and the target may be a coworker or a supervisor (Barclay & Aquino, 2011; Sperry, 2009). The results of mobbing are "humiliation, devaluation, discrediting, degradation, loss of professional reputation, and often removal of the target from the organization" (Sperry, 2009, p. 191). Supervisors may inadvertently become part of the mob if they fail to take action to stop the behavior (Sperry, 2009).

Since the 1999 shootings at Columbine High School, public schools have been held accountable for incidents of bullying. Based on a February 2012 PsychINFO search of the extant literature, there has been a 35% increase in the research related to bullying behavior in the workplace since December 2005. Compared to the research conducted from 1994 to 1999, there has been a 63% increase in the research conducted from 2000 to 2005. Along with the increased research interest in workplace bullying, there have been a variety of terms used to describe (a) aggressive behavior (Hershcovis, et al., 2007; Lee, 2009; McKay, Arnold, Fratzl, & Thomas, 2008), (b) conceptualizations of aggressive behavior (Barclay & Aquino, 2011; Glomb, 2002), and (c) empirical perspectives that have focused on the antecedents, consequences, moderators, or mediators of aggressive behavior (Barclay & Aquino, 2011; Glomb, 2002, Greenberg & Barling, 1999). For example, research has identified three categories of bullying behavior, (1) indirect bullying, which includes expressions of hostility that are covert and include behaviors such as giving someone the silent treatment or spreading rumors; (2) obstructionism, which includes actions that hamper the target's job performance such as withholding critical information or resources; (3) direct bullying or overt aggression which includes behavior such as physical assaults, yelling, or name calling (Crothers et al., 2009; LeBlanc & Barling, 2004;

Raskauskas & Stoltz, 2004; Swearer, 2008). The acts of workplace bullying that have a psychological impact on the victim, such as covert forms of aggression, are the most frequent forms of workplace bullying (Dupre & Barling, 2006). Indirect bullying and obstructionism are both covert forms of bullying and are often referred to as relational aggression (Crothers et al., 2009; Lee, 2009; Swearer, 2008). The various conceptualizations of workplace bullying make it imperative that researchers accurately define bullying prior to designing a study.

Study Definition of Workplace Bullying

Several definitions of bullying have been used by researchers over the years. This has resulted in different conceptualizations and operationalizations of workplace aggression (Schat et al., 2006). These conceptualizations have included concepts such as behavior under the volitional control of the bully (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), behavior that is intended to physically or psychologically harm another person or the organization (Barling et al., 2009; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008), social isolation and/or exclusion of coworkers (Crothers et al., 2009), physical assaults, nonphysical aggression (e.g., yelling, swearing, name calling) (LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002; Crothers et al., 2009; Lee, 2009), chronically harassing another person (Lee, 2009), and power differentials (i.e., intellectual, financial, verbal, physical superiority) between the bully and the target (Crothers et al., 2009). In addition to the various conceptualizations of bullying, several different methods have been used to study bullying which makes it difficult to directly compare study results (Schat et al., 2006; Tepper, 2007). For example, bullying has been operationalized by asking participants to respond to surveys that asked questions regarding a wide range of physically abusive behaviors (Schat et al., 2006), while other surveys ask participants to respond to questions regarding both physical and non-physical behaviors (Glomb, 2002) or to respond to only non-physical forms of

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aggression (Tepper, 2000). In order to appropriately operationalize bullying, it is important that the conceptualization and definition be clear and consistent with prior research in order to be able to compare the effects of bullying on the various antecedents and consequences that have been researched.

Even though there have been several terms used to describe aggressive workplace behavior (i.e., mobbing, harassment, discrimination, bullying, relational aggression), there are some commonalities among these terms. Three components of these various conceptualizations were prevalent across studies.

First, the respective behavior is under the volitional control of the perpetrator in that he/she is cognitively able to process social cues regarding the perniciousness of his/her behavior (Schultze-Krumbholz & Scheithauer, 2009). Second, bullying behavior is intentional, and the intent of the bully is to harm the target physically or psychologically (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Inness, LeBlanc, & Barling, 2008; Lee, 2009; Schat & Kelloway, 2003). Thirdly, bullying behavior is repetitive rather than being an isolated act (Lee, 2009).

Workplace aggression has been used to refer to any form of aggressive workplace behavior. As such bullying behavior is a subset of workplace aggression. This dissertation will define workplace bullying as: the target's perceptions of the extent to which the bully (supervisor or coworker) engaged in verbal and non-verbal behaviors (excluding physical contact) intended to chronically harass and cause harm to the target (Lee, 2009; Schat & Kelloway, 2003; Tepper, 2000). Intention was measured from the target's perception that he/she suffered adverse physical or psychological consequences. The term harass in the definition means behavior directed toward a target that causes physical or psychological harm to the target.

The harassing behavior may be overt (e.g., yelling, working slower, damaging equipment) or covert (e.g., ostracizing, gossiping, withholding information) in nature, but the behavior occurs repeatedly over time and often the target suffers somatic symptoms such as headaches, or psychological symptoms, such as depression or post traumatic stress (Barclay & Aquino, 2011; Poilpot-Rocaboy, 2006; Raskauskas & Stoltz, 2004; Santos, Leather, Dunn, & Zarola, 2009; Tepper, 2007).

Bullying occurs when there is an imbalance of power between the perpetrator and the victim (Crothers et al., 2009; Raskauskas & Stoltz, 2004). This imbalance may occur due to physical, intellectual, positional (e.g., supervisory), racial, or gender inequities (Olweus, 2010; Crothers et al., 2009). The definition used here encompasses the perception of the victim of the behavior and the voluntary action of the perpetrator to exert his/her superiority over the target in order to cause harm to a coworker or supervisor (Olweus, 2010; Tepper, 2000). Even though bullying is based on intentional and repetitive abuse by the perpetrator, the concept of bullying in this dissertation was based on the subjective evaluation of the behavior by the target of the behavior in terms of the severity of the effects of the bullying behavior on the target (Olweus, 2010; Tepper, 2007).

Aggressors and Targets of Workplace Bullying

It is important to distinguish between the bully and the victim in research because they are two distinct groups of people. For example, bullies are rewarded for their behavior because they often get sought after resources (e.g., raises, promotions) while the target suffers negative outcomes (e.g., job dissatisfaction, diminished well-being). In addition, there are some measurement concerns, particularly if the focus of the study is on the bully. Individuals tend to engage in impression management, which is the tendency to present oneself in a light most

favorable to the individual (Blau, 1986). Impression management may create a measurement

concern because bullying is viewed negatively by society and the bullies may not be willing to

admit they engage in workplace bullying which may interfere with study results (Ferris, Brown,

Berry, & Lian, 2008; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Therefore, this dissertation studied bullying

from the perspective of the target for two reasons (1) due to individual differences (e.g., self-

efficacy) and life experiences each person evaluates situations differently and what may be

bullying to one person may not be bullying to another (Bandura, 1997; Escartin et al., 2009; Kim

& Glomb, 2010; Skarlicki & Rupp, 2010); and (2) bullies may be able to rationalize their

behavior to fit societal norms (i.e., motivating a low performer to improve performance) (Tepper,

2007) which may reduce the self-reporting of bullying behavior by the perpetrator.

The target perceives the aggressor's behavior to be intentional because the target may

believe the bully sets out to abuse and/or humiliate the him/her (e.g., assigning meaningless

tasks, withholding information, hiding documents, setting unreasonable project deadlines)

(Crothers et al., 2009; Duffy, 2009; Sperry, 2009; Sperry & Duffy, 2009). Moreover, bullies are

able to process social information accurately and to use the information to their advantage when

engaging in the victimization of coworkers (Schultze-Krumbholz & Scheithauer, 2009). In

addition, it is more common for supervisors to bully subordinates than it is for a subordinate to

bully his/her supervisor (Rayner & Cooper, 2006). Therefore, the focus of this dissertation was

to look at workplace bullying behavior in which either the supervisor or coworkers engage in

bullying behavior that may then lead to an escalation of the aggressive behavior because the

target retaliates against the organization, supervisor, or coworkers.

Research has shown that the negative effects of workplace bullying can be devastating to

the targeted individual (Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2010) and if allowed to continue creates

adverse outcomes for not only the target but for observers, the organization, and people who have relationships with the organization (e.g., customers, vendors) (Escartin et al., 2009). Victims of bullying typically have lower extraversion and higher neuroticism scores than bullies (Demaray & Malecki, 2003) and a lower sense of belonging (Davidson & Demaray, 2007). In addition, the negative consequences (e.g., job dissatisfaction, organizational commitment, psychological well-being) of supervisor bullying are greater for employees who have less job mobility (Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2009). Due to individual characteristics, the assessment of whether an individual is the target of bullying behavior and the effects of the bullying behavior were based on the perception of the target in this dissertation (Maass et al., 2003; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2009).

Several studies have found support for the importance associated with proactively controlling the situational factors (e.g., organizational history of aggression, poor leadership, and organizational injustice) that are associated with increased job-related stress within an organization in order to reduce the incidence of workplace bullying (Barling et al., 2009; Gray et al., 1999; Hershcovis, et al., 2007). This dissertation considered workplace bullying behavior from the perspective of the target because, it is more likely participants will report being the target of bullying behavior than they will be to report engaging in bullying behavior (Glomb, 2010). Specifically, this dissertation looked at how the situational factor, the quality of the LMX relationship, affected whether subordinates are bullied by their supervisor and/or coworkers.

Leadership Literature Review and the Proposed Research Model

Workplace bullying does not occur in a vacuum. There are both individual and situational factors that influence a perpetrator and subsequently, may rouse displays of aggressive behavior against coworkers or the organization (Crothers et al., 2009; Hershcovis et

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al., 2007). The antecedents to workplace bullying have been grouped into three structural categories: (1) work group dynamics (2) individual dynamics and (3) organizational dynamics (Crothers et al., 2009; Salin, 2003; Sperry, 2009), a description of each antecedent follows.

Work group dynamics such as the power imbalances that are related to race, gender roles, and other differentiating personal qualities (e.g., self-esteem, intelligence) may create a situation where there are conflicts between in-groups and out-groups, which may incite aggressive behavior (Dupre & Barling, 2006). In terms of gender, men have generally been found to act more aggressively than women (Lee, 2009; Kochenderfer-Ladd & Skinner, 2002; Poilpot-Rocaboy, 2006). For example, Turkel (2007) found that adolescent boys are more prone to overt forms of aggression, but that both adolescent boys and girls engaged in relational aggression equally. Kim and Glomb (2010) found that individuals who were talented and focused on themselves rather than group interests were the targets of bullying behavior at work. Perceived power imbalances may create a situation where individuals may feel they have little control or autonomy at work which may cause stress and subsequently, the individual acts aggressively to restore a sense of equity (Dupre & Barling, 2006; Inness et al., 2008).

The second antecedent, individual dynamics, encompasses the actions of individuals that are related to the internal competition for rewards (i.e., promotions, transfers, and training). The competition may create a situation where employees experience envy and engage in sabotage in order to achieve sought after rewards (Hooper & Martin, 2008; Leiding, 2010; Salin, 2003; Vecchio, 2005). For example, conflict may occur between career oriented individuals and job oriented individuals. Career oriented individuals value the prestige they may gain from their jobs and their personal identity becomes defined by their job whereas, job oriented individuals view their work as the means to an end and perhaps do not appear as committed to the

organization as the career oriented individual (Sperry, 2009). Moreover, job oriented employees

have been shown to act more aggressively than career oriented employees (Tepper, 2007).

Individual differences have also been shown to affect an individual's propensity toward

aggression. For example, Glomb (2010) found mixed support for how individuals expressed

anger. The zero-order correlations predicted that trait anger, anger-in, anger-out, and Type A

behavior pattern predicted bullying behavior. However, she did not find support for trait anger

or Type A personality in predicting whether an individual would engage in aggression when she

analyzed her full model.

The third antecedent, organizational dynamics such as the personnel actions associated

with downsizing or other organizational alterations (i.e., re-organization), leadership,

organizational culture, or organizational climate may lead to stress and thus precipitate

workplace bullying behavior (Crothers et al., 2009; Salin, 2003; Sperry, 2009).   Organizational

culture and leadership become particularly salient with respect to the implementation of policies

and procedures. For example, if employees perceive there are low costs associated with

engaging in aggressive behavior at work they experience increased levels of distress; and the

bullies have little incentive to refrain from engaging in bullying behavior (Dupre & Barling,

2006; Inness et al., 2008). In addition, when employees perceive that they must compete with

coworkers for internal rewards or to survive a downsizing or re-organization, they may

experience dissatisfaction and/or frustration that may spur aggressive behavior (Crothers et al.,

2009; Inness et al., 2008; Salin, 2003; Sperry, 2009).

The employer has little control over such individual factors as gender or personality

(Caspi, 2000; Costa & McCrae, 1994). In addition, organizations are limited in the interventions

that can be implemented to remedy the effects associated with individual factors (i.e., gender,

personality), except perhaps to select employees based on personality inventories. Unfortunately, selection based on personality may bring into question the legal defensibility of the selection measure (Guion, 1998; Ryan, Ployhart, & Friedel, 1998). Moreover, the bullying literature makes a weak case for the defensibility for selecting employees based on individual differences. For example, it has been found that individuals who possess aggressive tendencies do not necessarily act aggressively due to their individual characteristics, but rather are more likely to act aggressively based on situational factors (Barclay & Aquino, 2011; Dupre & Barling, 2006).

Workplace aggression is often induced by a combination of individual differences and situational factors (Harmon-Jones & Peterson, 2008), for example it has been shown that traits may be expressed differentially depending on the particular situation (Caspi, 2000). Organizations are more likely to be able to exert control over the situational factors that may be related to workplace bullying.

Organizations can affect the situational factors that lead to job-related stress, for example, by training supervisors to be fair (Hershcovis & Barling, 2006) or to exhibit the characteristics of transformational leaders (Barling, Loughlin, & Kelloway, 2002). Moreover, situational factors have been shown to be better predictors of workplace bullying than individual factors (Inness, Barling, & Turner, 2005). Demonstrated aggression is more likely explained by situational factors and particularly by an individual's perception of organizational justice. For example, research has shown that situational factors such as, abusive supervision and interactional injustice may predict aggression against a supervisor (Hershcovis et al., 2007; Tepper, 2000; Inness et al., 2005). Glomb (2010) found some support that procedural justice negatively predicted whether an individual would engage in aggression and that individuals who

experienced workplace aggression were inclined to react aggressively against coworkers or the organization.

This dissertation looked at the individual dynamics that precipitate workplace bullying and specifically this dissertation examined how leadership may contribute to workplace bullying. Poor leadership (i.e., laissez-faire leadership) has been associated with increased incidents of workplace bullying (Salin, 2003; Crothers et al., 2009; LeBlanc & Barling, 2004; Donovan, Drasgow, & Munson, 1998). Laissez-faire leadership has been defined "as the avoidance or absence of leadership" (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 8). On the other hand, supportive and flexible leadership (i.e., transformational leadership) has been shown to create an organizational environment that is conducive to team work and acceptance that may reduce workplace aggression (Fullagar, McCoy, & Shull, 1992; Tengilimoglu, Mansur, & Dziegielewski, 2010). A transformational leader is a person who inspires followers to excel by responding to their individual needs and facilitating an action plan for goal achievement (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Contribution to the Literature

An October 1, 2011 PsychINFO search indicated that since 1994 there have been six articles on laissez-faire leadership and bullying; three articles on transformational leadership and bullying; one article on charismatic leadership and bullying; and one article on LMX and workplace bullying. The LMX article found that workplace exclusion negatively affected employees' perceptions of LMX (Scott, 2007). To date, there has not been any research that has looked at how low-quality LMX relationships affect bullying behavior in the workplace.

LMX leadership theory is one of the most researched leadership theories in the leadership literature; it is second only to transformational leadership (Barling, Christie, & Hoption, 2011) and yet very little research has looked the quality of LMX relationships and workplace bullying.

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This dissertation will contribute to the bullying literature by looking at how low-quality LMX relationships affect bullying behavior in the workplace. In particular, this dissertation will examine the effect of a low-quality leader-member exchange relationship on the incidence of workplace bullying and whether a low-quality LMX relationship leads to perceptions of being ostracized and then to perceptions of being bullied. This dissertation will also investigate whether an individual's social support network will negatively affect whether a victim of workplace bullying will retaliate against the organization and/or his/her supervisor and/or coworkers to equilibrate the perception of unequal social exchanges between the leader and the victim of workplace bullying.

Chapter 2 - Leadership Literature Review and the Proposed Research Model

Theoretical Grounding of the LMX Theory

Leadership is an important antecedent to workplace bullying because, as the contingency theory postulates, group performance is contingent on leadership style and situational factors (Barling et al., 2011; Fiedler, 1971; Vroom & Jago, 2007). Research has shown that certain leadership styles generate varying effects and responses from followers. For example, laissez-faire leadership has been shown to instigate aggressive behavior and psychological distress among followers (Barling et al., 2011; Leiding, 2010; Poilpot-Rocaboy, 2006; Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, & Hetland, 2007). The distress occurs due to a lack of intervention by the leader, which may lead to escalated interpersonal conflicts among subordinates. It is typical for subordinates to feel socially isolated and/or to perceive that they are being ostracized by their leader and/or coworkers. The distressed individual may engage in retaliatory behavior against the leader, coworkers, or the organization (Glomb & Liao, 2003; Raskauskas & Stoltz, 2004; Skogstad et al., 2007).

Social Exchange Theory

Leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships are grounded in the social exchange theory. The LMX relationship may be the primary method for resource and reward allocation from the leader to the subordinate (Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2008; Venkataramani, Green, & Schleicher, 2010). Social exchange "refers to voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others" (Blau, 1986; p. 91). With most social exchange relationships there is a point of diminishing returns where it is no longer beneficial to one or the other members of the

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exchange relationship to continue providing incentives (Blau, 1986). The social exchange theory postulates that when people perceive that they are the beneficiaries of resource allocation they are more likely to respond in a positive manner (i.e., helping behaviors).

Employees constantly scan their environment and compare their reciprocated treatment from their leader to their leader's treatment of their coworker. They subsequently adjust their behavior to ensure a net gain for the treatment/resources they receive from their leader (Elangovan & Shapiro, 1998; Greenberg, Ashton-James, & Ashkanasy, 2007; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008; Vidyarthi, Liden, Anand, Erdogan, & Ghosh, 2010). In terms of differentiation, the leader develops qualitatively different LMX relationships with each subordinate with only a few of the LMX relationships being high-quality relationships. High-quality LMX relationships develop when the effort expended to develop the relationship is high by both members of the dyad (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001).

