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DOCTORAL PROGRAM IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

PHD THESIS



**WORKPLACE AGGRESSION PROFILES: THE
LINK TO NEGATIVE EMOTIONS AND
EMPLOYEE WORK OUTCOMES**

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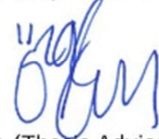
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ABSTRACT

WORKPLACE AGGRESSION PROFILES: THE LINK TO NEGATIVE EMOTIONS AND EMPLOYEE WORK OUTCOMES

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2019

Responding to recent calls in the literature for directly measuring and differentiating between various workplace aggressions incidents and acknowledging the relevant theoretical gaps, this study seeks to identify unique workplace aggression profiles and to understand how they lead the way into particular employee outcomes through diverse emotional mechanisms. A unique conceptual model and specific hypotheses were developed by utilizing affective event theory and stressor-emotion model as the primary theoretical bases.

Data was collected from 420 academic and administrative respondents working at 14 different universities in Pakistan. After collecting and assessing critical incidents in the preliminary qualitative phase, a survey in a diary-form was conducted. Cluster analysis applied on the data identifies five distinctive aggression types. For hypothesis testing, a series of regressions were ran by following a moderated mediation procedure consistent with the study model. Almost all aggression profiles were found to be significantly related to the study outcomes of job satisfaction, work engagement, work withdrawal and OCB behaviors. Results for two particular aggression types also indicate a number of strong mediation and moderation effects.

This is the first study where almost all theoretically relevant aggression event attributes are taken into consideration and measured together. It is also the first study taking diverse emotional mechanisms into account in a comparative manner, leading into a better understanding of the complex processes through which aggression takes shape in workplace. Further research may enhance these empirical findings by testing the proposed relationships in different organizational settings and cultural contexts.

Keywords: *workplace aggression, affective events theory, negative emotions, higher education sector, Pakistan*

ÖZ

**İŞYERİNDE SALDIRGANLIK PROFİLLERİNİN OLUMSUZ DUYGULAR
VE ÇALIŞANIN İŞ ÇIKTILARI İLE BAĞLANTILARI**

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İşyerinde saldırganlık içeren olayların doğrudan ölçümü ve birbirinden ayrışmasına yönelik yazındaki güncel çağrılara yanıt veren ve ilgili kuramsal boşlukları dikkate alan bu çalışmanın amacı, birbirinden farklılaşan işyeri saldırganlık profillerini ortaya koymak ve bu profillerin belli çalışan çıktılarını hangi duygusal mekanizmalar yoluyla etkilediğini anlamaktır. Bu amaçla, duygusal olaylar kuramı ve stres-duygu yaklaşımına dayanılarak özgün bir kavramsal model ve araştırma hipotezleri oluşturulmuştur.

Pakistan yükseköğrenim sektöründeki 14 üniversiteden hem akademik hem idari toplam 420 katılımcıdan veri toplanmıştır. Araştırmanın hazırlık aşamasında toplanan kritik vakalar nitel olarak incelenmiş, takip eden nicel aşamada günlük formunda hazırlanmış bir anket uygulanmıştır. Kümeleme analizi sonuçları veride beş farklı saldırganlık profili olduğunu göstermiştir. Hipotezleri test etmek için, hem aracı hem düzenleyici etkileri içeren bir dizi regresyon analizi uygulanmıştır. Bu analizler sonucunda, hemen hemen tüm saldırganlık profillerinin iş tatmini, işten çekilme, işe bağlılık ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları üzerinde anlamlı etkisi bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, iki işyeri saldırganlık profili için güçlü aracı ve düzenleyici etkiler söz konusudur.

Bu araştırma, işyerindeki saldırganlık olaylarını tanımlayan, kuramsal olarak anlamlı hemen hemen tüm boyutları dikkate alan ve ölçen ilk çalışmadır. Saldırganlığın işyerlerinde hangi karmaşık süreçlerle ortaya çıktığını anlamak adına farklı duygusal mekanizmalar yine ilke kez karşılaştırmalı biçimde incelenmiştir. Gelecekteki çalışmaların burada öne sürülen kuramsal iddia ve görgül sonuçları farklı örgütsel alanlar ve kültürel bağlamlarda test etmesi önemlidir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: *işyerinde saldırganlık, duygusal olaylar kuramı, olumsuz duygular, yükseköğrenim, Pakistan.*

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TEXT OF OATH

I declare and honestly confirm that my study, titled “WORKPLACE AGGRESSION PROFILES: THE LINK TO NEGATIVE EMOTIONS AND EMPLOYEE WORK OUTCOMES” and presented as a PhD Thesis, has been written without applying to any assistance inconsistent with scientific ethics and traditions. I declare, to the best of my knowledge and belief, that all content and ideas drawn directly or indirectly from external sources are indicated in the text and listed in the list of references.

Sobia Nasir

Signature

.....

August 28, 2019



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LIST OF ACRONYMS

JS	Job satisfaction
SET	Social Exchange Theory
AET	Affective Events Theory
SEM	Social Exchange Theory
SIT	Stressor Emotion Model
HEC	Higher Education Sector
WPA	Workplace Aggression
UCP	University of Central Punjab
CIT	Critical Incidence Technique
OCB	Organization citizenship Behavior
WES	Utrecht Work Engagement Scale
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
AET	Affective Emotion Theory

DEDICATION

I dedicate all my efforts of this research work to my beloved parent who have been with me throughout this journey of doing PhD. as I have had good and bad times but they had been a ray of hope for me always praying for me and supporting me to reach here. I would thank to my parents who have been waiting patiently for this PhD degree. I love them too. Because of this unconditional and unmeasurable love, I can get this far. I can be what I am today is all because of the love from my parents. Without it, I do not think that I can get this degree. Many times, when I felt that I could not finish my dissertation. I was thinking of my parents. My mother's smile did give me courage and strength. I love my parents. It was only because of their love, passion, guidance and devotion to make me able to pass through all the hassles and stand here. I dedicate this dissertation to my beloved parents.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Phenomenon of Interest: Aggression in Workplace

Over the last couple of decades, the concept of workplace aggression has become an important phenomenon as evidenced in recent studies (Ford, Myrden & Kelloway, 2016; Malik, Schat, Shahzad, Raziq, & Faiz, 2018; Samnani & Singh, 2016). A common definition describes it as “any behavior initiated by employees that is intended to harm another individual in their organization or the organization itself and that the target is motivated to avoid, which is differentiated from workplace violence in its emphasis on psychological aggression” (Schat & Kelloway, 2005) p.191).

Different constructs have been created carrying different labels, definitions, and descriptions of workplace aggression including abusive supervision (Mackey, Frieder, Brees & Martinko, 2017), bullying (Harlos & Knoll, 2018), social undermining (Reh, Tröster, & Van Quaquebeke, 2018), interpersonal conflict (Beitler, Scherer, & Zapf, 2018), emotional abuse (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2015), and incivility (Lim, Ilies, Koopman, Christoforou, & Arvey, 2018). Although important contributions were derived from these conceptualizations in the literature, there has also been an increasing concern about the emergence of a high number of overlapping constructs examining the same or similar underlying relationships (Hershcovis, 2011; Meurs, Fox, Kessler & Spector, 2013; Nasir, Khaliq & Rehman, 2017). Even though they are theoretically valuable, the disparities between these constructs largely remain in the assumptions of their definitions and conceptualizations, rather than manifestation in their measurement. In fact, it was empirically shown by Hershcovis (2011) that there is a high overlap between these constructs, but no strong difference with respect to predicting most of the key employee outcomes, which brings more confusion to the field instead of yielding new insights. In many occasions, similar items are included in different measures. While the definitions of constructs vary in some characteristics, they overlap on others.

The inclination of scholars has increased towards understanding workplace aggression, as enormous costs and negative effects have become widely recognized by organizational psychologists and human resource practitioners (Nasir, 2018).

Workplace aggression can damage employees' morale, health, and productive behavior (Khan, Sabri, & Nasir, 2016; Penney & Spector, 2005; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). Additionally, these acts may reduce organizational investment and increase employee turnover (Dunlop & Lee, 2004). Hence, in order to improve the quality of the workplace and the well-being of employees, it is important to identify and understand the growing level of aggression in the workplace.

Up until present different constructs have been created carrying different labels, definitions, and descriptions of workplace aggression including abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), bullying (Harlos & Knoll, 2018), social undermining (Ong & Tay, 2015), interpersonal conflict (Leon-Perez, Medina, Arenas, & Munduate, 2015), emotional abuse (Heugten, D'Cruz, & Mishra, 2018), and incivility (Thompson, Carlson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2016). Although important contributions were derived from these conceptualizations in the literature, there has also been an increasing concern about significant overlap among these constructs which examine the same or similar underlying relationships (Hershcovis, 2011).

Closely linked to this critique, it is increasingly acknowledged that several observable dimensions of workplace aggression including perceived intent or blame attributions (Hershcovis & Reich, 2013), perceived severity, frequency, duration, explicitness (being covert versus overt) of the aggressive behavior, identity of the perpetrator and witness presence (Arnold, Dupré, Hershcovis, & Turner, 2011; Meurs et al., 2013) have been largely ignored in the literature. Although a number of models have been suggested to address some of these key attributes of workplace aggression (Baron & Neuman, 1998), as per my knowledge until today no study has explored them in a comprehensive manner, or empirically tested their impact regarding why and when aggression leads to certain employee outcomes. Moreover, recent studies have emphasized that identifying the source (perpetrator) and his/her relationship to the target(s) is very important to understand the outcomes of workplace aggression (Glasø, Matthiesen, Nielsen, & Einarsen, 2007). Yet, the refinement on diverse perpetrators, particularly the comparison between supervisor and co-workers as the two main aggression sources and their respective relationship with the target are usually neglected as these sources can help to determine their influence in the literature.

The involvement of aggression in workplace may produce negative outcomes damaging both employees and organizations. These negative outcomes are frequently explained as a consequence of growth of stress and strain instigated by exposure to

workplace aggression (Bozeman & Hershcovis, 2015). Studies have reflected different undesirable outcomes including health-related, physiological, psychological and social ones.

Health related factors directly influence an employee's physiological well-being. These health issues differ from each other in their nature and occur as a result of workplace aggression. These issues could be hormone imbalances, heart diseases, and musculoskeletal illnesses. Studies have shown that the association between aggression at work and stress hormones is particularly strong in workplace bullying, indicating how long-term and sustained set of behaviors can potentially lead to chronic health challenges (Cooper & Quick, 2017). Few studies reflect common health problems such as infections, headaches, fatigue, and nausea (Holton, Barry, & Chaney, 2016). Findings indicate that various aggression-related stress situations cause decreased hormonal levels in the body (Grawitch, Ballard, & Erb, 2015). Another important health issue which occurs as the result of workplace aggression and cannot be neglected is musculoskeletal complaints and disorders. Studies suggest that there is a biological relationship between the strain due to psychological stress at work and musculoskeletal complains for example back, hand, and neck pain (Marcatto et al., 2016). Findings also reveal that workplace aggression effects on physical well-being are strongest when the aggression comes from a co-worker as compared to a supervisor or customer.

Besides physiological health issues, one of the clearest and most-studied outcomes of aggression is damaged psychological health and well-being. These types of damage directly influence emotions and moods of an employee. Psychological disorders triggered by aggression can have negative consequences for the employees' work performance (Park & Ono, 2017). Depression is an important negative psychological state whose specific symptoms include sadness, bad moods, and low energy. A number of researchers have found that workplace aggression brings about significant increases in a variety of depression symptoms. Another psychological illness is anxiety, which is characterized by panic attacks, fear and worries. Studies explain that aggression in the workplace increases the tendency of anxiety among employees. On the other hand, self-esteem is also a psychological challenge for the wellbeing of an employee. Regular exposure to workplace aggression can also reduce the self-esteem of an employee, a generally positive evaluation by an individual about himself/herself (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2015). Yet other psychological illnesses

increased by workplace aggression are burnout and post-traumatic stress disorder (Edward et al., 2016). The former is one of the dimensions of emotional exhaustion, a type of psychological syndrome that entails emotional exhaustion, cynicism and poor professional efficiency. Victims may also feel post-traumatic stress after they are exposed to aggressive situations at work leading into anxiety and poor focus as common symptoms (Harlos & Holmvall, 2018).

As a final type of consequence, social outcomes of workplace aggression can be categorized into work and individual domains such as fairness, justice perceptions, power imbalance and restoration, social support perceptions, work-family issues and social relationships. Studies reflect that aggression in the workplace can damage an employee's perceptions of organizational support. Social ties may involve supervisor, co-workers or subordinates, and any aggression received from these sources may decrease fairness and support perceptions, which may in turn, destroy employee's health and well-being. Overall, exposure to workplace aggression results in adverse work-related behaviors such as low performance, absenteeism, revenge, counter-productive work behaviors, and high turnover. On the other hand, regular exposure to aggression can bring about increased abusive behaviors among employees, as a response to experiencing aggression (Malik et al., 2018).

While different types of immediate reactions occur in response to workplace aggression as mentioned above, emotions have a significant and unique place among them (Tummers, Teo, & Brunetto, 2016). Emotions simply refer to intensive feelings that are directed at someone or something (Hershcovis, Cameron, Gervais, & Bozeman, 2018). They play an essential role to understand aggression processes at workplace they lead to adverse influences on both organization and individuals. Until now, most studies examining the aggression-emotion connection have focused solely on the well-documented role of anger and anxiety (Sguera, Bagozzi, Huy, Boss, & Boss, 2016) whereas only a small number of studies have explored alternative emotional responses (Cyr, Yang, & Yragui, 2018). Hence it is important to consider the different type of emotions and their outcomes in this context.

Even though diverse emotions establish separate critical paths linking the perception of the event to the negative behaviors, it is rather interesting how there has only been a few attempts to study alternative emotional responses and their links to different aggression situations. As one exception, Bowling and Herschovis (2017) investigated embarrassment as a self-conscious emotional response where the target

evaluates the mistreatment through the lens of others and feels loss of “face”. There have been increasing calls for investigating a wider range of emotions as key mediating factors between experienced aggression and its outcomes (Pacheco, Cunha, & Duarte, 2016) such as hurt, shock, annoyance, frustration, disappointment, confusion, discouragement, and fear. For example, a supervisor can intentionally show aggression in order to attain goals, and subordinates can show hurt and sadness in response. Sometimes a colleague criticizes another and the focal employee might become discouraged and hurt. None of these have been properly discussed or examined in the workplace aggression literature.

Another important but overlooked problem is that responses to aggression depend heavily on the specific conditions of the aggression incident and the underlying interpersonal and organizational relationships. Relationships (e.g. power and group dynamics, interconnections, relationship quality) and the organizational context including rules and procedures, human resource practices, leadership, and psychological climate are some of the primary drivers of any type of social interaction; yet most of the research on workplace aggression have neglected these aspects. To understand their role, a shift of focus is needed towards the interaction between perpetrator and target instead of studying their separate individual characteristics. This idea is also supported by Bowling and Beehr (2006) in their meta-analytic study where they found that individual differences such as dispositional and demographic characteristics have little impact on whether an employee is mistreated or harassed as compared to environmental and social relationship antecedents. Only a small number of recent studies, particularly in the area of abusive supervision have started to look into the role of relational and general social context.

1.2. Study Purpose and Research Questions

In the light of the research problem in the literature as described and discussed above, the purpose of this current study is to provide a comprehensive model of workplace aggression by identifying different aggression event profiles and to explain how these profiles will bring about significant work-related outcomes through emotion-based processes under specific relationship contexts. In achieving this objective, my study will bring relational aspects of workplace aggression into the picture. Hence it intends to understand the emotional and relational mechanisms of the impact of experienced aggression on work-related (e.g. work withdrawal, work efforts

and work engagement) and interpersonal (e.g. courtesy and altruism) outcomes. So far, there has been no research matching the initiator of the aggression with the respective foci and measuring employee satisfaction towards job, supervisor and co-workers in an integrated way. Hence, this study also aims to examine how employee satisfaction towards separate targets change when the aggression behavior comes from different sources including supervisor and co-worker. It is important to understand how work and interpersonal attitudes differ when the perpetrator and key aggression event attributes change. This requires a specification of work and interpersonal outcomes with respect to specific aggression attributes and aggressor types. Thus, for the first time this study will enable building a one-to-one match between specific aggression profiles and employee outcomes through the mediation of alternative emotional paths.

In light of the above, this study seeks to find answers to four key research questions:

- *What are the different workplace aggression profiles based on key aggression event dimensions such as perpetrator identity, perceived severity, intention, visibility and witness presence?*
- *What is the relationship between these workplace aggression profiles and important work and interpersonal outcomes for the employee?*
- *What particular emotions do play a mediating role between different aggression profiles and employee outcomes?*
- *What are the effects of social comparisons and identifications on these relationships as moderating factors?*

1.3. Contributions of the Study

Considering the above questions and drawing on recent theoretical discussions, this study aims to theoretically contribute to the literature in a number of ways. First, my study will provide a comprehensive view of diverse aggression event profiles based on the listed factors in a single study. I will conduct a cluster analysis and test whether these profiles lead to distinct emotional responses. In order to do that, I collected workplace aggression data from employees of 14 Pakistani universities. Our study will be the first to provide a comprehensive view of diverse workplace aggression profiles established on all aforementioned dimensions.

Second, it will uncover the diverse set of emotional reactions possibly originating from these different aggression profiles. The study will explain whether

dissimilar emotional reactions are triggered by different aggression profiles particularly their role in social relations. However, empirical tests towards understanding how unique types of emotions are associated with workplace aggression are still quite rare. Third, my study will reveal how particular social/relational factors might buffer or increase the negative emotional responses. The focus of my study is to determine these social and relational influences when it comes from different sources such as supervisor or co-worker. I will consider significant behavior outcomes and their key dimensions (work engagement, work withdrawal, job satisfaction, altruism and courtesy) and determine when and how they emerge as a behavioral response to certain aggression experiences. The behavioral outcomes will be examined at both individual and organizational level.

The study will also contribute to the workplace aggression research and practice by providing suggestions to managers, policy makers and leaders. It will help organizations and their leaders to better understand what is actually happening in workplace aggression situations and how its negative effects can be decreased. It can provide practitioners and managers better knowledge about the dynamics and relational mechanisms of workplace aggression incidents regarding when and how they can develop. As a result, they can find ways to prevent them or reduce their effects on the organization. It may also encourage positive changes in manager and supervisor attitudes and development of new policies and practices to avoid negative employee outcomes as well as to increase motivation, well-being and performance.

Finally, this study has a methodological contribution: It utilized two distinct methodology, critical incident technique and diary survey, because as per the literature (Herschovis, 2011; Bowling and Herschovis, 2017) these two methods are relevant and appropriate for analyzing workplace aggression events, yet rarely utilized until today. These two methods will be used together for the first time to understand workplace aggression. Specifically, critical incident technique will help discover and understand major workplace aggression attributes in a qualitative way. This technique will also provide in-depth knowledge on alternative emotional reactions and behaviors which employees may develop when they experience aggression in the workplace. On the other hand, the diary survey which involved collecting quantitative data in a sequential way, will contribute to the examination of the causal relationship between the identified workplace aggression profiles and outcome behaviors through corresponding emotions and relational factors.

1.4. Organization of the Dissertation

The outline of this thesis is as follows: Chapter 2 will present a theoretical discussion on the issues around the gaps in the literature and the stated research questions. The chapter will reflect a comprehensive description of workplace aggression, comparison of the different aggression sources and types, and the key attributes of workplace aggression events. The role of emotional responses in organizations, types of different emotions and the role of emotions in workplace aggression will also be discussed. Furthermore, this chapter will focus on social identity with supervisor and co-workers as well as social comparisons in organizations as the moderating variables. Afterwards, I will present and explain my research model and hypotheses. Chapter 3 will discuss the organizational setting, sample characteristics, data collection methods, variables of my study, and data analysis procedures through which the study model will be empirically tested. Chapter 4 will explain the empirical results and relationship among the variables of my study as the outcome of several data analyses conducted. In this section, I will present the reliability and validity of the adopted scales, cluster analysis results for identifying the aggression profiles, descriptive statistics and structural equation modeling findings. Which study hypotheses are supported or not supported will be provided based on these findings? Chapter 5 will deliver an in-depth discussion of the study results and overall conclusion of the thesis. This chapter will also reflect several theoretical implications and future research directions based on study findings and limitations.

CHAPTER 2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Workplace Aggression (WA)

There are various definitions on the causes and effects of workplace aggression is available the current study mainly focus on most common one“Any behavior initiated by employees that is intended to harm another individual in their organization or the organization itself and that the target is motivated to avoid; sometimes differentiated from workplace violence in its emphasis on psychological aggression “is considered the aggression at workplace (Herschovis et al., 2007, p. 27). Different constructs have been introduced in the previous studies under the concept of workplace aggression such as workplace incivility, bullying, social underpinning, and work deviance (Hershcovis, 2011). The nature of the workplace aggression is largely based on the typology argued by Bass (1961) maybe appreciated by physical as opposed to verbal and active activity as opposed to passive activity as well as direct and indirect actions. Although Physical aggression is easily recognized as in the examples of killing, abusive language, slamming doors, throwing objects, punching someone, and etc. (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). On the other hand, verbal aggression refers to lower level and covertly inflicted harm through words such as yelling, shouting, unfair treatment, negative gossips (Neuman and Baron, 2005). While active aggression refers to actions that are observed to be proactive such as hostile and extreme levels of aggression, passive acts of aggression include actions such as instrumental types of aggression (Hershcovis & Reich, 2013). Indirect aggression is usually defined as an employee’s utilization of other people and social networks (indirect modes) in order to harm another employee, such as gossiping, making a prank, and spreading rumors (Sprung, Sliter, & Jex, 2012). Finally, direct aggression describes a face-to-face confrontation between victim and perpetrator, delivering harm in a direct mode such as shouting, insulting, pushing, hitting, and etc. (Samnani & Singh, 2016).

These earlier depictions eventually opened the way for more advanced conceptualizations and systematic understandings of the phenomenon (Keashly & Jagatic, 2011). This interest is very much linked with the fact that aggression has become a part of organizational life, initiated not only by supervisors or managers who are positioned at the higher levels of hierarchy but all employees as well as customers (Hauge, Einarsen, et al., 2011). Another argument prevalent in the literature reflect workplace aggression is becoming just like a trend in which employees feel more

comfortable to express their participation in terms of social or undesirable activities in the setting of an organization (Dionisi, Barling, & Dupré, 2012). An estimate indicates that 50 to 75% employees participate in various forms of aggression at workplace (Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2010). However, more recent studies indicate that 90% of the employees confess their confrontation in some type of aggression at work (Dupré, Dawe, & Barling, 2014). Nevertheless, few studies have highlighted the different antecedents or enforcers behind these stressors (Dupré et al., 2014). A study indicate that the increase in globalization, changing work patterns, competition among employee, and new downsizing trends become a strong reason behind such misconduct (Ferris, Yan, Lim, Chen, & Fatimah, 2016). In short, the workplace aggression remains a chronic and unavoidable challenge for the companies and they are paying high costs in terms of increased turnover, dissatisfaction of employee, lower work efforts in order to control the aggressive situations that are harmful for both organizations, and individuals (Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2011). Hence, to enhance the work life quality and the wellbeing of employees, it is essential to identify and control the growing level of workplace aggression.

2.1.1. Notion of Workplace Aggression

Workplace aggression is focused and gained importance since the last two decades in the literature of organization psychology, under the general umbrella of violence. The argument that Workplace aggression as a general construct represents a variety of concepts from the perspective of target, including workplace incivility (Smith, Andrusyszyn, & Spence Laschinger, 2010), social undermining (Hershcovis, 2011), abusive supervision (Martinko, Harvey, Brees, & Mackey, 2013), bullying (Nasir, 2018), mobbing (Branch, Ramsay, & Barker, 2013), victimization (Bowling, Beehr, Bennett, & Watson, 2010), emotional abuse (Cho et al., 2011), and interpersonal conflict (Ståle Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2011). Even though these constructs are conceptually differentiated, scholars are increasingly pointing to an overlap among them (Tepper & Henle, 2011). Across all sorts of aggression, an important distinction should be made though: It can be argued that the fierce activities are violent while not all hostile actions are intensive or necessarily as harmful as violence (Liu, Chen, Chen, & Sheu, 2011). Barling, Dupré, and Kelloway (2009) confirmed this claim and indicated that workplace aggression and workplace violence

are distinct concepts. While workplace violence is solely associated with physical harm such as threat of physical activities, workplace aggression is also strongly connected with psychological harm perpetrated on an individual such as verbal psychological abuse (Dupré et al., 2014). One can claim that workplace aggression entails all deliberate acts of harming to an employee within a firm through both psychological and physical means (Ståle Einarsen et al., 2011).

As an alternative conceptualization, Robinson and Bennett (1995) presented a classification of hostile behaviors reflecting the characteristics in the form of severity (high versus low) and *target* (organizational versus interpersonal).

Severity discusses to the degree of ferocity felt by the victim reflects WA (Demir & Rodwell, 2012). Sometimes aggression strength is very high (e.g., yelling, punching) that the target immediately recognizes it as harmful (Shinta, Rohyati, Widiantoro, & Handayani, 2016). Some scholars (Deery, Walsh, & Guest, 2011) make a distinction between high-intensity (e.g. violence), and low-intensity (e.g. psychological aggression) forms of aggression. Still, others examine only psychological forms of it (St-Pierre & Holmes, 2010).

Interpersonal aggression describes the aggressive acts towards a particular employee within a firm (gossip, or yelling), while organizational aggression donates to aggression with an aim to damage the firm (i.e., taking long breaks, damaging official equipment).

2.1.2. Theories for Understanding WA

A range of theories, discussions and arguments in the literature of WA are playing significant role and ranges from classical to environmental, and psychological to cognitive such as justice theory (Wood, Braeken, & Niven, 2013), reactance theory (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010), frustration aggression theory (Taylor & Kluemper, 2012), aggression theory (Bandura, 1978), and social information processing theory (Dykas & Cassidy, 2011).

Justice Theory. It refers to the injustice feelings among the co-workers which results in aggressive behaviors of an employee at workplace. The theory was introduced by John Rawls in 1971 and reflects the behaviors of employees which occur as a result of workplace unfairness. Employees examine their supervisor's treatment with other co-workers and notice all kind of similarities and dissimilarities

in the pattern of salaries, rewards system with their co-workers. If they find any kind of dissimilarity, it will lead them to involve in harming employees or their organization (Markovsky, 1985), it is suggested particularly when they cannot understand the reason behind unfairness (Cohen, 1987). Examinations on justice (McCold & Wachtel, 2003) and on stressor actions (Eatough, Chang, Miloslavic, & Johnson, 2011) indicate that injustice became a key source of deviant workplace behavior.

Employees perceptions at workplace about the procedural and distributive injustice usually influences the working patterns that they follow (Vermunt & Törnblom, 2016). Previous literature has argued that the employee's perceptions about fairness at organizational level may induce or reduce the workplace aggression (Ferris et al., 2016). On the basis of retaliation, once the individual seems to feel injustice he is inclined to aggressive activities (Malik, Schat, Shahzad, Raziq, & Faiz, 2018). Consequently, feeling of injustice among the employees arouse deviant behaviors at workplace i.e. disruption (Hassard, Teoh, Visockaite, Dewe, & Cox, 2018), theft (Knežević, Delić, & Jurčević, 2016), and retaliation (Riquelme, Román, Cuestas, & Iacobucci, 2019).

Moreover, the previous studies state that the unfairness either in the form of procedural or interactional induces the deviant behaviors at work (Harvey, Martinko, & Borkowski, 2017). In the same manner, the interactions among the employees in which an employee's seems to provide information regarding the other officials may report it in a way that it may induce the revengeful behaviors among the listeners (Pletzer, Voelpel, & Van Lange, 2018). Due to the feeling of injustice employees do not perform the tasks the way they should be performed and this somewhat disturbs the social norms at work.

Reactance Theory. It was argued by Jack Brehm and later developed by Brehm, 1961. It reflects the negative behaviors of an individual which happen in result of interpersonal stressors and connects with the freedom of routine work life of an employee. Liberty of behavior is an essential part of human life. People make choices about actions they will take, and when, where, and how they will take them. While behavior adoptions are sometimes forced, people usually perceive personal freedom in choosing their behaviors. Freedom to choose when and how to react may endorse well-being. With suitable autonomy, one can select the set of actions that reduce the need satisfaction (Mühlberger & Jonas, 2019).

The emerging and opposite reaction of an employee happens in result of eliminate of their freedom (Wright, 2016). When, employees face lack of autonomy in decision making process, they start to get involve in deviant behaviors at workplace. When the autonomy of an employee is less, people become troubled. This can direct them to the particular set of actions or communication which they utilize to deal with the problems one faces and efforts to avoid extra loss of freedoms. This situation produces an increased wish and frequent efforts to involve in the needed behavior (S. Kim & So, 2018). As per the reactance theory, the unnecessary restrictions and low independence at work make the employee frustrated (Bessarabova, Turner, Fink, & Blustein, 2015).

The theory stresses on few empathies with the informal idea of “reverse psychology,” which is founded on the concept that telling people that they may not do something makes they want to do it more. Further, the theory directs the arguments toward towards three key results, any or all of which may happen in a given occurrence. The instant circumstance is, of course, that someone has misplaced a particular freedom: An option has been detached. One response is to wish the misplaced option all the more so that it is perceived as eye-catching as compare it was when it was apparently accessible. The next response is to restate freedom by trying to perform the prohibited set of activities (or to claim it indirectly). The last type of response is to attack or behave aggressively toward the person who took away the anticipated choice (Bessarabova et al., 2015)

Social Information Processing Theory. It claims that employees perform their daily social activities by adopting and following the arrogances, views, and manners to make sense of the complicated settings’ (Farrer & Gavin, 2009). Social emotion theory reflects the mental ability, and behavioral consequences of an employee which happens during the social interactions (Ramirez Jr & Walther, 2015). The theory was introduced for the first time by Josepwalter in 1992. In an organization, employees observe social signs or Jargon; for example, interpersonal communication and activities like leader’s behavior and exchanges with peers to create norms.

The theory explains the emergence of stressful environments for example the coworkers who have observer and felt stress to sense it by sharing it with colleagues and then draw common inferences regarding undesirable actions, consequently generating an environment where the prevalence of workplace aggression seems

normal (Bryant & Ramirez Jr, 2017). Social cognitive information process is envisioned as it helps as an empirical social behavior may be unspoken as the different forms of societal reasoning. The research has demonstrated the analytical usefulness of societal reasoning process with respect to disruptive behaviors (hostility, fierceness, misbehavior).

The reformulated model of social cognitive information process suggests that the social incentive in which one is well aware about how to respond to a situation (Trepte & Loy, 2017). There are the five steps of social cognitive model. In the first step the employee attends to the stimulus. In the second step the employee decides what his interpretation about the stimulus is. Thirdly, the employee being respondent clarifies himself about his goals attached to that specific stimulus. Fourthly, the employee decides how much choices or alternatives he has with him. Finally, the reactions are being assessed by the respondent i.e. how to respond to stimulus. This is a quick reformulation process in which the social information is being processed and for this whole step wise procedure a strong theoretical support is available in literature (Bryant & Ramirez Jr, 2017).

Frustration Model and Frustration Stress Theory. It has been established by Spector and colleagues (Baillien, Neyens, De Witte, & De Cuyper, 2009). This model has its origins in the classic frustration aggression theory (Fox & Spector, 1999). It emphasizes the interaction of affective and behavioral responses to certain types of work states. Frustration stressor model defines a framework in which employee frustration level increases in response to aggressive actions. The theory suggests that frustration environment basis an employee to make a reasonable evaluation to understand that the frustration disturbs or affects an individual's goals (Furnham & Walsh, 1991). As per the theory, the frustrated person tends to experience workplace aggression only when goal line intrusion is apparently clear.

Frustration stress theory describes the perceptive, sensitive, and arousal circumstances which can be used to decide that a co-worker may be involved in hostility ensuing a destructive workplace event or not (Vander Elst, Van den Broeck, De Witte, & De Cuyper, 2012). Though, destructive events such as workplace aggressors or desecration of rules have influence on an employee perception, distress, and state of arousal; for instance, in the form of hostile thoughts, feelings of anger, and

physical stimulation in reaction to the problematic incidence. Through these actions, individuals pursue the sensible decisions by evaluating the reasons of the unpleasant activities at work. Lastly, employees control the suitable reply to the actions by measuring what is complete and what needs to be done more. This cover considering the significance of their actions, substitute activities, and other situational information.

2.1.3. Types of WA

The construct of WA is viewed in the notion of interpersonal deviance and donated by a range of labels including incivility (LeBlanc & Barling, 2004), abusive supervision (Hershcovis et al., 2007), bullying (Neuman & Baron, 2005), social undermining interpersonal behavior (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002), interpersonal conflict (Spector & Jex, 1998), emotional, verbal and psychological exploitation (Ståle Einarsen, 1999), workplace aggravation (Bowling & Beehr, 2006), oppression (Aquino, Grover, Bradfield and Allen, 1999), interpersonal deviance (Ilies, Johnson, Judge, & Keeney, 2011), bullying (Bowling & Beehr, 2006), and mobbing (Leymann, 1996). As these examples indicate, scholars have theorized and introduced numerous types of WA (Zapf, 1999). Yet among all, the most established and frequently used constructs of workplace aggression are commonly seen incidents of aggression in the working environment are bullying, abusive supervision, incivility, social undermining, and interpersonal conflict (Spector & Jex, 1998), and therefore, they demand particular inspection.

Abusive Supervision

Scholars have an increasing interest in the role of abusive supervision which reflects a dark side of supervision for both individuals and organizations (Tepper, 2000). The argument was first introduced in 1996 by Hornsten, and it functions as a single source of aggression out of a rupture between supervisor and coworker at workplace (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Abusive supervision refers to both direct and indirect aggressive activities from the supervisor, particularly without involving any physical harm (Tepper, 2007). The prevalence of the abusive supervision is more common in collectivist cultures where employees feel unequal distribution of authority in an organization.

Abusive supervision gives significant damage to the firm, with the cost (e.g. high turnover, increasing health issues, less work effort) projected around \$23.8 billion

annually (Tepper, 2007). Overall, abusive supervision manifests itself in many ways i.e. teasing behavior, giving quiet behavior, condemnation in front of people, psychological pressure, concealing important information, breach work based promises, and using negative words (Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008). It has both direct and indirect effects and brings negative outcomes for an employee (Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2009). For example, it increases the level of stress, reduces work satisfaction and effort, and brings about workplace deviance among employees (Mackey, Frieder, Brees, & Martinko, 2017). The direct response refers to face-to-face confrontation and occur in the official settings (Martinko, Harvey, Sikora, & Douglas, 2011). However, indirect responses happen outside the office such as in family gatherings or in friend among circles (Tepper, Moss, & Duffy, 2011). The indirect kind of aggression helps to heal the feelings of coworkers lacking to risk their work or more upsetting through the behaviors of the boss (Mackey et al., 2017).

Abusive supervision indicates subordinates' level of observation about supervisor's participation in the hostile nonverbal and verbal set of actions, apart from physical interaction. This description refers to the rude supervision as an individual evaluation. The same employee could have the opinion a supervisor actions as an abusive in one setting and as no abusive in another context, and two subordinates could differ in their assessments about the same supervisor's action (Tepper et al., 2011). Further, the literature has shown that an abusive supervision has reflected the different type of consequences for both organization and individuals. At individual level, there are outcomes such as job dissatisfaction, increased distress, and psychological distress. On the other hand, at organizational level the outcomes include job performance, organization citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior, and organizational commitment. Therefore in the literature it is asserted that abuse by supervisors is a symptom of aggression in the workplace.

Bullying in the Workplace

Workplace bullying is an important type of workplace aggression that has drawn significant attention of scholars in the last 30 years. Most victims of bullying avoid complaining about it due to the following confrontations, consequences, and all other difficulties associated to it (Rayner, 1997). Bullying refers to the situations where one or more individuals repeatedly go through some negative acts over a period of time, including physical harm (Hoel & Salin, 2002). Based on this definition, scholars

describe bullying as a highly frequent behavior in the workplace, which is reciprocal in nature (Hoel, Rayner, & Cooper, 1999).

The construct is critical in nature and often works within the framework of pre-set policies and regulations of an organization (Ayoko, Callan, & Härtel, 2003). The noticeable reasons of bullying are duplication, incidence with high intensity, long duration conflict, power disparity, and attributed intent (Hollis, 2016; Khan, Sabri, & Nasir, 2016). Each set of characteristics is harmful for the victim in different ways such as destroying personal image, reducing performance through different unappropriated actions, not sharing the feedback about the ability with co-workers (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011). These negative activities prepare the victim to create disturbance in the social circumstances of the perpetrator, and even prepare him or her to take revenge through physical activities. According to an estimate, 8% of employees confess that they have encountered at least one act of bullying each week. Research has shown that workplace bullying is both consistent and often part of the nature of the organization (Grubb, Roberts, Grosch, & Brightwell, 2004). Such discoveries related to bullying lead to more realistic estimates vary from 10%-20% in more recent studies (Grubb et al., 2004; Hassard et al., 2018; Hogh et al., 2019).

Overall, the literature highlights three common factors behind bullying: 1) grouping in the organizations which creates one or both sided impediment and frustration for the target, 2) the disparities of authority among the groups in the workplace where the enforcer teases, abuses or socially isolates the target, who perceives less choice to retaliate, 3) an increase in situations where conflict may arise are often instigated by someone who habitually targets individuals in a negative manner and is fueled by extreme negative emotions (Hogh et al., 2019). Studies on workplace bullying have examined its influence on different outcomes, for example turnover intention, employee absenteeism, performance, and job satisfaction (Patrick, 2018). The employee who are becoming the victims of bullying usually experience a loss of power and control within the workplace, and as a consequence are likely to become increasingly unhappy and demotivated in many areas of their employment.

Social Undermining

Social undermining is a broader construct that considers theoretically different but operationally similar types of aggression (Duffy et al., 2002) as compared to the other workplace aggression types (Crossley, 2009). The theory was introduced by Vinokur and Van Ryn (1993) but the initial conceptualization was completed by Rock

(1984). He proposes that social relationships are the source of aggression as well as all the clashes and challenges that happen between the members in an organization. A more recent definition suggests that social undermining refers to the actions intended to hide the evaluations of an employee in order to stop him or her from attaining positive work associations and achievements such as hiding information, taking acknowledgment against others' efforts (Crossley, 2009). In contrast to the other types of stressors, the prevalence of the aggression is less. For example, compared to harassment, abusive supervision, and bullying, social undermining is low in intensity, it does not happen suddenly and it is not even easily noticeable (Hershcovis, 2011).

Relatively less effort is present in the literature to understand the antecedents of social undermining (Crossley, 2009). A few recent studies demonstrate that its occurrence is more likely when people have an (Crossley, 2009) e-dimensional win-loss approach, accompanied with a desire to make others unsuccessful (Duffy et al., 2002). A single aspect approach is usually associated with the expectations of groups of employees with a wide range of status levels where rewards variance is evident, also the employees expectation of status is not fixed but based on their advantage and disadvantage related to their position (Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Eissa, 2012).

Social undermining greatly depends on its source which can be a co-worker or a supervisor, leading to the emergence of negative outcomes for the employee (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2006) such as active and passive counterproductive work behaviors, reduced organizational commitment, and somatic complaints. Research has shown that undermining behavior which has a co-worker as its source can be seen as less threatening by the target. In contrast such behavior from a supervisor is viewed as more distressing.

Interpersonal Conflict

Interpersonal conflict is considered an important and inevitable type of stressor in the field of organizational behavior (Schieman & Reid, 2008). According to an estimate, almost 10% of employees are confronting it (Hoel & Giga, 2006). The strength of aggression as a result of interpersonal conflict varies from low to high according to the type of conflict, from spreading rumors to physical assault. According to another definition, four sets of activities classify or confirm the prevalence of interpersonal conflict including disagreement, lack of autonomy, negative feelings, and intervention. Disagreement indicates a situation where employees have different opinions on a task. The second situation occurs when one employee depends on others

for the completion of a task. The third one is the negative feelings that arise as a consequence of a conflict. The last one entails the interference of others in the decision-making process (Leon-Perez, Medina, Arenas, & Munduate, 2015).

Various types of interpersonal conflicts are noticeable across and within organizations. Most interpersonal conflicts include petty tyranny and gossip without the involvement of any physical attacks (Calabrese, 2000). It is proposed that interpersonal conflicts at work usually entails the covert behaviors that are indirect and less noticeable than direct confrontation (Hershcovis et al., 2007). Although in some cases interpersonal conflict situations can foster creativity, generally they have negative consequences for both organization and individuals. An interpersonal conflict is connected with a range of individual consequences such as depression, frustration and fatigue (Hershcovis et al., 2007). Study findings reveal that organizational level outcomes comprise intention to quit, lower job performance and commitment, absenteeism, and counterproductive work behavior (CWB). Research indicates that at the level within an organization results such as resignation, decreased job performance and lack of commitment, absenteeism and counterproductive work behavior (CWB) result (Ayoko et al., 2003), antisocial behaviors (Salin, 2003), and interpersonal aggression (Salin, 2009). Its outcomes also entail lack of job satisfaction and negative health states such as depression and anxiety.

Incivility

Recently, one of the most prominent types of interpersonal stressor under research is workplace incivility (Schilpzand, De Pater, & Erez, 2016). Incivility or disrespectful behavior in the working environment indicates low intensity negative behavior including being rude or impolite, speaking to a colleague in a condescending manner, discourteous attitudes, lack of regard for others (Rahim & Cosby, 2016). In simple words, workplace incivility is a type of disruptive behavior where the involvement of an employee in an uncivil behavior may not necessarily be harmful. Incivility has been considered as a low level of apparently negative behavior with doubtful intention (Loh & Loi, 2018).

The nature of workplace incivility is not easy to detect as the intention to harm in it is ambiguous. It mostly comes from the supervisor or from a person who has higher authority. Employees generally use uncivil manners as a way to harm the organization, and benefit themselves. They may also engage in such conduct

unconsciously. For instance, when a person makes a rude joke about another colleague, he or she may be doing so too intentionally to humiliate the colleague in order to show dissatisfaction with the work unit or the organization. The results of a survey show the prevalence of workplace incivility around 89% among all employees and considers it a critical problem at workplace (Loh & Loi, 2018).

Workplace incivility is connected with negative outcomes at both individual and organizational level such as decrease in productivity, job satisfaction and work performance, lower organizational commitment and lower self-rated health issues (Rahim & Cosby, 2016). Studies indicate both positive and negative associations between workplace incivility and its outcomes. The implication of workplace incivility has negative associations with job satisfaction and organizational performance (Hershcovis, Ogunfowora, Reich, & Christie, 2017). It is argued that employees who experience incivility might have higher intentions to leave the organization.

As a summary, Table 1 describes the five types of workplace aggression extensively in terms of their definitions, key characteristics, measurements, and specific examples.

Table 1. Workplace Aggression Constructs in the Literature

Type of workplace aggression	Characteristics	Measurement	Direct/ Indirect	Physical/ Verbal	Source	Example
Abusive Supervision (Tepper, 2000): “The employees’ perception of confronting sustained aggressive behavior from supervisor.”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sustained behavior • Level of aggression differ on the basis of source • Intentional Excluded physical behavior (Tepper, 2000) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 15 items (Tepper, 2000) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verbal (Tepper, 2000; Aquino & Thau, 2009) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supervisor 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using derogatory names • Engaging in explosive outbursts • Intimidating by threats of job loss • Withholding information • Aggressive eye contact • Silent treatment <p>Humiliating in front of others (Zellars et al., 2002)</p>
Workplace Bullying (Smith et al., 1999): “The aggressive behaviors faced by an individual repeatedly due to power imbalance, over a period of time.”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Repeated over a period • Sustained behavior • Power Imbalance (Einarsen, 2000) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 22 items (Einarsen, Hoel & Notelaers, 2009) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both (Einarsen, 2000) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coworker • Supervisor • Subordinate (Einarsen, 2000) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sexual harassment • Name calling • Scapegoating • Physical abuse • Work pressure (Einarsen, 2000)

Table 1. (Cont.) Workplace Aggression Constructs in the Literature

Type of workplace aggression	Characteristics	Measurement	Direct/ Indirect	Physical/ Verbal	Source	Example
Social Undermining (Duffy et al., 2002): “The actions intend to destroy an individual’s interpersonal relationship, reputation and work associated”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intentional • Insidious • Interference in social relations (Duffy et al., 2002) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 26 items (Duffy, Ganster & Pagon, 2002) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both (Duffy et al., 2002) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both (Duffy et al., 2002) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supervisor • Coworker 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Withholding information • Refuse to provide resources (Duffy et al., 2002)
Interpersonal Conflict (Hartwick & Barki, 2002): “The situation where a person / group interfere with other persons’ effort to	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intention to capture overt or covert behavior • Range minor to major (Spector and Jex, 1998) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 items (Spector & Jex, 1998) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indirect (Neuman & Baron, 2015) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verbal (Neuman & Baron, 2015) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coworker (Neuman & Baron, 2015) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being rude • Nasty things at work • Confrontation of yelling behavior
Incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999): “The intentional/unintentional behavior of employees that violate the norms of respect for each other at workplace.”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ambiguous intent • Low intensity • Non physical • Norm violation (Cortina & Magley, 2009) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 7 items (Cortina, Magley, Williams & Langhout, 2001) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indirect (Andersson & Pearson, 1999) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verbal (Andersson & Pearson, 1999) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supervisor • Coworker 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interruption • Using condescending tone • Unprofessional terms of address • Giving silent treatment (Cortina & Magley, 2009)

2.1.4. Key Attributes of Workplace Aggression

The concept of workplace aggression involves different behaviors with the perpetrator's intention to harm the victim and all these harmful behaviors come under the general construct of workplace aggression (Lim, Ilies, Koopman, Christoforou, & Arvey, 2018). Recently, a number of studies have started to debate specific characteristics of workplace aggression (Lim et al., 2018). These attributes of aggression are considered to have an important role in order to understand the similarities and dissimilarities among different aggressive behaviors in the workplace. Most noticeable attributes exemplified in the literature that trigger an aggression incident at work are the particular behaviors involved, perceived intensity, perceived intent (blame attribution), identity of perpetrator, perceived visibility, witness presence, and duration (Welbourne & Sariol, 2017). Recently, it is increasingly acknowledged that these observable attributes of workplace aggression behavior have been ignored and not properly examined in the literature (Lim & Lee, 2011; Welbourne & Sariol, 2017). Although a number of models have been suggested to address such aggression elements (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001), until today no study has explored them in a comprehensive manner theoretically or empirically. In the light of these recent calls, I argue that it is essential to pay careful and systematic attention to determine the influence regarding how and when aggression leads to an array of diverse responses and outcomes.

Perceived Intention

The first attribute of aggressive behavior is intention. The idea has been adapted from Neuman and Baron's (1997) definition of workplace aggression. It indicates an intention or motivation cause harm through the acts of aggression. Intention is an important factor and is normally connected with retaliation (Ajzen & Madden, 1986). The consequences of intention are apparent, suggesting that if a victim perceived a clear intention to damage on the part of the offender, then the chances of taking part in some kind of retaliation behavior is higher. A low level of apparently negative behavior with doubtful intention.

The conceptualization of the five workplace aggression types as previously identified indicates that in some cases it is clearly noticeable and, in some cases, it needs to be identified. While in social undermining the intention is clear (Blodgett, Granbois, & Walters, 1993), in incivility the intention is uncertain (Greenberg &

Barling, 1999). While the intent is predictable but not clearly specified in bullying (Waldman, 1996); the intent in abusive supervision may be indirect in certain appearances (Todorov & Bargh, 2002). Remarkably, the construct of interpersonal conflict is absent in the discussion of intention since interpersonal Conflict is indicated and revealed by disagreement between two or more people (Greenberg & Barling, 1999). There can be difficulties in assessing the intentions behind interpersonal conflict.

Perceived Intensity

Perceived intensity is one of the characteristics of workplace aggression. It denotes victim's opinion about the degree of severity in the expression of aggressive behavior by the enforcer (Greenberg & Barling, 1999). The level of intensity varies among the five types of workplace aggression. In the case of abusive supervision, it shows continuous and intensive behavior of an employee (Todorov & Bargh, 2002). The idea entails an increasing impact on the target, which becomes more intense with each aggressive incidence. In case of incivility, the victim perceives low or unclear levels of severity. Again, the level of intensity increases gradually during workplace incivility (Dodge & Tomlin, 1987). Alternatively, social undermining is known by its long duration and the collective effect on the victim (Dodge & Tomlin, 1987). Bullying involves high level of severity with sudden intensity (Deery et al., 2011). There has been a common assumption in the literature which argues that when employees are confronted with aggressive behaviors with high intensity, then the strain-based challenged by intense aggressive behaviors then the tension based results which are experienced are often more serious and result in both an immediate and a longer lasting effect on both individuals and organizations. immediate and lasting impact on the individual and organization (Todorov & Bargh, 2002).

Frequency

The third characteristic of workplace aggression entails the frequency of an aggressive behavior; the rate at which it occurs over a particular period of time. Frequency is not simply noticeable or understandable (Greenberg & Barling, 1999).. The most frequent aggression behavior is incivility as compared to the other types of aggression, particular as opposed to high intensity aggression behaviors such as bullying. While the frequency is not easily apparent in the other four types of aggression such as abusive supervision, social undermining, incivility, and

interpersonal conflict, each is characterized by behaviors that do not occur in isolation. Instead, these constructs are repeated and sustained over particular periods. Frequency is the least studied characteristic in the literature with respect to aggressive behaviors (Hershcovis & Barling, 2007).

Perceived Visibility

The fourth dimension of workplace aggression is perceiving visibility and it refers to overt (active or passive) behaviors of a perpetrator (Hershcovis & Barling, 2007). In simple words, this characteristic indicates how apparent and easily noticeable an aggressive behavior is by the victim and other coworkers (Schat & Kelloway, 2000). The nature of the behavior can be covert and might not be easily detectable for the victim (Sprung et al., 2012). Nevertheless, the aggression event might happen in isolation as well as within a group setting. An aggression behavior can be manifested in different ways such as workplace bullying among employees. In other cases, it may come from one person but the victim might be more than one (Hershcovis & Barling, 2007). Hence the confirmation of the perceived visibility experienced by one or multiple targets depends on the particular form of stressor. In the case of abusive supervision, the supervisor usually targets a single employee but when it happens in a group setting, then multiple employees can become targets together (Hershcovis & Barling, 2007). Contrarily, interpersonal conflict entails both overt and covert types in large group settings, and the target can be both single and multiple (Spector and Jex, 1998). In the case of workplace incivility, it is hard to understand the aggressive behavior by the individuals but if something starts small and increases gradually, then it is perceived as aggression (Sprung et al., 2012). Finally, social undermining behaviors mostly happen within a social context (e.g. in the presence of a team) hence, it is easily noticeable by others (Schat & Kelloway, 2000)..

Type of Perpetrator

Workplace aggression literature has highlighted the different types of perpetrators or sources of workplace aggression and their possible diverse influence on the victim. The role of these perpetrators and particularly their degree of power is important and is likely to affect the type of aggression enacted. It is essential to know the particular source and victim of workplace aggression because the predictors and outcomes of aggression widely differ depending on the identity of the perpetrator and target. The noticeable examples of perpetrators examined in the literature include

supervisor, coworker, and clients or outsiders (Neuman & Baron, 2005). These sources may show aggression toward diverse type of targets such as (present or previous supervisor, colleagues, and coworkers). The intensity or degree of aggression behaviors may vary on the basis of their perpetrator (Jansen, Dassen, & Moorer, 1997), for example the level of aggression from a supervisor or a co-worker is high. On the other hand, the customer or outsider aggression usually have a weaker influence. Therefore, this study will largely focus on the two major sources; supervisor and coworkers and explain them in more depth.

Supervisors who treat subordinates unequally are considered a strong perpetrator of workplace aggression (Winstok, 2006). Aggression from supervisor reflects the use of formal positional authority within the organization (Winstok, 2006), which may adversely affect employee attitudes and behaviors (Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999). The authority level and position of a supervisor have control over the resources of an organization, promotions, job related tasks and the reward systems (Rupp and Cropanzano, 2002). Supervisor power itself may be a display of instrumental aggression, as supervisor may leverage displays of interpersonal hostility to encourage or penalize work performers. Literature reflect that supervisor as a perpetrator can affect an employee in different ways and may impact their self-efficacy, which is essential for an employee's responses. Additionally, negative incidence at workplace can influence an employee's emotional responses (Sprung et al., 2012). Therefore, hostile treatments from one's supervisor are likely to result in unfavorable actions such as negative affectivity, which is harmful for individual's prosocial behaviors (Williams & Blackwell, 2019).

An indication of this was provided in a study on supervisor and coworker connotation by Tepper, Moss, and Duffy (2011). The study highlighted the higher differences in supervisor and subordinate values and professional approach were connected with higher insights of conflict by the managers and lower ratings of coworkers' performance by the managers. As a consequence of supervisors, or colleague's mistreatment subordinates may react just like give and take association (Williams & Blackwell, 2019) reliable with norms of reciprocity. The mistreatment from supervisors can be more severe than simply being unfair, as some supervisor maybe use the abusive way to deal the subordinates (Wong, Kelloway, Godin, McKee, & McInnis, 2019). Further, literature demonstrate that aggression comes from supervisors yields higher association with outcomes such as intention to turnover,

psychological illness, as compare to the other perpetrators of aggression coworkers or client of the public.

The second important type of perpetrator in an organization is coworkers, those who work in the same or different level in an organization. Co-worker aggression indicate the power of social norms and the value of social relationships within the organization. The exclusion of a co-worker away from the group may create aggression (Wong et al., 2019). Co-workers who desire to be included within the employee group at an increased level often find themselves engaging in more interpersonal negative behaviors (Williams & Blackwell, 2019). A study finding reveals that clashes with colleagues are more strongly associated to coworker directed aggression and conflict with supervisors is more strongly related to supervisor led aggression (Jyoti & Rani, 2019). Coworkers may also reply violently to experienced mistreatment by other peers in order to exact revenge or to punish their coworker. Further, it is also noticeable that when the perpetrator of aggression is a coworker it influences the workplace aggression through a normative process. Further, it also increases the high levels of antisocial behavior among the employees as a perpetrator if members of their work group also engaged in high levels of antisocial behavior (Patterson, DeBaryshe, & Ramsey, 2017). Another study reveals that when the perpetrator is coworker their mistreatment can also influence employees' aggression through a sensitive or emotional process. Such as, in a multi analysis research of university employees, indicate that employees who were treated rude by their coworkers' perpetrator were more likely to engage in aggression, and this relationship between experienced coworker conflict and the performance of person directed counter work behavior is also mediated by negative emotions (Greene & Haidt, 2002).

The third type of perpetrator are clients or customers of an organization which have considerable power to influence an employee and organization. A study argues that customers often perpetrate aggressive behavior due to daily unfair dealing from the company (e.g., delay to provide the information, making a customer wait on hold for long time, deceitful to customers, conveying customers to the wrong department). Customers have neither formal power nor an employment link to the firm, therefore they do not directly impact the outcomes for an employee. Still, studies reflect that uncivil and unfair treatment from a customer can create negative emotions within the employee that may just trigger like fuel to fire. A multi- level study suggests that

employees target their incivility initially toward uncivil customers in form of direct revenge (Salin, 2003).

Employees usually do not blame the organization for outsider aggression (Brkic & Aleksic, 2016). While any deviant behavior is likely to produce some level of stress in victims, aggression from organizational outsiders produce less stress than aggression from insiders. As compare to insider, it is hard to have the control over outsiders as a perpetrator hence the outsider's behavior does not directly reflect an organization treatment of the employee (Hacker, 2018). Yet firms do make effort to keep control on their client's behaviors in different ways, such as, warning public through their posters or advertisements that workplace aggression or discrimination toward the employees will not bear and the firm will press for the severest possible punishment in these cases.

The belief of an employee about whether the perpetrator is an outsider or insider may also change based on specific organizational conditions. For instance, aggression towards the staff or disruption on railway networks committed by subcontractors would be considered more within the organization's control as compared to members of the public (Hacker, 2018). To sum up, the influence of customers as a perpetrator on employees is relatively weak and creates less emotional disturbance as compared to supervisor-based aggression (Boddy & Taplin, 2017).

Witness Presence

A witness is a person who is available at the place of aggression incidence as an observer such as a colleague, customer, supervisor, outsider or an employee from another department (Reich & Hershcovis, 2015). Witnesses can be either from inside or outside of the organization. If the witness is from outside of the organization, he or she might not be able to understand that the person is in distress. In contrast, if the witness is from the organization then they often know that perpetrator and they have the ability to understand the situation in depth. Yet, many studies claim that most witnesses do not have the ability to interfere or to help the victim (Otten, Mann, van Berkum, & Jonas, 2017). The level of failure to help the victim increases due to disperse set of responsibility, fear of afterwards consequences from their boss and the organization (Boddy & Taplin, 2017).

Witnesses to an aggression event mostly perceive the incidence from the perspective of the victim rather than the perpetrator (Reich & Hershcovis, 2015). In their judgement, they have negative feelings for the enforcer while positive ones for

victim. In workplace incivility, for instance, witness expresses anger and negative attitude toward the enforcer (Reich & Hershcovis, 2015). The findings show that in the case of social undermining the witness usually does not want to work with the perpetrator and have a negative relationship with them at work (Boddy & Taplin, 2017).

2.1.5. Antecedents of Workplace Aggression

The predictors of workplace aggression have an important role in organizational behavior literature. According to the arguments within the literature, antecedents of workplace aggression are mainly divided into two types of workplace aggression (Howard, Johnston, Wech, & Stout, 2016).

Individual Factors

Individual differences as perpetrator and victim characteristics can predict the likelihood of engaging in aggression including dispositional hostility (trait anger) (Meriläinen, Sinkkonen, Puhakka, & Käyhkö, 2016), type A personality (Lambe, Hamilton-Giachritsis, Garner, & Walker, 2018), attribution style (Abolfazl Vagharseyyedin, 2015), negative affectivity (Skarlicki et al., 1999), lack of self-control (Towler, 2004), history of enacting aggression (Lambe et al., 2018), positive attitudes toward revenge (Priesemuth & Schminke, 2019), substance or alcohol abuse (Greenberg and Barling, 1999), and propensity to engage in aggression (Di Marco, Hoel, Arenas, & Munduate, 2018).

Organizational Factors

Any interaction that creates the perceptions of unfair treatment or frustration may elicit unpleasant thoughts and feelings and lead to workplace aggression and called organizational predictors of workplace aggression. In a study regarding aggression at workplace, organizational factors are distinguished, for example Any relations that cause a perception of unfair treatment may bring about feelings of distress and uncomfortable thoughts and are known as organizational predictors of workplace aggressive behavior (Harold & Holtz, 2015). These include predictors that result from stressor conditions within the organization and include workplace injustice abusive supervision (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2016), organizational change (Bohle et al., 2017), poor leader-member exchange association (Sheppard & Aquino, 2017), role ambiguity and conflict, and organizational or group norms that sustain aggression

(Samnani & Singh, 2016). It has also been discussed that levels of violence in the larger society can predict workplace aggression (Francioli et al., 2018).