Employees in high-quality LMX relationships will positively identify with their organization which creates an organizational relationship where the employee feels supported by the organization and therefore, they have a sense of being valued by the organization (Tangirala, Green, & Ramanujam, 2007). Even though employees distinguish between the exchanges they have with the organization and their leader, the LMX relationship is instrumental in affecting the employees' perceptions of the exchanges they have with the organization (Ilies, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997).

High-quality LMX relationships have an implied quid pro quo exchange. That is, if the leader is able to provide sought after resources for his/her subordinates, the subordinates feel obligated to reciprocate by improving their job performance and engaging in OCBs that will benefit the leader (Ilies et al., 2007; Tangirala et al., 2007). Similarly, coworkers who have

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similar relationships (i.e., high LMX relationship) with their leader will develop high-quality

coworker exchange relationships which will contribute to group cohesiveness (Sherony & Green,

2002) because, group members tend to adopt the values and norms espoused by the leader

(Barling et al., 2011; Yukl & Lepsinger, 2005) which in turn creates a cohesive unit.

Social Identity Theory

According to the social identity theory people categorize themselves and others into

groups (in-group members) that are similar in values and interests (Schneider & Northcraft,

1999). It is assumed that in-group members are easier to communicate with, perceived as more

trustworthy, and more likely to return favors than those who do not share similar values and

interests (out-group members) (Schneider & Northcraft, 1999). Individuals tend to identify with

groups that they perceive will enhance their self-image and opportunities to achieve resources

(Turner, Brown, & Tajfel, 1979).

In-group/out-group biases are not limited to conflict situations (Turner et al., 1979). For

example, in-group/out-group conflict can occur and be exacerbated by LMX relationships if

employees in low-quality exchange relationships with their leader feel they are receiving fewer

organizational resources (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007; Turner et al., 1979). High-quality

leader-member exchange relationships improve job satisfaction because such relationships

provide better communication with the leader, trust between the leader and subordinate,

empowerment, career advancement, and pay incentives (Chen, Lam, & Zhong, 2007; Erdogan &

Enders, 2007). Conversely, subordinates having low-quality LMX relationships with their

leaders must demonstrate higher levels of performance than those with high-quality LMX

relationships for the leader to acknowledge their contributions to the decision process and to trust

their expertise (Goerke, Moller, Schulz-Hardt, Napiersky, & Frey, 2004; Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986).

Employees who perceive the quality of their LMX relationship to be similar to others in their work group form closer relationships with each other and experience greater group cohesion. Whereas, in situations where the quality of the LMX relationships are highly differentiated such that there is a clear differentiation between the in-group (high-quality LMX) and the out-group (low-quality LMX), feelings of resentment may ensue (Sherony & Green, 2002) which may lead to perceptions of leader unfairness. The perception of leader unfairness causes the subordinate to engage in retaliatory behavior against the leader and/or his/her coworkers (Crothers et al., 2009). Retaliation may take the form of job withdrawal which may manifest itself in lowered performance and the tendency to refrain from performing organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) that would benefit the organization (Tepper et al., 2009).   Employees in a low-quality leader-member exchange relationship are more likely to be dissatisfied with their job (Erdogan & Enders, 2007) and to leave the organization (Ferris, 1985) because they feel like they are an outsider (out-group member) which causes them to feel disconnected from their leader and coworkers (Den Hartog, De Hoogh, & Keegan, 2007).

Assertions of LMX Theory

Two assertions of the LMX leadership theory are that leaders develop varying qualities of relationships with each of their subordinates (followers); and very few of these relationships are of a high-quality exchange relationship (Hopper & Martin, 2008; Yukl, 2006). The leader-member exchange (LMX) relationship has been shown to be a multidimensional construct consisting of four dimensions into which LMX relationships can be categorized (1) contribution or subordinate competence; (2) affect or the degree of friendship or liking; (3) loyalty, mutual

obligation, and trust; and (4) professional respect or mutual influence (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001).

The development of a high-quality LMX relationship involves the effort of both members of the dyad and the effort expended is the result of each member's perception of each individual's assessment of the utility of the relationship (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001). In addition to the categorical description of the LMX relationship research has shown that LMX relationships generally develop along four stages (1) role-taking where the leader makes a request and evaluates the subordinate's behavior; (2) role-making where the nature of the LMX relationship becomes more defined and trust develops between dyads with high-quality relationships; (3) role-routinization where the relationship becomes mature and the quality of the relationship becomes stable; and (4) team-making where the in-group and out-group are integrated to form high functioning teams (Scandura & Lankau, 1996; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008).

The development of the LMX relationship is a joint endeavor by both the leader and the subordinate and the interpersonal skills of both parties play a major role in the quality of the relationship that develops (Organ, 1974; Scandura & Lankau, 1996; Sears & Holmvall, 2010). It is not uncommon for dyadic members to view the LMX relationship differently. For example a leader may view the relationship as a low-quality one whereas the subordinate may view the relationship as being one of high-quality. In situations where the subordinate perceives the leader is treating him/her well the benefits of a high-quality LMX relationship will be realized by the subordinate (Cogliser, Schriesheim, Scandura, & Gardner, 2009). The quality of the LMX relationship is a function of the perception of both members of the dyad (Scandura et al., 1986).

Therefore, the perspectives of each dyadic member (e.g., leader, subordinate) are critical in assessing the LMX relationship.

Trust

During the role-making stage the leader and subordinate develop trust based on the perceptions of the reciprocations received. This reciprocating process is cyclical and even one violation of trust will destroy the LMX relationship (Scandura & Lankau, 1996). High-quality LMX relationships have been found to increase job satisfaction because both the leader and the subordinate are in a relationship of mutual trust. As a result of this trust the leader reciprocates by giving the subordinate autonomy, promotional opportunities, and pay incentives (Erdogan & Enders, 2007). Subordinates in low-quality LMX relationships do not share the trust associated with those in high-quality LMX relationships. Consequently, the subordinate in a low-quality LMX relationship may experience emotional exhaustion and display withdrawal behavior rather than expending the additional emotional energy necessary to be accepted as a member of the in-group (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007).

Research has shown that trust is a necessary element in the development of high-quality LMX relationships (i.e., Leader-member, coworker-coworker) (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001; Yukl, 2006). For example, subordinates in low-quality LMX exchanges do not experience a high level of trust and consequently they are less likely to approach the leader for negative feedback (Chen et al., 2007) or to resolve grievances (Jameson, 1999). Seeking negative feedback is important because it enables subordinates to find ways to improve their performance which demonstrates positive reciprocity toward the leader. Moreover, trust in the grievance resolution process is important because it improves workgroup relationships. When trust is breached it is more

difficult to regain the level of trust initially extended toward the other member of the dyad (Lapidot, Kark, & Shamir, 2007).

LMX theory describes how workplace relationships between subordinates and their leader affects the quality of the interactions between the leader (supervisor) and his/her subordinate, it does not describe leadership style. Two leadership styles have received research interest related to workplace bullying in the literature, laissez-faire and transformational leadership.

Followers of transformational leaders are more likely to trust the leader, which leads to a higher quality of LMX relationship with the leader (Barling et al., 2011). Whereas, followers of laissez-faire leaders tend to report trust-eroding incidents (Lapidot et al., 2007) and if trust is not present in the leader-member exchange relationship, even a transformational leader will not be effective in persuading followers to embrace his/her vision and adopt the organization's values (Barling et al., 2011). It is important for subordinates to trust their leaders because LMX relationships are based on differentiation and this differentiation often leads to in-group/out-group factions which may lead to negative work attitudes if trust is not present.

Laissez-faire and transformational leaders have been shown to exhibit opposite effects on employee workplace behavior. Specifically, laissez-faire leadership has been shown to be positively related to bullying behavior (Barling, 2011; Poilpot-Rocaboy, 2006; Salin, 2003) and it follows, that a laissez-faire leadership style is associated with a low-quality LMX relationship. Brief discussions of these two types of leadership styles and how they are related to high- and low-quality LMX relationships are merited in order to understand the importance of leader behavior on workplace bullying.

High-quality LMX Relationships and Transformational Leadership

The LMX theory examines dyadic relationships and research has taken several approaches to looking at the LMX relationships. For example, research has looked at the relationship between a leader and a follower, a leader's upward ties in the organization (Venkataramani et al., 2010), coworker relationships (Sherony & Green, 2002), and work group member relationships (Hooper & Martin, 2008). A preponderance of the LMX research has looked at the effects of a positive exchange relationship with the leader. Findings indicate that employees who have a high-quality LMX relationship with their leader are more committed to their organization and reciprocate with greater organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), higher productivity, and job satisfaction (Vidyarthi et al., 2010; Townsend, Phillips, & Elkins, 2000).

High-quality LMX relationships are those in which subordinates experience a great deal of opportunity because they trust that the leader has access to available organizational resources such as budgetary access or organizational influence which, incentivizes the employee to reciprocate the leader's willingness to share his/her resources with the subordinate (Venkataramani et al., 2010). Consequently, employees respond by enhancing job performance and engaging in organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) (Erdogan & Enders, 2007; Vidyarthi et al., 2010). Based on the reciprocity provided in high-quality LMX relationships, subordinates will reciprocate in a manner that is consistent with the leader's role expectations of his/her subordinates (Hofmann, Morgeson, & Gerras, 2003). Employees who have a high-quality LMX relationship may feel threatened if they perceive that out-group members (low-quality LMX relationship coworkers) are receiving more attention from the leader than they have in the past, which may lead to workplace bullying directed at the out-group (Maass et al., 2003). Transformational leadership has been shown to be negatively related to bullying behavior and to

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increase OCBs (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2007) and therefore it follows that a transformational style of leadership is more likely to be associated with a high-quality LMX relationship. A brief discussion of how transformational leadership effectively reduces the incidents of workplace bullying follows.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership has been shown to improve team performance (Kearney & Gebert, 2009; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Cha, 2007), promote safer workplaces (Barling et al., 2002; Zohar, 2002), improve psychological well-being (Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway, & McKee, 2007), increase job satisfaction (Barling et al., 2011), and reduce employee cynicism (Bommer, Rich, & Rubin, 2005). Both transformational leadership and LMX have been shown to affect follower performance with the distinction that LMX is effective in positively affecting follower performance regardless of the physical proximity of the leader, whereas, transformational leadership is effective in situations where the leader is in close proximity to the followers (Howell & Hall-Marenda, 1999).

Unfortunately, high-quality LMX relationships are limited to a small number of subordinates who are privileged to receive benefits such as promotional opportunities, pay increases, trust, respect, and autonomy not afforded to those out-group members in low-quality LMX relationships (Erdogan & Enders, 2007; Sherony & Green, 2002). Consequently, the leader creates a situation where those in low-quality LMX relationships are disadvantaged in terms of organizational resources.

Low-quality LMX Relationships and Laissez-fair Leadership

Since leader-member exchange relationships influence work attitudes, job satisfaction, and team cohesiveness (Sherony & Green, 2002); employees in the low-quality relationships are

less likely to work on developing a high-quality relationship (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001). If there is a great deal of variability in the LMX relationships in the workgroup (Henderson et al., 2008) employees in low-quality LMX relationships are more likely to engage in retaliatory behavior (Townsend et al., 2000) and coworker conflict (Hooper & Martin, 2008). To date there is a paucity of research that examines the effects of low-quality LMX relationships. The general trend in the LMX literature has been to look at high-quality LMX relationships and to infer the opposite effects for low-quality LMX relationships (Barling et al., 2011).

The research on low-quality LMX relationships has found that subordinates engage in comparing their relationship with their leader to the relationships of others in the work group (Henderson et al., 2008). Based on these subordinate comparisons, subordinates who have a low-quality LMX relationship with their leader infer that the organization is not fulfilling its social exchange responsibility (Henderson et al.) and those in low-quality LMX relationships are more likely to retaliate (Townsend et al., 2000) and to be less committed to the organization (Sherony & Green, 2002).

Subordinates in low-quality exchange relationships may believe they have expended greater effort to develop the relationship than their leader; consequently, there is a lack of communication, trust, and respect between the leader and subordinate which may lead to decreased productivity by the subordinate (Erdogan & Enders, 2007; Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001; Scandura & Graen, 1984). In fact, employees with a low-quality LMX relationship do not necessarily lack the skills and abilities necessary to be high performers, but rather due to the low-quality LMX relationship they feel the extra effort necessary to be high performers lacks merit (Scandura & Graen, 1984). This disengagement by the employee may lead to perceptions that the leader is ignoring the subordinate, withholding valued resources from the subordinate, or

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failing to act on the subordinates' behalf. These perceptions are similar to the qualities of a

laissez-faire leader and laissez-fair leadership has been associated with conflict among

coworkers and bullying behaviors (Barling et al., 2011; Salin, 2003). A brief discussion of how

laissez-faire leadership may increase workplace bullying follows.

Laissez-faire Leadership

A low-quality LMX relationship may be perceived similarly to a laissez-fair leadership

style by the subordinate because a laissez-fair leader tends to do nothing and avoid making

decisions (Barling et al., 2011; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). A laissez-faire leader may

withhold positive performance feedback and this lack of information sharing may be perceived

as a low-quality LMX relationship by the subordinate (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008).

Laissez-faire leadership is characterized by the leader's indifference to his/her

subordinates (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Laissez-faire leaders fail to respond to problems, to

intervene in employee disputes, to provide performance feedback, to express opinions, and they

generally avoid responding to management related concerns or employee needs (Bass & Riggio,

2006; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). Laissez-faire leadership has been demonstrated to

contribute to aggressive workplace behavior when leaders fail to act, which causes employees to

distrust their leader and the organization and the failure to intervene in workplace conflicts may

exacerbate conflicts (Poilpot-Rocaboy, 2006; Skogstad et al., 2007).

Leaders who manage with a laissez-faire style of leadership do not build trust among

their subordinates. When bullying occurs among the work-group the laissez fair leader is

perceived to condone the uncivil behavior due to his/her non-responsiveness (Hinkin &

Schriesheim, 2008; Yukl & Lepsinger, 2005). This sends a message to the bully that forgiveness

is easily obtained and the target and observers perceive that the bully is rewarded for his/her

behavior (Elangovan & Shapiro, 1998). Subsequently, the leader has established a climate where injustice prevails and employees distrust the organizational leadership. On the other hand, when employees believe that the probability of being detected are high and that if detected they will be held responsible for their anti-social behavior they will be less likely to betray the trust expectations of their work relationships (Elangovan & Shapiro, 1998; Yukl & Lepsinger, 2005).

This dissertation will use LMX relationships to study workplace bullying because a subordinate's relationship with his/her leader has been shown to affect the subordinate's attitude toward his/her job and/or organization such that those with a high-quality LMX relationship experience positive outcomes such as higher job satisfaction, more open and honest communication, greater access to resources, and trust in his/her supervisor (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008). Whereas, those in low-quality LMX relationships were more likely to exhibit retaliatory and disruptive behaviors (Barling et al., 2011; Townsend et al., 2000) in an attempt to achieve equity (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Retaliatory behavior provides a sense of personal satisfaction for the avenger, which further exacerbates the spiral of incivility (Tepper et al., 2009) and in this dissertation; retaliation will be considered a negative outcome of workplace bullying.

This dissertation posits that employees in low-quality exchange relationships are more likely to have firsthand experience with workplace bullying. To summarize, as employees compare the perceived quality of their LMX relationship with that of their co-workers they are likely to perceive they are not receiving the same benefits of employment their co-workers are receiving. As a result of their evaluation of the lack of utility of their LMX relationship, the employee is likely to feel they are being excluded by their leader and/or their work group. This feeling of being excluded places the employee in an out-group membership position which may

be perceived as bullying behavior. The outcast employee may perceive that he/she is being

bullied by his/her co-workers and/or supervisor.

Hypothesis 1a: Low-quality leader-member exchange relationships will be positively

related to coworker bullying behavior.

Hypothesis 1b: Low-quality leader-member exchange relationships will be positively

related to supervisor bullying behavior.

A low-quality LMX relationship may be perceived similarly to the lack of intervention

characteristic of laissez-faire leaders, which, may lead to escalated interpersonal conflict and/or

perceptions of being ostracized by coworkers and/or the leader (Skogstad et al., 2007).

Ostracism refers to the perception of an individual that he/she is being ignored or excluded by

others (Ferris et al., 2008). Ostracism effectively places an individual in an out-group

membership position within the organization or workgroup (Ferris et al., 2008), which may lead

to a diminished self-image and opportunities to achieve resources (Turner et al., 1979). When

co-workers feel tension due to their group membership, they are less likely to seek help from co-

workers because they may feel that they are exposing vulnerability and their co-workers will

view them as weak or incompetent. Consequently, they may be perceived as not being a team

player by their co-workers, which, may further exacerbate the out-group bias and increase the

tension among group members (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Vashdi, 2005). Being excluded or

ignored by co-workers may lead to negative feelings (e.g., anxiety) and increased stress which

may be interpreted as bullying behavior by the ostracized individual (Baumeister & Leary,

1995).

It may be that when employees perceive they have a low-quality LMX relationship, they

will perceive they are being ostracized by their leader. Ostracism by the leader is a form of

abusive leadership and abusive leadership is a predominate form of workplace bullying. Abusive leadership affects approximately 13.6% of the American workforce and causes diminished well-being (Tepper, 2007) and perceptions of organizational injustice (Tepper, 2000). Followers of abusive leaders display deviant behaviors and are prone to retaliatory behavior against their abusive supervisor in an attempt to restore equity (Barling et al., 2011). Abusive leaders negatively impact followers and the negative outcomes include follower deviance, reduced job performance, and retaliation against the supervisor (Barling et al., 2011). Moreover, Andersson and Pearson (1999) postulated that aggression escalates and creates a spiral of negative reciprocity. That is, a minor incivility that is left unattended will lead to revenge behavior and each subsequent act of aggression becomes more severe (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Dupre & Barling, 2006; Dupre, Inness, Connelly, Barling, & Hoption, 2006; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2009).

It may be that the comparisons employees make between the quality of their LMX relationship to that of their co-workers will lead those who perceive they have a low-quality LMX relationship to perceive they are being ostracized by their leader. Due to the desire of those co-workers with a high-quality LMX relationship to maintain their status, the high-quality LMX relationship employees may ostracize co-workers who they perceive have a low-quality LMX relationship. Employees with a low-quality LMX relationship will interpret the perceived ostracism by either their leader or their co-workers as bullying behavior.

Hypothesis 2a: Ostracism will mediate the relationship between a low-quality LMX relationship and coworker bullying behavior.

Hypothesis 2b: Ostracism will mediate the relationship between a low-quality LMX relationship and supervisor bullying behavior.

Employees who are bullied by their supervisors experience lower levels of trust in the organization's internal procedures for redress which leads to greater perceptions of organizational injustice by the employees (Fox & Stallworth, 2005), consequently employees are more likely to seek revenge and to retaliate (e.g., withhold OCBs) to restore equity (Barling et al., 2011; Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002). Employees in organizations where the interactional justice climate is more formal in terms of politeness, respect and professionalism are less inclined to perceive mistreatment and/or incivility from supervisors and/or coworkers (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

When employees with a low LMX relationship perceive their leader as being fair they are more likely to engage in OCBs (i.e., helping orient a new hire into the work unit) that will benefit their in-group (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007). Retaliatory or revenge behavior represents behavior that is the opposite of OCBs, thus it can be assumed that rather than performing helping behaviors, employees in low-quality LMX relationships may perceive they are being ostracized by their leader and they will be inclined to reciprocate by retaliating or seeking revenge. Ostracism is behavior that may only be known to the individual engaging in or experiencing the behavior, therefore, Fischer and Fick's (1993) 11-item measure of social desirability was used to control the participant's inclination to provide a socially desirable answer to the ostracism scale (Schriesheim, Wu, & Cooper, 2011). Figure 1 provides a diagram of the mediation model.

Figure 1. Display of the Mediating Effect of Ostracism between LMX and Workplace Bullying Behavior.
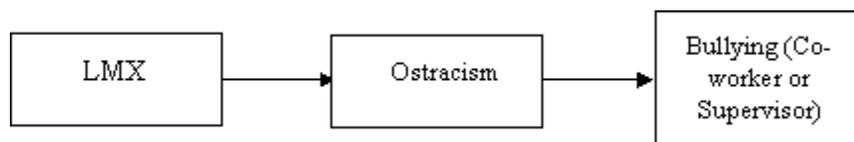
Figure 2.1. Mediation Model

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Consequences of Workplace Bullying

The physical and psychological outcomes of workplace bullying have been well documented in the workplace aggression literature. For example, aggression has been found to be associated with emotional exhaustion, a reduced sense of well-being, burnout, negative emotions, job dissatisfaction, lower organizational commitment, increased absenteeism, reduced OCBs, and post-traumatic-stress syndrome (Barclay & Aquino, 2011; Escartin et al., 2009; Hershcovis et al., 2007; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002; Tengilimoglu et al., 2010).

According to social cognitive theory people with a high sense of self-efficacy may adhere to methods of goal attainment that are counterproductive in times of adversity (Bandura & Locke, 2003) which may precipitate workplace bullying rather than redirecting their actions to attain goals in a positive manner. It is well documented in the LMX literature that high-quality LMX relationships promote OCBs by employees. Employees who are the targets of abusive supervision tend to withhold OCBs which may be considered retaliatory or revenge behavior (Zellers, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002). When leaders fail to respond to poor performance or fail to reward stellar performance (i.e., laissez-faire leadership), subordinates form negative perceptions of their supervisors, which may interfere with the development of high-quality LMX relationships between leaders and subordinates (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). This lack of attention by the leader may be perceived as ostracism by the subordinate and may lead to a spiral of negative reciprocity.

The spiral of negative reciprocity manifests when the target of bullying behavior becomes the instigator of bullying behavior and the retaliatory behavior may be directed at the initial perpetrator or as collateral damage, directed at the organization or coworkers (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Glomb, 2010; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper 2000).

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Poor leadership incubates aggression and inhibits respectful work relationships. Moreover, when employees perceive that their leader treats them disrespectfully or unfairly assigns resources or otherwise demonstrates injustice, employees have a tendency to retaliate against their leader by decreasing productivity, arriving to work late, missing work, or instigating anti-social behavior at work (e.g., gossiping, wasting resources) (Hershcovis et al., 2007). Conversely, when employees perceive their leader to be fair they tend to reciprocate by increasing their efforts to attain organizational goals or by performing OCBs (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Leaders should be able to recognize and intervene to stop aggressive behavior among their subordinates at low levels rather than waiting until the aggression becomes violent. Unfortunately, laissez-faire leaders choose to take the route of doing nothing and workplace hostility escalates. On the other hand, transformational leaders empower subordinates and increase the performance of OCBs (Bass and Riggio, 2006) thereby reducing perceptions of being bullied by leaders and coworkers.

Based on the LMX literature this dissertation hypothesizes that when employees experience negative outcomes from their relationship with their leader (i.e., ostracism, withholding of resources, verbal abuse) they will be more likely to retaliate against their leader, coworkers, or the organization (e.g., pilfering, taking extended breaks, sabotage, or exhibiting aggressive behaviors). Therefore, this dissertation will assume that targets of workplace bullying will experience the negative outcomes that have been documented in the literature (e.g., job dissatisfaction, somatic illnesses, depression, etc.) and retaliation will be used to measure the outcome of workplace bullying to determine the effects of workplace bullying on study participants. It is predicted that those employees who are the targets of workplace bullying will engage in retaliatory behavior to restore a sense of equity. That is, Employees who experience

greater levels of workplace bullying are more likely to retaliate by acting more aggressively

toward the organization, coworkers, and/or their leader.

Hypothesis 3a: Coworker bullying behavior will be positively related to retaliatory

behavior.

Hypothesis 3b: Supervisor bullying behavior will be positively related to retaliatory

behavior.

Because workplace bullying creates distress in the target of the behavior, a strong social

support system may be important in ameliorating the negative effects of workplace bullying on

the target of the behavior. The following section discusses social support and how it may be

important in the study of workplace bullying.

Overview of Social Support

Social support has been shown to counter the effects of stress and distress by promoting

the physical and psychological health and well-being of individuals (Heitzmann & Kaplan,

1988). Individuals who have strong emotional connections to others are happier, healthier, and

better able to cope with job related stressors (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). In fact, when

subordinates perceive their leader to be supportive and trusting they report lower negative

consequences of workplace aggression (Murry, Sivasubramaniam, & Jacques, 2001).

Additionally, peer support programs have been shown to reduce the incidence of bullying in the

public schools (Gini, 2007). Social support appears to be consequential in promoting healthy

and functional workplaces.

Social support is the perception of how well an individual's social needs are met through

his/her interaction with others in contributing to the individual's ability to cope with stressful

situations (Cohen, 2004; Demaray & Malecki, 2003; Thoits, 1982). The perception of social

support may be realized in the form of advice, reliance on others, reassurance of self-worth, social acceptance, emotional attachment, and reciprocity (Rizwan & Syed, 2010; Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988). Generally, four types of social support appear in the literature, (1) emotional, (2) instrumental, (3) informational, and (4) appraisal (Cohen, 2004; Schat & Kelloway, 2003; Thoits, 1982). Emotional support involves liking, empathy, reassurance, and trust (Cohen, 2004; Thoits, 1982). Instrumental support involves the tangible provision of support often in the form of goods and services that aid the person, such as helping or caring for the person or financial assistance (Cohen, 2004; Schat & Kelloway, 2003; Thoits, 1982). Informational support is related to the environment and involves providing information the individual may use to cope with the environment such as advice or guidance (Cohen, 2004, Schat & Kelloway, 2003; Thoits, 1982). Appraisal support involves the provision of information the individual uses to self-evaluate (Thoits, 1982). Social support may be provided by the organization, an individual's supervisor, coworkers, family, and/or friends.

Coworker social support may be a valuable resource for employees who have a low-quality LMX relationship with their leaders because it provides the positive reinforcement necessary for them to persevere (Israel, House, Schurman, Heaney, & Mero, 1989). Coworkers who have a good rapport with fellow workers are more likely to experience positive outcomes because they have a greater motivation to perform OCBs, to communicate respectfully, and to cooperate with each other (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Vashdi, 2005).

When people have a strong social support network they have an increased sense of security, self-efficacy, and belief that they have resources (e.g., helping friend, supportive leader) available to assist them in coping with stressors (Davidson & Demaray, 2007; Rizwan & Syed, 2010). Social support has been shown to be negatively related to victimization (Davidson &

Demaray, 2007; Demaray & Malecki, 2003), because it creates a buffer for stressful situations. For example, when the individual in need is given a helping hand or someone listens and helps him/her problem-solve, the individual feels that others care about his/her situation (Zimet et al., 1988).

Social support is a coping mechanism that is related to the severity of the stressful event (Zimet et al., 1988) and it has been shown to help people deal with stressful situations, which may in turn contribute to their physical and psychological well-being (Elangovan & Xie, 2000). It has been shown to directly affect rather than to buffer stress associated with job strain such as job dissatisfaction or boredom with work (LaRocco, House, French, 1980). Family, friends, and coworkers provide the support necessary for an individual to be able to cope with the stressful situations (e.g., workplace bullying) which may in turn buffer the adverse effects of the stressor (Heitzmann & Kaplan, 1988). Coworker support may be important in reducing the adverse effects the targets of bullying behavior experience as a result of workplace aggression (LaRocco et al., 1980). Whereas, social support by individuals outside the organization (i.e., friends, family) may contribute to positive physical and psychological well-being by increasing self-esteem (Rizwan & Syed, 2010) which may reduce job strain (i.e., job dissatisfaction, boredom) and general somatic symptoms such as ulcers (LaRocco et., al, 1980).

As important as social support is to reducing stress associated with physical and psychological well-being, it is not the quantity of people in an individual's support system that is critical; rather it is the quality of the supportive relationship(s) that is important (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Since the quality of a personal relationship can only be assessed by the individuals in the relationship, it is the perception of social support that is important in evaluating the availability and adequacy of an individual's support system (Barrera, 1986). Since workplace

bullying is based on the perception of the target of the behavior, and targets of workplace bullying often retaliate against coworkers and/or the organization to restore a sense of equity, it follows that a perceived strong support system may be instrumental in buffering the retaliatory behavior and the negative effects of bullying behavior.

The workplace is social by nature and social support has been shown to moderate the distress victims experience from bullying (Davidson & Demaray, 2007). In light of this finding it may be that social support will also moderate the performance of retaliatory behaviors that may occur in response to experiencing bullying behavior. For example, perceived organizational support (e.g., praise, approval) has been shown to be effective in encouraging employees to engage in behavior that is beneficial to the organization rather than to exhibit behavior that may be detrimental to the organization (e.g., increased absenteeism) (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Therefore, this dissertation will examine the moderating effects of social support in ameliorating the retaliatory behavior by targets of bullying behavior at work. This research will use emotional support to measure the moderating effects of social support on the likelihood that an individual will engage in retaliatory behavior in response to workplace bullying behavior. The assessment of social support will be based on the individual perceptions of each person's support system and it is predicted that employees who have a strong social support system will be less likely to retaliate if they experience workplace bullying. As with ostracism, retaliatory behaviors are anti-social behaviors and respondents may be inclined to engage in socially desirable responses. Therefore, Fischer and Ficks' (1993) 11-item measure or social desirability was used to control for socially desirable response bias when testing for the moderating effects of social support (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Display of the Moderated Effect of Social Support Between Bullying Behavior and Retaliatory Behavior.
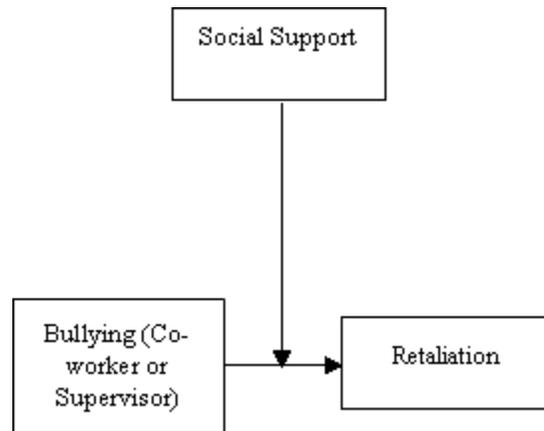
Figure 2.2. Moderation Model

Hypothesis 4a: Social support will negatively affect the relationship between coworker bullying behavior and retaliatory behavior.

Hypothesis 4b: Social support will negatively affect the relationship between supervisor bullying behavior and retaliatory behavior.

Hypothesized model

This research contributes to the literature in one important way; it uses the LMX theory to predict the likelihood of workplace bullying. Specifically, it looks at low-quality LMX relationships and predicts that individuals with a low-quality LMX relationship are more likely to be bullied at work (see Figure 3, Hypothesis 1). Hypotheses 2 predicts that ostracism will mediate the relationship between LMX differentiation and workplace bullying such that if employees perceive they are being ostracized, a low-quality LMX relationship will not have a significant positive effect on workplace bullying (Erdogan & Bauer, 2010). Hypothesis 3

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proposes that employees who experience workplace bullying will retaliate against the organization (e.g., arriving late, working slower), coworkers (e.g., gossiping, ignoring), or their supervisor (e.g. disobeying instructions, gossiping) in an effort to restore a sense of equity (see Figure 3) (Townsend et al., 2000). Hypothesis 4 proposes that individuals who have a strong social support system will be better able to cope with workplace stressors and they will be better equipped to positively work through the stress of workplace bullying and will be less likely to retaliate if they experience workplace bullying (Figure 3). An 11-item measure of social support was used as a control variable to provide assurance that participants did not respond in a socially desirable manner to the retaliation questions (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. Model Representing the Study Hypotheses.
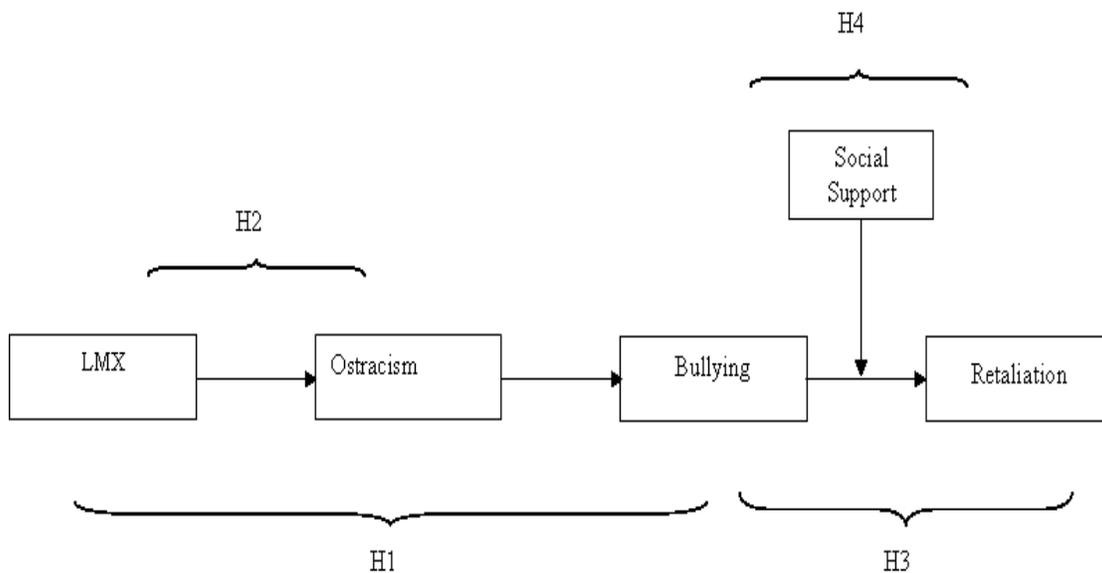
Figure 2.3. Hypothesized Model

List of Hypotheses

   Hypothesis 1a: Low-quality LMX relationships will be positively related to coworker bullying behavior.

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Hypothesis 1b: Low-quality LMX relationships will be positively related to supervisor bullying behavior.

Hypothesis 2a: Ostracism will mediate the relationship between a low-quality LMX relationship and coworker bullying behavior.

Hypothesis 2b: Ostracism will mediate the relationship between a low-quality LMX relationship and supervisor bullying behavior.

Hypothesis 3a: Coworker bullying behavior will be positively related to retaliatory behavior.

Hypothesis 3b: Supervisor bullying behavior will be positively related to retaliatory behavior

Hypothesis 4a: Social support will negatively affect the relationship between coworker bullying behavior and retaliatory behavior.

Hypothesis 4b: Social support will negatively affect the relationship between supervisor bullying behavior and retaliatory behavior.

Chapter 3 - Method

Participants

The study participants included employees from the Division of Facilities and the non-traditional students at Kansas State University. The Division of Facilities employs a variety of employees in terms of the type of work performed. For example, there are employees who perform manual labor, skilled labor, accounting, and management. Kansas State University is the employer for each Facilities employee who completed the survey.

The non-traditional students included all students who were over the age of 25-years of age, married, a parent, a veteran, or were returning to school after a three year absence, who were enrolled for summer classes at Kansas State University. The non-traditional students worked for a variety of employers and the type of work performed included educators, researchers, medical professionals, administrative assistants, engineers, sales persons, foodservice, technicians, skilled trades, and military officers.

The study participants included 104 (49.76%) females and 105 (50.24%) males; five age groups were identified: (1) 21-29, included 54 (25.84%) participants; (2) 30-39, included 73 (34.93%) participants; (3) 40-49, included 37 (17.70%) participants; (4) 50-59, included 41 (19.62%) participants, and (5) 60 and older, included 11 (5.26%) participants. Participants were asked to identify which of six racial groups they claimed membership in: (1) Asian or Pacific Islander included 11 (5.26%) participants, (2) Black included 11 (5.26%), (3) Caucasian included 165 (78.95%), (4) Hispanic included 4 (1.91%), (5) Native American or Alaskan Native included 3 (1.44%), and (6) Two or more races included 15 (7.18%).   160 (76.56%) of the participants indicated their supervisors were the same race as the participant.

Participants were asked to answer questions regarding their supervisor's age, race and gender. A majority of the participants (133 or 64.64%) reported that their supervisors were male and 76 (36.36%) of the participants reported their supervisors were female. Participants reported their supervisor's age and the majority of the supervisors fell into one of three groups. Of the 209 participants, 42 (20.10%) reported their supervisors were 31-40 years old, 59 (28.23%) of the participants reported their supervisors were between 41-50 years old, and 73 (34.93%) of the participants reported their supervisors were between 51-60 years old. Of the 209 participants, 56 (26.79%) indicated they were supervisors and the number of subordinates they supervised ranged from 1 to 130. The majority of the supervisors (47 or 83.93%) reported they supervised 1 to 11 subordinates.

Of the 209 participants 14 (6.70%) indicated they felt they were bullied at work by their coworkers and 17 (8.13%) felt they were bullied at work by their supervisor. In relation to education, 83 (39.71%) of the participants indicated they had some college, an Associate's degree, or a Technical degree; 53 (25.36%) of the participants indicated they had a Bachelor's degree; and 53 (25.36%) indicated they had a Master's degree or higher.