Situational Factors

Predictors of aggression that reflect employees' responses to their social context include perceptions of injustice (Ford, Myrden, & Kelloway, 2016), negative emotions (Howard et al., 2016), and being the target of workplace aggression earlier (Kluemper et al., 2018). Further, it has been found that work limits (Pouwelse, Mulder, & Mikkelsen, 2018), job insecurity (Bies, Barclay, Tripp, & Aquino, 2016), and role stressors (Branch, Ramsay, Shallcross, Hedges, & Barker, 2018) are related to enacted workplace aggression. Others are connected to aggressive situations in the workplace such as workload, role ambiguity and role conflict may lead to both experienced and enacted aggression (Agervold* & Mikkelsen, 2004; Di Marco et al., 2018; Schat & Kelloway, 2003).

2.1.6. Outcomes of Workplace Aggression

Researchers have shown that workplace aggression has been negatively associated with various outcomes (Greenberg & Barling, 1999). These outcomes have already been demonstrated in the models of workplace aggression such as negative employee well-being (Greenberg & Barling, 1999), lower work effort (Litzky, Eddleston, & Kidder, 2006), inferior physical health (Schat & Kelloway, 2003), lack of job satisfaction (Keashly, 1997), lower organizational commitment (Agervold* & Mikkelsen, 2004), and increase in turnover (Hoel & Salin, 2002).

Recent studies have been reflecting a wider and stronger appreciation toward counterproductive work behaviors as well as employee withdrawal including intention to quit, absenteeism, lower job engagement and reduced work effort (Schat & Kelloway, 2003). Counterproductive work behavior is an important organizational outcome which has gained importance in the literature in the last couple of decades. It refers to any unfair behavior, delinquency, deviance, retaliation, revenge, violence and misconduct that harms organizations and its stakeholders (Yagil, 2008). Generally this type of behavior takes place in two main categories which either target the organization such as types of theft or those targeting individuals such as physical or emotional abuse (Kernan, Racicot, & Fisher, 2016; Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001). Past studies indicate that CWB may provide a mechanism for coping with work stressors (Yagil,

2008). Hence, CWB potentially serves an adaptive function for employees who try to cope with interpersonal deviance experiences and remove the distress brought by them (Schat & Kelloway, 2003).

Over the years, various types of withdrawal behaviors such as intentions to quit, lateness, absence, and turnover have been identified, which represent specific examples of employee avoidance (Lutgen-Sandvik, Namie, & Namie, 2010). Hanish and Hulin (1991) proposed a difference between work and job. As the work withdrawal covers the avoidance to carry on work, lateness, absenteeism. Job withdrawal involves employee efforts (e.g. turnover intent, desire to retire) to leave their organization and work role. As the most important job withdrawal dimension, intention to quit includes the cognitive step of withdrawal measured as thinking of quitting; desirability of quitting; and likelihood of quitting one's current job (Pearson et al., 2001). Several studies highlight that there is clear association between experiencing workplace aggression and the intent to leave the organization (Pearson et al., 2001). Literature also supports that aggression from boss or managers has the high impact on turnover intention of coworkers, while, aggression from the peers also has a high association with the turnover intent as compare from organizational outsiders (Tuckey, Dollard, Hosking, & Winefield, 2009).

Besides more traditional manifestations of work withdrawal such as lateness and absenteeism, an employee can also reduce his or her work efforts. Work efforts refers the amount of attention that a person expands toward job tasks (Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006). It depicts the persistence, consistency, and intensity of individuals to completing tasks (Keashly et al., 2011). If an employee is facing aggression at workplace, his attention will be interrupted and he or she may start to provide less effort, lowering their input compared to those fellow employees (Keashly et al., 2011). Previous studies have reflected that workplace aggression incidents influence or foster the responses involving not completing the job (Tuckey et al., 2009). Furthermore, while aggression itself can directly decrease the effort of an employee, it is also possible that employees intentionally reduce work efforts as a result of negative outcomes (Keashly et al., 2011). Workplace aggression can also lead the employee to think about quitting their organization (Roscigno, Lopez, & Hodson, 2009).

Another work-related outcome of aggression at workplace is lack of organizational commitment. Affective commitment entails a pessimistic emotional identification with a firm that direct to increase increased connection with and

involvement in the organization on the part of the employee (Hoel, Sparks, & Cooper, 2001). Additionally, the other forms of commitment can also be disruptive due to workplace aggression.

Finally, job satisfaction decreases as a consequence of workplace aggression behaviors. The connection between exposure to the range of workplace aggression behaviors and job satisfaction has been confirmed through several meta-analyses (Roscigno et al., 2009). The finding of these studies reveal that the relationship is strongest when the aggression is perpetrated by a supervisor (Keashly et al., 2011). This outcome is predominantly connected with the organization effectiveness, as less job satisfaction can consequence in less job performance, work withdrawal, and turnover (Hoel et al., 2001).

2.1.7. Moderating Factors in Workplace Aggression

Prior literature has examined in detail the moderating role of different variables between workplace aggression, its predictors and consequences. These factors are examined in different settings, types, and research models of workplace aggression with reference to the individual, organizational, environmental, and relational factors including psychological environment (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004), self-control (Gini, 2006), perpetrator power (Hoel & Beale, 2006), task independence (Herschovis et al., 2012), organizational support (Schat and Kelloway, 2003), and organizational culture (Shao et al., 2013). These aforementioned moderators have played an essential role in the literature of workplace directly through management choices and practices in order to reduce the damaging influence of workplace aggression (Keashly et al., 2011).

Generally this type of behavior takes place in two main categories which either target the organization such as types of theft or those targeting individuals such as physical or emotional abuse (Lilius et al., 2008). In line with this is viewed as 'facet-specific' that is different work climates may exist for the various aspects of the organization. (e.g., safety climate, diversity climate) (Earley, 1997). Consistent with this perspective, a number of specific climate factors such as hostile climate (Mawritz et al. 2012), morally disengaged culture (Earley, 1997) team incivility climate (Brotheridge & Lee, 2007), violence prevention climate (Duffy et al., 2002), and climate for abuse (Hastings, 2002) have been proposed and discussed. While some recent research has focused on the effectiveness of workplace climate such as hostility tolerance, abuse, negative behaviors and violence which have an effect on co-operation

and collective efficiency (Brotheridge & Lee, 2007), to date there is very little empirical data that links the features of workplace aggression at an individual level.

Relational factors as well as the function of the workplace environment or related factors of aggression in the workplace has been underestimated to the much larger research on individual characteristics. There is an opinion that workplace aggression occurs within the context of interpersonal relationships or organizational relationships. Even though relationships (e.g., power and group dynamics, interconnections, relationship quality) and the organizational context (e.g., rules and procedures, human resources practices, leadership, psychological environment) are some primary drivers of any social interaction, most studies have failed to address these features of workplace aggression.

Personality traits increase the likelihood that an individual can be a victim of workplace aggression (Hastings, 2002). For example, the personality characteristic of conscientiousness appears to moderate the relationship between exposure to workplace aggression and its outcomes to the perpetrator of the violence (Hoel et al., 2001). Trait anger (Bond, Tuckey, & Dollard, 2010) can increase an employees vulnerability and increases the likelihood that an individual will feel like a victim when experiencing workplace aggression (Cooper, Hoel, & Faragher, 2004). These findings also align with affective event theory which claims that a personality trait may potentially determine the influence of a workplace incidence on a person's emotional and outcome behaviors (Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly, & Collins, 1998).

Other findings reveal that victim precipitation utilizing the negative affectivity, that holds the momentary experience of distressing reactions like annoyance, aggression, grief, and fear (Nielsen, Glasø, & Einarsen, 2017), and that has been used to highlight victim precipitation as well (Ginzler, Kramer, & Sutton, 2004; Hershcovis et al., 2017). As according to these studies usually preparators target only those individuals who have negative affectivity as they reflect themselves to be nervous, upset, and disappointed, potential abusers. These individuals seems to be considered as not defensive to preparators mission to disturb them as they are the "submissive victims" as they act anxiously, uncertainly, and unreceptively, which makes them appear unlikely to defend themselves (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006; Woodrow & Guest, 2014).

The individual who seems to be the submissive target demonstrates very little ability to protect themselves against any mistreatment (Aquino et al., 1999). Therefore,

it is usually considered that they are able to bear the consequences of aggression (Spain, Harms, & LeBreton, 2014). If an individual behaves in an abusive manner it is their perception of being accepted by others and they can bear that behavior too. Maltreating subordinates who are perceived to be weak and helpless may be unfairly treated supervisors can displace their anger against a safe target (Hershcovis et al., 2017; Woodrow & Guest, 2014).

Authority within any organization is usually based on the ability of controlling resources and can be viewed as the psychological property of the perceiver. Outcomes of authority are enacted and indicated by a feeling of power as well as actual power. In addition, research indicates that power may moderate targeted reactions against unfair behavior such as workplace incivility. Victims feel ill treatment from a powerful source as a strong threat to their acceptance within the workplace group since members of a group are looking for self-assurance based on their interaction with those in power (Hershcovis et al., 2017).

A recent study indicates the moderating role of power between workplace incivility and its outcomes (Mullen, 2004). The study examines power as a key moderating factor that may negatively affect the association between incivility and belongingness and embarrassment. As other studies also refer, when someone has authority and control over valuable resources, he or she is able to impose own will on others, and is able to influence the outcomes of others (Schat & Kelloway, 2003). According to group-value model (Quebbeman & Rozell, 2002), authority moderates the relationship between the target's responses to biased treatment. Lind and Tyler (1988) claim that targets are likely to perceive mistreatment from an influential source as a stronger threat to their membership in the group because people seek self-relevant information by examining the excellence of their interactions with powerful people. Staff match the information about how they are being treated in their organization as compare to others. As argued previously, the threat to status and prestige posed by incivility is posited to relate to both belongingness and embarrassment (Totterdell, Hershcovis, Niven, Reich, & Stride, 2012).

Task interdependence can also be argued to play a moderating role. Groups with a higher degree of interdependence usually show the highest levels of collaboration and within the group and offering assistance than those with lower levels of interdependence. Task interdependence may limit the victim's perceived choices of behavior outcomes and therefore limit their likelihood of engaging in perpetrator

targeted deviance. That is, when one is depending on another to complete work tasks, it is necessary to keep a positive association so that performance is not negatively affected. Therefore, if victims are mistreated by someone with whom they have interdependence, they may be more motivated to find positive solutions, and less likely to retaliate than those with low interdependence (Baron et al., 1999; Totterdell et al., 2012).

Organizational cultures not only directly influence the occurrence of workplace aggression but also serves as a boundary condition that moderates between antecedents and consequences of workplace aggression (Djurkovic, McCormack, & Casimir, 2008). Another study argues that cultural values moderated the negative association between supervisory focused fairness (justice grounded on the supervisor's conduct) and supervisor targeted negative behavior, for example sabotage, retaliation, and aggression (Schat & Kelloway, 2000). Remarkably, in a linking context, the contributory perspective might propose contradicting forecasts for the role of culture values on reaction to unfairness. A study reflects that cultural values moderated the negative association between supervisory focused fairness (justice grounded on the supervisor's conduct) and supervisor targeted negative behavior, for example sabotage, retaliation, and aggression (Els & Van Schalkwyk, 2011). Employees consider it to be a real sign of status and standing to be treated fairly. The social ties become the base for the justice related concerns so the employees tend to follow the mutual cultures instead of following individual culture to act and react in a favorable manner. On the other hand, the employees who work in highly individualistic cultures focus the personal identity and for this they need liberty from any social group.

Despite all of these research efforts as summarized above, a comprehensive examination of possible moderating factors between workplace aggression and negative responses at work is required. For example, recently there have been strong calls for looking beyond the analysis of separate perpetrator and victim characteristics by focusing more on the interaction between these parties as well as the social relationship context as significant moderators (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004; Kisamore, Jawahar, Liguori, Mharapara, & Stone, 2010).

2.1.8. Workplace Aggression Mechanisms: Mediating Factors

Studies have also offered a number of important mediating factors between workplace aggression and their outcomes including organizational injustice, emotional

experiences, revenge, fear and perceived likelihood of future violence and other organizational and environmental factors. These mediating variables are essential since addressing these aspects through management decisions and practices could limit the damaging impact of workplace aggression (Neuman et al., 2011).

Two particular studies have been conducted on investigating the influences of organizational justice on aggression. The first study discovered that the individuals interactional and procedural justice perceptions are built on a connection between co-workers' undermining behavior and job satisfaction (Mount et al., 2006). Another study proposes that the relation between abuse from supervisors and a set of employee outcomes including depression, anxiety, lack of job dissatisfaction, emotional exhaustion, loyalty to the organization and work and life conflict, is either fully or partially alleviated by a composite measure of interactional, procedural and distributive justice.

The psychological state of the target is the factor that leads to the probability that an employee will actively pursue to match the harm done by an aggressor through retaliation. As aggression causes further aggression, study designates that the experience of predominantly strong types of aggression can reinforce an individual's desire to retaliate against the aggressor and pursue revenge (Rego, Ribeiro, & Cunha, 2010).

Workplace aggression can result in the psychological experience fear of future aggression actions within the organization. Literature reflects that the emotional reaction of fear about future violence moderates the emotional connections between workplace aggression and is able to quantify both psychological and physiological health (Hastings, 2002). Fear of future aggression is thought as an extra stressor beyond the inherent stress of suffering workplace aggression. When exposed to workplace aggression, employees start to fear the possibility of future aggressive behavior and are also more disposed to reflect on the probability of confronting aggression in the near future (Harold & Holtz, 2015). Literature has linked the involvement of aggression in organizations with better challenge of future workplace aggression (Hülshager, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013).

Another important mediator is the appearance of the additional stressors in an organization. As stress tends to be incremental, it reduces an employee's psychological resources over time. A meta-analysis has exposed that the existence of extra workplace

stressors beyond aggression partly mediates the association between experience of aggression and reported well-being (Moon, Hur, Ko, Kim, & Yoon, 2014).

2.2. The Role of Emotions in Workplace Aggression

2.2.1. The Construct of Emotions

The advent of emotions in the literature was in the seventeenth century, the proper acknowledgement of them started in nineteenth century (Dixson and Vasey, 2012). Despite the growing scholarly interest in recent years, studies are still limited in the extent they describe different emotions in a proper way. In their very nature, emotions refer to intense, short-time feelings or influence conditions that are connected to a specific cause and tend to disrupt normal functioning (Porath & Erez, 2009). Emotions also play an essential role in an employee's work life and thus, they are considered to be critical determinants of several employee behaviors (Fisher-Blando, 2008; Spector, Fox, & Domagalski, 2006). Emotions of an employee depends on various factors including job activities, social ties with other colleagues, work deadlines and the influence of social environment of a firm (Fisher-Blando, 2008). It can be argued that the manifestation of employees' emotions in different situations not only reflect their psychological situation and inner beliefs about a particular situation, but also reflect their intensities.

Sometimes emotions can be confused with some other phenomena, therefore theoretical distinctions have been made. One of the former definitions differentiate between mood and emotion (Sheth, 1996). Another concept separate from emotion is emotion-laden. Although the construct of emotion-laden includes justice, reliance, and loyalty connected to the emotion, they are not emotions themselves (Geddes & Stickney, 2011).

The sensitive confrontations during aggressive situations at workplace lead the way to negative emotions as a response to that situation (Claybourn, 2011). Negative emotions can be defined as a set of disconnected and complex feelings of an employee including anger, anxiety, fear, disgust, hostility and sadness. These emotions imitate an employee's tendency to confront the undesirable psychological experiences (Cheung & Chan, 2000). Negative emotions can also be very different from one another. For instance, both being negative types of emotions, anxiety and fear workout in very diverse ways. While anger may make employees behave more recklessly, fear may initiative them to show withdrawal from job related tasks.

Emotions are intense, short-time feelings or influence conditions such as (anger, sadness, retaliation, joy, pleasure, and pride) that are connected to a specific cause and tend to disrupt normal functioning (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2006). Emotions play an essential role in an employee's work life (Niedenthal and Ric, 2017) strongly interpreting work behaviors (Steffgen, 2008). The intensity of an employee's emotions is contingent on particular set of job activities, social ties with coworkers, work deadlines and influences from the social environment of the organization (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2006). Emotions can be intentional or unintentional and they have direct effects on the individual. Manifestations of emotions in different situations do not only reflect employees' psychological situation and inner beliefs about a particular situation, but also indicate the challenges they have confronted at workplace.

Particular types of feelings and behaviors may have different attributes in which one finds himself blaming internally or externally (Steffgen, 2008). A study argues that organizations should keep balance on employee emotional responses through adopting suitable strategies especially in the relation to supervisor and coworker interactions (Spencer & Rupp, 2009). Hence, in order to have a healthy work environment, it is important to acknowledge and care about employee emotions so that different coping strategies can be adopted for optimistic outcomes.

So far, significant number of studies have examined the role of emotions with the combination of different antecedents and consequences (Spencer & Rupp, 2009). However, the focus of current study is to examine the mediating role of emotions between workplace aggression and its outcomes. Hence, a practical lens might be fruitful to examine employee emotions in this particular context and to understand how emotional expressions influence organizational processes and outcomes as a response to workplace aggression.

2.2.2. Emotions in the Workplace

During the last decade, a range of scholar efforts, seminars, conferences, workshops, books and literature has practically examined the role of human emotions into the domain of organization behavior. The focus of these Scholar efforts was to determine the role of human emotions, their antecedents and consequences in the setting of an organization (Hülshager et al., 2013). These studies highlight that an employee emotion ascend from how different events are elucidate at work (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). The arousal of an employee emotion is not only dependant on

a firm demand, constraints, factors or resources but also have the association with the members of staff and views (Martin & LaVan, 2010), that précis an employee connection with an organization environment in terms of an exact kind of disadvantages or advantages (Harold & Holtz, 2015). Such as, a communication of an employee and his environment that makes unclear danger create stress (Aubé, Rousseau, Mama, & Morin, 2009), revealed in emotion literature as the outcome that creates the main appraisal.

It can be seen that confrontations during different situations in an employee's life lead to two main categories of emotions: negative emotions (i.e., disgust, sadness, fear) and positive emotions (e.g., happiness, hope, and peacefulness) (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004). Positive set of emotions mostly appear as a result of perceive benefits whereas the negative emotions appear due to stress, guilty, unfairness and other organizational cultural and environmental outcomes (Aubé et al., 2009). Employees experience these emotions because of diverse antecedents. Even though they are both negative emotions, they work and influence the individual in diverse ways. While anger might drive an employee to act more imprudently, fear might initiative the same employee show absence or withdrawal from job related tasks. Though the focus of my study is not limited to a positive or negative set of emotions instead of that my study focus is to examine the unique types of emotions which are associated with workplace aggression which are still quite rare (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004).

Positive Emotions

Positive feelings are defined as the optimistic inner state of an employee (positive expression, motivation, happiness (Hülshager et al., 2013). The employees who have positive feelings mostly have less sensitive nature (Moon et al., 2014). Employees who have positive emotions tend to have adequate coping resources and exhibit hopefulness in how they appraise a set of activities at work (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). These people may consequently be disposed to account more positive emotions in result to work than are those less in positive emotion (Woodrow & Guest, 2014). Employee who have positive feelings at the workplace become the center of attention and have strong social ties at work with other colleagues (Martin & LaVan, 2010), these employees perceive more respectful and desirable reactions to their other colleagues, and for the departmental decisions. The employees with positive feelings are more creative and always ready to help other employees (Ståle Einarsen &

Mikkelsen, 2002). They have a greater capacity to keep balance or control over their emotions state and always avoid from negative emotions and utilize the coping strategies which help to have an upward spiral leading to optimized functioning and enhanced emotional relief (Quebbeman & Rozell, 2002) .The employee with positive feelings have a greater tendency to be less influenced by negative emotions at work.(Hershcovis & Reich, 2013).

Negative Emotions

Negative emotions refer to the set of disconnect, complex and negative feelings of an employee such as anger, anxiety, sadness, hostility and sorrow. These types of emotions manifest as an employee's tendency to confront undesirable psychological experiences (Ståle Einarsen & Mikkelsen, 2002). Employees with negative emotions commonly experience stress outcomes (Harold & Holtz, 2015). This negative outlook, regularly accompanied by reduced coping resources (Schat & Kelloway, 2000), may be connected with the involvement of negative emotion over time. These kinds of influences can be easily distinguishable through past experiences of an employee particularly relevant to anxiety and depression (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). More often, it is noticeable that individuals who have a more sensitive nature seem more reactive to omit negative outcomes and express negative emotions.

Negative emotions imitate harmful outcomes such as retaliation, destructive acts, suppressing effort, spreading gossips, sarcasm, oversensitivity, deliberately damaging the organizational property, and high turnover (Spencer & Rupp, 2009). Several studies have examined the connection between negative emotions and workplace aggression. The phenomena ranges beyond the boss and an employee dyad relationship (Spencer & Rupp, 2009), additionally, it is also noticeable in the literature that undesirable emotions also moderates the effects of perceived injustice on retributive set of actions (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010).On the other hand, literature has highlighted that employee negative emotions tend to represent the undesirable outcomes as a result of interpersonal conflict (Harold & Holtz, 2015).

So far, significant number of studies have examined the role of emotions with the combination of different antecedents and consequences (Spencer & Rupp, 2009). However, the focus of current study is to examine the mediating role of emotions between workplace aggression and it outcomes. Hence, a practical lens might be fruitful to examine employee emotions in this particular context and to understand how

emotional expressions influence organizational processes and outcomes as a response to workplace aggression.

2.2.4. Theorizing the Role of Emotions in Workplace Aggression

Research which has been conducted on aggression in the workplace has reflected the importance of mediating role of human emotions (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). Workplace aggression literature has reflected on some basic emotions (e.g. anger, sadness) as key mediating factors. Yet there has been a recent shift of attention toward varying emotional experiences and their specificity in the organizational relations (Schat & Kelloway, 2000), especially looking at relevant negative emotions other than anger (Matta et al., 2014) even though empirical tests on how various and unique type of emotions are associate with workplace aggression (Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy, & Alberts, 2007) are very limited. Above and beyond other approaches, there are two fundamental theoretical views that can direct the literature regarding how we can identify the role of emotions in explaining workplace aggression. They are *affective events theory* and *the stressor-emotion model*. Below, these two perspectives are discussed in detail.

Affective Events Theory (AET)

AET primarily focuses on the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work (Milam, Spitzmueller, & Penney, 2009). The theory particularly developed with the reference to micro-level attitudes and behaviors in the setting of an organization (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Schat & Kelloway, 2003). The theory has made a significant contribution to organizational behavior research by focusing on actual effective and emotional responses which are considered one of the key factors in order to understand the links between work environment, affect and work behaviors (Schat & Kelloway, 2003). The theory stresses on the temporal changes in an employee emotions in an organization for example between employee approaches may miss much changes in emotions and set of actions and obscure associations between them.

As per the theory, particular events, especially negative interpersonal experiences in the workplace, lead to the emergence of affective reactions inside the employee, which in turn, directly stimulates certain attitudes and behaviors. Additionally, the theory stresses that time is also an important parameter in examining the effect of different incidences. The frame work reflects that employee emotions change with the passage of time and these patterns can be predictable to a great extent.

But perhaps most importantly, AET suggests that as a psychological experience, effect has a structure in itself and it is often multidimensional. For example, an employee may feel angry, irritated, proud or joyful and these different set of emotions as a reaction to workplace events have different behavioral outcomes (Hoel & Cooper, 2001). Therefore, in AET workplace environments are viewed as having indirect influences on affective experiences by ensuring that predictable events are more likely to happen.

AET theory has gained wide popularity in order to understand and support the mediating role of different variables and also answer about the organizational enquiries. The focus of these studies was particularly relevant to the emotional responses, attributes of specific affective events,, the role of moods and emotions in strategic management decisions, staff commitment, and job satisfaction, raising a voice in the meetings for organization challenges, and unpleasant experiences of an employee at workplace (Hoel & Cooper, 2001). These examinations are relevant to the AET use diary methods while the later studies are preferring the experience sampling method (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2009), also acknowledged as “ecological momentary assessment” (Beal and Weiss, 2003; Weiss and Beal, 2005).

AET theory stresses that an incidence triggers as an initial and significant role for the emotional state of an employee both in a negative or positive way. These initial arguments and appraisals also have an essential judgment for the strength of the emotional responses (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2009) and directs to a secondary appraisal connected with discrete emotions. These initial and secondary appraisals can occur routinely, under the threshold of concise consciousness (Milam et al., 2009). General findings of these studies reflect that emotions, and moods at the job are an essential determinant of an employee attitudes and consider an essential predictor of their job activities (Robinson, Wang, & Kiewitz, 2014). Another study focus on supervisor feedback as a silent factor of an incidence due to its connectivity is with employees’ egos and set of goals and hence elicits affective action (Dietz, Robinson, Folger, Baron, & Schulz, 2003).

A number of other studies have also focused on the intensity of emotional responses and their influence on employee outcomes such as job performance, satisfaction, job attitudes in both negative and positive way. These studies have empirically supported the basic assumptions of AET. For instance, a range of scholars have depicted that a set of positive and negative emotions mediate the work

environment's influence on employee outcomes including withdrawal behaviors (Bowling & Beehr, 2006), OCB (Lilius et al., 2008), CWB (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007), and performance at work (Geddes & Baron, 1997). Subsequently, different appraisals conducted in a situation or the incidence being experienced by the employees may cause different types of emotions. Previous studies state that different employees can be faced with same kind of situation but they may act differently one may get stressed or aggressive while other remains calm and patient (Milam et al., 2009). I propose that at times employees can easily understand the organizational change and understand themselves and behave cautiously whereas in few cases employees do not understand the situation and exhibit their emotions in deviant's manner unconsciously.

Stressor-Emotion Model

The second essential theoretical approach to understand how emotions play a role in workplace aggression processes is the stressor-emotion model (SEM) (Spector & Fox, 2005). Emotional appraisals are regarded as key to understand the consequences of stressful events are construed by the employees that shape their behaviors (Wang & Mattila, 2010). Employees perceptions and observations in their surrounding influence them either positively or negatively as a model disclosing the same scenario was presented by Spector and Fox (2002), appraisals and threats may induce negative emotional reactions (Vranjes, Baillien, Vandebosch, Erreygers, & De Witte, 2017). The emergent negative affect position will then stimulate individuals towards certain behaviors to be able to cope with or decrease the impact of threats and challenges emerging from the experience.

The model has examined the influence of different factors such as injustice, harassing, abusing, or aggressive behaviors in an organization and how these factors bring adverse job-related outcomes. These behaviors entail the less Job satisfaction from work and manager, peers, and professional tasks (Vranjes et al., 2017); that somewhat effects in reducing OCB (O'Brien, 2008); decreases the commitment at organizational level (Chen, 2015); influences in reducing distributive justice (Meier & Semmer, 2013); intensifies the vengeance and aggression (Green, Choi, & Kane, 2010) High absenteeism (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001); and increasing turnover intentions (Hershcovis & Barling, 2007). Another study findings shows that dissimilar causal attributions give increase to qualitatively divergent set of emotional experiences (Fida, Paciello, Tramontano, Fontaine, et al., 2015), and perceived causality differ

from employee to employee and even within an employee across situations (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010).

As a general evaluation, only limited research has adequately accounted for the impact of different emotions that ascend during a stressful incidence in workplace and that are linked to different causal dimensions. This failure to consider specific emotions seems surprising meanwhile employees, when asked about situations at work that cause stress, invariably find it necessary to go beyond the event and discuss the situation in the context of intensity, frequency, and emotional meaning (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010). Emotions are especially important as they signify the instant response to different scenarios and incidence (Zapf, 2002), and as they may become the turning point in one's life by encouraging and motivating and bring a functional transformation in ones working (Fox et al. 2001). Therefore, emotions act as a mediator between stressful events in the form performance at workplace of these events.

Understanding WA by AET and Stressor-Emotion Model

When the stressful event is being focused on particularly, one should appreciate both AET and transactional stress-emotion models and their theoretical support for the workplace aggression. AET holds that the employees become judgmental in their perceptions and conjure affective set of an individual's actions. The evaluation or assessment is done for personal goals of employees after the completion of the task (Zapf, 2002). AET explains an overarching outline that recommends that certain set of actions are emotional responses to workplace events (Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2009). On the other hand, an essential intention of the stressor-emotion model (Fida, Paciello, Tramontano, Barbaranelli, & Farnese, 2015) is that it is a communication between an employee and environment that creates a felt stress for the employee. Stress is not a possession of an employee, or an organization climate, but increases when there is combination between a particular type of organization climate and a particular type of employee that leads to a threat appraisal (Fida, Paciello, Tramontano, Barbaranelli, et al., 2015).

The stressor model is a sound base and discloses the whole process of emotional reactions and obstructive stressors. The stressors are usually disruptive and projects the negative emotional reactions (Bibi, Karim, & ud Din, 2013). There is a difference between the perceptive and environmental stressors. Usually the obstacles

or hindrances that arises out of the environment in an individual's working are the outcomes of the perceived stressors.

The combination of different theories offers emotional explanations among the stressors and the emotional reactions. This study uses AET (Banks, Whelpley, Oh, & Shin, 2012) as it is consistent the research framework being followed in this study. Moreover, it endorses that the emotional variations are expected and induce workplace aggression. Further the previous literature also supports it to use emotions in short run or in long run (Fida, Paciello, Tramontano, Barbaranelli, et al., 2015).

2.3. Impact of Social Relations in the Workplace

Social relations refer to social ties, association among individuals within different social groups in an organization. (Fida, Paciello, Tramontano, Barbaranelli, et al., 2015). Social relations in an organization indicate a collection of individuals' who have similar social identities. These individuals feel in the same way and have the same definition of who they are, what attributes they have, and how they relate to and differ from specific out-groups. Group membership is another concern of collective self-construal. The idea was initiated for the first time in 1959 by Henri Tajfel. Social relations at work play key role in an organization literature in order to explain the prejudice, insight, and intergroup conflict without individual differences and without reducing significant collective phenomena to an aggregation of individual or interpersonal association (Banks et al., 2012). In this study, I intend to determine and examine the role of identification with supervisor and coworker and what key role identity and social comparisons group-based plays in the setting of an organization as moderating factors. The following two sections will discuss how social exchange, social identity and comparison theories can be used for understanding the role of associations play a part in workplace aggression.