Measures

The survey consisted of 7 scales and 9 demographic variables and assessed LMX quality, workplace bullying behavior, ostracism, social support, retaliatory behavior, and social desirability (Appendix A). Prior to administering the survey 3 independent raters took the survey to assess the ease of comprehension of the items and the length of time necessary to complete the survey. The survey was revised as indicated to improve readability prior to administration of the survey to study participants. The survey was estimated to take

approximately ten (10) minutes to complete. The measures used to test the hypothesized model

(see Figure 3) follow below and the complete scales can be found in Appendix A.

Leader Member Exchange Relationship

LMX has been shown to be a multidimensional construct (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) that

measures five dimensions (e.g., affect, loyalty, contribution, professional respect, trust) and the

LMX-7 as revised by Tangirala et al., (2007), captures the multidimensionality of the LMX

scale. The quality of the LMX relationship in this dissertation was measured using Scandura and

Graen's (1984) 7-item scale because it has been found to be the most psychometrically sound of

the measures used to measure LMX (Gerstner & Day, 1997). The LMX-7 was modified as

recommended by Tangirala et al. (2007). The modification concerned the compound nature of

scale item 1, "Do you usually feel that you know where you stand; do you usually know how

satisfied your immediate supervisor is with what you do?" Item 1 was broken down into 2 items

("Do you usually feel that you know where you stand with your supervisor?" and "Do you

usually know how satisfied your immediate supervisor is with what you do?") (Tangirala et al.,

2007). The eight items were measured on a four-point Likert response format where the lower

end of the scale indicated a negative response and the higher end of the scale indicated a positive

response to the scale item, for example 1 = never, 2 = seldom, 3 = usually, and 4 = always.

Scandura and Graen (1984) reported Cronbach's alphas from .84 to .86 for their LMX-7 scale;

Tangirala et al., reported an alpha of .95 for the eight-item LMX scale. The reliability for the

LMX eight-item scale in this study was .79. The mean score was used to determine the quality

of the LMX relationship for each of the eight items with higher scores indicating a higher quality

relationship. The range of scores was within 7 to 28. .

Ostracism

Workplace ostracism is related to lower feelings of self-esteem, belonging, control, and positive work attitudes. Because ostracism is the individual's perception that he or she is ignored or excluded by others (Ferris et al., 2008), the effects of being ostracized are similar to the effects related to low-quality LMX relationships. Ostracism was measured using the 10-item Workplace Ostracism Scale (Ferris et al., 2008). A sample scale item is "Others ignored you at work." The items were measured on a 6-point Likert response format where 1 = never, 2 = once in a while, 3 = sometimes, 4 = fairly often, 5 = constantly, and 6 = always. The lower end of the scale indicated a negative response and the higher end of the scale indicated a positive response to the scale item. Ferris et al. (2008) reported Cronbach's alphas of .89, .93 and .94 for their scale. The reliability for the Workplace Ostracism Scale in this study was .90. The mean score was used to determine the degree of ostracism for the ten items and the higher scores indicated higher levels of ostracism. The range of scores was within 10 to 70.

Workplace Bullying

Workplace bullying was measured from the perspective of the victim due to the subjective nature of the behavior (Escartin et al., 2009). Two measures of workplace bullying were used, (1) the Abusive Supervision Scale and (2) the Angry Experiences Scale (AES).

Abusive Supervision Scale. Abusive supervision was measured by having participants answer all 15 items from Tepper's (2000) Abusive Supervision Scale[1]. A sample item is "My boss ridicules me." Tepper (2000) reported Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .90 for this scale, the reliability of the scale in this study was .94. A five-point Likert response format was used where

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[1] I would like to thank Dr. Tepper for readily providing his scale and related journal articles.

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1 = "I cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me", 2 = "He/she very seldom used this behavior with me", 3 = "He/she occasionally uses this behavior with me", 4 = "He/she uses this behavior moderately often with me", and 5 = "He/she uses this behavior very often with me." Higher scores indicated a higher perception of abusive behavior by one's supervisor. The scores for the 15 items were averaged to obtain a measure of supervisor bullying behavior. The range of scores was within 15 to 75.

  Angry Experiences Scale. Bullying behavior by coworkers was assessed by Glomb's 2010 Angry Experiences Scale (AES)[2]. Glomb's AES consists of 20 items, however, due to the inadvertent omission of item 6, "sabotaging your work", participants were asked to assess how often in the past 6 months a coworker has directed each of 19 aggressive behaviors at the participant. A sample item is "yelling or raising their voice." Glomb reported a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .95 for this scale, the reliability of AES in this study was .90. A five-point Likert response format was used where 1 = never, 2 = 1 or 2 times a year, 3 = 3 or 4 times a year, 4 = once a month, and 5 = once a week. The scores for the 19 items were averaged to obtain a measure of coworker bullying behavior. Higher scores indicated more frequent experience of abusive behaviors from coworkers. The range of scores was within 19 to 95.

Social Support

  Social support was measured based on the perception of each participant using an adaptation of Zimet et al.'s (1988) 12-item Multidimensional Survey of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS). Participants were asked to think about the people close to them that provide support for them when answering the questions. The significant other components of the questions were re-worded to ask participants to consider the support they receive from their coworkers. Three

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[2] I would like to thank Dr. Glomb for readily providing her scale and related journal articles.

sources of social support were included in the scale, friend support, coworker support and family support. A five-point Likert response format was used where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. The scores were averaged to obtain a measure of social support. Higher scores indicated more perceived social support. The range of scores fell within 12 to 60 for the overall measure of social support. Zimet et al., (1988) reported Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .85 for the entire scale, .72 for the significant other component, .85 for the family component, and .75 for the friend's component of the scale. Cronbach's alpha for the Social Support Scale in this study was .92, coworker support was .91, family support was .92, and friends support was .91.

Retaliation

Retaliatory behavior was measured using the Skarlicki and Folgers's (1997) Organizational Retaliatory Behavior Scale (Cronbach's alpha coefficient = .97). The participants were asked to think about each of the 17 items and to indicate how many times they had engaged in the specific behavior over the past month. A five-point Likert response format was used where 1 = never over the past month, 2 = 1 or 2 times over the past month, 3 = 3 or 4 times over the past month, 4 = 5 times over the past month, and 5 = 6 or more times over the past month. A sample item is "How many times over the past month have you taken supplies home without permission?" The mean score was used to determine a measure of retaliatory behavior. Higher scores indicated higher levels of retaliatory behavior by the participant. The scores for the 17 items were summed to obtain a measure of retaliatory behavior. The range of scores fell within 17 to 105. Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the Organizational Retaliatory Behavior Scale in this study was .82.

Control Variables

Because several of the scales are self-report measures of anti-social behavior, a measure of social desirability was included to control for the response bias that occurs when participants answer questions so as to make themselves look good. Social desirability was controlled for in all analyses. An eleven-item version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability (MCSD) Scale (1960) was used (Fischer & Fick, 1993); the shortened version of the MCSD scale used a true/false response format which is similar to the original version of the scale. Strahan and Gerbasi (1972) reported Cronbach's alphas ranging within .61 to .70 for the short 10-item version of the M-C SDS 33-item scale. Whereas, Fischer and Fick (1993) reported an internal reliability of .86 and a high correlation ($r = .94$) for the eleven-item scale; and Loo and Loewen (2004) recommended the eleven-item scale when a short version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale is needed to reduce the number items in a survey instrument. The 11-item scale included five items that were coded as true (e.g., "No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener") and six items that were coded as false (e.g., "It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged"). Scores range from 0 to 11, where higher scores indicated a need for approval. The internal reliability of the 11 item social desirability scale in this study was .65.

Demographic Variables

Men and women were evaluated separately to determine whether there were gender differences regarding how social support affects retaliatory behavior. In this respect, gender was treated as a moderator variable (Bellman, Forster, Still, & Cooper, 2003; Jick & Mitz, 1985).

Procedure

The survey was a self-report measure of each individual's personal experience with bullying behavior at work either by his/her supervisor or coworkers. It was important to collect the data as a self-report measure for two reasons, (1) in cases of retaliatory behavior the perpetrator may be the only person who is aware of the aggressive behavior (e.g., "calling in sick when not ill"); and (2) bullying and ostracism are also subjective experiences and each individual will interpret the behavior differently (Barclay & Aquino, 2011; Olweus, 2010).

K-State's AXIO survey system was used to administer the surveys. AXIO is an on-line survey system and the confidentiality of each survey participant is guaranteed by the system. Computer access was available for each of the participants who were offered the survey. There was concern that the facilities employees would not access their email, therefore, a hard copy reminder was sent to each of the facilities participants to inform them the survey had been sent to their email address and to encourage them to log on to their email account and complete the survey (Appendix A). The AXIO system also ensured that each participant could only take the survey one time.

The survey was sent via email to 307 Division of Facilities workers and 1264 non-traditional students at Kansas State University. Reminders were sent every two days to encourage participants to complete the survey a total of 60 (19.54%) of the facilities respondents and 149 (11.79 %) of the non-traditional students completed the survey. A total of 209 (13%) respondents who received the survey completed the survey. The Facilities and non-traditional student data were aggregated for the analyses.

The results of the electronic survey were directly imported into SPSS for data analysis, which eliminated data entry errors. The survey instructions began with a statement to the study participants explaining the purpose of the survey followed by the informed consent statement.

The informed consent statement informed the participants the survey was for research and their participation in the survey was voluntary and without consequence if they decided not to participate in the survey and that there was not any right or wrong answers to the questions. The informed consent statement informed participants their voluntary participation in the survey would be indicated by their completion of the survey. Of the 1,571 participants who were offered the survey, 167 individuals opted out of taking the survey and everyone who began the survey completed the survey. The debriefing statement (see Appendix B) was at the end of the survey.

Analysis

Multiple regression was used to test the main effect hypotheses (1a, 1b, 3a, and 3b and the interaction hypotheses (2a, 2b, 4a and 4b). A four-step procedure outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used to test the mediation hypotheses and a three-step procedure outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used to test the moderator hypotheses.

Mediation Regression Analysis

A mediated multiple regression analysis was used to test the hypothesized mediation effects (Figure 1) (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Preacher, 2012; Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008; Preacher Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). The mediating effect of ostracism was tested by evaluating the extent to which ostracism accounted for the relationship between the quality of the LMX relationship and workplace bullying behavior (Figure 4) (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Preacher & Hayes, 2004). Baron and Kenny's (1986) four step approach was followed and each step was controlled for social desirability: First, ostracism was regressed (mediator) on LMX (independent variable), which is represented as path A in Figure 4; second, coworker bullying behavior (dependent variable) was regressed on ostracism (mediator variable), which is

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represented as path B in Figure 4; third, coworker bullying behavior (dependent variable) was regressed on LMX (independent variable) represented as path C in Figure 4; and fourth, coworker bullying was regressed (dependent variable) on both LMX (independent variable) and on ostracism (mediator variable) represented as path C' in Figure 4 (Baron & Kenny, 1986).[3]

Figure 4. Model of the Steps to Analyze the Mediated Effect of Ostracism between LMX and Coworker Bullying Behavior.
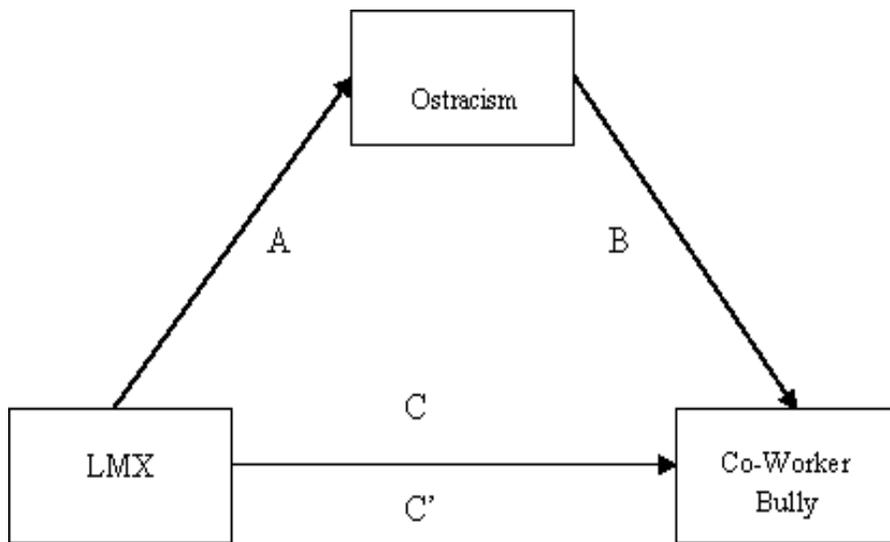
Figure 3.1. Analytical Model for Mediation between LMX and Coworker Bullying

Steps 1 to 3 must be met to support partial mediation and if step 4 is also met, the model is considered to completely mediate the relationship (Baron & Kenny, 1986). This same four step procedure was followed to test the mediation effect of ostracism on supervisor bullying behavior (see Figure 5).

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[3] The procedure followed to evaluate mediation is from Baron & Kenny, 1986, page 1177

Figure 5. Model of the Steps to Analyze the Mediated Effect of Ostracism between LMX and Supervisor Bullying Behavior.
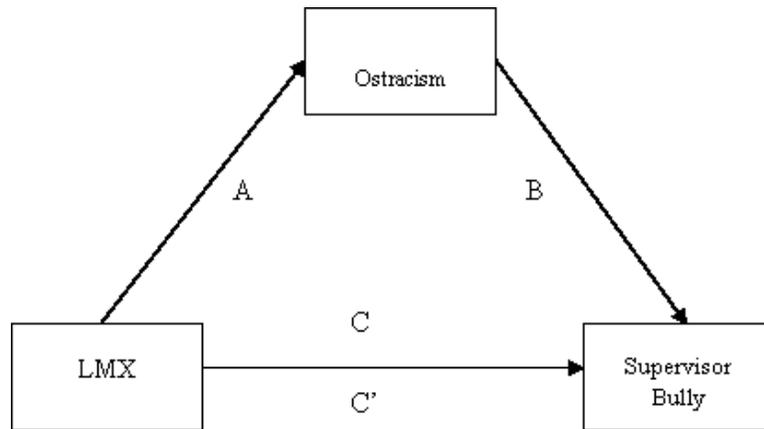
Figure 3.2. Analytical Model for Mediation between LMX and Supervisor Bullying

Moderation Regression Analysis

Moderation was assumed to occur when social support affected the zero-order correlations between bullying behavior and retaliatory behavior such that retaliation will be less likely to occur when social support is present (Baron & Kenny, 1986). A moderated effect may "occur if a relation is substantially reduced instead of being reversed" (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1174). For purposes of testing for a moderated effect it was assumed that retaliation varied linearly with respect to social support (Baron & Kenney, 1986) and the effect was tested using a moderated multiple regression analysis (Aiken & West, 1991) based on regression equation 1. Figure 2 represents the hypothesized moderated model.

Retaliation = LMX + Social Support + (LMX) X (Social Support) + Intercept   (1)

The significance of the relationship between bullying and retaliation at different levels of social support will be evaluated by constructing confidence intervals for values within one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean and the confidence

intervals should not contain zero (Frazier et al., 2004; Preacher et al., 2007). In order to reduce the effects of multicollinearity the predictor variables were standardized (Aiken & West, 1991; Frazier et al., 2004) prior to analysis. Baron & Kenny's (1986) three step procedure was used to evaluate the moderated effect of social support between bullying behavior and retaliation. Step 1 was the standardizing of the independent variables (i.e., bullying and social support) to improve interpretability of the effects of the predictor (bullying) and the moderator (social support) (Frazier et al., 2004). Second, the cross product term (bullying by social support) was created using the standardized variables created in Step 1. Finally, step 3 was entering the variables into a hierarchical multiple regression equation according to the following steps (see Figure 6) (1) the bullying variable (i.e., supervisor bullying or coworker bullying) was entered; (2) social support was entered in the regression equation; and (3) the interaction term was entered into the regression equation. If path 3 is significant (see Figure 6 and Figure 7) the moderator hypothesis is supported (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Figure 6. Hierarchical Regression Model of Moderated Coworker Bullying Behavior.
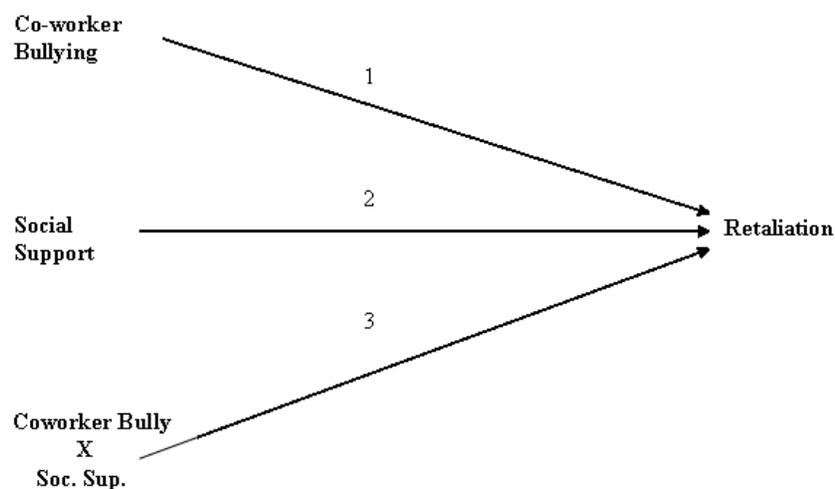
Figure 3.3. Analytical Model for Moderation between Coworker Bullying and Retaliation

Figure 7. Hierarchical Regression Model of Supervisor Bullying Behavior.
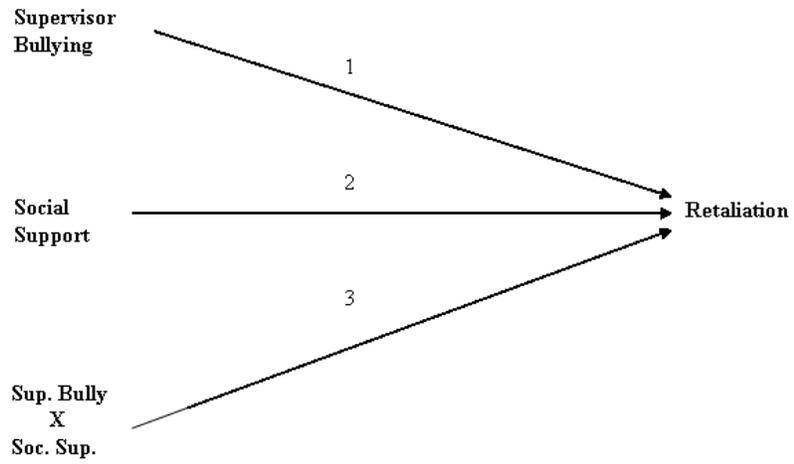
Figure 3.4. Analytical Model for Moderation between Supervisor Bullying and Retaliation

Chapter 4 - Results

Data Screening

Prior to analysis the data were screened for accuracy and violations of the assumptions of the general linear model. SPSS Frequencies were used to determine whether the values fell in the expected ranges and the means and standard deviations were plausible by examining the maximum and minimum values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). There was one case with missing data, the participant did not answer the question "How old are you (please indicate in years)?" This case was included in the analyses.

The initial screening of the data indicated there were 23 univariate outliers as indicated by a visual inspection of histograms and box plots. Subsequently, multivariate outliers were examined and five cases were identified as multivariate outliers Mahalanobis' D (10) > 29.59, *p* < .001). Linearity and homogeneity of variance were examined by visual inspection of the bivariate scatter plots, several variables indicated a non-normal distribution based on the non-oval-shaped scatter plot (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Normality was determined by examining the probability plots for skewness and kurtosis; and then computing *z*-scores (α= .01) to find values that differ significantly from zero in the distribution (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Several variables indicated significant positive skewness (LMX, aggressive supervision, ostracism, angry experiences, and retaliation), and several variables indicated significant negative skewness (social support, family social support, coworker social support, and friends social support). Due to the large number of multivariate outliers and after inspection of the outlying variables

appropriate data transformations were conducted (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).[4] Tests to

evaluate the assumptions of the general linear model did not reveal problems with skewness and

data transformations were not necessary for the social desirability scale.

Correlations, reliabilities, and descriptive statistics can be found for all study variables in

Table 1. Examination of the bivariate correlation matrix (Table 1) did not indicate problems

with multicollinearity and singularity, therefore, redundancy was not a problem for any of the

variables. Variables were considered to create multicollinearity or singularity if the bivariate

correlation was above .90 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).   A second test for multivariate outliers

was conducted following data transformations and seven cases were identified as multivariate

outliers Mahalanobis' D (10) > 29.59, p < .001), these cases were deleted from the statistical

analysis leaving a final sample of $N = 202$.

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[4] Data transformations were conducted as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001). The following
transformations were conducted:
1. LMX was corrected for substantial positive skewness using LG10(X)
2. Ostracism, Aggressive Supervision, Angry Experiences Scale, and retaliation were corrected for severe
   positive skewness using 1/X.
3. Social Support was corrected for substantial negative skewness using LG10(6-X).

Table 1

Table 4.1. Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Zero-order Correlations

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. LMX	2.00	.67	.79									
2. Ostracism	1.56	.60	-.13	.90								
3. Abusive Supervision	1.51	.75	-.65**	.29**	.94							
4. Angry Experiences	1.38	.46	-.17*	.64**	.41**	.90						
5. Social Support	3.98	.70	.10	-.25**	-.12	-.24**	.92					
6. Family Support	4.18	.96	.05	-.14*	-.09	-.13	.81**	.92				
7. Friends Support	4.10	.83	.04	-.14*	-.01	-.07	.82**	.60**	.92			
8. Coworker Support	3.69	.85	.15*	-.30**	-.16*	-.35**	.77**	.37**	.43**	.91		
9. Retaliation	1.29	.41	-.35**	.38**	.36**	.46**	-.13	-.07	-.10	-.12	.82	
10. Social Desirability	6.87	2.46	-.26**	.22**	.16*	.14*	-.03	-.02	-.01	-.03	.37**	.65

Note. $N = 202$. Reliabilities are on the diagonal.

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

Testing the Measurement Model

A principal components analysis was used to determine if composite scores could be computed for the abusive supervision and angry experiences scales in order to create an aggregated workplace bullying scale. Initial eigenvalues indicated that six factors explained 67.44% of the variance. A principal components factor analysis with a varimax rotation was conducted using SPSS and six factors were extracted. As indicated by squared multiple correlations (SMCs), all factors were internally consistent and well defined by the variables; the lowest of the SMCs for factors from variables was .52. Communality values and factor loadings are shown in Table 2. Factor loadings are ordered and grouped by the size of the loading. A cut-off point of .45 (20% of variance) was used for inclusion of a variable in the interpretation of

a factor. Fifteen variables loaded on factor 1 (abusive supervision) and the remaining 19 items

loaded on the AES scale which was used to measure coworker bullying behavior. The AES

items loaded on factors 2 to 6. All variables loaded on a least one factor. The best fitting model

for measuring workplace bullying was to evaluate supervisor bullying using Tepper's (2000)

Abusive Supervision Scale and to measure coworker bullying using Glomb's (2012) Angry

Experiences Scale. Therefore, the scale items for Abusive Supervision and AES were not

aggregated, supervisor bullying behavior and coworker behavior were analyzed as two separate

constructs (see Table 2).

Table 2

Factor loadings and "Communalities based on a Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation for 34 Items (15 Items from the Aggressive Supervision Scale, 19 Items from the AES).

Table 4.2. Factor Loadings for Bullying Scales

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	h^2
Supervisor is rude to me	.85					.77
Supervisor blames me to save self embarrassment	.84					.73
Supervisor puts me down in front of others	.84					.73
Supervisor reminds me of past mistakes/failures	.82					.71
Supervisor makes negative comments about me	.80					.71
Supervisor expresses anger at me	.78					.64
Supervisor tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid	.77					.65
Supervisor breaks promises	.77					.70
Supervisor invades my privacy	.76					.64
Supervisor tells me I'm incompetent	.75					.68
Supervisor lies to me	.75					.78
Supervisor ridicules me	.73					.63
Supervisor doesn't allow me to interact with coworkers	.72					.58
Supervisor gives me silent treatment	.65					.63
Supervisor doesn't give me credit for jobs	.65					.63
Coworkers spread rumors		.83				.74
Coworkers fail to correct false information about me		.81				.70
Coworkers Withhold resources		.79				.66
Coworkers belittle my opinions		.78				.72
Coworkers withhold information from me		.68				.64
Coworkers interrupt or cut me off when I'm speaking		.57				.60
Coworkers make me look bad		.57		.51		.65
Coworkers insult, criticize me		.53			.49	.61
Coworkers physically assault me			.87			.79
Coworkers damage property			.73			.58
Coworkers get 'in my face'			.67			.62
Coworkers make threats			.59			.66
Coworkers give me the 'silent treatment'				.84		.80
Coworkers avoid me				.83		.76
Coworkers tell supervisor about my negative behavior				.57		.52
Coworkers swear at me					.74	.67
Coworkers make angry gestures					.65	.77
Coworkers yell or raise their voice					.61	.63
Coworkers use hostile body language					.54	.61

Note. $N = 202$. h^2 is the communality or the squared multiple correlations (SMCs) for the factor. Factor loadings less than .45 are suppressed.

Main Effect Hypotheses

An independent *t*-test was used to compare the mean differences between males and females to determine if there was a significant difference between bullying behavior and gender. The equal variance estimate $t(200) = 1.53$, $p > .05$ for coworker bullying behavior did not reveal a significant difference between men and women. A similar result was obtained for supervisor bullying behavior $t(200) = 0.63$, $p > .05$. Participants were asked to identify the gender of their supervisor(s) and the independent *t*-tests did not reveal a significant difference between gender and coworker bullying behavior, $t(200) = 1.00$, $p > .05$ or between gender and supervisor bullying behavior, $t(200) = 1.07$, $p > .05$. Similarly, *t*-tests were conducted to determine if there were gender differences in how men and women perceived ostracism and the quality of LMX relationships. The equal variance estimate $t(200) = 0.09$, $p > .05$ did not reveal a significant difference between men and women for ostracism or for the quality of the LMX relationship $t(200) = -0.16$. Gender was not determined to be a significant influence on how participants evaluated LMX relationship quality or whether participants experienced ostracism, coworker or supervisor bullying behavior and was not used as a control in the mediation regression analyses.

LMX was found to significantly and negatively predict both coworker bullying behavior ($\beta = -.19$ $p < .01$), and supervisor bullying behavior ($\beta = -.65$ $p < .001$), which supported Hypotheses 1a and 1b. Next hypotheses 3a and 3b were tested and retaliatory behavior was found to be significantly and positively predicted by both coworker bullying ($\beta = .46$ $p < .001$) and supervisor bullying ($\beta = .35$ $p < .001$). With the support of Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 3a, and 3b, the mediation hypothesis of LMX (independent variable) and dependent variables (coworker bullying and supervisor bullying), with ostracism as the mediator was tested.

Model 1: Coworker bullying behavior

The four-step procedure described above was used to test Hypothesis 2a that ostracism will mediate the relationship between a low-quality LMX relationship and coworker bullying behavior. Path A (see Figure 8) did not significantly predict ostracism (B = -0.11, p > .05), therefore Hypothesis 2a was not supported.

Figure 8. Results of the Analysis of the Mediated Effects of Ostracism between LMX and Coworker Bullying Behavior.
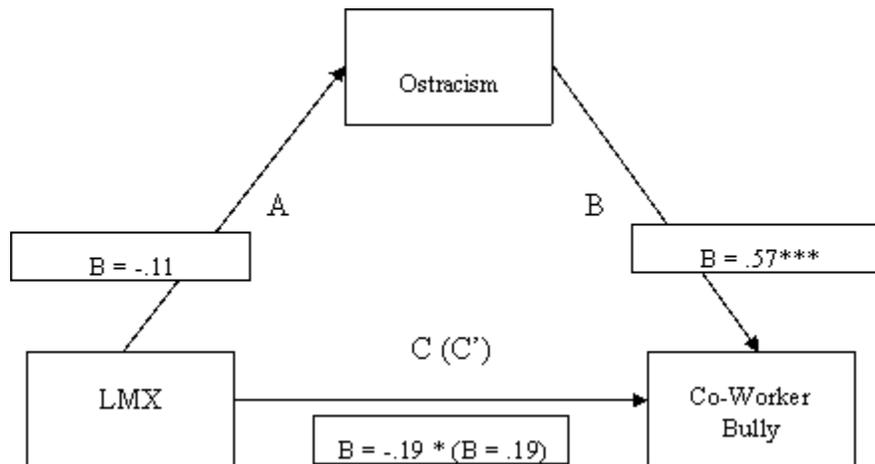
Figure 4.1. Results of Mediation Analysis for Coworker Bullying

Model 2: Supervisor Bullying Behavior.

Again, Barron & Kenny's (1986) four-step procedure was used to test the mediating Hypothesis 2b that ostracism will mediate the relationship between a low-quality LMX relationship and supervisor bullying behavior Figure 9). Path A did not show that LMX significantly predicted ostracism (B = -0.11, p > .05) therefore Hypothesis 2b was not supported.

Figure 9. Results of the Analysis of the Mediated Effect of Ostracism between LMX and Supervisor Bullying Behavior.
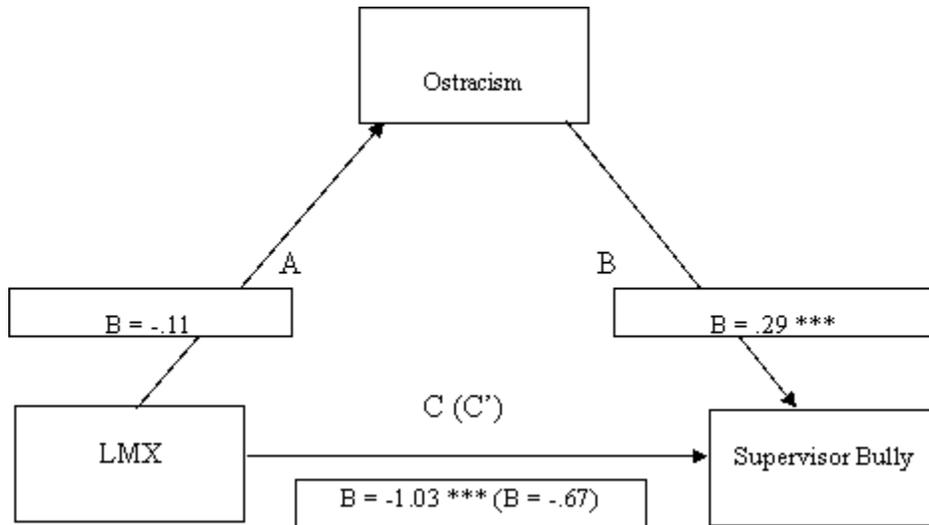
Figure 4.2. Results of Mediation Analysis for Supervisor Bullying

Moderation Hypotheses

Model 1: Coworker Bullying Behavior

Table 3 presents the unstandardized coefficients, standard error terms, standardized coefficients, R^2, and R^2 change for each step of the moderated multiple regression analysis for coworker bullying behavior while controlling for social desirability for both males and females. Coworker bullying significantly and positively predicted ($\beta = .41$, $p < .001$) retaliation. When retaliation was regressed on the interaction term (coworker bullying behavior and overall support) overall social support did not moderate the effects of coworker bullying behavior on retaliation ($\beta = .05$, *ns*), therefore Hypothesis 4a was not supported. Similar results were found for each of the forms of social support. Family support did not moderate the effects of coworker bullying behavior on retaliation ($\beta = .06$, *ns*); coworker support did not moderate the effects of

coworker bullying behavior on retaliation (β = 0.00, *ns*); and friend support did not moderate the

effects of coworker bullying behavior on retaliation (β = .06, *ns*).

Table 3

Multiple Regression Analyses for Social Support as a Moderator between Coworker Bullying Behavior and Retaliatory Behavior for Females and Males.[a]

Table 4.3. Moderator Effects for Study Sample and Coworker Bullying

Step	Independent Variable	B	SE_B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
		Overall Social Support				
1	Social Desirability	.04***	.01	.31***	.14***	.14***
2	Coworker Bullying (CoWB)	.06***	.01	.41***	.31***	.17***
3	Overall Social Support (OSS)	-.00	.01	-.03	.31	.00
4	Interaction of CoWB and OSS	.01	.01	.05	.31	.00
		Family Support				
1	Social Desirability	.04***	.01	31***	.13***	.13***
2	Coworker Bullying (CoWB)	.06***	.01	42***	.30***	.17***
3	Family Support (FS)	-.00	.01	-.02	.30	.00
4	Interaction of CoWB and FS	.01	.01	.06	.30	.00
		Coworker Support				
1	Social Desirability	.04***	.01	31***	.14***	.14***
2	Coworker Bullying (CoWB)	.06***	.01	43***	.31***	.17***
3	Coworker Support (CS)	.01	.01	.04	.31	.00
4	Interaction of CoWB and CS	.00	.01	.00	.31	.00
		Friend Support				
1	Social Desirability	.04***	.01	31***	.14***	.14***
2	Coworker Bullying (CoWB)	.06***	.01	42***	.31***	.17***
3	Friend Support (FrS)	-.01	.01	-.07	.31	.00
4	Interaction of CoWB and FrS	.01	.01	.06	.31	.00

Note: $N = 202$. Coworker bullying behavior was measured using the AES scale.
[a] Social desirability was controlled for by entering it first in the regression analysis.
*** $p < .001$.

Following the analysis of the total sample (males and females) for moderating effects of

social support between coworker bullying and retaliation, independent *t*-tests were conducted to

determine if there was a significant difference between males and females in terms of social

support and retaliatory behavior. A significant difference was found between males and females, $t(200) = 2.00, p < .05$ regarding the support provided by friends for males ($M = .26$) and females ($M = .21$) when dealing with coworker bullying behavior at work. However, a significant difference was not found between males and females ($t(200) = 1.88, p < .05$) for retaliatory behavior. Based on the t-test, the moderating effects of social support were evaluated separately for males and females while controlling for the effects of social desirability for each form of social support (i.e., overall support, family support, coworker support, and friend support).

The moderation analyses were conducted to test Hypothesis 4a—that social support would moderate the relationship between coworker bullying behavior and retaliatory behavior for females and males.   As shown in Table 4, overall social support ($\beta = .27, p < .001$); family support ($\beta = .27, p < .01$); coworker support ($\beta = .21, p < .05$); and friend support ($\beta = .20, p < .05$), significantly moderated the effects of retaliation on coworker bullying behavior for females.

Table 4

Multiple Regression Analyses for Social Support as a Moderator between Coworker Bullying Behavior and Retaliatory Behavior for Females.[a]

Table 4.4. Moderator Effects for Females and Coworker Bullying

Step	Independent Variable	B	SE_B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
	Overall Social Support					
1	Social Desirability	.02***	.01	.31***	.10***	.10***
2	Coworker Bullying (CoWB)	.05***	.01	.34***	.24***	.14***
3	Overall Social Support (OSS)	-.02*	.01	-.18*	.26*	.02*
4	Interaction of CoWB and OSS	.04***	.01	.27***	.33***	.07***
	Family Support					
1	Social Desirability	.04***	.01	.31***	.10***	.10***
2	Coworker Bullying (CoWB)	.05***	.01	.34***	.24***	.14***
3	Family Support (FS)	-.02	.01	-.14	.25	.01
4	Interaction of CoWB and FS	.04**	.01	.27**	.32**	.07**
	Coworker Support					
1	Social Desirability	.02***	.00	34***	.10***	.10***
2	Coworker Bullying (CoWB)	.04**	.01	.30**	.24**	.14**
3	Coworker Support (CS)	-.01	.01	-.11	.25	.01
4	Interaction of CoWB and CS	.02*	.01	.21*	.29*	.04*
	Friend Support					
1	Social Desirability	.02***	.00	.30***	.10***	.10***
2	Coworker Bullying (CoWB)	.06***	.01	.46***	.24***	.14***
3	Friend Support (FrS)	-.03*	.01	-.21*	.28*	.04*
4	Interaction of CoWB and FrS	.02*	.01	.20*	.31*	.03*

Note: $N = 202$. Coworker bullying behavior was measured using the AES scale.
[a] Social desirability was controlled for by entering it first in the regression analysis.
*$p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

As shown in Table 5—overall support (β = -.18, p < .05) and coworker support (β = -.18, p < .05) significantly moderated the effects of retaliatory behavior on coworker bullying behavior for males (Table 5). Thus, Hypothesis 4a was supported.