2.3.1. Social Exchange Theory

When a culprit initiates to treat a target either positively or negatively the social exchange process begins (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002). The optimistic initiatives are inclined to enhance organizational support (Cropanzano et al., 2002) or justice (Hofmann & Morgeson, 1999). Usually negative gestures might reflect the abusive supervisor behavior to employees (Burgess & Huston, 2013; Guillet, Sarrazin, Carpenter, Trouilloud, & Cury, 2002; Parzefall &

Salin, 2010), bullying (Malecki & Demaray, 2004) or incivility (Vaillancourt, McDougall, Hymel, & Sunderani, 2009). Consequently in case the target is a colleague the reciprocity in good and bad behaviors is followed (Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2017). At coworkers' level the reciprocity exists in the behaviors if a coworker behaves positively the other one also behaves in the same manner or try to behave kinder or generously whereas in case of negative behavior, in response to a bad gesture either the other coworker will avoid the perpetrator or behaves in the same way. These relational or behavioral responses can be broadly rearrange as depicted in Social Exchange Theory.

The successful exchange dealings may bring positive change in the form of professional and economic betterment. Consistently employees get connected to their workplaces and committed to perform well (Cropanzano et al., 2017), more trustworthy (Parzefall & Salin, 2010), and so on.

In organizations employees are usually treated poorly without focusing on forming the relationships in that way they will not perform the tasks passionately (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Moreover it's important that in the workplace reciprocity for economic benefit would be more appropriate and close if both the parties have benefits in return. Whereas the quality of relationship will be quite low as mutual benefit for exchanges are likely to be caused by employees dealing in harm with each other. So, the dynamics of understanding the interpersonal relations at work may vary from considering either identity or working in a group.

2.3.2. Social Identity Theory

Social Identity Theory (SIT) states that usually individuals have certain beliefs and they reflect all those characteristics which they have within them either naturally or exist due to the reflexes of their nurturing. SIT also postulates that the identities reflected by one personality are not the only characteristic of them but also the reflection of the group they belong (Escartín, Ullrich, Zapf, Schlüter, & van Dick, 2013). It discloses the importance of socialization and its effects the overall wellbeing as well (Alvesson, Lee Ashcraft, & Thomas, 2008).

SIT argues that the individual's perceptions and knowledge reflect to social circles he belongs to and these groups have emotional attachment with him (Hornsey, 2008; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). The first step of social identity theory is that individuals must have awareness about their self-worth. The next step is to have the

understanding about the group he be attached to and the self-concept. Additionally, it is required by the individual to establish the differentiation of his group from the other groups so that the individual is able to identify the similarities and differences in the form of values, attitudes, and purpose etc.

The research on identity and identification at workplace has increased a lot in last few years (Lutgen-Sandvik & Tracy, 2012). Specifically, the studies with regard to identification of employees representing a group matters and how the individuals attached to the group act in the workplace? (Zapf & Einarsen, 2003). Moreover the recent literature has highlighted the relational identity and has also focused on maintaining the personal relationships with co-workers and supervisors (Heames, Harvey, & Treadway, 2006). Individuals who are identified by their groups or the supervisors reflect the biases in likeness or dis likeness (T.-Y. Kim & Shapiro, 2008; Liefoghe & Davey, 2010).

2.3.4. Social Comparison Theory

Social comparison and group value perspectives also support the same underlying relationship mechanisms with respect to identity and identification. In fact, the employees usually make comparisons to assess the workplace environment (Ramsay, Troth, & Branch, 2011). This is the way through which employees sense their own experiences of being isolated and faced with interpersonal conflicts (Duffy et al. 2006). The isolated may take it more negatively (Sutton, Smith, & Swettenham, 1999).

Similarly, this perspective explains how group identification and social comparisons can explain individual reactions to poor treatment, where there is an unfair treatment by someone who is in power. A basic assumption of the group value model is that members within a group care for each other based on their existing social connections. Since individuals are concerned about group membership they are highly aware of any threat to membership of the group. (Sakurai & Jex, 2012). Respectful behavior reveals symbolic messages showing an individuals position within a group whereas disrespectful behavior send out negative signals that challenge their position within a group.

2.3.5. Importance of Social Relations in Workplace Aggression

Despite the general neglect in aggression and mistreatment research, it has been increasingly recognized that workplace aggression emerges and evolves within a relational and social context as both perpetrator and target interactively operate in the same environment (Aquino & Lamertz, 2004; Neuman et al., 2011). Thus, recently there are strong calls for looking and going beyond the analysis of separate perpetrator and victim characteristics by focusing more on the interaction between these parties. I hereby discuss how social and relational environment in the organization may influence workplace aggression situations and processes.

Perpetrator-Target Relationship

One of the early theorizations of the relational nature of workplace aggression belongs to Aquino and Lamertz (2004) where they claim that when certain types of perpetrators (i.e. domineering and reactive) and victims (i.e. submissive and proactive) interact with each other, established patterns of mistreatment are developed. (Lam, Van der Vegt, Walter, & Huang, 2011) It was also found that supervisor-subordinate differences in values and perspectives led to greater perceptions of relationship conflict, usually resulting in higher levels of abusive supervision (Lam, Van der Vegt, Walter, & Huang, 2011). The importance of the perpetrator/victim relationship has been underlined in recent researches. Since workplace aggression usually takes place within a social context, it is apparent that this relationship may be an important factor.

Prior research have argued that social relationships coupled with perpetrator and victim characteristics can largely influence the initiation of aggression and its escalation (O'Moore & Lynch, 2007). I suggest that these social relationships may also have different consequences according to whether the source is a supervisor or coworker.

Relationship with Supervisor

Workplace aggression among supervisor and coworkers refers a conflict based relationship initiative by a supervisor toward his or her subordinates. This relationship may be more likely to react aggressively when the supervisor perceives that the subordinate deserves it as a reactive perpetrator offensive victim combination (Hoobler & Brass, 2006). Abusive supervision as a subset of set of authoritative behaviors, it has been explained as a subjective opinion of a co-worker for a supervisor.

These kinds of relationship depict an employee opinion to which supervisors engage in the constant set of physical or nonphysical behaviors, excluding physical agreement (Inness, Barling, & Turner, 2005). Abusive supervision is a subjective assessment that may change between co-workers. As referred to by literature demonstrated abusive supervision has almost always been operationalized and measured by using Tepper's (2000) scale, which assess subordinates perceptions rather than objective supervisory behavior (Milam et al., 2009), as well as the meta-analysis.

Relationship with Co-workers

Workplace aggression among co-workers refers to harming others through purposeful operations and damaging the relevant social associations (Merecz, Drabek, & Mościcka, 2009) and covers behaviors such as rejecting and telling the victim that they will not in close circle anymore. Furthermore the organization style is more flat, informal, and base on causal connections among the staff members and where the transformation of information is very less, clarity about the norms, proper interpersonal conduct, which may accidentally inspire rude and an unethical set of activities from employees. Demanding work shift and the environment of hostility norms that allow employees to react on the urge as compare to use restraints (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). Another reason for this relationship is that employees are more prepared to involve in a nasty communication without facing the other employee receiving it personally. This type of aggression includes both direct and indirect behaviors including telling a target they will not be friends or denying a request (direct verbal approaches). Bjorkqvist and colleagues (Milam et al., 2009) measure social manipulation primarily through peer ratings. This type of aggressive behavior initially includes aggressive verbal behavior which results in disruptive relationships.

2.4. Current Study

2.4.1. Profiling Workplace Aggression

Workplace aggression constructs are described extensively in terms of their definitions, measurements. Until now, studies have mostly inclined to examine single workplace aggression types separately. Even though this approach has some advantages, it prevents establishing a general understanding of diverse aggression forms altogether with respect to certain outcomes. Taking all aggression forms into

consideration also allows for a decent comparison among them. Therefore, the focus of my study is understanding the influence of workplace aggression attributes on outcomes in a comprehensive way without isolating or ruling out any single type of aggression.

Recently, a number of studies have started to identify and discuss different attributes of workplace aggression events (Demskey, Ellis, & Fritz, 2014). Some of the most important characteristics of a given workplace aggression incident are identified as perceived intensity, perceived intent (blame attribution), identity of the perpetrator, perceived visibility, witness presence, and duration (Meier & Spector, 2013). Each of them is worth explaining in larger context

Perceived intensity refers to the degree of severity or harmfulness the victim attributes to the aggressive behavior (Sakurai & Jex, 2012). The assessment of the intensity of experienced aggression which caused harm or severe in intensity could be explained by the reaction of the victims. Sometimes aggression strength is very high (e.g., yelling, punching) that Often the degree of the intensity of aggression is extreme including shouting, yelling and physical aggression (Ståle Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994).Scholars (e.g., Andersson & Pearson, 1999) assume workplace incivility lack of respect intensity than other forms of aggression, however claim that these set of actions can be harmful.

Perceived intent is the victim's perception of the actual intent of the actor to inflict harm (Neuman and Berling, 2015). Few descriptions of workplace aggression assume intent (e.g., bullying) suggesting that perceived intent might affect the adverse consequences of aggression at workplace. Researchers have indicated that attribution of blame for perceived offences is connected to a high degree of revenge behavior (Greenberg & Barling, 1999). A main feature of blame acknowledgement is perceived intent, recommending that perceived intent could worsen the undesirable association between experienced aggression and its possible outcomes (Ståle Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009). So, the target attributes the blame of the aggression event heavily on the opposite side (Morrison, 2008).

Sometimes the aggressive behavior is not apparently *visible* by anyone; rather, it is implicit like in incivility measures (Hershcovis, 2011). Covert behaviors which are less obvious such as staring, ignoring someone or other forms of body language can be less apparent, on the other hand overt or obvious behavior such as shouting and physical demonstration are more obvious and observable. Aggression events also

differ immensely with respect to *who the perpetrator is*. Specifically, whether it is a supervisor who has formal power on the employee or coworker matters. There may be different perpetrators as well, such as customers. Finally, whether others *witness* the aggression event between the perpetrator and the victim can also change the perception and impact of the behavior.

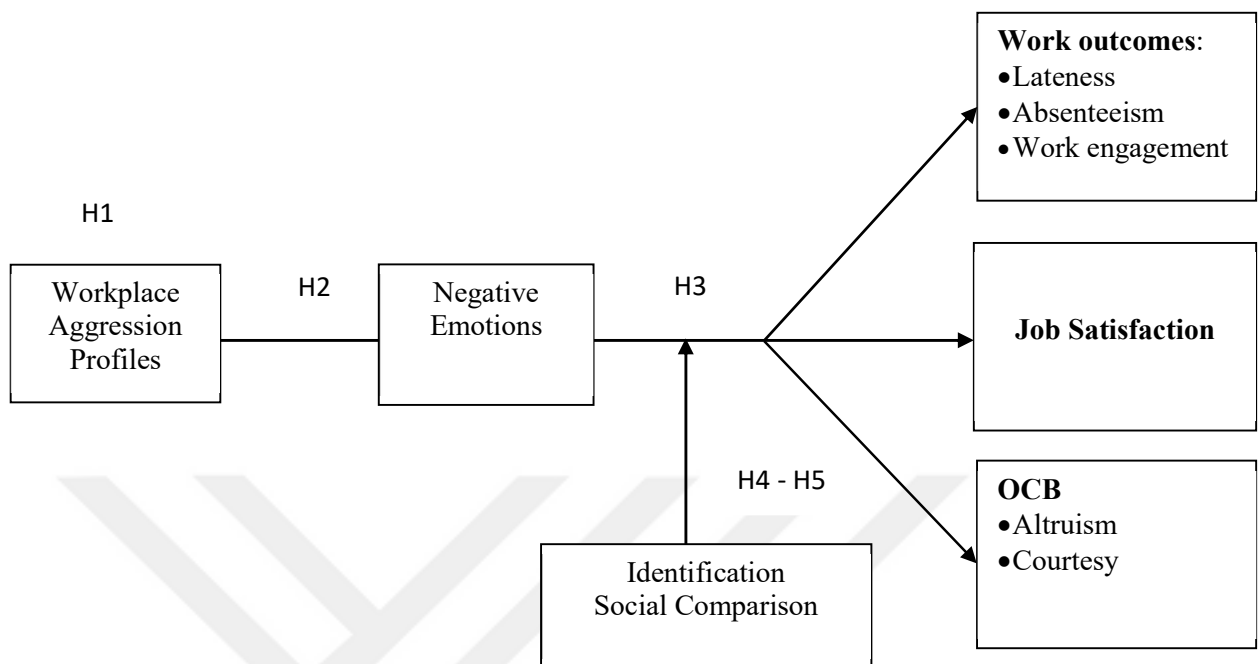
2.4.2. Proposed Research Model

In the light of the recent developments in the workplace aggression literature as explained in the previous sections and borrowing from the particular theoretical approaches discussed, I developed a novel theoretical model where certain relationships can be empirically tested. This research model can be reviewed in Figure 2.1.

As it is evident from the previous discussions and my knowledge, there has been only limited research on explaining the role of particular aggression event characteristics (Cowie, Naylor, Rivers, Smith, & Pereira, 2002). So far, no argument or empirical investigation have been provided regarding how these attributes can be present in different combinations letting into diverse workplace aggression situations or profiles. In this theoretical depiction, emotional responses (not only anger, but a wider range of emotions) would play a mediating role, as I seek to clarify how such diverse emotions are linked with particular workplace aggression profiles and their respective consequences for the target employee.

I selected three sets of outcome behaviors to investigate. So, this study will examine the influence of different aggression event profiles on these three outcomes and their specific dimensions; 1) work-related outcomes (absenteeism, lateness, work effort and work engagement), 2) employee satisfaction (with job, supervisor and coworkers) and 3) OCB (altruism and courtesy). Furthermore, again based on the described gaps in the literature, I argue that individuals with high identification with a particular source of aggression would be particularly motivated to retain or decrease their negative evaluation of the source, whether this person treats them aggressively or politely. Through another moderating variable -social comparison- my model also takes the effects of interpersonal comparisons into account and will examine how interpersonal variability of mistreatment from a particular source effects employees' emotional and behavioral response. The specific hypotheses that will be tested are explained in detail in the following section.

Figure 2.1. Research Model



2.4.3. Study Hypotheses

Although a few studies have identified particular characteristics of aggression events (Staale Einarsen et al., 2009; Hershcovis, 2011; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007), they have not provided any argument or empirical investigation of how these attributes can be present in different combinations letting into diverse workplace aggression profiles. A profile is a certain type or a category of a phenomenon which is composed of a number of essential underlying factors. I argue that different degrees of perceived intensity, visibility, intent, and witness presence and perpetrator identity will lead to different aggression profiles. Studies have talked about incivility, bullying, social undermining and others types of workplace aggression. However, all these constructs are merely built on theoretical assumptions of difference which have not been examined and/or shown empirically. In order to fill this gap, this study proposes to discover the key workplace aggression profiles based on the direct identification and measurement of the aforementioned event attributes. Since each attribute will change from one event to another, different aggression profiles will emerge rather than a single identical one. Hence, I argue that:

***Hypothesis 1:** Specific combinations of key event attributes (aggressive behaviors involved in the aggression event, perceived severity, perceived intent, identity of the perpetrator, witness presence) will create significantly different workplace aggression profiles.*

Up until now prior studies have mostly reflected on anger and anxiety as key emotional reactions to workplace mistreatment (Leiter & Stright, 2009). While few studies discuss fear and hurt (Fox, Spector, Goh, & Bruursema, 2007), only one study examined embarrassment (Hershcovis et al., 2007) as a different mechanism alternative to typical negative emotions described in the literature. Hence, there is a need for investigating a wider range of emotions (e.g., embarrassment, feeling of hurt, fear), especially those other than anger (Holm, Torkelson, & Bäckström, 2015). It should also be clarified how these alternative emotions are linked with particular workplace aggression profiles.

Based on these arguments, we suggest that emotional responses will vary, depending on the key characteristics of the workplace aggression incident. For example, if a supervisor is getting aggressive with an employee in order to make him/her meet a deadline, perhaps the employee will feel sad and disappointment rather than anger, as the respect and trust between them is damaged. In another scenario, if an employee is insulted by the boss in the presence of respected co-workers, then he or she will probably feel more embarrassed rather than angry. Yet again, a hurtful email, the loss of a huge sale and so on, may make the employee sad and anxious. On the other hand, if an employee is receiving intentional and strong aggression from colleagues, he or she might become shocked, agitated or angry rather than being sad.

All in all, I propose that different workplace aggression profiles, as illustrated above, are likely to result in diverse emotional reactions from the target. Thus:

***Hypothesis 2:** Diverse workplace aggression profiles will lead to different emotional responses from the target of aggression.*

This study examines the influence of different aggression event profiles on three sets of outcome behaviors and their specific dimensions; work-related outcomes (absenteeism, work effort and work engagement), employee satisfaction (with job, supervisor and co-workers) and OCB (altruism and courtesy). Up to this point, research has explained how different types of aggression behavior leads different

employee outcomes. For example, studies reflect that employees who are faced with low intensity or ambiguous type of aggression (e.g. incivility) tend to engage more on counterproductive work behavior (Scott, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2013), and report lower levels of loyalty to the organization (Brotheridge & Lee, 2007).

Similarly, when employees face strong aggression persistently across a period of time (e.g. bullying) they show higher withdrawal behavior, absenteeism (Hitlan & Noel, 2009), less productivity, job satisfaction, and organizational loyalty (Jung & Yoon, 2012). When employees are confronted with supervision which is abusive this normally results in job insecurity and causes them to seek alternative employment and display low levels of self-assurance and organizational efficiency.(Johan Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2007). On the contrary, when employees face aggression from sources outside the organization (such as customers or partners) they are less likely to have fear about their job security (Glomb & Liao, 2003). Based on the severity of the mistreatment while some actually quit the work to get away from the instigator of the aggression (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012).

Despite the accumulated knowledge on diverse outcomes of different aggression constructs as exemplified above, we do not know how directly observable aspects of the aggression experience and the distinct aggression profiles can lead to particular employee responses and outcomes. While there are some theoretical ideas towards this direction (Yang, Liu, Nauta, Caughlin, & Spector, 2016), these ideas have been neither developed in full form nor empirically tested. This study will provide a fuller explanation by examining the combined influence of different event attributes in the form of distinct aggression profiles on specific outcome behaviors.

For instance, in terms of severity and perpetrator type, if employees are exposed to negative acts over a period of time on the part of their supervisor or immediate manager, they may have higher absenteeism and lower levels of work effort and engagement. In terms of perceived intensity (e.g. a rude joke) combined with a co-worker as the perpetrator, this employee can show lower job dissatisfaction as well as less satisfaction with co-workers. Another situation (such as receiving aggression from others in a department meeting where there is intend, witness presence and visibility) may become the reason for the target to engage in lower citizenship behavior such as altruism and courtesy regarding other people in the organization.

Based on these arguments, I propose that different aggression profiles will lead to different outcomes. However, I also suggest that diverse emotional responses will

mediate this relationship as discrete emotions will occur on the basis of various characteristics underlying the workplace aggression. For example, if a supervisor is getting aggressive with employee in order to make him meet the deadline, maybe the employee will feel sad and disappointment rather than anger as the respect and trust between them is damaged. In another scenario, if an employee is insulted by the boss in the presence of valued co-workers, he or she will probably feel more embarrassment as compare to getting sad or angry. Yet again, a hurtful email, the loss of a huge sale, and so on may make the employee sad as angry and anxious. On other hand, if an employee is getting intentional and strong aggressive behavior from other colleagues, he or she might become shocked, agitated or angry as compared to being sad.

All in all, this study is proposing that different workplace aggression profiles as illustrated above are more likely to result in diverse emotions as a core mediating mechanism connecting them to outcomes. Since aggression profiles can differ from one another immensely, the emotional responses to them will also be different, leading to significant differences in behavioral outcomes. Therefore;

***Hypothesis 3:** Diverse negative emotions will significantly mediate the relationship between different workplace aggression profiles and the following: a) work-related outcomes, b) employee satisfaction outcomes, c) OCB outcomes.*

In spite of the importance of individual factors in the prevalence of any workplace hostility and aggression, there are numerous theoretically appropriate reasons to consider the role of relational factors in the occurrence of aggression at workplace, especially the relationship between the perpetrator and the victim. Especially according to the literature two types of relational factors identification with the perpetrator and the group dynamics are very important.

One of the factors that will mitigate the negative outcomes of aggression effects is the extent to which the victim perceives the perpetrator as similar rather than different, which underlines the in-group vs. out-group dichotomy. In social identity theory, when an individual considers that the other person has almost the same characteristics or the other one is like him the decisions and evaluations regarding that person becomes biased (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

Studies reveal that individuals with similar contexts and attitudes are considered more favorable than the ones with different behaviors and contexts (Leiter & Stright, 2009). Employees having the perception of similarity in boss behavior and his own behavior may have more confidence and trust on the boss (Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Few recent studies have shown that in different scenarios where troubles and disappointing team contributions occur usually get generous assessments for the individuals with similar characteristics than those having different characteristics (Brotheridge & Lee, 2007; T.-Y. Kim & Shapiro, 2008).

Additionally, Marin (1985) identified that almost similar type of reward packages to the employees having same type of behaviors to maintain uniformity. Generally, individuals are on the basis of their performance to the persons having different characteristics. Similarly, Bond et al. (1985) stated that individuals feel less upset and aggressive when hear a verbal insult whereas get more troubled when hear the insulting remarks either from within the group or outside the group but from the same department (Lian et al., 2012; T.-Y. Kim & Shapiro, 2008).

As a further support, Kim and Shapiro (2008) found out that a boss influences the subordinates reactions by giving leverage in the assessing them (Leiter, Day, Oore, & Spence Laschinger, 2012). The bosses who take care of larger number of employees get in return the rude responses for their aggression towards subordinates.

Based on these studies, I argue that Individuals with high identification with a particular source of aggression may be encouraged to manage the positive assessments of the source, even when this person treats them aggressively. All in all, the negative response to the aggression event will be weaker when the target's identification level with the perpetrator is high; or when the perpetrator is perceived as similar an (in-group member) rather than dissimilar (an out-group member). Hence:

***Hypothesis 4:** Identification with the perpetrator will moderate the relationship between workplace aggression and negative emotional responses. Employees with higher identification will report negative emotions less, compared to employees with lower identification.*

According to social comparison theory as depicted earlier, whenever the employees compare themselves with their peers they try to assess the work environment (Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, & Allen, 1999). Through such comparisons employees result in making sense of interpersonal mistreatments (Duffy, Ganster, Shaw, Johnson and Pagon, 2006). In the case of individual target of aggression in a group is observed that reflects the cognitive similarities among the group members for that targeted individual. The cognitive similarities among the group becomes more devastating for the target as he is ostracized (Leiter et al., 2012; Nasir, Khaliq, & Rehman, 2017). The aggression of the one being ostracized requires justice as it seems unfair to him (Lian et al., 2014). Liao and colleagues (2012) stated that at times bosses behave differently with different employees and these different behaviors may influence the subordinate satisfaction level but it becomes acceptable for employees when the boss deals with all in the same manner. Usually when the boss apparently seems pleasant but also show abusive behaviors it becomes more striking for the employees to deal with the environment as compared to A supervisor with whom the employee does not have positive relations (Lian et al., 2014). Base on this logic, they have the prediction that the experience of abusive supervision should similarly be more impactful if it is rendered more salient by the fact that abusive supervision towards others is low. It becomes more relevant when abusive supervision towards other employees appears lower. In addition, employees are less able to disregard their treatment if other employees do not receive the same abusive treatment (Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, & Ensley, 2004).

All of the above arguments strongly encourage the consideration of the effects of interpersonal comparisons and to examine how inter-personal variability of mistreatment from a particular source effects employees' emotional and behavioral response. Hence, I predict it can be predicted that the relationship between aggression and attitudinal, behavioral outcomes will be stronger when one is singled out for mistreatment. Therefore, I argue that:

***Hypothesis 5:** Comparison of individual experience to those of others will moderate the relationship between workplace aggression and negative emotional response. The relationship will be stronger when the employee perceive others are treated less aggressively by the same source.*

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

This chapter initially explains the study setting, sample, and unit of analysis. Later, the chapter discusses the utilized data collection techniques, study variables and measurement details. The last part of the chapter gives details on the data analysis techniques that are used to test the formulated study hypotheses.

3.1. Empirical Setting

The setting in which I tested the hypotheses of my study is the higher education sector (HEC) in Pakistan. The Education sector plays a critical role in the success of any country. The main reason behind the increasing competition in this sector is closely related to the development of new technologies and the worldwide competition (Oyibo & Vassileva, 2017). A dynamic higher education environment is considered essential for the state's economic and financial growth. The sector is not only accountable for giving training to young generations but it is also responsible for contributing to the general growth of a nation.

Like other employment settings, the education sector also involves workplace aggression. The presence of workplace aggression in the education sector can create adverse influences not only on employees, but on students and other parties as well. It can largely reduce the quality of educational and research output (Byrne et al., 2013). Organizational climates of universities are often connected with a great degree of stress (Clerk and Junior, 2018). A number of studies in the setting of education have been reflected on the mental illnesses signs of trauma, exhaustion, sleep disorder depression and these difficulties are noticeable among employees due to high stress (Nielsen and Einarsen, 2012; Bowling and Herschovis, 2017). Literature also shows a lack of interest, work withdrawal from their jobs, decline in staff intellectual contribution, challenge for their mentoring capabilities, and decrease students' participation levels (Byrne et al., 2013). This situation emphasizes the need for evaluating the different types of aggression in universities.

Consequently, the current studies and effort to better comprehend the role of workplace aggression in educational institutions and how the degree of workplace levels of workplace aggression in educational settings has the possibility of not only disrupting the staff but also diminishing the quality of academic outcomes results in higher education institutions (McKay et al., 2008). Specifically, the weakness of prevalence specifically the dominant effects of workplace aggression and their

outcomes among university staff, results of the study can be very helpful for useful for the education institutions and administration and can provide the necessary knowledge to address the widespread issue.

Previous studies on workplace aggression have been done in different national settings such as the U.S. (Howar and Wech, 2012; Rosen, 2001), Canada (Schat et al., 2013), China (Aryee et al., 2007), Australia (Hills et al., 2012) and European nations (Lifkes and Giebels, 2014). So far only a few studies have examined workplace aggression in other geographies, especially in the background of developing countries such as developing nations such as Pakistan. Existing studies from Pakistan have mostly focused on workplace bullying and its influence in the medical sector. A study was conducted about the importance of training in the health care sector with the purpose of controlling bullying. One study highlights the violent situations of patients in hospitals. Another study again focuses on hospitals, examining the critical issues related to aggression among nurses (Gutierrez et al., 2016; Baiget et al., 2018). Besides these, the banking sector was also examined, with the aim of understanding the influence of several stressors including aggression on emotional exhaustion (Kashif et al., 2017).

So far, only two studies have examined the role of workplace aggression within the context of education (Ahmed et al., 2017; Naseer et al., 2016). The first study was exploring the opinions of teachers about bullying in the workplace. The other study sought to understand the role of personality in workplace bullying and the degree of severity in aggression. This implies that a comprehensive view on different types of workplace aggression and their manifestation in Pakistan's higher education sector is largely missing. The work intensity, higher demands for both teaching and research making staff members more and more stressful in Pakistani universities. Academicians have more demands from the higher education system (HEC, 2009). These people are forced to work even seven days a week, especially in private universities. Hence, this study is the very first candidate to understand the role of aggression and its outcomes in Pakistan's higher education field by also providing a comparison between public and private universities.

National culture in Pakistan has long been described as high in collectivism with a high degree of power distance (Ahmed, 2017) which indicates that hierarchy in social relations is strong and the social focus mostly group-oriented Culture is general created within a group-value system (Ahmed, 2017; Lyon, 1993) and is divided into

two classes named as non-elite and elite. Elite class have all the rights while the others are suffering. This situation produces a level of stress among the public, who perceive that there are no checks and balances to switch the level of alter the stages of aggression Hussain, 1999). Because of the high level of power Due to the remoteness in power structure in universities where the decision making is top down, in universities decision making authority is centered on the top management. The organization structure is often centralized, bureaucratic, and not approachable according to the requirements of are not easily accessible or available to meet the needs of the employees (Khilji, 2001).

Whatever is communicated by the supervisor/manager, the employee is expected to keep respect and follow it. As opposed to individualist and egalitarian cultures, the way behaviors are manifested might be different as the underlining relationships are different. Because of such differences in cultural and societal values, we may expect the aggression behavior and the relationships around such behavior can be manifested in different ways. Outcomes of workplace aggression may also be different from the North American and European context.

3.2. Sampling and Participants

The individual participants in this study were determined by a random sampling of 14 universities located in three diverse areas/ provinces of Pakistan. Annually, the Pakistani government spends 2.2 % of the national GPD on education system. Since the beginning of the 1980s, the government have been seeking to organize more financial support and aid in order to increase the excellence of education in Pakistan (National Education Policy, 2009). Out of the 14 universities, 8 of them represent private and 6 represent public universities. Public and private universities in Pakistan differ mostly on the basis of hierarchy, education fees, academic fields and specializations, annual and semester system, and institutional traditions.

University Profiles

The universities included in the present study reflect considerable variance, and thus, representativeness of the whole higher education system on the basis of year of establishment, experience, number of students, field specialization, and size. Appendix A summarizes all relevant information on the universities included in the study. A review is given below:

Eight of the universities are located in Punjab, four in Sindh, and two in Balochistan. 56% of Pakistan's total population exist in Punjab, and this province is the universities' hub because more than one-third of the total number of universities in Pakistan are located there (Malghani, 2012; Ahmed, 2017). Indeed, it is considered the central hub for higher education institutes as it hosts 51 universities; 27 public and 24 private. Out of these 51 universities, 28 are located in one of the biggest city Lahore and rest of other 23 institutions are located in other towns of Lahore, one of the major cities in Pakistan, has 28 educational institutions while the remaining 23 are found in other towns in Pakistan (HEC, Statistical Information Unit 2016–2017).