Table 5

Multiple Regression Analyses for Social Support as a Moderator between Coworker Bullying Behavior and Retaliatory Behavior for Males.[a]

Table 4.5. Moderator Effects for Males and Coworker Bullying

Step	Independent Variable	B	SE$_B$	β	R^2	ΔR^2
	Overall Social Support					
1	Social Desirability	.02***	.01	.29***	.21***	.21***
2	Coworker Bullying (CoWB)	.08***	.01	.49***	.37***	.16***
3	Overall Social Support (OSS)	.02	.01	.15	.37	.00
4	Interaction of CoWB and OSS	-.03*	.01	-.18*	.40*	.03*
	Family Support					
1	Social Desirability	.05***	.01	.31***	.21***	.21***
2	Coworker Bullying (CoWB)	.07***	.01	.44***	.37***	.16***
3	Family Support (FS)	.01	.01	.07	.37	.00
4	Interaction of CoWB and FS	-.01	.01	-.07	.38	.01
	Coworker Support					
1	Social Desirability	.02**	.01	.28**	.21**	.21**
2	Coworker Bullying (CoWB)	.08***	.01	.50***	.37***	.16***
3	Coworker Support (CS)	.03	.01	.15	.37	.00
4	Interaction of CoWB and CS	-.03*	.01	-.18*	.40*	.03*
	Friend Support					
1	Social Desirability	.02***	.01	.29***	.21***	.21***
2	Coworker Bullying (CoWB)	.07***	.01	.48***	.37***	.16***
3	Friend Support (FrS)	.02	.01	.12	.37	.00
4	Interaction of CoWB and FrS	-.02	.01	-.14	.39	.02

Note: N = 202. Coworker bullying behavior was measured using the AES scale.
[a] Social desirability was controlled for by entering it first in the regression equation.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Simple slopes analyses was conducted according to the procedure outlined by Aiken and West (1991) to plot the regression of retaliation on coworker bullying at conditional values of social support (i.e., high = 1, medium = 0, low = -1) to determine whether the slopes of each line differ from each other for each of the moderated effects. The slopes for the regression equations for each of the significant moderation effects are represented in Figures 10 to 15 for each of the moderated models (Aiken & West, 1991). Equation 2 was used to determine the simple slopes, in the equation Y represents retaliation, b_1X represents bullying, b_2Z represents social support, b_3XZ represents the cross product, and cv represents the conditional value of the regression line (i.e., 1, 0, or -1). The medium line was plotted using the b_1X term at either $-b_1X$ for the low value or b_1X for the high value for the line.

$$Y_{CV} = ((b_1X + b_3XZ(cv)) + b_2Z(cv) \hspace{2cm} (2)$$

Results indicated that when overall support, coworker support, friend support and family support were high for women, women were more likely to retaliate when they experienced increased levels of coworker bullying behavior (see Figures 10 to 13).

Figure 10. Interaction Effect between Coworker Bullying Behavior and Overall Social Support on Retaliation for Females.

Figure 4.3. Simple Slopes for Overall Support and Females

Figure 11. Interaction Effect between Coworker Bullying Behavior and Family Social Support on Retaliation for Females.
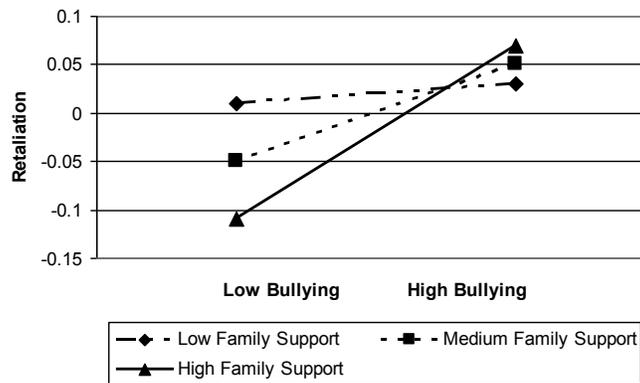
Figure 4.4. Simple Slopes for Family Support and Females

Figure 12. Interaction Effect between Coworker Bullying Behavior and Coworker Social Support on Retaliation for Females.
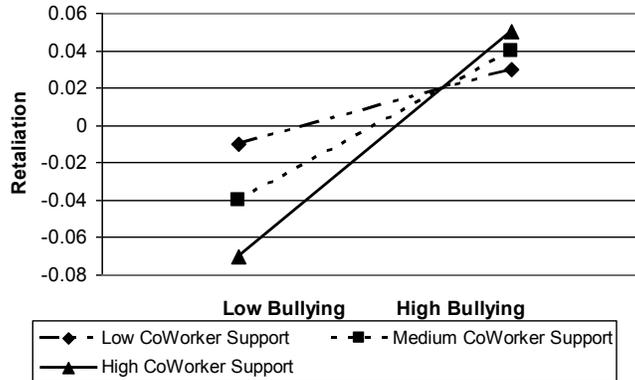
Figure 4.5. Simple Slopes for Coworker Support and Females

Figure 13. Interaction Effect between Coworker Bullying Behavior and Friend Social Support on Retaliation for Females.
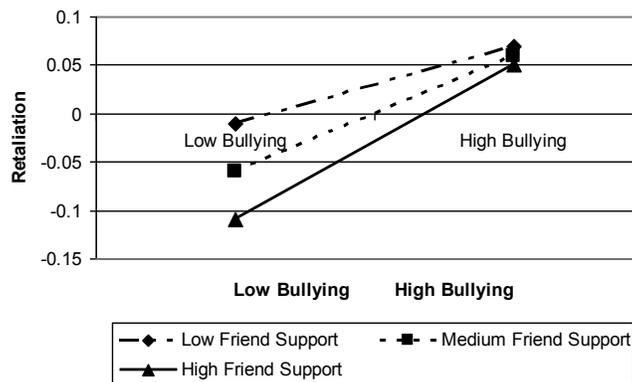
Figure 4.6. Simple Slopes for Friend Support and Females

When social support was examined for men it was found that when overall support (Figure 14) and coworker support (Figure 15) were high, men were more likely to experience decreased levels of retaliatory behavior with increases in coworker bullying behavior.

Figure 14. Interaction Effect between Coworker Bullying Behavior and Overall Social Support on Retaliation for Males.
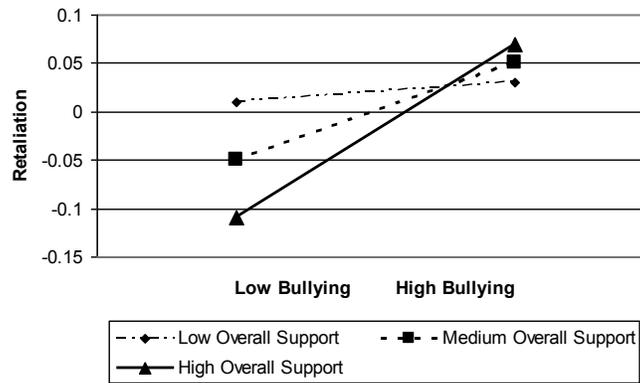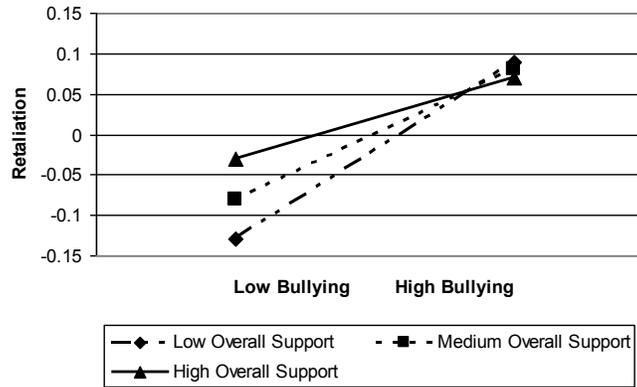

Figure 4.7. Simple Slopes for Overall Support and Males

Figure 15. Interaction Effect between Coworker Bullying Behavior and Coworker Social Support on Retaliation for Males.
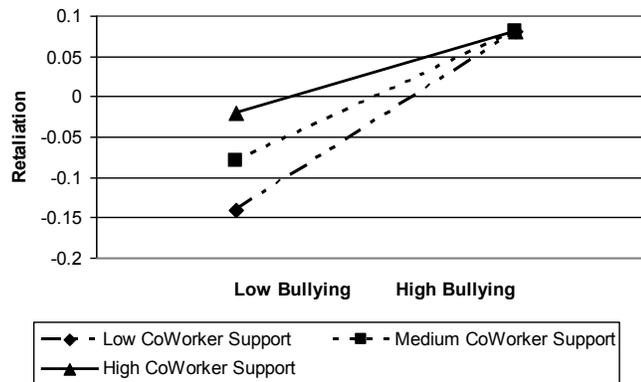
Figure 4.8. Simple Slopes for Coworker Support and Males

Model 2: Supervisor Bullying Behavior

The initial regression analysis for the moderation effect of social support between

supervisor bullying and retaliatory behavior was conducted for the entire sample (both males and

females). The results of the initial analyses found that supervisor bullying significantly and

positively predicted retaliation for each of the of social support analyses; (a) overall support (β=

.30, $p < .001$), (b) family support ($\beta= .31, p < .001$), (c) coworker support ($\beta= .30, p < .001$), and

(d) ($\beta= .31, p < .001$). Whereas, the interaction terms did not produce significant results; (a)

overall support ($\beta= .00, p > .05$), (b) family support ($\beta= .03, p > .05$), (c) coworker support ($\beta= -.00, p > .05$), and friend support ($\beta= .01, p > .05$). Therefore, hypothesis 4b was not supported

for any of the types of social support (Table 6) when the total sample (males and females) was

analyzed.

Table 6

Multiple Regression Analyses for Social Support as a Moderator between Supervisor Bullying Behavior and Retaliatory Behavior for Females and Males.[a]

Table 4.6. Moderator Effects for Study Sample and Supervisor Bullying

Step	Independent Variable	B	SE_B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
	Overall Social Support					
1	Social Desirability	.02***	.00	.32***	.14***	.14***
2	Supervisor Bullying (SB)	.04***	.01	.30***	.23***	.09***
3	Overall Social Support (OSS)	-.01	.01	-.08	.23	.00
4	Interaction of CoWB and OSS	.00	.01	.00	.23	.00
	Family Support					
1	Social Desirability	.02***	.00	.32***	.14***	.14***
2	Supervisor Bullying (SB)	.04***	.01	.31***	.23***	.09***
3	Family Support (FS)	-.01	.01	-.04	.23	.00
4	Interaction of SB and FS	.00	.01	.03	.23	.00
	Coworker Support					
1	Social Desirability	.02***	.04	.32***	.14***	.14***
2	Supervisor Bullying (SB)	.04***	.09	.30***	.23***	.09***
3	Coworker Support (CS)	-.01	.09	-.07	.23	.00
4	Interaction of SB and CS	.00	.08	-.00	.23	.00
	Friend Support					
1	Social Desirability	.02***	.00	.32***	.14***	.14***
2	Supervisor Bullying (SB)	.04***	.01	.31***	.23***	.09***
3	Friend Support (FrS)	-.01	.01	-.10	.24	.01
4	Interaction of SB and FrS	.00	.01	.01	.24	.00

Note: $N = 202$. Supervisor bullying behavior was measured using the Abusive Supervision scale.
[a]Social desirability was controlled by entering it first in the regression equation.
*** $p < .001$.

To continue testing hypotheses 4b; the sub-components of the social support scale (i.e., friend support, family support, coworker support) were examined separately for each gender to determine if the sub-components would exert a buffering effects between bullying and retaliatory behavior. The interaction terms did not significantly predict a buffering effect for any of the

social support scale subcomponents for supervisor bullying, the results are summarized in Table

7 for females and Table 8 for males. Hypothesis 4b was not supported for social support

moderating the effects of retaliation on supervisor bullying behavior for either males or females.

Table 7

Multiple Regression Analyses for Social Support as a Moderator between Supervisor Bullying Behavior and Retaliatory Behavior for Females.[a]

Table 4.7. Moderator Effects for Females and Supervisor Bullying

Step	Independent Variable	B	SE_B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
	Overall Social Support					
1	Social Desirability	.03**	.01	.27**	.10**	.10**
2	Supervisor Bullying (SB)	.04***	.01	.34***	.22***	.12
3	Overall Social Support (OSS)	-.03*	.01	-.19*	.26*	.04*
4	Interaction of SB and OSS	.01	.01	.06	.26	.00
	Family Support					
1	Social Desirability	.03**	.01	.28**	.10**	.10**
2	Supervisor Bullying (SB)	.05***	.01	.35***	.22***	.12***
3	Family Support (FS)	-.02	.01	-.12	.23	.01
4	Interaction of SB and FS	.02	.01	.11	.24	.01
	Coworker Support					
1	Social Desirability	.03**	.01	.28**	.10**	.10**
2	Supervisor Bullying (SB)	.04***	.01	.33***	.22***	.12***
3	Coworker Support (CS)	-.02	.01	-.17	.25	.03
4	Interaction of SB and CS	.01	.01	.06	.25	.00
	Friend Support					
1	Social Desirability	.03**	.01	.26**	.10**	.10**
2	Supervisor Bullying (SB)	.06***	.01	.42***	.22***	.12***
3	Friend Support (FrS)	-.03*	.01	-.20*	.26*	.04*
4	Interaction of SB and FrS	.01	.01	.11	.27	.01

Note: $N = 202$. Supervisor bullying behavior was measured using the Abusive Supervision scale.
[a] Social desirability was controlled for by entering it first in the regression equation.
*$p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 8

Multiple Regression Analyses for Social Support as a Moderator between Supervisor Bullying Behavior and Retaliatory Behavior for Males.[a]

Table4.8. Moderator Effects for Males and Supervisor Bullying

Step	Independent Variable	B	SE_B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
	Overall Social Support					
1	Social Desirability	.06***	.01	.39***	.21***	.21***
2	Supervisor Bullying (SB)	.04**	.01	.27**	.27**	.06**
3	Overall Social Support (OSS)	.00	.01	.03	.27	.00
4	Interaction of SB and OSS	-.01	.01	-.08	.27	.00
	Family Support					
1	Social Desirability	.06***	.01	.40***	.21***	.21***
2	Supervisor Bullying (SB)	.04**	.01	.26**	.27**	.06**
3	Family Support (FS)	.01	.01	.04	.27	.00
4	Interaction of SB and FS	-.00	.01	-.01	.27	.00
	Coworker Support					
1	Social Desirability	.06***	.01	.39***	.21***	.21***
2	Supervisor Bullying (SB)	.04**	.01	.27**	.27**	.06**
3	Coworker Support (CS)	.00	.01	.03	.27	.00
4	Interaction of SB and CS	-.01	.01	-.08	.27	.00
	Friend Support					
1	Social Desirability	.06***	.01	.40***	.21***	.21***
2	Supervisor Bullying (SB)	.04**	.01	.28**	.27**	.06**
3	Friend Support (FrS)	.00	.02	.01	.27	.00
4	Interaction of SB and FrS	-.02	.02	-.09	.28	.01

Note: $N = 202$. Supervisor bullying behavior was measured using the Abusive Supervision scale.
[a] Social desirability was controlled for by entering it first in the regression equation.
*$p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** p < .001.

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Chapter 5 - Discussion

The purpose of this dissertation was to fill a gap in the literature by examining how a low-quality LMX relationship affects workplace bullying behavior. First, the study examined the mediating effect of ostracism between LMX and workplace bullying (i.e., coworker and supervisor). The second contribution this dissertation makes to the extant literature relates to the body of research that has looked at negative reciprocity and the spiraling effects of incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Dupre & Barling, 2006; Dupre et al., 2006; O'Leary et al., 2009). This dissertation examined how a strong social support system moderated the negative effects of workplace bullying (i.e., retaliation). It was hypothesized that a strong social support system would buffer the likelihood that a target of workplace bullying would engage in retaliatory behavior. The discussion reviews the findings and the implications for knowledge about workplace bullying in organizations and identifies the study's limitations and the future directions for research.

A low-quality LMX relationship may be perceived by followers as a leader's indifference to their work related needs, much the same as when a laissez-faire leader fails to respond to problems or to intervene in inter-office conflicts. Often the result of such indifference is that the employee in a low-quality LMX relationship may perceive that he/she is being bullied. The employee in the low-quality LMX relationship may perceive that his/her supervisor is the bully, or that his/her coworkers are the bullies and that the supervisor is allowing the behavior to occur. The results of this study supported the assertion that participants who have a low-quality LMX relationship report experiencing bullying behavior from their supervisors and/or coworkers.

This dissertation examined the possible mediating effect of ostracism between a low-quality LMX relationship and the participants' perceptions that they were being bullied by either their supervisor or coworkers. When people are ostracized they are excluded and essentially are placed in an "out-group" status. This is a similar position that subordinates in a low-quality LMX relationship may experience. Ostracism by a leader (supervisor) is a form of abusive leadership and followers of abusive leaders are prone to retaliation against their supervisor. Ferris et al. (2008) found that ostracism was a separate construct from LMX, therefore this dissertation looked at whether ostracism would mediate the relationship between a low-quality LMX relationship and workplace bullying (e.g., supervisor bullying behavior and coworker bullying behavior). The results did not support a mediating effect. In fact, there was not a significant relationship between a low-quality LMX relationship and perceptions of being ostracized at work. This suggests that even though subordinates may have a low-quality LMX relationship they do not associate the quality of their LMX relationship with ostracism. The results did support the assertion that higher levels of ostracism were related to the participants' perceptions that they were being bullied at work by either/or their supervisor or their coworkers. This finding suggests that employees, who perceive they are being ostracized at work, do not attribute the ostracism to a low-quality LMX relationship but rather they perceive the low-quality LMX relationship and ostracism to be two isolated occurrences.

There were also significant main effects that suggest that people who experience either supervisor or coworker bullying at work have a tendency to retaliate against the organization, their supervisor and/or their coworkers (Duffy et al., 2002; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). This finding reinforces that it is important for employers to address aggression while it is considered low level aggression (e.g., gossiping, wasting company time/resources) because aggression tends

to spiral and what began as a minor act of aggression may escalate to more severe acts of aggression (Andersson & Pearson, 2999; Glomb, 2002). Organizations need to be prepared to intervene when lower levels of aggression are evident in the workforce to eliminate or at least mitigate the transgressions. For example, when supervisors are made aware of bullying behavior such as withholding information, the supervisor should intervene to stop the behavior before the target of the behavior retaliates and the behavior escalates to more severe forms of aggression (e.g., physical attacks).

It was hypothesized that social support would provide employees with a resource they could rely on to alleviate the effects of bullying behavior they experienced at work and employers would be able to use this information to develop intervention strategies to remove bullying behavior from their workplace(s). Although social support was not found to moderate the effects between bullying and retaliation when the total sample (men and women) was examined, this study did find some interesting gender effects when the moderating effects of social support was examined separately for men and women. This study found that men and women reacted differently to social support in terms of engaging in retaliatory behavior. Men who experienced high levels of coworker bullying behavior and perceived high levels of overall and coworker support tended to report lower levels of retaliatory behavior. However, women who reported experiencing high levels of coworker bullying behavior and perceived high levels of social support (i.e., overall, friend, family, and coworker) tended to report higher levels of retaliatory behavior. This result was unexpected, as it was hypothesized that increased levels of social support would reduce rather than increase retaliatory behavior. There are 2 possible explanations for this result. First, it may be that the items included in the Organizational Retaliatory Behavior are more indicative of the types of behaviors women typically perform.

Second, men and women may utilize social support differently. The brief discussion that follows on gender differences that have been noted in the research may offer an explanation as to why this effect was observed in this study.

The research on gender differences suggests that women are generally more likely to express their emotions than men are, and when women are experiencing negative emotions and stressful situations (e.g., bullying behavior) they tend to be less concerned with other people's feelings (Simon & Nath, 2004) which may explain why women tend to get even. In addition, women tend to report negative feelings, more intense anger, and anxiety more often than men and they tend to cope by seeking social support (Simon & Nath, 2004). The type of support women receive is more often related to emotional support such as empathy rather than informational support such as problem-solving (House & Kahn, 1985), which may also explain why women tended to seek retribution in this study. Another area of concern regarding gender differences and coping is that women are more inclined to evaluate stressors (e.g., bullying behavior) as more severe than men (Tamres, Janicki, & Helgeson, 2002) which may lead to lower perceptions of self-esteem (e.g., why me?). When people have lower perceptions of self-esteem they are less likely to feel they have the skills necessary to deal effectively with the stressors they experience, which may explain why women tend to engage in coping strategies such as dwelling on their problems and how their problems affect them personally (Nolen-Hoeksema & Aldao, 2011; Tamres et al., 2002; Tannen, 1990) rather than finding ways to use effective problem-solving techniques. These tendencies in women to engage in more coping strategies than men, their inclination to seek social support more often than men, and their tendency to evaluate stressors as more severe than men, may explain the finding in this study that women tend to engage in seeking support from a wider range of support systems (i.e., friends,

family, and coworkers) and why they tend to engage more often in retaliatory behaviors than the men in this study.

Men on the other hand, have a tendency to exert efforts to maintain their status and they have a tendency to engage in a problem-solving approach to resolving issues rather than offering sympathy as is indicative of women (Tannen, 1990). This problem-solving approach may explain why men tend to experience a buffering effect when they receive support from their coworkers when they experience bullying behavior from coworkers. Problem-solving is also a form of informational support, whereas the support women receive may be solely emotional support such as empathy (House & Kahn, 1985). In addition to problem-solving men tend to engage in avoidance coping strategies more often than women, particularly in regard to issues related to relationships (Tamres et al., 2002). Therefore, it may be that men deal with bullying behavior by engaging problem-solving techniques, or just simply avoiding the behavior with the hope that it will go away. Either method of coping may explain why the men in this study reported lower incidents of retaliatory behavior when they received social support from coworkers.

Findings in the literature show that both men and women experience negative effects from stress whether the source of stress was psychological (i.e., emotional exhaustion) or physiological (i.e., high blood pressure) (Bellman et al., 2003; Martocchio & O'Leary, 1989). However, men may have better psychological coping skills that enable them to deal more effectively with stress, while women are socialized is a way that their coping skills to deal with stressful situations are impeded (Jick & Mitz, 1985). The impediment may be due the social phenomenon that men are often in higher status positions in organizations and as such they have access to informational support (e.g., mentoring) that women are not afforded. Women are

typically in lower status positions and have they less access to organizational resources that may help them positively deal with workplace stressors or access to mentors that have the experience to provide the guidance necessary to effectively deal with problems (Simon & Nath, 2004; U. S. Glass Ceiling Report, 1995). This lower status in the organization coupled with the stress of being the target of bullying behavior may lead women to utilize more clandestine methods (e.g., retaliation) of restoring the positional power they may lose due to bullying behavior.

Often, a single stressful event will not create a situation where an individual is unable to appraise the situation and appropriately resolve the situation, but when the stress is experienced repetitively as is the case in bullying behavior, the individual may feel helpless and possibly their self-esteem will be reduced (Cohen & Wills, 1985). When an individual's self-esteem is compromised and feelings of distress are salient, it is not uncommon for individuals to attempt to equilibrate the loss of power by engaging in restorative behavior such as retaliatory behavior (Blau, 1986). In order for a person to effectively engage coping skills individuals must believe they have the skills necessary to change a negative environment into an environment that is more compassionate or conducive to his/her well-being (Bandura, 1997). Women are typically socialized in a way that impedes their stress coping skills, while men generally have better psychological coping skills when dealing with stress (Jick & Mitz, 1985). Therefore, in consideration of the research that indicates women are more emotional, tend to evaluate stress more negatively, and experience lower self-esteem than men it may be important for employers to provide training that will give them the confidence to address bullying effectively so that the incidence of retaliatory behavior is reduced.

Both coworker bullying behavior and supervisor bullying behavior were found to be positively related to retaliatory behavior at work. This emphasizes the importance of mitigating

bullying behavior at work because not only has it been associated with reduced physical and psychological well-being (Poilpot-Rocaboy, 2006; Sperry & Duffy, 2009), this study demonstrates that it is also associated with retaliatory behavior. The costs to individuals experiencing bullying behavior and the costs realized by the organization are indicative of how ignoring bullying behavior contributes to a dysfunctional organization which may also increase turnover, job dissatisfaction, and absenteeism (Pomaki, DeLongis, Frey, Short, & Woehrle, 2010). Even though, social support did not moderate the effects of supervisor bullying behavior on retaliatory behavior, it was found that supervisor bullying behavior was positively related to retaliatory behavior. This finding is consistent with Skarlicki and Folger's (1997) finding that when supervisors treated subordinates respectfully the subordinates were more likely to tolerate unfair procedural and distributional justice rather than to engage in retaliatory tendencies.

The findings in this dissertation illustrate that social support may work differently for men and women in terms of dealing with the negative impact of workplace bullying. Therefore, there may be different practical implications for men and women in terms of reducing the negative outcomes of bullying in the workplace through social support networks. Coworker support was a significant predictor of how men and women deal with the incivility spiral of workplace bullying. For example, when women sought coworkers for support after experiencing bullying behavior in an effort to cope with bullying behavior, they seemed to be emboldened to engage in retaliatory behavior. Women are less likely than men to be well connected in organizations because they typically have lower-status jobs (U. S. Glass Ceiling Report, 1995). In fact, in this study approximately 65% of the participants reported their supervisors were men, which may explain why the women in this study were more likely to retaliate to gain redress. This lack of connection for women in organizations may limit their access to people who may be

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able to positively influence their problem-solving strategies or to make available to them the organizational resources that would improve their problem-solving skills in relation to positively mitigating the effects of bullying behavior in the workplace (Carboni & Gilman, 2012).

In order to effectively engage coping strategies individuals must believe in their ability to remedy the situation and they must have the resources available to them that are necessary to successfully deal with the stressor (Bandura, 1997; Nolen-Hoeksema & Aldao, 2011; Pomaki et al., 2010; Tamres et al., 2002). If women lack access to the organizational connections that would provide them with the tools to effectively deal with bullying behavior, they may be more likely to retaliate when provided with social support. Whereas, men are generally better connected and perhaps the informational support they receive from their colleagues enables them to find a more effective way to deal with bullying behavior than to engage in retaliatory behavior. It may be that these differing social support networks (i.e., in-groups) affect the type of support available for men and women (Deaux & Martin, 2003; Turner et al., 1979).

The results in this dissertation suggest several important implications for interventions and the prevention of workplace bullying behavior. Even though bulling may mean different things to different people, the outcomes of workplace bullying tend to negatively impact the targets of the bullying behavior and the organization. While the definitions of bullying in the literature are varied, they do have common themes, such as the bullying behavior is intentional and the bully has control over his/her actions and the behavior is not an isolated incident, but rather it is repeated over time. This dissertation and the extant gender research show that men and women use social support differently. It is important for employers to use this information when they are developing interventions to eliminate bullying behavior from their workplaces so as to effectively mitigate the negative outcomes of the bullying behavior.

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Practical Implications

The results from this study bring two intervention strategies to the forefront. These interventions are of primary importance because research has shown that organizations and targets of bullying behavior experience negative outcomes. This study demonstrated that when female employees experience workplace bullying they tend to retaliate by exhibiting behaviors such as wasting company resources or impeding the work of their coworkers. It is estimated that workplace violence costs organizations between $6.4 and $36 billion annually in terms of lost productivity and negative public opinion of the organization (Gray et al., 1999). In consideration of the types of behaviors identified in the Organizational Retaliatory Behavior scale (e.g., pilfering supplies, speaking negatively about the organization, damaging equipment or work processes, intentionally working slower) that have financial cost to the organization it is important for organizations to address bullying in such a manner as to reduce the occurrence of the behavior in the workplace. By implementing measures to control for the organizational costs, employers will also improve the quality of work life for their employees.

The first intervention employers should take is to develop and implement an anti-bullying policy that will define the type of behavior the organization considers bullying, outline a procedure to report such behavior, and any appropriate means of redress for the target of the bullying behavior (Fox & Stallworth, 2009). If the organizational culture supports bullying behavior it is more likely that the behavior will be endemic in the organization and targets of the bullying behavior may feel they have to resort to retaliatory behavior to cope with the stressor.

Second, employees should be provided with the tools and resources (e.g., conflict resolution) necessary to effectively address bullying behavior that they experience at work. Employee training would be a method of ensuring the provision of these resources. Employee training is considered the second intervention because until an organizational policy is

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implemented and the organizational culture has been changed to reject bullies and to support

targets of bullying behavior the targets may not be safe if they attempt to confront their bully.

Once the policy has changed the organizational culture it becomes important that the targets have

resources available to enable them to positively and effectively cope with bullying behavior.

Research has shown that workplace aggression is minimized when organizations have policies

that ensure that reports of workplace bullying will be taken seriously, appropriately investigated,

and appropriate action will be taken against perpetrators of workplace aggression (Barclay &

Aquino, 2011; Dupre & Barling, 2006; Salin, 2003).

The anti-bullying policy should provide a clear definition of the behavior the organization

considers to be bullying behavior. Once the definition is constructed supervisors will have a

clear idea of what types of behavior they should address. The policy should also have a clear

procedure for how targets can report the bullying behavior and to who or what office (e.g.,

human resources, employee relations) they should make the report. The policy should identify

the fact finding approach the organization will take to resolve the report of bullying behavior and

the types of redress (e.g., relocation of the bully, reinstatement of lost benefits for the target) that

are available to make restitution to the victim(s) of the bullying behavior. Prior to implementing

a policy, the organization must ensure that administrators are fully supportive of the anti-bullying

policy and will consistently enforce the policy when employees invoke the policy (Adams-Roy

& Barling, 1998). A policy will not be effective if the enforcers are not in agreement with the

basic tenets of the policy; and it will not be effective if it sits on a shelf (Barclay & Aquino,

2011). The policy must be disseminated throughout the organization and as trainers talk about

conflict management and identifying bullying behavior, they should also train supervisors and

employees on the anti-bullying policy.

The policy must be consistently enforced once an employee invokes the policy. Employees engage in comparative self-appraisals and if they observe that bullies are rewarded for their behavior rather than sanctioned, or if they see coworkers who have reported bullying behavior being sanctioned, they will be less likely to invoke the anti-bullying policy (Bandura, 1997). Sanctions must be appropriate to deter future acts of bullying behavior and they must not be too harsh (Barclay & Aquino, 2011). It is not uncommon for employees to feel guilty if they perceive that their actions caused another individual to be treated unfairly which may lead to dysfunctional behavior (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007).

In addition to implementing anti-workplace bullying policies, providing training on conflict resolution may be an effective way to reduce the negative outcomes of workplace bullying (e.g., retaliation). When designing and implementing training initiatives to equip employees with the knowledge, skills, and abilities necessary to effectively resolve workplace bullying, consideration should be given to developing training specific to groups of employees. For example, supervisors should be trained to identify incidents of bullying that may be occurring in their work unit and what the organization expects of them in terms of addressing the behavior. Subordinate training should include developing skills that would facilitate the resolution of workplace conflict and protect them from the negative outcomes of bullying behavior that may be directed at them.

It is documented in the literature that aggressive behavior is detrimental to the physical and psychological well-being of victims and this study demonstrated that bullying behavior is detrimental to organizations due to the increased incidence of retaliatory behavior by the targets of the behavior. This study found that a low-quality LMX relationship positively predicted workplace bullying behavior (e.g., supervisor and coworker bullying behavior) and that bullying

behavior positively predicted retaliatory behavior. These findings suggest that leadership training may be effective in reducing the incidence of bullying behavior in organizations.

It has been shown that a transformational style of leadership improves positive attitudes and increases the performance of OCBs (Barling et al., 2011), whereas, a laissez-faire style of leadership is more likely to increase antisocial behaviors (Salin, 2003). It is also documented in the leadership literature that the qualities of transformational leaders are qualities that can be learned (Barling et al., 2011; Bommer et al., 2005). A transformational style of leadership may improve the quality of LMX relationships and reduce the incidence of workplace bullying. Therefore, it may benefit organizations to provide leadership training that will instill in their leaders the qualities of transformational leaders.

In addition, supervisors should be trained to take a proactive approach in identifying behavior that may impede a collaborative team environment. For example, micro-aggressions such as withholding information from a coworker, wasting company supplies, gossiping about coworkers, or speaking poorly about the company are behaviors that may have an adverse effect on not only the organization but, other employees (i.e., third party observers) who are not involved in the workplace bullying behavior (Escartin et al., 2009; Glomb et al., 1997; Hauge et al, 2010).

These micro-aggressions, retaliatory behavior, bullying behavior, etc., often become apparent when supervisors are conducting performance reviews or providing task performance feedback. Supervisor training should include training on how to effectively address the anti-social behaviors supervisors have been made aware of during the performance of their normal supervisory responsibilities. In addition, supervisors should receive training on how to address bullying behavior that they may directly observe. As with any negative performance issues, it is

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often difficult for supervisors to assertively address such performance issues. For example, supervisors should learn to affirmatively address the issue by framing their responses so as to address the behavior and not to attack the employee (i.e., bully). Often, individuals (e.g., supervisors, employees) may hope that if they ignore certain behavior, it will go away. Unfortunately, with workplace incivilities research has shown that what may be a minor transgression, if not dealt with can spiral into more aggressive and/or overt behavior (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Dupre & Barling, 2006; Dupre et al., 2006; Escartin et al., 2009; Glomb et al., 2997; Hauge et al, 2010; O'Leary et al., 2009; Tepper et al., 2009).

Employees (subordinates) may need a different focus in training than the training provided to supervisors. By the nature of their positions, supervisors have legitimate power and as such they have more influence on correcting bullying behavior. The results of this dissertation confirm that subordinates who have a low-quality LMX relationship perceive more bullying from their coworkers and their supervisor. Therefore, organizations cannot realistically expect that only training supervisors to identify bullying behavior at a low level (e.g., a micro-aggression) will eradicate the bullying behavior from their workplaces. Rather, the employee also needs training in how to effectively resolve conflict so they will be prepared to address transgressions in a positive manner as they experience the transgressions. This training should also stress the importance of personal safety and the organization's commitment to a workplace free of bullying behavior so that employees will report the bullying behavior to the appropriate supervisor.

This study found that employees who experience bullying behavior tend to retaliate against their coworkers and/or the organization. Retaliatory behavior tends to perpetuate the workplace incivilities which may escalate the severity of the aggressive behavior. Research has

shown that an assertive style of communication can reduce the likelihood that an individual will be the victim of bullying behavior and that when employees feel that others are treated fairly by the leader/organization they display positive behaviors rather than negative behaviors (Barclay & Aquino, 2011; Barling et al., 2011; Luthans, F., Avolio, F. J., Avey, J. B., & Norman, S. M., 2007). Therefore, training employees in areas such as communication and conflict management may serve to improve social support networks that will function to (1) provide employees with skills to assertively address conflict at work and (2) to be able establish networks at work that will provide the support and assistance necessary to be able to approach conflict in a manner that will result in a positive resolution and to reduce the retaliatory behavior associated with workplace bullying behavior.

The results of this dissertation provide support for the buffering effects of social support between retaliatory behavior and workplace bullying. In consideration of the gender differences in how social support affects how men and women deal with their experiences with workplace bullying, teaching employees how to effectively manage conflict may facilitate each individual's ability to deal with workplace bullying in a manner that would not involve other coworkers and would directly deal with the anti-social workplace behavior.

Strengths

This dissertation has two major strengths. First, an 11-item version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Fisher & Fick, 1993) was used to control for the effects of social desirability. Individuals have a tendency to present themselves in a light most favorable to themselves, particularly when being asked to respond to questions related to personal relationships with supervisors and subordinates, and their participation in behavior that is labeled as ostracism, bullying, and retaliation (Schriesheim et al., 2011).

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Second, the data was collected using an online data collection tool (AXIO) which ensured that the data was accurate because data entry errors by the researcher were eliminated. The online collection tool also ensured participant confidentiality and that each participant could only take the survey once. As with any study there are limitations that arise and that must be dealt with to ensure the reliability and validity of the results. The following section addresses several a priori limitations and explains how they were addressed in this dissertation.

Limitations

Even though careful attention was given to item construction to ensure the items are clearly worded and the vocabulary is at a low level of reading ability, there are some limitations to this study that should be addressed at this time to assure the reader the results are both reliable and valid. A major limitation is that the data is cross-sectional rather than experimental which limits causal conclusions about the relationships that can be drawn between LMX and workplace bullying as well as the meditational effects of ostracism between LMX and workplace bullying; and the moderating effects of social support between bullying behavior and retaliatory behavior.

Secondly, LMX was measured from a single perspective and the responses are not being linked between supervisors and subordinates which may raise concerns about common-method variance. Common method variance has been associated with measurement error and it may cause questions to arise as to the validity of the conclusions of a study (Doty & Glick, 1998; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, studies that seek to determine an individual's attitudes or perceptions are best suited to using a self-report measure (Schmitt, 1994) because it is necessary to ask individuals to respond personally to questions about their perspective on constructs such as bullying, retaliation, ostracism, and social support (Spector, 2006).