The third largest province of Pakistan is Sindh with respect to geographical area while from the context of its population it comes second. Sindh is situated in the Southeast part of Pakistan and has a different culture and living style when compared to Punjab. Like other provinces of Pakistan, Sindh has a good education system with public and private universities. Currently 20 public and 29 private degree awarding universities are serving in Sindh. These institutes are providing education mostly in the domain of agriculture, engineering, veterinary medicine, and social sciences (Sahito and Vaisanen, 2016).

Balochistan is another important province of Pakistan which is situated in the southwest region of the country. Although the area has great amount of minerals and sightseeing places, it lags behind in the education field. The province is confronting many challenges particularly at a higher education level (UNESCO, 2011). The teachers are unable to get the basic needs due to the long distances to university and less availability of transportation. As per the recent statistics, the literacy rate is 46% in the province. The prominent reason behind this situation is the growing level of poverty and little consideration of government to improve the quality of the education system (UNESCO, 2011). Hence it is crucial to include and compare it with other provinces regarding different cultural, social, and political factors which may also affect the level and prevalence of workplace aggression.

Among the public universities from which data is collected, Punjab University and Government College Lahore were established in 1882 and in 1864, respectively. The two are among the oldest universities of Pakistan whereas Turbat University is comparatively new, established in 2013. The eight universities included in the study are rather young compared to their public counterparts, most of which were established in the late 1990s and after 2000s. Among these private universities, Superior

University is one of the most well-known. While it offers degrees in 10 different faculties and 65 departments, the university is mostly recognized for medicine, mass communication, entrepreneurship, and business education. It has more than 42 campuses all over the Punjab province (Superior University, 2019). Another private university, University of Lahore offers degrees in 11 faculties. The university is most recognized in medical and aviation fields. University of Central Punjab (UCP) is one of the first private universities in Punjab, established in 1999. Its business school has a high reputation (University of Central, 2019).

In Pakistan, universities are certified by Higher Education Commission (HEC). HEC is a government body introduced in 2002 for the promotion, assessment, and progress of education system (Higher Education Commission, 2002; 2017). HEC is an autonomous body responsible for providing funds to universities, awarding degrees to institutions, accrediting degree programs and prescribing the rules under which all institutions should operate (HEC, 2002). In total, 187 institutions are listed and recognized by HEC (Higher Education Statistics, 2017). Those universities on the list have quality education system, following the research activities and provide the different scholarships for the faculty and students every year on the basis of merit. Pakistan has made a huge investment for the development of the higher education system. During the last 30 years, the government introduced 20 major state and 6 regional universities.

Participants

To be able to get the e-mail addresses of the respondents, I contacted the Human Resources Department of each university. Initially, I received the email lists from 10 universities. Meanwhile, I made contact with a number of additional universities. My sample size increased to 14 institutions with the inclusion of four more universities. In total, 1253 surveys were sent and 947 were received back (75.6% response rate). Out of this number, 920 were useable. Sample demographics show that most of the participants are male (65%). While almost one-third (35%) of the participants are below the age of 30, most respondents are in their thirties (52%). A larger portion of the sample is composed of academics (80%) while administrative workers roles consist of 20% of the respondents. In terms of education level, most of the participants have a master's (57%) or doctoral (29%) degree, indicating a highly educated group in total. Most participants are full-time members (76%), whereas only

24% of them work as part-time staff. More than half of the respondents work in a private university as opposed to a public one (see Table 2).

Table 2. Participant Demographics

		Frequency	Percent (%)
Gender:			
	Female	324	34%
	Male	599	65%
Age:			
	Under 30 years	299	32%
	30 – 39	483	51%
	40 – 49	130	14%
	50 – 59	11	1.2%
	Above 60 years	8	0.9%
Education:			
	University / College	60	6 %
	Master's degree	537	57%
	MPhil	67	7%
	Doctoral degree	267	28%
Position:			
	Administrative staff	187	20%
	Academic staff	733	79%
Marital status:			
	Single	327	35%
	Married	604	64%
Contract type:			
	Part-time employee	221	24%
	Full-time employee	699	76%
University type:			
	Private	528	57.9%
	Public	392	42.1%

3.3. Data Collection

Previous studies on workplace aggression have mostly utilized standard techniques for data collection such as survey, interview, and case study. Yet, new and improved techniques including critical incident technique, diary surveys, and experiments are being considered as more fitting to the nature of workplace aggression for the purpose of data collection (Herschovis and Heich, 2011; Herschovis, 2013; Raver and Barling, 2008). Accordingly, more studies on workplace aggression started to utilize them (Herschovis et al., 2012; Portoghese et al., 2017; Schat and Frone, 2012; Tummers, 2016).

Following the suggestions, in this study I first utilized critical incident technique (CIT) to understand and explore the content of my variables and the proposed relationships among them in a qualitative way. Afterwards, I collected quantitative data for hypothesis testing through a diary survey design. The following section explains the general processes and procedures involved in the two data collection phases, respectively.

Phase 1: Critical Incident Technique

Critical incident technique (CIT) is important to understand the “critical” human behaviors. It focuses on participants' accounts for significant events incidents that have particularly happened rather than on generalization or perceptions. The technique encourages the employee to reflect on unique workplace experiences and the surrounding relational and contextual attributes. The prompts for the critical incidents posted in the form of open-ended questions. The technique is effective in getting comprehensive knowledge from employees and depicting how they perceive specific events and situations. The participants are asked to recall and describe an event over a specific time. As such, it is considered as an effective tool for collecting the data relevant to critical events at work (Neuman and Berling, 2007; Herschovis, 2017).

CIT method has been utilized in a variety of disciplines such as the army, management medical, psychology, education, social work and management (LeMare and Sohbat,2002; Humphery and Nazarath,2001; Dworkin,1988; Cerna,2000, Derbaix and Vanhamme,2003; Herschovis et al.,2012; Herschovis, 2017). Recent studies on workplace aggression also utilize the technique for data collection and also suggest it for future studies (Herschovis et al, 2012; Herschovis, 2017).

The technique has different advantages. The researcher can ask participants to recall and describe an event over a specified period on his own word (Brunton and Jeffrey, 2010; Gremler, 2004). The technique provides a platform for the responses as possible within an overall research. There is no bias or determination of what will be important to the within the general research methods. There are no predetermined results of related to the participants' level of response (Herschovis and Reiche, 2013). It also provides a rich source for data collection by allowing participants to explain which incident is more relevant to the phenomena. In the technique the setting is completely developed from the participant (Chell, 1998).

There are particular reasons why critical incident technique is utilized in this study. The key rationale is to get an initial and qualitative understanding of workplace

aggression situations and their influence on outcome behaviors in Pakistani higher education sector. The method will also help determine the different and unique set of emotions university members develop as a result of workplace aggression. Thus, CIT will help to explore and describe what the different workplace aggression attributes are, whether distinct profiles emerge based on them and what possible emotions are triggered in Pakistani culture, none of which have been covered previously in the literature. In fact, the findings from CIT will help inform the content and design of the diary survey that will follow.

The whole critical incident collection process took almost three months to complete. The critical incident form was composed of open ended questions (see Appendix B), based on suggestions and examples in the literature. Participants were asked to recall the critical events from their memory that they felt was critical and worth recounting. Respondents were asked several details including the exact setting of the incident, the reason behind it, who were involved, how the incident was resolved, what they felt about it and whether there is any after-effects. In total, 100 forms were distributed and 60 were received. Out of 60 forms, 53 were usable, including the requested information. Once the critical incident forms are filled in by the responses, they are content analyzed.

Phase 2: Diary Survey Method

The diary survey is considered an effective technique to determine the events which unfold (i.e., Bolger, Davis and, Rafaeli, 2003). Diary survey is helpful for detecting employees' thoughts, emotions and outcome behaviors within the natural work environment as well as characteristics of the work situation which may fluctuate over time (Bolger et al., 2013). Diary survey has become popular in several psychology fields including personality (Fujita and Bolger, 2008; Mroczek and Almeida, 2004), clinical (Tennen and Zucker, 2010), developmental (Witkow, and Fuligini, 2006) and enterprise (Butler et al., 2005). It is a method in which survey forms are filled in different time framework within a defined time, yielding predominantly useful information regarding within-individual relationships of study variables. Diaries are best to gather the information where a particular set of activities or incidences are projected to differ from one another and change with the passage of time, where background information for example the conditions directing or leading toward an incident are acknowledged.

A diary survey can help a person to judge, within-person, with the help of cross and multi-level questions. Data are collected on many different occasions from the same individual. It can be used to evaluate how constant factors (e.g., context) affect short-term conditions (e.g., violent reactions) over time. The strength of the method is that it provides the most accurate measurement of time spent on different activities or events. The technique can be utilized through the different questions that speak to the issues (Herschovis and Reich, 2013). It would yield predominantly helpful information regarding inner individual association among the variables of this technique produces mainly useful details in relation to individual connections within the study. (Herschovis and Reich, 2013; Michel, Newness et al., 2016).

In this study, I chose to use a diary survey method as it will help to understand the cause and effect relationship between workplace aggression situations, emotional reaction and outcome behaviors. It will help to examine the information where particular factors and their influence on them such as climate factors and their feeling or incidences are projected to vary over time.

3.4. Developing the Questionnaire Instrument

Once the draft questionnaire form was composed, first a pilot study was conducted to ensure that the items in the questionnaire form accurately address the study constructs, and to test whether the questions were well written and easy to understand by the participants. I sent the pilot survey to 12 participants who are all Pakistani academicians and received 9 responses back. I asked them to share their feedback about the survey form including any criticisms, comments and suggestions to improve it. Except the two respondents who provided minor suggestions regarding the format of the survey, all respondents declared that they had no problem in completing the survey and all questions were easy to understand.

After making all necessary changes in the survey form and getting an approval from Yasar University Ethics Committee, I developed an online questionnaire by using Google Forms application for collecting answers from the respondents electronically. Google Forms gives the opportunity to send an unlimited number of forms as opposed to other online survey design applications. While it is free of charge, its format allows composing a customized message when sending the survey link to the respondents. It also shows the individuals who have not completed the survey yet so that a reminder can be sent to them by the help of a single click.

The final questionnaire form is composed of two main parts: The first part asks the participants to give some general information including demographics and their key social relationships at workplace. The second part includes questions on the specific aggression events they have experienced at their workplace, how they emotionally responded to them, and a number of work related attitudes and behaviors. The survey was sent to each participant four times so that they can fill out a new form over consecutive weeks where the same questions about their possible workplace aggression experience in the most recent week was asked.. To achieve this, I sent them an email with a renewed link to the electronic form. Once the participants open the link, they can easily fill in the form by following the necessary instructions. Regular follow-ups were done after one week of the initial distribution. A brief narrative of the research goals and a clear instruction for completion is provided at the beginning of the survey. Confidentiality and anonymity issues were also shared and guaranteed .It took approximately 4 months to complete the whole data collection process.

3.5. Study Measures

For determining the right measurements for the study variables, first I content analyzed the qualitative data collected via the critical incident forms. This analysis let me understand the details of the workplace aggression experiences, possible issues involved, the key factors coming to the forefront within the chosen context and whether my conceptual model properly captures them. Second, I reviewed all the relevant measures in the literature regarding workplace aggression behaviors and attributes, possible emotional responses and employee outcomes. By following the examples and discussions in the literature and making careful comparisons among alternative measurements, I managed to identify all the measures for the study variables. They are described below in detail.

1) Independent Variable

It is very important to note that the independent variable of this study is the workplace aggression profiles which are revealed by the combined assessment of specific aggression behaviors and key event attributes that can be experienced in an aggression situation. Altogether, they form the main characteristics of the main workplace aggression types. Hence, it is a multi-layered measurement combining several important aspects and alternative measures of aggression together.

Workplace Aggression. Including various behaviors, ranging from psychological acts to physical ones, 21 aggression items were adopted from Glomb's *Specific Aggressive Incident Scale (SAIS)* (2002) to measure workplace aggression. Glomb introduced the scale for the first time in 1998 in order to evaluate the frequency of aggressive behaviors at work. The idea of the scale is based on Bass's (1961) initial research regarding the classification of different workplace aggression behaviors, such as direct and indirect, physical and verbal. The development of the scale relies mostly on employee reports of workplace aggression and structured interviews with them, supplemented by prior theoretical approaches of aggression.

In Glomb's scale, workplace aggression is viewed as a broad, inclusive construct, seeking to cover the entire space defined by any aggression behavior that can be observed in the workplace. Such an approach allows the investigation of every act at different strengths and levels. Neither extreme cases such as physical assault and making threats nor lower level aggressions such as being rude or withholding information are ruled out. Such a conceptualization is also in line with previous approaches including Baron and Neuman (1996) and (1998). Thus, there is high conceptual overlap and convergent validity with alternative measures of aggression. In a way, the scale captures several individual and limited aggression measures altogether.

Originally, 24 aggression behaviors were listed in the scale. However, some overlaps were evident between a few items and when they are combined, 21 items were left. One of the two versions of the scale can be chosen with respect to the person whose point of view is being taken. The first version asks the respondents about the experience where they are the target of aggression (Aggressive experience of victim) while the second one asks about the experience as they are engaged on the aggression as a perpetrator (Aggressive experience of involved in). Respondent's rate whether they have been faced with any of the behaviors listed which may be initiated by either their supervisor or co-workers within that week. They indicate the presence of each behavior by choosing "Yes" or "No". This formative-type measure covers different forms of workplace aggression including social undermining, bullying, and workplace incivility. The example items included in the scale are; "making angry facial expressions or gestures", "avoiding or ignoring", "yelling or raising their voice", "physical assaulting", "insulting or making offensive remarks", "failing to correct false information", "getting in the face or provoking", "spreading rumors/ talking

behind your back”, “making threats”, “belittling you or your opinions” and “being rude”.

Aggression Event Attributes. In the light of recent literature as extensively reviewed in Chapter 2, I measured four key attributes of aggression events: Perpetrator, perceived severity, perceived intention, and witness presence. Following the examples in the literature (e.g. Beattie and Griffin, 2012, Herschovis, 2011), a single question was asked to measure each attribute as follows:

- To identify the perpetrator, the following question was asked: “Who was the person that engaged in the aggressive behaviors towards you in this event?” Four options were given (e.g. supervisor, a member of the top management, a co-worker, other).
- The respondents rate the severity of the aggression by using a 5-points scale with options from «very low» to «very high». The question is “How do you rate the degree of aggression of the incident”?
- Perceived intentionality of the behavior is measured with the question “Do you think the aggressive behavior towards you was intentional?” by giving three response options: «yes», «no», and «not sure».
- Witness presence in the incident was simply asked by two response options: «yes» and «no». Additionally, the respondents were asked the identity of the witness, if applicable.

I would like to remind that neither the *S AIS* items (Glomb 2002), nor the above aggression event attributes were used separately to measure workplace aggression in this study. Their different combinations (hence different aggression profiles) are estimated through cluster analysis, the results of which will be presented in the next chapter.

2) Mediating and Moderating Variables

Emotional Response. Negative emotional response is included in the study as the mediating variable. 13 items have been adapted from *Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS)* developed by Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, and Kelloway (2000). Some alternative measures are available for measuring affective state of the employee (Watson, Clark and Tellegen, 1988), yet most of them are too lengthy and time consuming to fill. Besides, most of these measures have issues with the properties of

the scale and have an incomplete sampling affect (Diener et al., 2010; Feldman Barrett and Russell, 1998).

JAWS is short, easy to fill in and is specifically designed to measure the effective responses such as moods, emotions which happen at the workplace in the result of stressors. The scale is helpful to assess the respondents' different emotions resulting from the aggression experience. Items in the scale include being *upset, insulted, angry, anxious, hurt, depressed, disgusted, shocked, frightened, miserable, frustrated, disappointed* and *embarrassed*. Each of these emotions were measured on a 5-points Likert scale (1=not at all, 5=extremely). The respondents were simply asked to indicate the degree with which they felt any the listed emotions because of the aggressive behaviors towards them in the particular incident. The reported reliability of scale falls between 0.56 and 0.90.

Identification with Supervisor & Co-workers.

The first moderating variable of the study is identification with supervisor/ co-worker. *The Self Estimated Identification Scale* was adopted from Aron, Aron and Smollan (1992) to examine the identification level of the employee with his/her supervisor and co-workers. In the use of this scale, respondents chose the picture that best elucidates their association from a set of Venn-like diagrams each on behalf of different strengths which overlap among two circles. The linear progress of overlap creates a seven-point Likert scale. As such, two sets of seven-point scales are developed to measure identification with supervisor and co-workers, respectively. Graphic rating scale refers to the answer choices on the basis of short options of answer from such as two choices yes or no etc. Participants can choose a particular option on a line or scale to depict rating. The present study uses the graphic scale in order to determine the identification with supervisor and co-worker by asking 14 items with two answer choices. The reason for the choice of graphic scale is that these scales are fairly easy to answer in a short time and they are very appropriate for the close-ended surveys. The scale also has high face validity.

Social Comparison. Social comparison is the second moderating variable considered in the study. It is evaluated by using six items that were adopted from Erdogan and Liden (2002). Items elements include the respect, loyalty, affect, contribution, and overall exchange quality of the employee's relationship with supervisor and whether these are perceived to be different from those of co-workers. The example scales items used in the survey was "I have a worse relationship with my

supervisor than most others in my workplace”. “When my supervisor cannot make it to an important meeting, it is less likely that s/he will ask me to fill in”. “Relative to my co-workers, I receive less support from my supervisor”. The scale help to identify how employees compare their treatment from the supervisor with others. It will be evaluated by a 5-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree).

3) Dependent Variables

Job Satisfaction. This study has used a single-item to measure the respondents’ degree of satisfaction with their job. The single-item measurement was developed and validated by Fisher, Matthews and Gibbons (2016) where they conclude that single-items are both useful and appropriate for capturing information about the satisfaction construct. The authors reflect that the use of single items reduce participants’ burden, decrease criterion contamination and enhance the face validity of constructs (Fisher et al., 2016). In addition, Woods and Hampson (2005) claim that single-item measures are helpful to keep the questionnaire short in order to save the time of both participants and the researcher. The selection of a single-item measure to evaluate the job satisfaction level of the employees in the present study is also considered beneficial to enhance the response rate. They indicated to what extent they agree with the following statements on a 5-points Likert scale (5=strongly agree; 1=strongly disagree): “This week I was satisfied with my job”.

Work Withdrawal. Work withdrawal has been defined as a “set of behaviors dissatisfied individuals enact to avoid the work situation; they are those behaviors designed to avoid participation in dissatisfying work situations” (Hanish and Hulin, 1990, p.63). Respondents’ tendency to withdraw from their work roles was measured by two important unfavorable job behaviors; absenteeism and lateness. The study has adopted the items from Hanisch and Hulin (1990; 1991) to measure both constructs. For absenteeism, respondents indicate to what extend they have engaged in this particular behavior in the given week: “I was absent from work”, using a 5-points frequency rating scale (1= almost never; 5=almost every day). For lateness, they indicate to what extend they have engaged in this particular behavior in the given week: “I came to work late”, using a 5-point frequency rating scale. (1= almost never to 5= almost every day).

Work Engagement. Work engagement explains the directedness of an employee toward his or her job tasks. It shows an effort of an individual to serve more and more time for tasks, flexibility, and commitment with the work which could assist to attain task performance and as well as being helpful to control the challenges at work (Christian et al., 2011; Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). Work engagement is assessed with the 6 items included in the short version of *UWES (Utrecht Work Engagement Scale)* established by Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova (2006). The employees are asked to indicate how they felt about their work in that week. All dimensions are scored on a 5-point agreement scale varying from 1 (=strong disagree) to 5 (=strongly agree). Example items are; “I felt resilient and energetic at my job”, “I was enthusiastic about my job”, and “I was immersed in my work”. According to the prior study the reliability of the scale is $\alpha = .89-.94$ (Dubbelt et al., 2016).

Courtesy and Altruism. Organization citizenship behavior OCB was originally identified by Organ as “behaviors of a discretionary nature that are not part of employees’ formal role requirements, but nevertheless promote the effective functioning of the organization” (1988, p.4). There are five basic types of OCB; altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue. These distinct behaviors were then measured by different sub-scales developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990). It is considered as one of the most cited measures in organizational behavior particularly in the setting of western countries (Banahene et al., 2017). Since my research focuses primarily on the relationship side of OCB that affect one to one personal connections instead of general organizational links and outcomes, only two of these dimensions -courtesy and altruism- are included in the study.

The measurement scale for each one is composed of five items. While altruism items reflect discretionary behaviors that have the effect of helping others with an organizationally relevant task, courtesy items reflect the behaviors aimed at preventing work-related challenges with others from happening. Each variable was utilized by a 5-point Likert scale, asking the respondents to indicate to what extent they engaged in each of the given behaviors during that week. The example items for courtesy are as follows: “I took steps to try to prevent problems with other employees”. “I was mindful of my behavior affecting other people’s job”. “I did not abuse the rights of others”. Yet, the example items for the altruism was “I helped others who were absent”. “I

helped others who had heavy workloads”, “I helped orient new people even though it was not required”. In previous research, the internal reliability of all five OCB subscales was found to be high, even exceeding 0.80, and acceptable degree of discriminant validity is reported (Spector, 1990).

4) Control Variables

A researcher may determine or compare the results of an analysis by taking control variables into account in order to explain the real change in the independent variable. They are usually the variable we are not particularly interested in yet can possibly affect the dependent variable along with the investigated independent variables. Thus, a researcher wants to remove their effect from the equation. By following previous examples, I controlled six variables in the study: gender, age, education, contract type, position and university type. Age is included in the analyses as a binary variable: those who are 30 or older (=1) and those who are younger (=0). Education is measured whether the respondents have an MPhil or Doctorate degree (=1) or not (=0). Contract type signifies whether the respondent works as a full-time (=1) or part-time (=0) employee in the university. In terms of position, the respondent can be either an academic (=1) or an administrative (=0) staff and this is also controlled in the study. Finally, university type can be either public (=1) or private (=0). Even though marital status and tenure are measured, they are not included in the analyses as they have very high correlations with age and education variables.

3.6. Data Analysis Procedure

Reliability and Validity of Scales

Cronbach Alpha values were reported to determine the inter-item reliability of the scales while confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was utilized to evaluate the construct validity of the measures (entailing convergent and divergent qualities) and confirm their factor structure. In order to ensure convergent validity, factor loadings of items in a scale are compared to what would be expected from the theory (Liden and Maslyn, 1998). Given that previous factor analyses conducted on the scales used in the study all produced factor-structures in parallel to what was theoretically expected, there is initial evidence for the convergent validity of the study measures. I also calculated all factor loadings with my dataset and report them in the present study.

CFA is also used to assess whether a scale is empirically distinct from the other measures that are being used, as an indicator of discriminant validity (Chen et al. 2001). This type of discriminant validity assessment is especially important when there are considerable correlations between variables and the constructs are theoretically related. Therefore, to determine whether the scales in the study are distinct from one another, I computed two alternative factor-structure models. The first model combined each of the indicators (scale items) to load on a hypothetical single latent variable (Single-factor model). The second model was constructed as each indicator is allowed to load on one of the four latent variables that it is supposed to empirically measure (Four-factor model); that is separate and distinct variables are assumed. The results will show which model should be retained for further analysis. As objective criteria for a decision between these competing measurement models, chi square (χ^2) difference test as well as a set goodness-of-fit indices were computed. The next chapter will present the CFA results as well as scale inter-item reliabilities.

Cluster Analysis

I used cluster analysis to establish the workplace aggression profiles and test my first hypothesis (the existence of diverse workplace aggression types). Referring to “a group of multivariate technique whose primary purpose is to group the objects based on characteristics they possess” (Hair et al., 2014, p. 418), cluster analysis plays a vital role in two different ways: 1) reducing the data, and 2) testing hypothesis. It is considered as one of the best analysis methods to examine whether there are groups of cases in a given dataset and what the characteristics of these groups are or cases (Spencer, 2014). The decisions that have to be made in a cluster analysis relates to the following key questions: 1) how to measure similarity, 2) how to form the clusters, and 3) how many clusters should be formed. To give proper answers to these questions, I followed a two-step procedure as recommended in Hair et al. (2014): First, I ran hierarchical and later, non-hierarchical cluster analysis. The hierarchical cluster analysis was conducted in order to identify the appropriate number of clusters. Later I ran the non-hierarchical cluster analysis for the description and confirmation of the identified clusters.

After implementing these steps, I ran ANOVA test to identify the characteristics of each workplace aggression profile and whether the differences among them are statistically significant. Finally, in order to examine the empirical link

between these resulting profiles and the negative emotional responses of the employees, I conducted a series of chi-square tests along with Phi and Charmer's V tests to check the strength of these relations. Further details of the clustering procedure and the cluster solutions will be given in the next chapter.

Procedure for Hypothesis Testing

In order to test the hypotheses, I ran a number of regression analyses for each independent variable (workplace aggression profile) identified via cluster analysis. The models involving only moderating effect were estimated by simple multiple regression. For the models involving both moderation and mediation effects, I ran a set of ordinary least square (OLS) regression models using PROCESS estimations (Hayes, 2018). In literature, such models that involve both mediating and moderating effects are usually called "conditional process analysis". This type of modeling is used when the study objective is "to describe the conditional nature of the mechanism or mechanisms by which a variable transmits its effect on another and testing hypotheses about such contingent effects" (Hayes, 2018 p.10). While mediation analysis is utilized to examine the direct and indirect effects of an independent (antecedent) variable X on a dependent (consequent) variable Y ($X \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$), moderation analyses seeks to reveal how the strength of the effect of X on Y ($X \rightarrow Y$) depends on another variable or variables Z.

One can find several examples of conditional process analysis, combining both of these effects, in different fields of social sciences including business and management field. A conditional process model can be constructed in various shapes and forms but its essence remains the same: The indirect effects of an independent variable on an outcome variable through a mediating variable is conditioned (moderated) by another factor. Therefore the objective is to describe the conditional nature of the mechanism by which a variable conveys its influence on another.

Even though such analyses can be conducted in different statistical programs, PROCESS tool developed for SPSS and SAS software simplifies the analysis immensely. Not only does it estimate all parameters of the model in an easy and quick way (direct, indirect, conditional and unconditional), it also implements different techniques to probing interactions and it can generate bootstrap confidence intervals for products of parameters, which is a method highly recommended in the

interpretation of conditional process analysis. It allows the use of several options for quantifying and visualizing the models.

With respect as to how to test conditional indirect effects, two main approaches are offered in the literature: normal-theory based approach and another based on bootstrapping (Preacher et al. 2007). There are a number of problems with the first approach: The standard normal distribution assumption for the conditional indirect effect is not appropriate. In addition, its power is lower than bootstrap estimates. In contrast, bootstrap confidence intervals respect this non-normality as they are based on an empirically generated representation of the sampling distribution rather than a (typically) inaccurate assumption about its shape. Therefore, the second approach is followed in this study and 5000 bootstrap samples of the data are taken when doing the estimates.

OLS was chosen as the general analytical method for running regressions. “Using the least squares criterion, a linear regression routine derives the regression constant and regression coefficient(s) defining the best equation linking the antecedent variable(s) to the consequent variable” (Hayes, 2018 p.73). It minimizes the gap between the actual values of Y and what the equation estimates for Y. Besides the independent, moderating and mediating variables, control variables were also included in each model as covariates for ruling out alternative explanations. The variables are centered before constructing their products. As a final aspect of the models estimated, heteroscedasticity-consistent error terms were calculated instead of standard ones (Hayes and Cai, 2007). The homoscedasticity assumption is checked through a visual inspection of the scatter plot of the residuals and the recommended Breusch-Pagan statistical test (Breusch and Pagan, 1979). The presence of it can affect the precision of statistical inference and reduce the power of hypothesis tests. It can also impact the accuracy of confidence intervals for regression coefficients. Thus, heteroscedasticity-consistent error terms should be used even when there is even a weak suspicion. The model results of data analysis that were interpreted on the basis of direct, indirect, and conditional effect estimations will be described in detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

The present chapter covers data analysis and its findings. To test the research hypotheses, different statistical tests were conducted. Before doing the analyses, I cleaned the data from the outliers (extreme observation) which were reacting significantly different than the other observations. Afterwards, first I computed descriptive statistics including calculation of the variable means, standard deviations, and pairwise correlations in order to understand the characteristics about the participants and structure of the data. Then, measurement reliabilities and validities were examined. Cronbach alpha (α) values were estimated to check the reliabilities of the measurement scales while confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to verify the factor structure and to provide indication of construct validity of the measures that will be used in further analysis. CFA allowed me to achieve a model comparison necessary for ensuring the convergent and divergent validity of the measures.

To test the first hypothesis of the study, cluster analysis was utilized. It let me discover the workplace aggression categories embedded in the data. Identifying the underlying aggression profiles is a critical part of my study since these profiles will be treated as the independent variables in all subsequent analyses. For cluster analysis, I pursued a two-stage process; first hierarchical and later, non-hierarchical clustering procedure was applied. Hierarchical cluster analysis was used in order to identify the number of clusters whereas the non-hierarchical one was utilized to detect and confirm the resulting cluster structures. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was ran to understand the characteristics of each aggression profile. Associations between workplace aggression profiles and negative emotional responses were tested by using chi-square significance test. Phi and Cramer's V values were also computed to estimate the strength of these relationships. The analytical process was also imperative to test the second research hypothesis.

Out of the five distinct workplace aggression profiles, I ran first three with moderation models since the above test results did not indicate any mediation for these profiles. Finally, I ran moderation mediation models for aggression profile -4 and profile -5 as specific types of negative emotions were found to be important and meaningfully associated with these two workplace aggression profiles as well as the

outcome variables in the study. The rest of the chapter presents the details of all these analyses and the findings from each one.

4.1. Data Cleaning and Preparation

In order to clean the data and prepare it for analysis, I conducted and check the basic assumptions, checking for outliers and run the initial descriptive statistics frequencies, means, standard deviations, correlations. I also examined the normality considering skewness, kurtosis, and frequency distribution. The idea of outliers depicts the observations, which shows prominent or abnormal difference from the rest of other observations in the dataset, particularly these kinds of observations have negative influence on the results (Hawkins, 1980). Such outlier objects often consider bias or abnormal information about an untypical behavior of the system. In the case of cluster analysis is sensitive for the outliers (Hair et al., 2010). Outlier can be appeared in form of aberrant observations, in form of small or incorrect population or an under sampling of real group. Hence in this stage, outliers in the data were detected. Hence the useable sample for the analysis is based on 931 employees.

4.2. Descriptive Statistics

In the below table (Table 3), column two and three are representing mean and standard deviation values for each study measure. All mean values reported are between 0.14 and 3.76 while the values of standard deviation values are between 0.39 and 1.17. The values on the diagonal represents the inter-item reliabilities (Cronbach alpha) of the four scale measures; social comparison, work-engagement, altruism and courtesy. The values are 0.869, 0.745, 0.736 and 0.645, respectively. Even though the literature generally suggests that the minimum acceptable level should be 0.70, some researchers argue that it is still acceptable until the point where 0.60 (Green & Yang, 2009). Thus, even though reliability of the courtesy scale is a little bit low, it is retained in the study.

The control variables in the present study are university type, position, contract type, age and education and most of them show significant correlations to one another. Gender shows significant negative relationship with contract type ($\beta = -0.065$, $p < 0.05$). It shows that when the participant is male, he is more likely to work as a part time employee rather than a female employee is. Gender also has positive relationships with age and education. The correlation results reveal that male participants have

higher education levels compared to female participants and they are older. Besides the impact of gender, university type has a positive relationship with contract type ($\beta = 0.124, p < 0.01$). That is, participants who are members of public universities are more likely to work on full-time contracts than those who are members of private universities. Further, position has significant correlations with age and education.

When an employee is an academician (rather than an administrative), he or she is older and have a higher education level. Contract type is significantly correlated with education ($\beta = 0.177, p < 0.01$) and age ($\beta = 0.079, p < 0.05$) as well. Hence, the participants on a full-time contract are usually older and higher degrees in education.

Gender have also positive relations with aggression profile-2, and aggression profile-5. Male participants are more likely to experience the latter while less likely to be the target of the former. Male respondents also have higher levels of absenteeism ($\beta = .068, p < 0.05$). Contract type have significant linkages with altruism ($\beta = .097, p < 0.01$), work engagement ($\beta = .072, p < 0.05$) and job satisfaction ($\beta = .087, p < 0.01$) which suggests that the participants on full-time contracts have more positive work attitudes and behaviors. The table also shows that the older participants have significantly higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors; courtesy ($\beta = .081, p < 0.05$) and altruism ($\beta = .071, p < 0.05$) compared to younger ones.

With respect to the associations between different aggression profiles and the outcome variables, we observe that all of them except profile-2 are significantly correlated with several outcomes. They also have significant correlations with identification and social comparison variables, which are the moderating factors in the study. One can also observe several considerable associations among outcome variables. For instance, work engagement is positively correlated with job satisfaction, courtesy and altruism and negatively correlated with lateness and absenteeism. Being absent from work is associated with all other outcome variables except the two OCB dimensions. Job satisfaction has the highest correlations with all other outcomes as well as the rest of the indicators in the study. As an overall assessment, most of the associations shown in Table 3 are in line with the theoretical assumptions and expectations in the literature.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1.Gender	0.65	.477																			
2.University type	0.43	.495	0,050																		
3.Position	0.80	.403	0,050	,135**																	
4.Contract type	0.76	.427	-,065*	,124**	0,001																
5.Age	0.68	.466	,095**	0,020	,204**	,177**															
6.Education	0.36	.480	,101**	-0,045	,105**	,079*	,361**														
7. Aggression-1	0.25	.433	0,012	0,025	-0,014	0,007	-0,008	0,014													
8. Aggression-2	0.18	.387	-,106**	0,040	0,030	-0,009	0,018	0,022	-,274**												
9. Aggression-3	0.14	.347	0,013	-0,012	0,017	0,007	0,035	0,015	-,233**	-,192**											
10. Aggression-4	0.22	.417	-0,001	-0,004	-0,053	-0,021	-0,034	-0,030	-,310**	-,255**	-,217**										
11. Aggression-5	0.20	.402	,079*	-0,051	0,026	0,017	-0,003	-0,019	-,291**	-,239**	-,203**	-,270**									
12. Identification with supervisor	3.21	1.08	0,063	0,032	-0,004	0,026	-0,014	-0,016	,212**	-,154**	,124**	-,249**	,072*								
13. Identification with coworker	3.49	.976	-0,037	0,034	0,020	0,029	-0,014	0,044	,134**	0,009	0,038	0,007	-,192**	,300**							
14.Social comparison	2.48	.774	-0,061	,118**	0,013	0,034	-0,045	-0,028	-,192**	,132**	-,119**	,220**	-0,046	-,744**	-,241**	(0.869)					
15.Work engagement	3.53	.544	0,040	0,017	0,031	,072*	-0,004	-0,005	-,104**	-0,038	,097**	-,137**	-0,017	0,050	0,005	-0,038	(0.745)				
16 .Courtesy	3.76	.524	-0,010	0,004	-0,008	0,054	,081*	-0,008	-,069*	0,006	,095**	-,071*	-,088**	0,037	0,064	-,087**	,308**	(0.736)			
17.Altruism	3.47	.585	-0,039	-0,011	0,037	,097**	,071*	0,033	-,090**	0,023	,076*	-,108**	-,073*	0,000	0,042	-0,043	,364**	,459**	(0.645)		
18. Lateness	2.04	1.17	0,047	0,019	-,069*	0,010	-0,010	-0,001	,066*	0,028	-0,036	0,062	0,011	-0,019	-0,035	0,024	-,176**	-,096**	-,109**		
19. Absenteeism	1.55	.882	,068*	-0,021	0,001	0,038	-0,015	-0,028	-0,017	-0,004	-,093**	,154**	-0,057	-0,033	0,011	0,014	-,094**	-0,058	-0,038	,209**	
20.Job satisfaction	3.46	.679	-0,001	0,030	0,015	,087**	0,029	0,006	-,311**	-,093**	,194**	-,286**	-,116**	,309**	,218**	-,261**	,428**	,312**	,319**	-,156**	-,140**

4.3. Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a multilevel statistical test which is utilized to evaluate or measure the scales in order to know the small number of the constructs (Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016; Walker, 2010). In the present study, CFA was employed in order to test the convergent and discriminant validity of the measures based on the values of chi-square test and a set of fit indexes. These tests and indices allow to decide whether a given model fits significantly better or worse than a competing model.

To ensure convergent validity, whether the items load to the latent construct they are supposed to represent or not is tested. Table 4 shows all scale measures and their items included in the CFA. According to the table, factor loadings (standardized weights) vary between .42 and .67 and all of them are statistically significant. Besides, no significant cross-loading was observed. Furthermore, the coefficients of determination (R^2) suggest that the variance in a particular construct explained by each item ranges from weak (.16) to high (.53). As a result of these findings, no items were kept in the analysis.

Table 4. Factor Loadings, R^2 s, and Item Means

Variables	Scale Items	1	2	3	4	R^2	Item Means
Work Effort							
	Work effort 1	0.50				.23	3.72
	Work effort 2	0.45				.18	3.66
	Work effort 3	0.51				.24	3.67
	Work effort 4	0.49				.23	3.75
	Work effort 5	0.50				.23	3.72
	Work effort 6	0.45				.18	3.95
Work Engagement							
	Work engagement 1		0.67			.45	3.42
	Work engagement 2		0.65			.41	3.42
	Work engagement 3		0.49			.23	3.36
	Work engagement 4		0.54			.28	3.34
	Work engagement 5		0.58			.30	3.77
	Work engagement 6		0.52			.16	3.57
	Work engagement 7		0.55			.30	3.82
Courtesy							

	Courtesy 1			0.51		.26	3.83
	Courtesy 2			0.56		.33	3.74
	Courtesy 3			0.55		.30	3.90
	Courtesy 4			0.46		.20	3.74
	Courtesy 5			0.42		.26	3.60
Altruism							
	Altruism 1				0.48	.22	3.29
	Altruism 2				0.49	.23	3.45
	Altruism 3				0.64	.41	3.29
	Altruism 4				0.65	.42	3.60
	Altruism 5				0.42	.53	3.71

Note: All factor loadings are significant at $p < .01$.

In order to ensure discriminant validity, it should be indicated that all scales variables statistically differentiate from one another (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). To do so, I ran two models and compared which factor structure fits the data better. Model A includes only a single latent variable where all items load to it. Model B is composed of four distinct latent variables (representing the study constructs) where an item loads solely to one of these constructs. All results are given Table 5.

Table 5. CFA Results for Alternative Factorial Models

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	$\Delta\chi^2$	GFI	AGFI	SRMR	CFI	RMSEA
One-factor model (A)	4427.57**	377	11.74	-	.681	.632	.1146	0.426	0.108
Four-factor model (B)	1184.94**	224	5.28	3242.63**	.901	.878	.0539	0.796	0.060

Note. N=931. Numbers in boldface indicate where acceptable benchmark levels were reached. ** $p < .01$.

In Model A (one-factor model), chi square value is 4427.568 while degrees of freedom are 377. In this model, GFI (Goodness of Fit) is .681, AGFI (adjusted goodness of fit) value is .632, CFI (Comparative fit Index) value is 0.0426 and SRMR (Standardized root mean square residual) value is .1146. RMSEA (Root mean square error of approximation) value is 0.108. Normed χ^2 (=Chi-square/ Degrees of freedom) value is 11.74. In Model B (four-factor model), chi square value is 1184.943 while

degree of freedom is 224. In this model CFI value is .796, SRMR value is .0539, RMSEA value is .060. Normed χ^2 value is 5.28.

Based on these values it can be suggested that the four-factor model fits the data much better than the one-factor model. First and foremost, the chi-square difference test is significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 3242.626, p < .001$). Moreover, all goodness-of-fit indices are significantly improved in the four-factor model. Even though a few values are below the fitness criteria, they are still close to it. GFI, RMSEA and SRMR values are all as expected in this model. According to the above, one can conclude that the four-factor model (Model B) explains the factorial structure of the data much better than the single-factor model (Model A). In brief, I was able to obtain substantial support for the construct validity of my scale measures.

4.4. Cluster Analysis Results

Cluster analysis refers as a group of techniques where initial aim is to group objects or observations on the basis of the characteristics they possess. Cluster analysis is considered as one of the best analytical processes to examine whether there are groups of cases in your dataset, and the characteristics of these groups or cases (Ketchen & Shook, 1996; Stephen Spencer, 2014). Such groups/ classifications are also recognized as taxonomies and are most essentially identified through the utilization of cluster analysis (Kaufman & Rousseeuw, 2009). The method is also helpful to provide the deep description of configurations without over-specifying the model of the study. The analysis is useful to get a deep understanding of the phenomena by classifying people or objects into groups (Rousseeuw, 1987). The grouping process is considered supportive to examine or determine the variance among elements classified on the basis of their similarity (Romesburg, 2004). Members of the resulting groups are as similar as possible to others within their group (high within-group homogeneity) and as different as possible to those in other groups (low between-group homogeneity) (Duran & Odell, 2013).

Cluster analysis plays a vital and an important role in two different ways: 1) reduction of the data, and 2) testation of the hypothesis. The decisions that have to be made in a cluster analysis relates to the following key questions: a) how to measure similarity, b) how to form the clusters, and c) how many clusters should be formed (Duran & Odell, 2013). The details of the clustering procedure in the present study and analysis results are given below.

4.4.1. Clustering Process

The aim of cluster analysis in this research is to examine whether there are groups or cases of workplace aggression in study dataset or not and what are the similar characteristics and attributes among them. Therefore, the main objective of this study is to use the cluster analysis to classify the underlying key aggression attributes the results provide a simplified set of data that will make it easier to understand and interpret the study.

One of an essential part in the cluster analysis process is to drive the appropriate set of cluster variables. The derived clusters reproduced the innate structure of the study data and explained by the variables (Duran & Odell, 2013; Ketchen & Shook, 1996). Clustering the variables entails three type of challenges what is the suitable way to select the variables, standardization of variables, and how to deal with the issue of multicollinearity. The selection of the variables in order to include the cluster variable must be done with regard to conceptual and practical considerations (Newby & Tucker, 2004). Therefore, based on the theoretical discussion in the literature, I identified a number of aggression event attributes as our clustering variables. Taking theoretical suggestions as well as the frequencies and correlations with respect to potential variables in the data, I decided on twelve variables to include in the analysis, all of which come from the direct responses of the participants to our survey. To avoid a possible multicollinearity, only the variables which are assumed to be the most relevant and independent from each other were selected.

These clustering variables include the following: Making angry facial expressions or gestures, insulting or making offensive remarks, spreading rumors/ talking behind someone's back, belittling someone or his/her opinions, target's perception of severity (aggression level) in the incident, whether the target believes the aggressive behavior was intentional or not, identity of the perpetrator (supervisor, member of top management, or a coworker), and finally, whether there were any witnesses to the incident. All twelve attributes were measured as dichotomous variables, where value (1) indicates the existence of the attribute and value (0) implies non-existence. As all of our variables were binary and measured in the same way, I did not use any type of standardization.

Since cluster analysis is rather sensitive to outliers, it is important to identify those observations that are potentially different from rest of the data (Milligan & Cooper, 1988). There are different methods which plays vital role to identify or detect

the outliers. One way to do that is to compute pairwise proximities between observations. To find the outliers among the variable is to calculate distance among them. By using Euclidian distance, in present research I developed a matrix of pairwise proximities and compared their distances to the typical response. Cluster analysis groups elements such that the distance between cases along all cluster variables process is limited, variables with large ranges are given more weight in explaining a cluster solution than those with smaller choices (Ketchen & Shook, 1996). As a consequence, a subset of variable can dominate the definition of clusters. To correct this, cases with large differences (dissimilarities) were considered as outliers and were removed from the dataset.

4.4.2. Clustering Algorithm

The choice to sort suitable observation or clustering algorithms is always critical to make the effective use of cluster analysis (Kaufman & Rousseeuw, 2009). At initial stage, the algorithms are helpful to review each observation as a separate cluster and then compile them successively into the smaller numbers of groups, in the end putting all observations into one group. There are two main kinds of algorithms hierarchical and non-hierarchical. In this study both methods of algorithms have been adopted as per the nature of study.

Hierarchical algorithm refers a set of steps that make a tree structure by either adding individual elements to (agglomerative) or deleting them from (divisive) clusters (Romesburg, 2004). In this algorithm, results at an earlier stage are nested within the output at a later stage, creating a similarity to a tree and the number of clusters in the data can only be determined after these estimations. In the current study, the number of different aggression incident clusters were not known in advance, either. Thus, a hierarchical procedure was employed instead of a non-hierarchical (k-means) one. As hierarchical clustering cannot be properly applied to a large sample size, I took a random sample (30%) out of the dataset. Hence, the sample size used in this procedure was 275. Since all 275 observations were obtained through a completely random process and almost one-third of all observations were included in the analysis, representativeness of the entire data was largely ensured. After running a preliminary set of cluster solutions, I was able to determine the appropriate number of clusters that should be produced.

4.4.3. Similarity Measure

In a cluster analysis, the similarity (or dissimilarity) measures used for binary variables are different from those used for continuous variables. Although various similarity measures could be used for binary variables, one of the most prominent measures is the *squared Euclidean distance* since the variables in my study are binary in nature, I used this similarity measure as well. As of the clustering algorithm, I used between-groups linkage, again both as an appropriate and widely adopted method for binary data. Once the analysis was run, the resulting agglomeration schedule is used to interpret the clustering process and to determine how many clusters should be generated. Agglomeration schedule output was also used to identify further outliers in the data, those joining to a cluster much later than the other observations. In order to avoid generating very small or insignificant clusters, I also applied a general rule of retaining only those clusters that represent at least 10% of the observations in the sample (minimum cluster size criteria). After the deletion of outliers and omitting small groups of cases behaving very differently from the rest of the data, the cluster analysis was re-performed on the remaining observations.

4.4.4. Determining the Number of Clusters

As of a stopping rule, percentage change in the agglomeration coefficient was used as the key measure of heterogeneity (reduction of similarity) across different cluster solutions whenever two clusters are combined. I also observed the dendrogram and icicle plot as graphical representations to identify the ultimate number clusters that should be produced from the analysis. In comparison to two-, three-, four- and six-cluster solutions, five-cluster solution was found to be representing the data in a much better way.

The hierarchical procedure explains best framework with which to compare any set of cluster solutions and help in order to judge how many clusters should be retained. In the next step, I profiled the five-cluster solution to confirm that the differences between these clusters are indeed distinctive and significant. In order to make this confirmation and define the unique characteristics of each of the five clusters, I ran the nonhierarchical cluster analysis.

4.4.5. Non-Hierarchical Cluster Analysis

Nonhierarchical cluster analysis is sometimes referred to as K-means method. It is an iterative method where a dataset is divided into a pre-specified number of clusters. Non-hierarchical methods vary slightly, but their function is essentially the same (Romesburg, 2004). Most non-hierarchical analysis programs process through two-steps including determining the clustering seeds and assigning the cases into clusters (A. J. Scott & Knott, 1974). Specifying cluster seeds help to detect the initial points to start forming each cluster. The seeds are either pre-specified by the scholars or estimated by a random procedure. As k-means procedure can be sensitive to the order of cases in the dataset, I repeated it by also shuffling the data randomly. I changed the order of the data two times and compared the resulting solutions. Non-hierarchical clustering procedure is very convenient to use with large samples. Thus, it also allowed me to cluster my whole data, as it was empirically and conceptually required in the study.

I ran the non-hierarchical process on all my observations, determining 5-cluster solution as the expected solution. Still, I checked and compared it with a 4-cluster solution as well. The outcome was reflecting that, indeed 5-cluster solution was the best fitting one to the data. Below, Table 6 gives the number of observations (cases) in each of these five clusters. Table 7 presents the means of each variable as well as the one-way ANOVA test results to examine whether there are the five clusters are statistically different across each of the clustering variables.

Table 6. Number of Observations in Each Cluster

	N
Cluster 1	230
Cluster 2	169
Cluster 3	129
Cluster 4	206
Cluster 5	186
Total	920

Table 7. One-Way ANOVA Results for Clusters

		Mean	Std. Deviation	F Statistics	Sig.
1. Making angry facial expressions or gestures	Cluster 1	.09	.282	5.171**	.000
	Cluster 2	.14	.344		
	Cluster 3	.12	.322		
	Cluster 4	.19	.393		
	Cluster 5	.05	.226		
2. Withholding information or resources	Cluster 1	.10	.301	2.515*	.047
	Cluster 2	.09	.294		
	Cluster 3	.20	.403		
	Cluster 4	.14	.349		
	Cluster 5	.15	.353		
3. Insulting or making offensive remarks	Cluster 1	.12	.328	2.421**	.000
	Cluster 2	.15	.362		
	Cluster 3	.09	.280		
	Cluster 4	.15	.358		
	Cluster 5	.07	.256		
4. Interrupting you or “cutting you off” while speaking	Cluster 1	.18	.387	11.570**	.000
	Cluster 2	.30	.458		
	Cluster 3	.13	.340		
	Cluster 4	.05	.225		
	Cluster 5	.13	.336		
5. Spreading rumors/ talking behind your back	Cluster 1	.04	.204	12.920*	.040
	Cluster 2	.01	.108		
	Cluster 3	.13	.304		
	Cluster 4	.08	.268		
	Cluster 5	.20	.400		
6. Belittling you or your opinions	Cluster 1	.13	.333	5.289**	.000
	Cluster 2	.07	.258		
	Cluster 3	.03	.174		
	Cluster 4	.16	.368		
	Cluster 5	.17	.374		
7. Perceived intention	Cluster 1	.735	.442	86.666**	.000
	Cluster 2	.420	.495		
	Cluster 3	.457	.500		
	Cluster 4	.961	.193		
	Cluster 5	.984	.126		
8. Witness presence	Cluster 1	.583	.494	91.302**	.000
	Cluster 2	.314	.465		
	Cluster 3	.209	.408		
	Cluster 4	.884	.321		

	Cluster 5	.860	.347		
9. Supervisor as perpetrator	Cluster 1	.000	.000	8341.584**	.000
	Cluster 2	.988	.108		
	Cluster 3	.000	.000		
	Cluster 4	.981	.138		
	Cluster 5	.000	.000		
10. Top management as perpetrator	Cluster 1	.965	.965	4760.589**	.000
	Cluster 2	.000	.000		
	Cluster 3	.000	.000		
	Cluster 4	.000	.000		
	Cluster 5	.000	.000		
11. Coworker as perpetrator	Cluster 1	.000	.000	3033.029**	.000
	Cluster 2	.000	.000		
	Cluster 3	.930	.255		
	Cluster 4	.000	.000		
	Cluster 5	.968	.177		
12. Severity	Cluster 1	.326	.469	76.388**	.000
	Cluster 2	.083	.088		
	Cluster 3	.008	.479		
	Cluster 4	.646	.499		
	Cluster 5	.548	.478		

Notes: N=920. *p< .05, **p< .01.

As it can be observed from the F-statistics and significance levels in Table 5, the results show that there are indeed significant differences among the five clusters on each of the clustering variables. The significant F-statistics provide a preliminary evidence that the identified clusters are statistically distinctive from one another. Descriptive statistics belonging to these clusters also let us observe how each of them are composed across variables, representing different workplace aggression profiles.

4.4.6. Profiling Workplace Aggression

According to the above findings, the five distinct workplace aggression profiles based on the five-cluster solution can be described as follows:

Cluster 1. Interruptions while speaking and offensive remarks are the two aggression behaviors most experienced by the respondents in this first cluster. However, compared to other four clusters, participants in this cluster have the weakest level of aggression experience across all types. Hence, Cluster-1 is composed of people

who are the least probable victims of aggression in the workplace. Nevertheless, when they happen these behaviors are almost always received from a member of the top management in the organization (96.5%). While the targets largely perceive these behaviors as intentional (73%), their perception of the severity (strength) of such behaviors is rather moderate (below average). More than half of such aggressive incidents include witnesses from the surrounding (58 %).

Cluster 2. Mostly interruptions and cutting offs are included in the aggression incidents within this cluster, followed by making angry facial expressions/ gestures and insulting. In these events, the perpetrator is almost always the immediate supervisor (99 %). It is also notable that in these aggression situations, both perceived strength of the action as well as the perceived intention of harm are quite low. The lowest level of intention implies that the person may not be sure about the exact purpose of the perpetrator, whether it is a negative or neutral one. This might be due to the perception of the aggression incident as a part of the routine interactions with the supervisor; as if a natural outcome of the hierarchical structure they are embedded in. Finally, only one third of the events in this cluster include a witness which may imply that whatever is going on happens between the two parties only.

Cluster 3. This workplace aggression category includes the behavior of withholding information and resources more than any of the other clusters. Except belittling the person or his/her opinions, all other aggression behaviors are also evident in Cluster-3 at minimum levels. It is quite interesting that almost half of the respondents in this category consider such behaviors as unintentional along with a very low perceived severity, even non-existent. In other words, the aggression act within this cluster is perceived by the target person as mild and tolerable instead of a severe one. Coworkers are the perpetrators in most of the incidents while only 21% of these situations include a witness. When combined, severity and intention as key aggressive event attributes have their lowest values in this cluster.

Cluster 4. Perhaps, the most intensive workplace aggression situation is identified by this cluster. Making angry facial expressions or gestures is heavily experienced along with belittling and insulting and offensive remarks. It can be argued that this cluster includes aggression behaviors which are very direct and visible. Perhaps not that surprisingly, the intentionality and severity of the aggression situation as felt by the targets have the highest values among all clusters, 65% and 96% respectively. Thus, the aggression incidents in this category are very strong and are

initiated with the deliberate purpose of harming the person. The strength of the incident is also coupled with the existence of a witness or multiple witnesses (88%). These behaviors almost always come from a supervisor (98%) instead of a coworker or top management member.

Cluster 5. Almost all aggression behaviors except making angry expressions and gestures are included in this last profile. From the most experienced to the least experience they are; spreading rumors/ talking behind someone's back, interrupting or cutting off someone while speaking, belittling people and their opinions and finally withholding information and resources. Spreading rumors and talking behind one's back has its unique noticeable presence only in this cluster. Most of these behaviors (especially the first one) constitute situations where the aggression is indirect yet strongly felt. In this cluster, aggression is almost always received from coworkers and include other members of the organization as witnesses. Thus, this fifth profile mostly captures the situations where several colleagues and different audience are involved instead of a one-to-one direct encounter.

A general assessment of the cluster solutions as determined below indicates that the five workplace aggression profiles differ from one another in several ways: The aggression experiences under the five categories typically include almost all diverse types of aggressive behaviors measured in the study. However, while the first three clusters represent milder and more tolerable manifestations of workplace aggression, the last two clusters represent the examples of some of the most intensive types of aggression that can be observed in the workplace. With respect to perceived severity, Cluster-4 and Cluster-5 include the strongest aggression incidences whereas Cluster-2 and Cluster-3 represent the weakest ones. Cluster-1 might be considered in-between. This scenario repeats itself for the intentionality of the aggression behaviors perceived by the participant: The aggression is regarded as a deliberate act in Cluster-4 and Cluster-5 but as mostly an involuntary one in Cluster-2 and Cluster-3, Cluster-1 being again in the middle of these two poles. Witness presence also varies a lot across the five aggression profiles, from 88% (Cluster-4) to only 21% (Cluster-3). Finally, the identity of the perpetrator differentiates fundamentally across the five clusters: While the perpetrator is the supervisor in Cluster-2 and Cluster-4, it is a coworker in Cluster-3 and Cluster-5. A member of the top management is only the perpetrator in Cluster-1.

The one-way ANOVA results along with the above interpretation provides an important support for the diversity of aggression situations in the workplace. Perhaps more importantly, this diversity not only originated from the existence of different behaviors involved. Along with the multiplicity of several low-intensity and high-intensity, direct and indirect behaviors, a large part of the difference encompass specific aggression event attributes such as perpetrator identity, perceived intention, and degree of severity and witness presence, which have not been considered and measured together before. Hence, all these evidences imply a clear support for Hypothesis 1.

4.5. Relationship between Workplace Aggression Profiles and Emotions

As the next step following running a cluster analysis and finding the most appropriate cluster structure, I generated a series of cross-tabulations to identify the significant relationships between the five aggression profiles and the possible negative emotions employees may feel as a consequence of the particular type of aggression they experience. This can also be thought as the test of Hypothesis 2 which puts forward that different workplace aggression profiles will also be associated with different emotional responses. In order to do that, I ran *chi-square* (χ^2) *significance tests* between each pair of aggression type and the possible thirteen negative emotions measured via the scale. Thus, following relevant recent calls, I included not only the typical negative emotions that have been largely discussed and examined in the literature (e.g. anger, anxiety), but also other possible negative emotions the person can experience once he or she is exposed to aggression in the workplace. The extent of the feeling of each emotion was measured by a 5-points Likert scale (1=not at all, 5=extremely).

Chi-square test is a method commonly used for testing relationships between categorical (nominal) variables or between categorical and ordinal ones, fitting to the situation in my study. Following a chi-squared distribution, it statistically indicates whether a relationship between the variables exist; thus, whether they are independent or not. Along with the typical chi-square value and the significance p-value, I also examined the strength of the possible associations by using *Phi* and *Cramer's V* measures. When their values are below .15, they are considered to be weak. The acceptable level of association signifies those above .15 at minimum.

Initially, the results of the cross-tabulation reveal that only a narrower set of emotions are statistically associated with the aggression profiles. To be specific, being *upset, insulted, anxious, hurt, depressed, angry, frustrated* and *embarrassed* were found to be significantly relevant whereas being *disgusted, frightened, shocked, disappointed* and *miserable* were not. More importantly, the degree to which the first group of relevant emotions are felt also varies immensely across the five aggression profiles. Interestingly, none of the identified negative emotions had a significant association with Cluster-1, Cluster-2 and Cluster-3 aggression profiles. In contrast, they have significant relationships with either Cluster-4 or Cluster-5 aggression type. These key findings are probably a result of the mild and low-intensity aggression content of the first three clusters and a higher-intensity in the latter two. In the literature, it has been often emphasized that people have a more direct and visible emotional and/or psychological response only when the stressful event is strong enough to have an impact. The results suggest that not all types of aggression situations or behaviors make the person emotionally suffer or acknowledge such a suffering. This finding also provides a preliminary evidence that there is not always an emotional mediation process in workplace aggression. Such a mechanism seems to be prominent only if the experienced aggression is remarkable and strong enough for the employee to evaluate it emotionally.

Once we compare Cluster-4 and Cluster-5, it is also apparent that emotions relate to these two aggression profiles in very different ways. For Cluster-4, the emotions most significantly associated with it are being *frustrated* ($\chi^2=29.070$, $p < .01$), *upset* ($\chi^2=26.108$, $p < .01$), *insulted* ($\chi^2=15.020$, $p < .01$) and *embarrassed* ($\chi^2=12.710$, $p < .01$). For Cluster-5, the most relevant emotions are being *angry* ($\chi^2=45.415$, $p < .01$), *hurt* ($\chi^2=28.599$, $p < .01$), *embarrassed* ($\chi^2=26.505$, $p < .01$) and *anxious* ($\chi^2=20.792$, $p < .01$). These results indicate that the two aggression profiles trigger completely different sets of emotions within the target employee. While frustration and sadness are the most dominant feelings in the former one, anger and hurt are the most relevant for the latter.