The concern in using a single method to collect data is that the systematic variance that exists due to a single method may not be identified. Consequently, variance may be attributed to systematic trait or state variance when it is actually due to the single method of data collection (variance under the control of the researcher) (Doty & Glick, 1998). Inflated correlations may occur if variables share bias such as social desirability, and deflated correlations may occur when "one construct is assessed with positively worded items and a second is assessed with negatively worded items (Doty & Glick, 1998, p. 376)." Constructs that are susceptible to subjectivity (e.g., LMX relationship quality, retaliation) are more likely to be affected by common method variance if only a single method of data collection is used (Spector, 2006).

However, simply depending on using multiple raters will not ensure results are free from common method variance (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002; Greguras, Robie, Schleicher, & Goff, 2003; Spector, 2006). For example, individual actions such as retaliation are often only known to have occurred by the individual actor (Barclay & Aquino, 2011). Therefore, a thorough literature review was conducted and the operationalization of the variables was based on sound theoretical bases in order to reduce the potential effects of common method variance on the variables (Spector, 2006; Kline, Sulsky, & Rever-Moriyama, 2000; Vandenberg, 2006).

In addition, scale design may introduce common method variance into the survey vis-à-vis social desirability, implicit theory, leniency, acquiescence, priming, and negative affectivity. To minimize these effects, items were constructed so that they did not contain esoteric language, clear examples were provided, items were short and to the point, and only referred to one idea or possibility (Podsakoff et al, 2003). Additionally, different scale endpoints were used and semantic rather than numerical values for Likert response format scales were used (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Numerical values may affect responses due to acquiescence (agreeing with attitude

statements) (Podsakoff et al. 2003; Spector, 2006; Lindell & Whitney, 2001) and the use of scale anchors such as always or never were limited to reduce common method variance due to acquiescence because many respondents hesitate to rate items at scale extremes.

The use of extreme anchors or numerical values may elicit socially desirable response bias. People are subject to social desirability (need for social approval) which causes them to present themselves in a favorable light (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002). Social desirability may cause a respondent to hide his/her true feelings which has been shown to produce small increases in correlations (Spector, 2006). These small increases in variance were addressed by including a statement that assured respondents their responses were anonymous, there were no right or wrong answers, and asking them to answer as honestly as possible was included with the survey to reduce biases that may occur due to social desirability, leniency, and acquiescence (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Procedurally, all variables were loaded into an exploratory factor analysis and the unrotated factor solution was examined. One general factor did not emerge; presenting evidence that common method variance was not present in the data (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

The results should be interpreted with caution due to the significant positive skewness and low means (e.g., LMX, ostracism, aggressive supervision, angry experiences, and retaliation) and the negative skewness and high means (e.g., social support) of the study variables. Even though the variables were transformed to reduce violations of normality, transformations often make the results difficult to interpret. In addition, there was a small percentage of the participants who reported being the target of coworker bullying behavior (6.7%) and supervisor bullying behavior (8.13%), which may have affected the results of the mediation and moderation analyses. For example, due to the low number of participants who reported they had been

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bullied by their supervisor and/or coworkers may explain why ostracism did not mediate the relationship between LMX and bullying behavior; and why social support did not moderate the relationship between bullying behavior and retaliation when the entire sample was analyzed for the effects. It may be that using a convenience sample such as i.think inc. (Dallas, Texas) where the respondents are screened for specified characteristics (i.e., target of bullying behavior at work) would provide a large enough sample with people who have been bullied at work to analyze the mediating effects of ostracism and the moderating effects of social support (Neubert, 2008).

This dissertation examined emotional support and did not look at the other types of social support (e.g., informational, instrumental, or appraisal). Due to the gender differences that were found between men and women in the likelihood to retaliate, it may be important to consider if and/or how other forms of social support are used to deal with workplace stressors such bullying behavior.

Future Directions

There are a number of areas for future research related to leadership and workplace bullying. First, research is needed that examines whether laissez-faire leadership is related to low-quality LMX relationships and whether a transformational leadership style is related to high-quality LMX relationships. This would provide important insight for training interventions. In addition, there is a lack of research that looks at the relationship between workplace bullying and leadership. Therefore, future research should look at various leadership theories and in particular transformational leadership and LMX and how leadership style and relationships may influence negative behaviors such as workplace bullying and/or retaliation.

This dissertation looked at insider bullying behavior; however, bullying (aggressive behavior) can occur from aggressors outside the organization. Research should examine whether outsider (e.g., customer, visitor) aggressions induce retaliatory behavior directed at the leader, organization, or coworkers (Barling et al., 2009; LeBlanc & Barling, 2004). Future research should examine how targets of workplace bullying are selected. For example, are policy makers targeted because employees do not like to comply with the policy and hold the policy maker (e.g., human resource professional) responsible for work schedules, salaries, layoffs, etc.? Another area that warrants attention is the effects of workplace bullying on third party observers. The sexual harassment research has shown that third party observers experience the same negative physical and psychological outcomes as the target of the behavior (Escartin et al., 2009; Hauge et al., 2010). Future research should also examine the indirect effects of workplace bullying on employees who observe the aggressive behavior directed at a coworker. Observers are often not considered to be affected by the bullying behavior and it may be that organizations need to reach to them in policy implementation and training initiatives.

Considering the differences in how men and women utilize emotional support, future research should look at emotional versus informational support differences between men/women. If men typically receive instrumental support from their coworkers when they seek social support and this form of support tends to reduce the likelihood that they will retaliate if they experience bullying behavior and women receive the type of emotional support that encourages rumination and a "woe is me" approach to dealing with bullying behavior, then a more strategic approach to employee training could be developed. By being able to specifically target training efforts in a direction that will reduce the likelihood that bullies in the workplace will retain their control over the victims, organizations will be better equipped to eradicate bullying from their workplaces.

Research has shown that when employees perceive the justice climate to be high that even a low-quality LMX relationship will not negatively impact the performance of OCBs (De Cremer, Stinglhamber, & Eisenberger, 2005; De Cremer, Van Dijke, & Mayer, 2010; Erdogan & Bauer, 2010; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993); future research should examine whether this effect is true for workplace bullying behavior.

Even though situational factors can be controlled by the organization and these situational factors may influence the individual factors that may predict bullying behavior at work (Barling et al., 2009) it would be important for future research to examine the individual differences that may predict whether an individual engages in bullying behavior at work. The results have been mixed in terms of whether men or women are more aggressive at work (Barling et al., 2009), but there has been support for individual differences in terms of negative affect, self-esteem, trait-anger, and an aggressive personality in predicting whether an individual will engage in aggressive behavior at work (Barling et al., 2009; Parkins et al., 2006; Glomb, 2010). More research is needed in this area, particularly in terms of how organizations can control the situational factors that may incite an individual to react aggressively at work.

Finally, recently there has been a great deal of research related to positive psychology. Future research should examine the implications of the elements of positive psychology on reducing the occurrence of bullying behavior in the workplace and in particular self-efficacy and resiliency. For example, since the components of positive psychology (e.g., efficacy, hope, resilience, optimism) are state-like qualities that can be learned (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006) it may be that training employees to increase their self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism will give them the confidence to conquer bullying behavior. The qualities of positive psychology may provide targets of workplace bullying with the skills

necessary to positively deal with the negative effects of workplace bullying and the positive approach may reduce or even eliminate bullying behavior.

Conclusion

As of the writing of this dissertation there has not been any research that has specifically looked at how a low-quality LMX relationship influences bullying behavior at work. This dissertation contributes to the body of literature on workplace aggression by looking at how the quality of LMX relationships affect whether an individual is bullied at work or if they are more likely to exhibit bullying behavior in the workplace. This dissertation also looked at the moderating effects of social support and the results provided important insights into how organizational policies and employee training may reduce the likelihood of workplace bullying behavior. The interesting finding in this dissertation was that men reported a tendency to experience a buffering effect between bullying behavior and retaliatory behavior when they invoked their social support system, but women reported a tendency to engage in more retaliatory behaviors when they invoked their social support systems. The findings in this study provide support for using targeted training initiatives to eradicate bullying behavior from the workplace.

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Appendix A - Informed Consent and Survey Instruments

Informed Consent

My name is Dr. Clive Fullagar, and I am professor in the Department of Psychology at Kansas State University. I am requesting that you volunteer to participate in a research study about how employees think, feel, and behave while at work. The data will be analyzed by a psychology Ph.D. candidate for partial completion of a dissertation.

Purpose of the Research Study: The purpose of this research is to gather information about how employees think, feel, and behave while at work. The questions are designed to assess your feelings about your relationships with your supervisor and coworkers. The questions also are designed to assess how you, your coworkers, and your supervisor behave while at work.

Procedures and Length of Participation: If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to respond to an Internet survey that takes an average of about 10 minutes to complete. By completing this survey you verify that your participation in this survey is voluntary, you have read and understand this consent form, and willingly agree to participate in this survey under the terms described. Please answer all the questions as honestly and openly as possible.

Risks and Benefits of being in the Study: There are no risks associated with participation in this study. The anticipated benefits from the study are societal in nature and include guidance on employee training and policy development and/or revision.

Participation in this study is voluntary. The study will ask questions about your relationships with your supervisor and coworkers and how you think you are treated by your supervisor and coworkers. You may quit the survey at any time, should you desire to do so, without explanation, penalty, or loss of benefits to which you may otherwise be entitled.

Compensation: There is no compensation provided for undertaking this survey.

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private. In published reports, there will be no information included that will make it possible to identify you as a research participant. Research records will be stored securely. The data will not include any information that would make it possible to identify you. Only approved researchers will have access to the records.

Contacts and Questions: If you have concerns or complaints about the research, I am the primary investigator conducting this study, and I can be contacted at Kansas State University,

at (785) 532-0608 or by email at fullagar@ksu.edu. You are encouraged to contact me if you have any questions. If you have any questions, concerns, or complaints about the research and wish to talk to someone other than me, or if you cannot reach me, you may contact the Kansas State University Research Compliance Office at 203 Fairchild Hall, Manhattan, KS, 66505 or by phone: 785-532-3224 or by email: comply@ksu.edu.

Please print this information sheet for your records. By completing and submitting this questionnaire, you are agreeing to participate in this study.

Leader-member exchange (modified version of the LMX-7)

(Graen & Cushman, 1975; Liden & Graen, 1980; Scandura & Graen, 1984; Tangirala et al., 2007)

Think about your relationship with your supervisor. Below you will find questions that ask you how you feel about your relationship with your supervisor. Please read each question carefully and answer honestly how you feel about your supervisor.

Item	4	3	2	1
Do you usually feel that you know where you stand?	Always know where I stand	Usually know where I stand	Seldom know where I stand	Never know where I stand
Do you usually know how satisfied your immediate supervisor is with what you do?	Always know where I stand	Usually know where I stand	Seldom know where I stand	Never know where I stand
How well do you feel that your immediate supervisor understands your problems and needs?	Completely	Well enough	Some but not enough	Not at all
How well do you feel that your immediate supervisor recognizes your potential?	Fully	As much as the next person	Some but not enough	Not at all
Regardless of how much formal authority your immediate supervisor has built into his or her position, what are the chances that he or she would be personally inclined to use power to help you solve problems in your work?	Certainly would	Probably would	Might or might not	No chance
Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your immediate supervisor has, to what extent can you count on him or her to "bail you out" at his or her expense when you really need it?	Certainly would	Probably would	Might or might not	No chance
I have enough confidence in my immediate supervisor that I would defend and justify his or her decisions if he or she were not present to do so.	Certainly would	Probably would	Maybe	Probably not
How would you characterize your working relationship with your immediate supervisor?	Extremely effective	Better than average	About average	About average

Workplace Ostracism Scale

Participants answered each item using a 6-point Likert response format where 1 = never, 2 = once in a while, 3 = sometimes, 4 = fairly often, 5 = constantly, and 6 = always (Ferris et al., 2008).

The following statements describe how you are treated at work. Please read each statement carefully and answer honestly how often you have experienced the behavior described.

Scale Items
1. Others ignore you at work
2. Others leave the area when you enter
3. Your greetings go unanswered at work
4. You involuntarily sit alone in a crowded lunchroom at work
5. Others avoid you at work
6. You notice others will not look at you at work
7. Others at work shut you out of conversations
8. Others refuse to talk to you at work
9. Others at work treat you as if you aren't there
10. Others at work do not invite you or ask you if you want anything when they go out for a coffee break

Aggression:

Abusive Supervision Scale (Tepper, 2000).

Participants rated each item on a 5-point Likert response format where 1 = cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me, 2 = he/she very seldom uses this behavior with me, 3 = he/she occasionally uses this behavior with me, 4 = he/she uses this behavior moderately often with me, and 5 = he/she uses this behavior very often with me.

The following questions describe aggressive behavior. Please read each statement carefully and answer honestly. Think about your immediate supervisor and answer the following questions. **Indicate how often your supervisor engages in each of the following behaviors at work.**

Items

1. My boss ridicules me
2. My boss tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid
3. My boss gives me the silent treatment
4. My boss puts me down in front of others
5. My boss invades my privacy
6. My boss reminds me of my past mistakes and failures
7. My boss doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort
8. My boss blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment
9. My boss breaks promises he/she makes
10. My boss expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason
11. My boss makes negative comments about me to others
12. My boss is rude to me
13. My boss does not allow me to interact with my coworkers
14. My boss tells me I'm incompetent
15. My boss lies to me

Angry Experiences Scale (AES)

(Glomb, 2010)[5]

Participants rated each item using a 5-point Likert response format where 1 = never, 2 = 1 or 2 times a year, 3 = 3 or 4 times a year, 4 = once a month, and 5 = once a week or more.

The following items ask you to estimate how often **coworkers** have engaged in angry or aggressive behaviors **directed toward you**. Items should be endorsed only when you were the target of the behavior.

In the past 6 months, how often has a **coworker** engaged in the following behaviors **directed**

toward you?

Items

1. Making angry gestures (e.g., pounding fists, rolling eyes)
2. Avoiding you
3. Making you look bad
4. Yelling or raising their voice
5. Withholding information from you
6. Swearing at you
7. Withholding resources (e.g., supplies, equipment) needed to do your job
8. Physically assaulting you
9. Using Hostile body language
10. Insulting, criticizing you (including sarcasm)
11. Failing to correct false information about you
12. Interrupting or "cutting you off" while speaking
13. Getting "in your face"
14. Spreading rumors
15. Making threats
16. Damaging property
17. Whistle-blowing or telling supervisors or others about your negative behavior
18. Belittling your opinions in front of others
19. Giving you the "silent treatment"

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[5] Dr. Glomb provided her Angry Experiences Scale (AES) by email on February 9, 2011.

Social Support

Multidimensional Survey of perceived Social Support (MSPSS) (Zimet et al, 1998). Participants rated each item with a 5-point Likert response format where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree.

The following questions ask you to think about the people close to you that provide you support. Please read each statement carefully and answer honestly. Think about the person identified in each statement and indicate your level of agreement.

Items

1. There is a special person who is around when I am in need
2. There is a special person with whom I can share my joys and sorrows
3. My family really tries to help me
4. I get the emotional help and support I need from my family
5. I have a special person who is a real source of comfort to me
6. My coworkers really try to help me
7. I can count on my coworkers when things go wrong
8. I can talk about my problems with my family
9. I have coworkers with whom I can share my joys and sorrows
10. There is a special person in my life who cares about my feelings
11. My family is willing to help me make decisions
12. I can talk about my problems with my coworkers

Significant other: 1, 2, 5, 10

Family: 3, 4, 8, 11

Coworker: 6, 7, 9, 12

Organizational Retaliatory Behavior

Organizational Retaliatory Behavior (ORB) (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Townsend et al., 2000). Participants rated each item using a 5-point Likert response format where 1 = never over the past month, 2 = 1 or 2 times over the past month, 3 = 3 or 4 times over the past month, 4 = 5 times over the past month, and 5 = 6 or more times over the past month.

The following statements describe behaviors that you may or may not have engaged in at work. Remember, your responses are completely anonymous. Please read each statement and honestly describe how many times you have engaged in each behavior over the past six months.

Items

1. Took supplies home without permission
2. Called in sick when not ill
3. Spoke poorly about the company to others
4. Wasted company materials
5. Refused to work weekends or overtime when asked
6. Left a mess unnecessarily (did not clean up)
7. Disobeyed a supervisor's instructions
8. "Talked back" to his or her boss
9. Gossiped about his or her boss
10. Spread rumors about coworkers
11. Gave a coworker a "silent treatment"
12. Failed to give coworker required information
13. Tried to look busy while wasting time
14. Took an extended coffee or lunch break
15. Intentionally worked slower
16. Spent time on personal matters while at work
17. On purpose, damaged equipment or work process

Social Desirability

11-item version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (SDS) (Fischer & Fick, 1993). Participants answered all items as either true or false.

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is true or false as it pertains to you personally. Read each statement carefully and answer honestly.

Items
1. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged.   3
2. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.   6
3. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener   13
4. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.   15
5. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.   16
6. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.   19

7. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.   21
8. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.   26
9. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.   28
10. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me.   30
11. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.   33

Note the numbers on the right indicate the item number in the original Crowne & Marlowe (1960) 33-item scale.

Answer code:

3. (F)
6. (F)
13. (T)
15. (F)
16. (T)
19. (F)
21. (T)
26. (T)
28. (F)
30. (F)
33. (T)

Control Variables

The following questions are to gather general information about you and your work-related experience. Please answer all questions as honestly and openly as possible and based on your current job. If you are not currently employed, answer the questions based on your most recent job.

1. Currently Employed?
   a. Yes
   b. No

2. What is your gender?
   a. Male
   b. Female

3. How long have you worked under your immediate supervisor? (answer in years and months)

4. What is your race?
   a. African American, non-Hispanic
   b. Asian or Pacific Islander
   c. Caucasian
   d. Hispanic
   e. Native American or Alaskan Native
   f. Two or more races

5. Are you a supervisor?

6. If you answered yes to the previous question, how many employees do you supervise?

7. How old are you (please indicate in years)

8. What is your job title?

9. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

Appendix B - Debriefing Statement

Debriefing Statement

Thank you for participating in this survey. This survey was administered to learn more about workplace bullying and how it relates to leadership and job attitudes. If you are experiencing a situation at work that you would like help resolving you may contact the Kansas State University Office of Affirmative Action by calling 532-6220 and they will be able to refer you to the appropriate campus office for assistance. Or, if you are a classified employee you may contact Employee Relations by calling 532-7277, if you are an unclassified employee you may contact an Ombudsperson (Kelli Cox: 532-5712, Rebecca Gould: 532-2298, or Warren White: 532-6349). If you have any questions about this survey, please contact Clive Fullagar 532-0608 or fullagar@ksu.edu.