Logically, these different emotions will in turn lead to different outcomes. As an example, it is obvious that frustration and anger will activate different attitudes and behaviors. It is also noteworthy that the only common strong emotion significantly associated with both aggression profiles is embarrassment. This is an emotion on which there have been very limited theoretical discussion. The reason why it came out

as one of the most prominent negative emotions among Pakistani employees might be very much related with the cultural and social context as well. It can imply that in collectivist and honor cultures, when employees face with insults, rumors or belittling, they may “lose face” and become uncomfortable and ashamed instead of feeling other emotions. It is also interesting that anger and anxiety are only associated with one type of aggression (Cluster-5). This challenges the common assumption on the universality and strength of these two emotions in workplace aggression.

In conclusion, the argument that distinct aggression profiles will associate with different negative emotions (Hypothesis 2) is supported. Based on the above findings, specific sets of emotions were chosen to be included in the testing of Hypothesis 3, which suggests that diverse emotional responses will mediate the relationship between distinct aggression profiles and employee outcomes. Yet, according to the results of the chi-square tests and the inferences provided above, this mediation will only be applicable for aggression profile-4 and aggression profile-5.

4.6. Regression Results

As depicted in the above section, my study has five binary independent variables which consist of five different workplace aggression profiles identified through cluster analysis. Therefore, I designed and ran five different sets of ordinary least squares (OLS) regression models for each one. For each aggression profile, its effect on six employee outcomes were estimates; work engagement, lateness, absenteeism, job satisfaction, courtesy and altruism. The moderation effect of identification with supervisor/coworker and social comparison is tested in every model. The focus of the identification variable alters according to who the perpetrator is in the given aggression experience; supervisor/top manager or a coworker. The mediation of negative emotions and possible moderated mediation effect are only tested for aggression profile-4 and profile-5 (please see the reasoning for it in the previous section). The rest of the chapter systematically describes all these regression results in detail.

4.6.1. Results for Aggression Profile-1

OLS regression results for aggression profile-1 are given in Table 8. First, the table reveals that this particular aggression type has significant relationships with most of the dependent variables (job satisfaction, altruism, work engagement, and lateness).

When an employee experiences such an aggression incident, his/her job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.410, p < .01$), work engagement ($\beta = -0.135, p < .01$) and altruistic behavior ($\beta = -0.131, p < .01$) significantly decreases yet the behavior of being late for work ($\beta = .197, p < .05$) increases.

With respect to the moderators, the direct effect of supervisor identification is only significant ($\beta = 0.107, p < .01$) on job satisfaction. However, it does not show any direct influence on rest of the other outcomes. More importantly, no moderation effect of supervisor identification was found on the relationship between aggression profile-1 and any dependent variable. On the other hand, the findings reveal that the other moderator of the study, social comparison, has negative but significant relationships with job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.191, p < .01$) and courtesy ($\beta = -0.050, p < .05$). It shows that when employees feel an inferior position in the workplace social comparisons, their job satisfaction level decreases and courtesy behavior weakens. Yet, similar to supervisor identification, social comparison does not have any conditional effect on the aggression incident – outcome relationship either. Thus, no moderation was found either for social comparison, or for supervisor identification.

In the models with the moderator of social comparison, aggression profile-1 is yet again significantly associated with job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.419, p < .01$), work engagement ($\beta = 0.125, p < .01$), and altruism ($\beta = 0.117, p < .01$), but not with courtesy, lateness or absenteeism. As of control variables, Table 6 indicates no direct influence of them on dependent variables. Only contract type (full-time vs. part-time contract) shows significant impact on job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.117, p < .01$), work engagement, ($\beta = 0.121, p < .01$) and altruism ($\beta = 0.099, p < .05$). This result suggests that employees who have jobs with full-time contract have higher job satisfaction, work engagement, and altruism, which is not surprising. Stronger feeling of job security often brings more positive attitudes and behaviors.

Table 8. OLS Regression Estimates of Aggression Type-1

<i>Control Variables</i>	Job Satisfaction		Lateness		Absenteeism		Work Engagement		Courtesy		Altruism	
	Sup. Iden.	Soc. Comp.	Sup. Iden.	Soc. Comp.	Sup. Iden.	Soc. Comp.	Sup. Iden.	Soc. Comp.	Sup. Iden.	Soc. Comp.	Sup. Iden.	Soc. Comp.
Age	0.033 (.05)	0.010 (.05)	-0.013(.09)	-0.009(.09)	-.038 (.07)	-.039 (.07)	-0.027 (.04)	-0.296 (.04)	0.108(.04)	0.101 (.04)	0.064 (.04)	0.063 (.04)
Gender	-0.027 (.04)	-0.020 (.04)	0.129(.08)	-0.127 (.08)	-.145 (.05)	0.144 (.06)	0.048 (.03)	0.051 (.03)	-0.016 (.03)	-0.019 (.03)	-0.049 (.04)	-0.051 (.04)
Position	.027 (.045)	0.029 (.05)	-0.219(.10)	-0.122 (.10)	0.019 (.07)	0.018 (.07)	0.049 (.04)	0.049 (.04)	-0.027 (.04)	-0.027 (.04)	0.048 (.04)	0.048 (.04)
Contract	.117**(.05)	0.138** (.05)	0.03(.09)	0.029 (.09)	0.110 (.06)	0.108 (.06)	0.099*(.04)	.102*(.04)	0.047 (.04)	.051 (.04)	.121**(.04)	.121**(.04)
University Type	-0.007 (.04)	0.049 (.04)	0.06 (.08)	0.060 (.08)	-0.054 (.05)	-0.061 (.06)	-0.008(.03)	0.002 (.03)	-0.003 (.03)	0.009 (.03)	-0.032 (.03)	-0.029 (.03)
Education	-0.010 (.05)	-0.017 (.05)	0.014 (.08)	-.0123 (.08)	-.067 (.06)	-0.064 (.06)	-.015 (.03)	-0.014 (.03)	-0.048 (.03)	-0.048 (.03)	0.005 (.04)	0.005 (.04)
Aggression-1	.410**(.05)	-.419** (.05)	.197*(.09)	0.185*(.09)	-.002(.06)	-0.017 (.06)	.135**(.04)	.125**(.04)	-.084*(.04)	0.076 (.04)	.131**(.04)	-.117**(.04)
Supervisor Identification	.107** (.01)		-0.005 (.03)		-.022 (.01)		0.007(.013)		0.007 (.01)		-0.007 (.01)	
Agg-1 x Supervisor Iden.	-0.018 (.04)		0.037(.06)		-.038 (.04)		-.026 (.03)		-.013 (.03)		-0.007 (.03)	
Social Comparison		-0.191** (.03)		0.017 (.05)		0.021 (.03)		-0.015 (.02)		-0.050*(.02)		-0.020 (.02)
Agg-1 x Social Comparison		-0.004 (.07)		-0.027 (.13)		0.063 (.08)		-0.002 (.05)		0.048 (.05)		0.008 (.06)
Constant	3.346 (.07)	3.319 (.07)	2.082 (.13)	2.088 (.13)	1.438 (.08)	1.441 (.08)	3.409 (.06)	3.402 (.06)	3.705 (.05)	3.706 (.05)	3.339 (.05)	3.340 (.05)
R ²	0.1660	0.1492	0.0133	0.0130	0.0117	0.0103	0.0211	0.0201	0.0161	0.0217	0.0240	0.0243
<i>F-value</i>	22.53**	20.89**	1.2096	1.1696	1.2057	1.1027	2.1447*	2.1592*	1.6625	2.2252**	2.7281**	2.6991**

4.6.2. Results for Aggression Profile-2

Below, Table 9 represents all model estimate results for aggression type-2. It reveals that none of the models indicate a significant effect of aggression type-2 on the dependent variables. Supervisor identification shows a direct significant impact only on job satisfaction ($\beta=0.127, p < .01$) whereas it does not show any direct influence on other outcome variables. This suggests that when respondents identify themselves closely with their supervisor, their satisfaction from work increases but other behaviors and attitudes were not affected. Regarding interaction effects, identification with supervisor does not show any significant moderation across all models. With respect to regression models with the other moderator, social comparison is negatively associated with job satisfaction ($\beta= -0.231, p < .01$) and courtesy ($\beta = -0.061, p < .05$) as it was the case for aggression profile-1.

Once more, it shows that the feeling of being negatively evaluated in social comparisons at work decreases an employee's job satisfaction as well the intention of being polite and considerate towards others in the organization.

The results do not indicate any moderation effect neither for identification with supervisor, nor for social comparison variables. Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that the moderation effect of social comparison is almost significant for work engagement, signaling a possible conditioning effect where the negative influence of aggression profile-2 on work engagement becomes stronger when the employee also feels a negative assessment by the supervisor in comparison to coworkers.

Control variables of the present study does not show any direct association with the dependent variables except contract type. Contract type appears to significantly predict job satisfaction, work engagement and altruism for both identification and social comparison moderation models. Hence, full-time employees are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs. Those employees who are permanent staff have also higher levels of work engagement and altruism as compared to temporary part-time employees.

Table 9. OLS Regression Estimates of Aggression Type-2

	Job Satisfaction		Lateness		Absenteeism		Work Engagement		Courtesy		Altruism	
	Sup. Iden.	Soc. Comp.	Sup. Iden.	Soc. Comp.	Sup. Iden.	Soc. Comp.	Sup. Iden.	Soc. Comp.	Sup. Iden.	Soc. Comp.	Sup. Iden.	Soc. Comp.
<i>Control Variables</i>												
Age	0.028 (.04)	0.001 (.04)	-0.016 (.09)	-0.010 (.09)	-0.038 (.07)	-0.036 (.07)	-0.028 (.04)	-0.351(.04)	0.107 (.04)	0.102 (.04)	0.062 (.04)	0.060 (.04)
Gender	-0.033 (.04)	-0.029 (.04)	0.140 (.08)	0.136 (.08)	0.147(.06)	0.147 (.06)	0.047 (.03)	0.050 (.03)	-0.014 (03)	-0.017 (.03)	-.044 (.04)	-0.048 (.04)
Position	0.022 (.05)	0.025 (.05)	-0.217 (.10)	-0.218 (.01)	0.019 (.07)	0.019 (.07)	0.048 (.04)	0.050 (.04)	-.029 (.04)	0.029 (.04)	0.045 (.04)	0.045 (.04)
Contract	0.114* (.05)	0.138** (.05)	0.028 (.09)	0.027 (.09)	0.115 (.06)	0.110 (.06)	0.010*(04)	0.099*(.04)	0.048 (.04)	0.054 (.04)	.120**(.04)	.123**(.04)
University Type	0.016 (.04)	0.069 (.04)	0.053 (.08)	0.048 (.08)	-.057 (.05)	-0.065 (.06)	0.001 (.03)	0.004 (.03)	0.003 (.03)	0.102 (.03)	-0.032 (.03)	-0.025 (.03)
Education	0.002 (.04)	-0.006 (.04)	0.008 (.08)	0,008 (.08)	-.067 (.06)	-0.065 (.06)	-.010 (.03)	-0.009 (.03)	-.045 (.03)	-0.047 (.03)	0.008 (.04)	0.007 (.04)
<i>Predictors</i>												
Aggression-2	-0.095 (0.05)	-0.120 (.05)	0.056 (.10)	0.085 (.10)	0.021 (.07)	0.013 (.07)	-0.034 (.05)	-0.058 (.05)	0.016 (04)	0.029 (.04)	0.019 (.04)	0.037 (.04)
Supervisor Identification	.127**(.014)		-.017 (.02)		-.021 (.01)		0.014 (.01)		0.013 (.01)		0.001 (.01)	
Agg-2 x Supervisor Iden.	-.017**(.03)		-.101 (.07)		0.044 (.04)		0.008 (.03)		0.004 (.02)		-0.027 (.03)	
Social Comparison		-0.231** (.02)		0.032 (.05)		0.021 (.03)		-0.026 (.02)		-0.061**(.02)		-0.035 (.02)
Agg-2 x Social Comparison		0.062 (.06)		0.083 (.13)		-0.016 (.09)		0.115 (.06)		-0.044 (.05)		0.002 (.06)
Constant	3.345 (.06)	3.320 (.07)	2.079 (.12)	2.088 (.12)	1.433 (.08)	1.434 (.08)	3.406 (.06)	3.400 (.06)	3.702 (.05)	3.700 (.05)	3.336 (.05)	3.337 (.05)
R ²	0.1055	0.0848	0.0120	0.0101	0.0117	0.0097	0.0117	0.0152	0.0120	0.0188	0.0164	0.0179
<i>F-value</i>	10.656**	9.4505**	1.1533	0.9288	1.1730	1.0354	0.9850	1.3306	1.1679	1.9958*	1.8720*	1.8822*

4.6.3. Results for Aggression Profile-3

Table 10 shows that aggression incident profile-3 have a direct and positive effect with almost all dependent variables including job satisfaction ($\beta=0.367, p < 0.1$), courtesy ($\beta=0.129, p < .01$), altruism ($\beta=0.115, p < .05$), work engagement ($\beta=0.149, p < .01$), and absenteeism ($\beta=0.228, p < .01$) in first moderating models. However, it does not have any predictor power on lateness, as one of the withdrawal behaviors investigated. The results for the impact of aggression incident on outcomes is almost the same for the models with social comparison.

Surprisingly, experiencing this type of aggression incident has an association to each of the listed employee outcomes in a direction which is opposite to what can be typically expected. A possible explanation for this can be the distinctive content of this aggression cluster as described in cluster analysis section in detail. As opposed to others, this cluster represents the weakest form of aggression which almost always comes from the coworkers. Participants who are exposed to this type of aggression perceive it very weak and unintentional as opposed to strong and intentional. Hence, probably they perceive it as a typical part of routine daily work and an indicator of close relationships. It may show a general content due to collaborative interactions and being taken seriously by others.

Alternatively, when employees receive such behaviors from coworkers, they may see it as a warning and fear that something does not go well and they are being put under the spotlight. Then, they might be more likely to increase their efforts for work and supportive organizational relationships while avoiding withdrawal as much as possible. So, it can be an attempt for avoiding being the target of such behaviors in the future by increasing work efforts and treating others more thoughtfully. One should also remember that researchers put the labels of “aggression” or “misconduct” to specific acts at work. Employees might not perceive some behaviors as aggressive at all. Culture might also have an effect on these where normative values lead them to push themselves more for work when they receive some criticism from others.

Table 10. OLS Regression Estimates of Aggression Type-3

<i>Control Variables</i>	Job Satisfaction		Lateness		Absenteeism		Work Engagement		Courtesy		Altruism	
	Cow. Iden.	Soc. Comp.	Cow. Iden.	Soc. Comp.	Cow. Iden.	Soc. Comp.	Cow. Iden.	Soc. Comp.	Cow. Iden.	Soc. Comp.	Cow. Iden.	Soc. Comp.
Age	0.026 (.05)	-0.007 (.04)	-0.007 (.09)	-0.003 (.09)	-0.026 (.07)	-0.034 (.07)	-0.034 (.04)	-0.038 (.04)	0.103 (.04)	0.096 (.04)	0.060 (.04)	0.057 (.04)
Gender	0.012 (.04)	-0.022 (.04)	0.112 (.08)	0.127 (.08)	0.147 (.05)	0.147 (.05)	0.053 (.03)	0.050 (.03)	-0.010 (.03)	-0.019 (.03)	-0.047 (.04)	-0.052 (.04)
Position	0.005 (.05)	0.019 (.05)	-0.215 (.10)	-0.217 (.10)	0.019 (.07)	0.024 (.07)	0.046 (.04)	0.048 (.04)	-0.030 (.04)	-0.027 (.04)	0.045 (.04)	0.046 (.04)
Contract	0.123*(.05)	0.141**(.05)	0.032 (.09)	0.028 (.09)	0.110 (.06)	0.110 (.06)	.102**(.04)	0.103*(.04)	0.047 (.04)	0.051 (.04)	.119**(.04)	.122**(.04)
University Type	0.017 (.04)	0.0674 (.04)	0.060 (.08)	0.053 (.08)	-0.067 (.05)	-0.066 (.06)	0.002 (.03)	0.004 (.03)	-0.005(.03)	0.008 (.03)	-.029 (.03)	-0.025 (.03)
Education	-0.028 (.04)	-0.009 (.04)	0.012 (.08)	0.009 (.08)	-0.070 (.06)	-0.064 (.06)	-0.012 (.03)	-0.012 (.03)	-0.048 (.03)	-0.046 (.03)	0.007 (.04)	0.0008 (.04)
<i>Predictors</i>												
Aggression-3	.367**(.05)	.309**(.05)	-.111 (.11)	-.103 (.12)	-.228**(.06)	-.250**(.07)	.149**(.05)	0.115*(.05)	.129**(.04)	0.097*(.04)	0.115*(.05)	0.103*(.05)
Coworker Identification	0.107**(.01)		-0.028 (.02)		0.012 (.02)		-0.001(.01)		0.025 (.01)		0.015 (.01)	
Agg-3 x coworker Iden.	-0.049 (.04)		-0.048 (.07)		-0.122* (.05)		0.011 (.014)		0.070* (.03)		0.053 (.04)	
Social Comparison		0.222**(.02)		0.033 (.05)		0.007 (.03)		-0.024 (.02)		-0.056 (.02)		-0.028 (.02)
Agg-3 x Social Comparison		-0.059 (.08)		0.044 (.15)		-0.067 (.08)		-0.152 (.08)		-0.152* (.06)		-0.068 (.07)
Constant	3.337 (.07)	3.326 (.07)	2.088 (.12)	2.090 (.12)	1.431(.08)	1.426 (.08)	3.405 (.06)	3.401 (.06)	3.703 (.05)	3.699 (.05)	3.341 (.05)	3.340 (.05)
R ²	0.0905	0.1074	0.0107	0.0098	0.0226	0.0185	0.0182	0.0239	0.0269	0.0301	0.0238	0.0228
<i>F-value</i>	9.0343**	13.6874**	0.9963	0.8885	2.9451**	2.3813**	1.8966*	2.5643**	2.8990**	3.6033**	2.4131**	2.2730**

In the models for aggression type-3, coworker identification positively predicts job satisfaction ($\beta=.107, p < .01$) which means strong connections and identity-based similarity to coworkers increase job satisfaction for the focal employee. Rest of the dependent variables show no association with it. Social comparison also significantly affects job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.220, p < .01$) and courtesy ($\beta= -0.056, p <.05$) in a negative way. More importantly, the results also reveal significant moderation effects for both factors: While coworker identification conditions the effect of aggression on courtesy ($\beta= 0.070, p < .05$), and absenteeism ($\beta= -0.122, p < .05$), social comparison do it for courtesy ($\beta= -0.152, p < .05$), only. The interpretation of these results is that while having an experience of aggression type-3 increases the levels of courtesy, this relationship become stronger when there is higher identification with coworkers and stronger social comparisons against the employee.

In Table 10, most of the control variables do not show any significance relationship with dependent variable. Once again, only contract type significantly predicts job satisfaction ($\beta=.123, p <.01$ work engagement ($\beta= -0.101, p <.01$), and altruism ($\beta= -0.119, p <.01$). Results suggests that employees who work as permanent staff feel more satisfied and they engage more in work engagement and altruism.

4.6.4. Results for Aggression Profile-4

Unlike the first three aggression incident types, regression models for aggression type-4 and aggression type-5 not only include the moderating effects but they also consider the possible mediating effect of negative emotions between the independent and dependent variables. Additionally, as a combination of the two, moderated mediation effects (full study model) were also tested for these two aggression incident types.

As being sad, frustrated, insulted and embarrassed are the strongest negative emotions associated with aggression type-4, the models were only estimated with these four emotions. While Table 11 summarizes all model results for sadness and frustration, Table 11 recaps those for the feelings of being insulted and embarrassed.

Table 11(a). OLS Regression Estimates of Aggression Type-4 (Mediation of Frustration and Sadness)

	Job Satisfaction		Lateness		Absenteeism		Work Engagement		Courtesy		Altruism	
	Frustration	Sadness	Frustration	Sadness	Frustration	Sadness	Frustration	Sadness	Frustration	Sadness	Frustration	Sadness
Age	0.009 (.05)	0.023 (.04)	0.008 (.09)	-0.007 (.09)	-0.029 (.06)	-0.032 (.06)	-0.037 (.04)	-0.030 (.04)	0.108 (.04)	0.107 (.04)	0.062 (.04)	0.064 (.04)
Gender	-0.014 (.04)	-0.020 (.04)	0.119 (.08)	0.126 (.08)	0.140 (.05)	0.144 (.06)	0.055 (.04)	0.054 (.04)	-0.017 (.04)	-0.013 (.03)	-0.050 (.04)	-0.046 (.03)
Position	0.006 (.05)	-0.002 (.05)	-0.212 (.10)	-0.206 (.10)	0.034 (.06)	0.037 (.06)	0.040 (.05)	0.035 (.05)	-0.034 (.04)	0.035 (.04)	0.037 (.05)	0.034 (.04)
Contract	0.116** (.05)	.136** (.05)	0.021 (.09)	0.010 (.09)	0.116 (.06)	0.106 (.06)	.023** (.04)	.111** (.04)	0.052 (.04)	0.057 (.04)	.125** (.05)	.132** (.04)
University Type	0.013 (.04)	0.023 (.04)	0.067 (.07)	0.053 (.08)	-0.061 (.05)	-.064 (.06)	-0.004 (.04)	0.004 (.03)	0.001 (.03)	0.001 (.03)	-0.026 (.04)	-0.025 (.03)
Education	-0.005 (.05)	-0.026 (.05)	0.007 (.08)	.025 (.08)	-.060 (.06)	-.051 (.06)	-0.012 (.04)	-0.023 (.04)	-0.044 (.04)	-0.054 (.03)	.009 (.04)	-0.008 (.04)
Aggression-4	-.361** (.06)	-.359** (.06)	0.166 (.10)	0.179 (.09)	.329** (.09)	.328** (.09)	-.186** (.05)	-.175** (.05)	-1.14 (.05)	-0.083 (.04)	-.196** (.05)	-.165** (.05)
Emotion: <i>Frustration</i>	-.132** (.02)		.139** (.04)		0.046 (.03)		-.048* (.02)		0.018 (.02)		0.011 (.02)	
Emotion: <i>Sadness</i>		-.164** (.02)		.136** (.04)		.064 (.03)		-.086** (.01)		-.071** (.01)		-.078** (.01)
Supervisor Identification	.107** (.01)	.102** (.01)	-.0007 (.03)	-.003 (.02)	-0.004 (.02)	0.001 (.01)	0.004 (.01)	0.001 (.01)	0.007 (.01)	0.005 (.01)	-0.001 (.01)	-0.012 (.01)
Aggression-4 x Sup. Iden.	-.093** (.03)	-0.118** (.03)	0.097 (.06)	0.127* (.06)	0.039 (.05)	0.035 (.05)	-0.057 (.03)	-.075* (.03)	-0.050 (.03)	-.063* (.02)	-.075* (.03)	-.092** (.03)
Emotion x Sup. Iden.	-0.004 (.02)	0.014 (.01)	0.051 (.02)	0.003 (.02)	-0.007 (.02)	0.014 (.01)	-0.005 (.01)	0.017 (.01)	-0.004 (.01)	0.016 (.01)	-0.002 (.01)	.025* (.01)
Constant	3.347 (.06)	3.334 (.06)	2.100 (.13)	2.112 (.12)	1.419 (.08)	1.423 (.08)	3.402 (.06)	3.396 (.06)	3.695 (.05)	3.692 (.05)	3.329 (.06)	3.326 (.05)
R ²	0.1916	0.22133	0.0331	0.0307	0.0366	0.0403	0.0395	0.0624	0.0204	0.0418	0.0333	0.0573
<i>F-value</i>	17.939**	22.2703**	2.6501**	2.1823**	2.642**	3.049**	2.8056**	4.3147**	1.6057	3.1750**	2.7859**	4.2818**
Direct & Indirect Effects												
Conditional direct effect	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Conditional indirect effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No
Moderated Mediation	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes

4.6.7. Moderated Mediation Model for Being Frustrated

The moderated mediation models for the feeling of frustration reveals that experiencing aggression profile-4 has a significant direct effect on all dependent variables except lateness (see Table 11). When an employee is involved in such an aggression situation, his/her job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.36, p < .01$), work engagement ($\beta = -0.19, p < .01$), as well as courtesy ($\beta = -0.11, p < .05$), and altruism ($\beta = -0.20, p < .01$) behaviors significantly decreases. This employee is also significantly more likely to be absent from work ($\beta = 0.33, p < .01$).

With respect to the mediation effect of the emotion of frustration between aggression profile-4 and the outcome variables, Table 11 indicates that there is a significant mediation process for job satisfaction and lateness (Boot LLCI and Boot ULCI values are all negative). Thus, the negative effect of the aggression incidents in the particular cluster on the two dependent variables are transmitted through the impact of being frustrated. It means that the offensive remarks or aggression profile 4 makes an employee more frustrated and this, in turn, leads to lower job satisfaction and higher levels of being late for work. Yet, such an emotion-based mechanism is not observed for the other dependent variables.

Regarding the moderation effect of identification with supervisor, Table 11(a) shows that the relationship between aggression profile-4 and work outcomes of job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.09, p < .01$), work effort ($\beta = -0.05, p < .05$), and altruism ($\beta = -0.07, p < .05$) are moderated by the identification level of the employee with the supervisor. That is, the level of the impact of workplace aggression on these three outcomes depends (is conditional) on the level of supervisor identification. Since the effect is negative, it shows that the damaging effect of aggression on the target employee will decrease (get smaller) as supervisor identification level increases. Then, as it is hypothesized, supervisor identification imposes a buffering effect, weakening the undesirable influence of aggression. However, this buffer effect is not present for the other dependent variables.

Finally, when we examine the moderated mediation analysis results, it is clear that such a combined effect is not significant for any of the dependent variables. Lateness is the only exception to this. Table x reveals that the mediation of frustration between experienced aggression and being late to work is conditional on supervisor identification (BootLLCI = .0002; BootULCI = .0398). Supervisor identification mitigate the strength of the negative emotional mechanism. For the higher levels of

identification, the mediation effect is weaker whereas for the lower levels of it, the mediation effect is stronger.

4.6.8. Moderated Mediation Models for Being Sad

The moderated mediation models for being upset depicts that aggression profile-4 has a significant direct effect on all the dependent variables except lateness and courtesy (see Table 11). It is noticeable from the findings that if an employee becomes a target of this kind of aggression his/ her job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.164$, $p < .01$), work engagement ($\beta = -0.175$, $p < .01$) and altruistic behavior ($\beta = -0.165$, $p < .01$) start decreasing. Employees experiencing this type of aggression are also significantly more likely to be absent from work ($\beta = 0.328$, $p < .01$).

The emotion of being upset has significant direct effects on all outcome variables. With respect to its mediation effect, regression results indicate that there is a significant mediation process between the experienced aggression and all outcome variables. Hence, the negative influence of the aggression incidents in the particular cluster on each dependent variable is transmitted with the influence of being sad as a result of the incident. It shows that the aggression incident makes the employee more upset and this in turn leads to decreased levels of job satisfaction, courtesy, altruism and work engagement and increased levels of withdrawal behaviors.

The influence of identification with supervisor as a moderator between aggression profile-4 and the outcome variables are all significant except for the two withdrawal behaviors. This suggests that the impact of aggression type-4 is significantly conditioned by the employee's identification level with his/her supervisor. The negative moderation values show that in the presence of supervisor identification, the damage of aggression on employees' job satisfaction, work engagement, and OCB behaviors becomes weaker. More importantly, Table 11(a) shows a significant conditioning impact of supervisor identification between being upset and altruism ($\beta = 0.025$, $p < .05$). Thus, the negative influence of being sad on demonstrating altruistic behaviors towards others in the organization is variant across different levels of supervisor identification.

Table 11(b). OLS Regression Estimates of Aggression Type-4 (Mediation of Insult and Embarrassment)

<i>Control Variables</i>	Job Satisfaction		Lateness		Absenteeism		Work Engagement		Courtesy		Altruism	
	Embarrassed	Insulted	Embarrassed	Insulted	Embarrassed	Insulted	Embarrassed	Insulted	Embarrassed	Insulted	Embarrassed	Insulted
Age	0.025 (.04)	0.025 (.04)	-0.010 (.08)	-0.005 (.08)	-0.038 (.06)	-0.034 (.06)	-0.029 (.04)	-0.030 (.04)	0.107 (.04)	0.104 (.04)	0.065(.04)	0.061 (.04)
Gender	-0.012 (.04)	-0.019 (.04)	0.124 (.08)	0.122 (.08)	0.141 (.05)	0.140 (.05)	0.054 (.03)	0.053 (.03)	-0.014 (.03)	-0.017 (.03)	-0.046 (.04)	-0.049 (.04)
Position	-0.010 (.05)	-0.007 (.05)	-0.192 (.10)	-0.202 (.04)	0.045 (.06)	0.041 (.06)	0.032 (.04)	0.034 (.04)	-0.036 (.04)	-0.031 (.04)	0.033 (.04)	0.036 (.04)
Contract	0.122**(04)	0.123**(05)	0.023 (.09)	0.014 (.09)	0.112 (.06)	0.109 (.06)	0.104**(04)	0.103**(04)	0.051 (.04)	0.052 (.04)	0.126**(04)	0.125**(04)
University Type	0.029(.04)	0.020 (.04)	0.041 (.07)	0.058 (.07)	-0.069 (.05)	-0.062 (.05)	0.007 (.03)	0.003 (.03)	0.002 (.03)	-0.004(.03)	-0.024 (.03)	-0.027 (.03)
Education	-0.019 (.04)	-0.008 (.04)	0.029 (.08)	0.019 (.08)	-0.050 (.06)	-0.053 (.06)	-0.0189 (.03)	-0.013 (.03)	-0.047 (.03)	-0.043(.03)	0.004 (.04)	0.009 (.04)
<i>Predictors</i>												
Aggression-4	-3.79** (.05)	-3.96**(.05)	0.200* (.10)	0.170 (.10)	0.325**(08)	0.333**(08)	-0.190**(05)	-0.199**(05)	-0.102*(.04)	-0.112*(.04)	-0.182**(05)	-0.191**(05)
Emotion: <i>Being insulted</i>		-.078**(01)		0.125**(03)		0.077**(02)		-.050** (.01)		0.022(.01)		-0.002 (.01)
Emotion: <i>Embarrassment</i>	-.101**(01)		0.151**(03)		0.072**(02)		-.027 (.01)		-0.021 (.01)		-0.037* (.01)	
Supervisor Identification	.104** (.01)	0.106**(.01)	-0.003 (.02)	-0.006 (.02)	0.002 (.01)	-0.003(.01)	0.002 (.12)	0.004 (.01)	0.006 (.01)	0.007 (.01)	-0.012 (.01)	-0.010 (.01)
Aggression-4 x Sup_Iden.	-.094**(03)	-0.104**(03)	0.106 (.06)	0.113 (.06)	0.404 (.05)	0.0336 (.05)	-0.060 (.03)	-0.631 (.03)	-0.102 (.04)	-0.047 (.02)	-0.077* (.03)	-0.074* (.03)
Emotion x Sup_Iden.	-0.002 (.01)	0.002 (.01)	0.019 (.02)	0.039 (.02)	-0.004 (.01)	0.017 (.01)	0.005 (.01)	0.006 (.01)	-0.051 (.02)	-0.004 (.01)	0.021 (.01)	0.001 (.01)
Constant	3.346 (.06)	3.342 (.06)	2.098 (.12)	2.108 (.12)	1.418 (.08)	0.1421 (.08)	3.402 (.06)	3.400 (.06)	0.005 (.01)	3.695 (.05)	3.331 (.05)	3.330 (.05)
R ²	0.1857	0.1730	0.0380	0.0322	0.0425	0.0440	0.0433	0.0356	0.0217	0.0217	0.0395	0.0330
<i>F-value</i>	18.4523**	17.0799**	3.0043**	2.6142**	2.8200**	3.0847**	3.2025**	2.647**	1.6826	1.7658*	3.0958**	2.7137**
Direct and Indirect Effects												
Conditional direct effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Conditional indirect effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No
Moderated Mediation	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No

Finally, moderated mediation analysis results also confirm such a significant effect only for the outcome of altruism. The mediating impact of being upset between experienced aggression and altruism is conditional on supervisor identification (Boot LLCI = .0001; Boot ULCI = .0211). Supervisor identification mitigate the strength of the negative emotional path between the independent and dependent variable. For the higher levels of identification, the mediation effect of sadness is weaker whereas for the lower levels of it, the mediation effect is stronger.

4.6.9. Moderated Mediation Models for Being Insulted

The moderated mediation model results for the emotional response of feeling insulted show that aggression profile-4 significantly predicts all dependent variables except one of them (Table 11b). When employees experience such aggression imposed on themselves, their job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.396, p < .01$), work engagement ($\beta = -0.199, p < .01$), courtesy ($\beta = -0.112, p < .05$), and altruism ($\beta = -0.191, p < .01$) behaviors diminish. These employees are also significantly more likely to be absent from work ($\beta = 0.333, p < .01$).

The results for the mediation of feeling insulted between aggression profile-4 and the outcome variables indicate that there are indeed significant mediation processes for job satisfaction, lateness, altruism, work engagement, and absenteeism whereas there is no such effect for the courtesy model. It means that negative influences of the particular aggression experience are transferred to these four employee outcomes through the influence of feeling oneself insulted. Thus, the aggression experience makes an employee feel insulted and this new emotional situation decreases his/her job satisfaction, work engagement and altruism and increasing the likelihood of absenteeism and lateness behaviors.

Table 11b shows that the impact of aggression profile-4 on job satisfaction is conditioned by the level of supervisor identification ($\beta = -0.104, p < .01$). That is, the negative effect of experiencing this type of aggression is weakened when the target employee has higher levels of identification with his/her supervisor. The same moderation effect is also evident for the altruism outcome ($\beta = -0.075, p < .05$) implying that the adverse effect of such aggression incidents on the concern for the well-being of others at workplace is alleviated by the ongoing close bond between the

employee and the supervisor. On the other hand, no interaction effect was found significant for other variables.

None of the tested moderations between the emotion of being insulted and the six dependent variables were significant, either. Similarly, no significant moderated mediation effect was found.

4.6.10. Moderated Mediation Model for Being Embarrassed

According to Table 11b, aggression profile-4 significantly predicts all dependent variables. When an employee is involved in such an aggression situation, his/her job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.379$, $p < .01$), work engagement ($\beta = -0.190$, $p < .01$) as well as courtesy ($\beta = -0.102$, $p < .05$), and altruism ($\beta = -0.182$, $p < .01$) behaviors significantly decrease. This employee is also significantly more likely to be absent from work ($\beta = 0.325$, $p < .01$) and being late ($\beta = 0.200$, $p < .05$).

The mediation effect of embarrassment is present in the relationships between aggression profile-4 and job satisfaction and work withdrawal dimensions. So the negative impact of being the target of such aggression for these variables is conveyed through a strong feeling of embarrassment. The embarrassment resulting from specific aggression incidents causes the employee to have less job satisfaction and higher tendencies of work withdrawal. Such a mediation is not observed for other dependent variables.

Regarding the moderation of identification with supervisor, Table 10 shows that the relationship between aggression profile-4 and work outcomes of job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.094$, $p < .01$), and altruism ($\beta = -0.077$, $p < .05$) are moderated by the identification level of the employee with the supervisor. That is, the level of the impact of the particular workplace aggression type on these two outcomes is conditional) on the level of supervisor identification. It shows that the damaging effect of this aggression on the target employee will become smaller as supervisor identification level increases. Then, as it is hypothesized, supervisor identification yet again weakens the adverse impact of aggression. However, this effect is not present for rest of the dependent variables. No moderation on the emotion-outcomes link was detected either. Relatedly, a possible moderation-mediation combined effect was not found.

Table 11 (c). OLS Regression Estimates of Aggression Type-4 (Mediation of Frustration and Sadness)

	Job Satisfaction		Lateness		Absenteeism		Work Engagement		Courtesy		Altruism	
	Frustration	Sadness	Frustration	Sadness	Frustration	Sadness	Frustration	Sadness	Frustration	Sadness	Frustration	Sadness
Age	.0001 (.04)	.0129 (.04)	.0013(.08)	-.0086 (.09)	-.0343(.06)	-.0378 (.06)	-.0323 (.04)	-.0279(.04)	.1113(.04)	.1109 (.04)	.0696 (.04)	-.0710(.04)
Gender	-.0132(.04)	-.0195 (.04)	.0162(.08)	.1258 (.08)	.1399 (.05)	.1434 (.05)	.0538 (.03)	.0523 (.03)	-.0243 (.03)	-.0201 (.03)	-.0559(.04)	-.051 (.0399)
Position	.0074 (.05)	.0004 (.05)	-.2129 (.10)	-.2058 (.10)	-.0356(.07)	-.0392 (.07)	.0399 (.04)	.0373(.04)	-.0315(.04)	-.0312(.04)	.0393(.04)	.0395 (.04)
Contract	.1320** (.05)	.1506**(.04)	.0382 (.09)	.0227(.09)	.1179(.06)	.1127(.06)	.0982*(.04)	.1073* (.04)	.0542(.04)	.0597 (.04)	.1231** (.04)	.1304**(.04)
University Type	.0532 (.04)	.0601 (.04)	.0622 (.08)	.0545 (.08)	-.0557 (.06)	-.0588(.05)	.0000 (.03)	.0025(.03)	.0089 (.03)	.0078 (.03)	--.0268(.03)	-.0276(.03)
Education	-.0180 (.04)	-.0388 (.04)	.0162(.08)	.0321(.08)	-.0580 (.06)	-.0491 (.06)	-.0161 (.03)	-.10273(.03)	-.0461(.03)	-.0568 (.03)	.0070(.04)	-.0045(.04)
Aggression-4	-.392** (.05)	-.3.8** (.05)	.1252(.09)	.1331(.10)	.3321**(.08)	. 3279(.08)	-.176** (.04)	-.165** (.04)	-.1095*(.04)	-.0800(.04)	.1231**(.05)	-.149** (.05)
Emotion: <i>Frustration</i>	-.128** (.02)		.1402**(.04)		.0475(.03)		-.0484* (.02)		.0182 (.01)		.0099(.02)	
Emotion: <i>Sadness</i>		-.159** (.02)		.1333**(.03)		.0637*(.02)		-.085**(.01)		-.069** (.01)		-.075** (.01)
Social comparison	-.190** (.02)	-.178** (.02)	.0204(.05)	.0077 (.05)	-.0193(.03)	-.0242 (.03)	-.0082(.02)	-.0005 (.02)	-.0522*(.02)	-.0458* (.02)	-.0166(.02)	-.0102 (.02)
Aggression-4 x Soc_Com.	.236** (.06)	.2542(.06)	-.0510(.13)	-.0674(.13)	-.0581(.11)	-.0500 (.11)	.0823(.06)	-.0951 (.05)	.166** (.06)	.176** (.05)	.178** (.06)	.1938(.06)
Emotion x Soc_Com.	-.0195 (.02)	.0025(.02)	-.0793(.05)	-.0484 (.04)	-.0100(.04)	-.0271 (.03)	.0215 (.02)	.0042(.02)	-.0085(.02)	-.0166 (.02)	-.0184(.04)	-.0321 (.02)
Constant	3.32** (.06)	3.31** (.06)	2.08** (.12)	2.08** (.12)	(1.415) (.08)	1.416**(.08)	3.41** (.06)	3.402**(.06)	3.687**(.05)	3.68** (.05)	3.329**(.05)	3.325**(.05)
R ²	.1794	.2061	.0276	.0276	.0367	.0403	0.382	0.566	.0315	.0493	.0355	.0544
<i>F-value</i>	16.2440**	20.540**	2.1628*	2.1610*	2.6455**	3.0042**	2.9379**	4.0963**	2.5952**	3.6475**	2.8347**	3.9439**
Direct & Indirect Effects												
Conditional direct effect	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Conditional indirect effect	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Moderated Mediation	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No

As being sad, frustrated, insulted and embarrassed are the strongest negative emotions associated with aggression type-4, the models were only estimated with these four emotions. While Table 11(c) summarizes all model results for sadness and frustration, Table 11(D) recaps those for the feelings of being insulted and embarrassed with the moderation of social comparison.

4.6.11. Moderated Mediation Model for Being Frustrated

The moderated mediation models for the feeling of frustration reveals that experiencing aggression profile-4 has a significant direct effect on almost all dependent variables (see Table 11c). When an employee is involved in such an aggression situation, his/her job satisfaction ($\beta = -.392, p < .05$), absenteeism ($\beta = .332, p < .05$), work engagement ($\beta = -.1759, p < .05$), courtesy ($\beta = -.1095, p < .01$) and altruism ($\beta = .1231, p < .05$) behaviors significantly decreases.

With respect to the mediation effect of the emotion of frustration between aggression profile-4 and the outcome variables, Table 11 indicates that there is a significant mediation process for job satisfaction and absentism (Boot LLCI and Boot UCLI values are all negative). Thus, the negative effect of the aggression incidents in the particular cluster on the two dependent variables are transmitted through the impact of being frustrated. It means that the offensive remarks or aggression profile 4 makes an employee more frustrated and this, leads to lower job satisfaction and higher levels of being late. Hence, such an emotion-based mechanism is not observed for the other dependent variables.

Regarding the moderation effect of social comparison, Table 11(c) shows that the relationship between aggression profile-4 and work outcomes of job satisfaction ($\beta = -.1903, p < .05$), and courtesy ($\beta = -.052, p < .01$) are moderated by the identification level of the employee with the social comparison. That is, the level of the impact of workplace aggression on these two outcomes depends (is conditional) on the level of social comparison. Since the effect is negative, it shows that the damaging effect of aggression on the target employee will decrease (get smaller) as social comparison level increases. Then, as it is hypothesized, social comparison imposes a buffering effect, reducing the unwanted effect of aggression. Hence, this buffer effect is not existing with other dependent variables.

Finally, when we examine the moderated mediation analysis results, it is clear that such a combined effect is not significant for any of the dependent variables. Social

comparison mitigate the strength of the negative emotional mechanism. For the higher levels of social comparison, the mediation effect is weaker whereas for the lower levels of it, the mediation effect is stronger.

4.6.12. Moderated Mediation Models for Being Sadness

The moderated mediation models for being sadness depicts that aggression profile-4 has a significant direct effect on three dependent variables except lateness and courtesy (see Table 11c). It is noticeable from the findings that if an employee becomes a target of this kind of aggression his/ her job satisfaction ($\beta = -.386, p < .05$), work engagement ($\beta = -.1656, p < .05$) and altruistic behavior ($\beta = -.1498, p < .05$) start decreasing.

The emotion of being sad has significant direct effects on all outcome variables. With respect to its mediation effect, regression results indicate that there is a significant mediation process between the experienced aggression and two outcome variables. Hence, the negative influence of the aggression incidents in the particular cluster on each dependent variable is transmitted with the influence of being sad as a result of the incident. It shows that the aggression incident makes the employee more upset and this in turn leads to decreased levels of job satisfaction, and, altruism.

The influence of identification with social comparison as a moderator between aggression profile-4 and the outcome variables are all significant only two outcome behaviors. This depicts that the impact of aggression type-4 is significantly conditioned by the social comparison. The negative moderation values show that in the presence of social comparison, the damage of aggression on employees' job satisfaction, and altruism are weaker. More importantly, Table 11(c) shows a significant but negative conditioning impact of social between being sad with job satisfaction ($\beta = -.178, p < .05$) altruism ($\beta = -.045, p < .01$). Thus, the negative influence of being sad on demonstrating altruistic behaviors towards others in the organization is variant across different levels of social identity.

Table 11(d). OLS Regression Estimates of Aggression Type-4 (Mediation of Being Embarrassed and Insulted)

	Job Satisfaction		Lateness		Absenteeism		Work Engagement		Courtesy		Altruism	
	Embarrassed	Insulted	Embarrassed	Insulted	Embarrassed	Insulted	Embarrassed	Insulted	Embarrassed	Insulted	Embarrassed	Insulted
<i>Control Variables</i>												
Age	.0001 (.04)	.0144 (.04)	.0013 (.08)	-.0121 (.08)	-.0343(.06)	-.0413 (.06)	-.0323(.04)	-.0275 (.04)	.113 (.04)	.1113 (.04)	.0696 (.04)	.0723 (.04)
Gender	-.0132(.04)	-.0212 (.04)	.1171 (.08)	.1245 (.08)	.1399 (.05)	.1406(.05)	0.538 (.03)	.0511 (.03)	-.0243(.03)	-.0211(.03)	-.0559(.04)	-.0519(.04)
Position	.0074 (.05)	-.0068 (.05)	-.2129 (.10)	-.1963 (.10)	-.0356(.17)	.0448 (.07)	.0399(.04)	.0341 (.04)	-.0315(.04)	-.0336(.04)	.0393 (.04)	.0342(.04)
Contract	.1320**(04)	.1362**(04)	.0382(.09)	.0338(.09)	.1179(.06)	.1161(.06)	.0982*(.04)	.0996*(.04)	.0542(.04)	.0537 (.04)	.1231(.04)	.1234(.04)
University Type	.0532(.04)	.0697 (.04)	.0622(.08)	.0396 (.03)	-.0557(.06)	-.0642 (.05)	.0000(.03)	.0075 (.03)	.0089(.03)	.0089(.03)	-.0268(.03)	.0723(.04)
Education	-.0180 (.04)	-.0318 (.04)	.0162(.08)	.0375 (.08)	-.0580(.06)	-.0477(.06)	-.0161(.03)	-.0231 (.03)	-.0461(.03)	-.0493(.03)	.0070(.04)	.0016 (.04)
<i>Predictors</i>												
Aggression-4	-.3926** (.05)	-.4055**(.05)	1252* (.09)	.1257(.09)	.3321**(.08)	4.326**(.08)	-.1759**(.04)	-.1768**(.05)	-.1095*(.04)	-.0973*(.04)	-.1788**(.05)	-.1650**(.05)
Emotion: <i>Being insulted</i>		-.1006**(.01)		.1506**(.03)		.0726**(.02)		-.0495** (.01)		-.0196(.01)		-.0362*-(.01)
Emotion: <i>Embarrassment</i>	-.1289**(.02)		.1402**(.12)		.0475(.03)		-.0484*(.02)		.0182 (.01)		.0099* (.02)	
Social Comparison	-.1903** (.02)	-.1870**(.02)	.0204 (.05)	.0127(.05)	-.0193(.11)	-.0238(.03)	--.0082(.02)	-.0059 (.02)	-.0522*(.02)	-.0498 (.02)	.1785 (.06)	--.0127 (.02)
Aggression-4 x Soc comp.	.2366**(.06)	.2275**(.06)	-.0510(.13)	-.0521(.13)	-.0581(.11)	-.0562 (.10)	.0823 (.06)	.0810(.06)	.1668**(.06)	.1665** (.05)	-.0184* (.03)	.1785** (.03)
Emotion x Sup_comp	.0195(.02)	.0331(.02)	.0793 (.05)	-.0718(.04)	-.0100 (.04)	-.0066(.03)	.0215 (.02)	.0222 (.01)	-.0085 (.02)	-.0124(.01)	0.021 (.01)	-.0273 (.02)
Constant	3.3254 (.06)	3.3262**(.06)	2.081**(.12)	2.079** (.12)	1.4157**(.08)	1.4138(.08)	3.4063(.06)	3.4069**(.06)	.0542(.04)	3.6889**(.05)	3.329** (.05)	33317** (.05)
R ²	.1794	.1766	.0276	.0366	.0367	.0427	.0382	.0422	.0315	.0324	.0315	.0411
<i>F-value</i>	16.2440**	18.4203**	2.1628*	3.1978**	2.6455**	2.8128**	2.9379**	3.4700**	2.5952**	2.5087**	2.8347**	3.1956**
Direct and Indirect Effects												
Conditional direct effect	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No
Conditional indirect effect	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Moderated Mediation	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No

4.6.13. Moderated Mediation Models for Being Insulted

The moderated mediation model results for the emotional response of feeling insulted show that aggression profile-4 significantly predicts all dependent variables except lateness (Table 11d). When employees experience such aggression imposed on themselves, their job satisfaction ($\beta = -.405$, $p < .05$), work engagement ($\beta = -0.176$, $p < .05$), courtesy ($\beta = -0.973$, $p < .01$), and altruism ($\beta = -.1650$, $p < .05$) behaviors weaken. These employees are also significantly more likely to be absent from work ($\beta = 4.32$, $p < .05$).

The results for the mediation of feeling insulted between aggression profile-4 and the outcome variables indicate that there are indeed significant mediation processes for job satisfaction, lateness, altruism, work engagement, and absenteeism whereas there is no such effect for the courtesy model. It means that negative influences of the particular aggression experience are transferred to these four employee outcomes through the influence of feeling oneself insulted. Thus, the aggression experience makes an employee feel insulted and this new emotional situation decreases his/her job satisfaction, work engagement and altruism and increasing the likelihood of absenteeism and lateness behaviors.

Table 11d shows that the impact of aggression profile-4 on job satisfaction is conditioned by the level of social comparison ($\beta = .2275$, $p < .05$). That is, the negative effect of experiencing this type of aggression is weakened when the target employee has higher social comparison with his/her supervisor. The same moderation effect is also evident for the courtesy ($\beta = .1665$, $p < .05$) and Altruism outcome ($\beta = .178$, $p < .05$) implying that the adverse effect of such aggression incidents on the concern for the well-being of others at workplace is alleviated by the ongoing close bond between the employee and the supervisor. In contrast, no interaction influence was significant for other variables.

None of the tested moderations between the emotion of being insulted and the six dependent variables were significant, either. Similarly, no significant moderated mediation effect was found.

4.6.14. Moderated Mediation Model for Being Embarrassed

According to Table 11d, aggression profile-4 significantly predicts all dependent variables. When an employee is involved in such an aggression situation, his/her job satisfaction ($\beta = -.392$, $p < .05$), Lateness ($\beta = .1252$, $p < .01$), absenteeism (β

= .321, $p < .05$) work engagement ($\beta = -1759$, $p < .05$) as well as courtesy ($\beta = -1788$, $p < .05$), and altruism ($\beta = -.1095$, $p < .01$) behaviors significantly decrease.

The mediation effect of embarrassment shows no relationships between aggression profile-4 and job satisfaction and work withdrawal dimensions. So the negative impact of being the target of such aggression for these variables is conveyed through a strong feeling of embarrassment.

Regarding the moderation of social comparison with supervisor, Table 11d shows that the relationship between aggression profile-4 and work outcomes of job satisfaction ($\beta = -.1903$, $p < .05$), and altruism ($\beta = -.052$, $p < .01$) are moderated by the social comparison of the employee with the supervisor. That is, the level of the impact of the particular workplace aggression type on these two outcomes is conditional) on the level of supervisor identification. It shows that the damaging effect of this aggression on the target employee will become smaller as supervisor identification level increases. Then, as it is hypothesized, social comparison hence again weakens the adverse impact of aggression. Nevertheless, this influence is not present for rest of the dependent variables. No moderation on the emotion-outcomes link was detected.



Table 12(a). OLS Regression Estimates of Aggression Type-5 (Mediation of Anger and Sadness)

<i>Control Variables</i>	Job Satisfaction		Lateness		Absenteeism		Work Engagement		Courtesy		Altruism	
	Anger	Sadness	Anger	Sadness	Anger	Sadness	Anger	Sadness	Anger	Sadness	Anger	Sadness
Age	0.048 (.05)	0.031 (.04)	0.002(.08)	-0.011 (.09)	-0.036 (.06)	-0.036 (.06)	-0.037 (.04)	-0.031 (.04)	.111** (.04)	.107** (.04)	0.065 (.04)	0.065 (.04)
Gender	0.034 (.04)	0.026 (.04)	0.110 (.08)	0.119 (.06)	0.154* (.05)	.159** (.06)	0.056 (.03)	0.057 (.03)	-0.003 (.03)	0.002 (.03)	-0.039 (.04)	-0.037 (.04)
Position	0.175 (.05)	0.012 (.05)	-0.187 (.10)	-0.213 (.10)	0.025 (.07)	0.032 (.07)	0.0450 (.04)	0.046 (.04)	-0.028 (.04)	-0.029 (.04)	0.047 (.04)	0.047 (.04)
Contract	.142**(.05)	.138**(.04)	0.013 (.04)	0.024 (.09)	0.116 (.06)	0.104 (.12)	0.105*(.04)	.108*(.04)	0.053 (.04)	0.056 (.04)	.118**(.04)	.126** (.04)
University Type	0.003 (.04)	0.012 (.04)	0.068 (.08)	0.058 (.08)	-0.066 (.05)	-0.076 (.05)	-0.003 (.03)	0.001 (.03)	-0.008 (.04)	-0.006 (.03)	-0.036 (.03)	-0.036 (.03)
Education	-0.032 (.04)	-0.056 (.04)	0.015 (.08)	0.033 (.08)	-0.068 (.06)	-0.059 (.06)	-0.013 (.342)	-0.027 (.03)	-0.052 (.03)	-0.062 (.03)	0.003 (.04)	-0.001 (.04)
Predictors												
Aggression-5	-.075 (.05)	-0.069 (.05)	.071 (.10)	-0.012 (.10)	.148*(.07)	.183**(.07)	-0.010 (.04)	-.007 (.04)	-.114*(.04)	-0.075 (.04)	-.115* (.05)	-0.061(.05)
Emotion: <i>Anger</i>	-.102** (.02)		.223**(.04)		-.014 (.03)		-.059*(.02)		.039* (.01)		.064** (.02)	
Emotion: <i>Sadness</i>		-.176**(.02)		.141**(.03)		.090**(.02)		-.094**(.01)		-.067** (.01)		-.077** (.01)
Coworker Identification	.100** (.01)	.090** (.01)	-.027 (.02)	-.022 (.02)	.002 (.02)	0.007 (.02)	-0.002 (.01)	-0.006 (.01)	0.020 (.01)	0.016 (.01)	0.010 (.01)	0.005 (.01)
Aggression-5 x Cow Iden.	.037 (.03)	0.020 (.03)	.055 (.06)	0.058 (.06)	-.017 (.04)	-0.025 (.04)	-0.017 (.03)	-0.016 (.03)	0.022 (.03)	0.018 (.03)	0.041 (.03)	-0.033 (.03)
Emotion x Cow Iden.	-.006 (.02)	0.022 (.01)	-.018 (.02)	-0.010 (.02)	.001 (.02)	0.021 (.01)	0.018 (.01)	0.010 (.01)	-0.005 (.01)	0.003 (.01)	0.002 (.01)	0.019 (.01)
Constant	3.331 (.07)	3.326 (.06)	2.068 (.12)	2.093 (.12)	1.425 (.08)	1.423 (.08)	3.408 (.06)	3.401 (.06)	3.694 (.05)	3.699 (.05)	3.330 (.05)	3.340 (.05)
R ²	0.1051	0.1355	0.0266	0.0254	0.0142	0.0266	0.0202	0.0425	0.0225	0.0391	0.0233	0.0437
<i>F-value</i>	8.7421**	11.7488**	2.2063**	1.9104*	1.2931	2.4411**	1.3040	2.9743**	1.6667	2.843**	2.0473*	3.4224**
Direct and Indirect Effects												
Conditional direct effect	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Conditional indirect effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Moderated Mediation	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No

4.7. Regression Results for Aggression Type-5

As in models for aggression type-4, models with the independent variable of aggression type-5 were also designed for testing the suggested mediating and moderating effects both separately and together. As anger, hurt, embarrassment and sadness are the strongest emotions associated with aggression type-5, only the models estimated with these four emotions were shown here. While Table 12a summarizes all model results for anger and sadness, Table 12a represents the models for the feelings of being hurt and embarrassed.

4.7.1. Moderated Mediation Models for Anger

The moderated mediation models for the emotion of anger shows that aggression profile-5 has a significant direct effect on absenteeism, courtesy and altruism (Table 12a). When an employee becomes a target in such an aggression situation, his/her altruism ($\beta = -0.115, p < .05$), as well as courtesy ($\beta = -0.114, p < .05$) towards others significantly decrease. This employee also shows higher levels of absenteeism from work ($\beta = 0.148, p < .05$).

According to Table 12a, the being angry has significant mediation role between being a target of this particular aggression from coworkers and several outcome behaviors (job satisfaction, work engagement, altruism and being late to work). Thus, one can conclude that the negative effect of the aggression incidents in the particular cluster mostly flows through getting angrier. It can be claimed that receiving such mistreatment from other employees creates a strong feeling of hostility and displeasure and once this happens, the target employee feels less satisfaction from his/her job; shows less engagement to work and concerns less for the well-being of others. Yet, such a mechanism is not observed for courtesy and absenteeism behaviors. Combined with the previous finding, aggression profile-5 seems to have a direct impact on these two outcomes instead of an indirect one.

It is interesting to see that coworker identification does not play any moderation role in any of the examined relationships for aggression profile-5. So, the feeling of a close bond to coworkers does not change the strength of these connections. Table 12a shows that identification with other coworkers only matters as a direct effect on job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.100, p < .01$). When it increases, job satisfaction also increases. As the lack of any moderation suggests, no significant moderated mediation effect was also found.

4.7.2. Moderated Mediation Models for Sadness

According to models with the emotion of sadness in Table 12a, aggression profile-5 has only one significant direct effect, which is on absenteeism. When an employee is involved in such aggression situation, his/her tendency of not coming to work ($\beta = 0.183$, $p < .01$) increases.

It is noteworthy that even though direct effects are mostly lacking, feeling sad as a result of the incident has a profound mediating role in all tested relationships. Thus, the negative effect of the aggression incidents in its particular shape and form are noticeable only through the impact of being unhappy and heart-broken. It means that this type of aggression usually makes an employee sorrowful and disappointed. Strong negative attitudes and behaviors emerge only when this emotional state exists.

Table 12a shows that no moderation is significant between aggression profile-5 and the dependent variables. Then, in contrast to what is hypothesized, stronger identification with coworkers does not mitigate the undesirable influences of aggression. Finally, it is clear that a moderated mediation (combined) effect of the feeling of belongingness to coworkers and the feeling of sadness is not significant for any of the dependent variables, either.

4.7.3. Moderated Mediation Models for Being Hurt

The moderated mediation models for the feeling of hurt explains that aggression profile-5 has a no effect on any on all dependent except absenteeism (see Table 12a). When an employee is involved in such an aggression situation, his/her level of absenteeism start increases ($\beta = 0.154$, $p < .05$).

With respect to the mediation effect of the emotion of hurt between aggression profile-5 and the outcome variables, Table 12a indicates that there is a significant mediation process for job satisfaction, courtesy, altruism, and work engagement. Considering the lack of direct effects except on absenteeism, one can conclude that the negative effect of the aggression incidents in the particular cluster are mostly transmitted through the impact of feeling hurt. To be specific, when this type of aggression makes an employee feel psychological pain, it weakens his/her lower job satisfaction and work engagement. It also disturbs the tendency to be more understanding, helpful and concerned toward other employees. Yet, such an emotion-based mechanism is not observed for the two work withdrawal behaviors.

In these models, coworker identification was not found to be significant, neither as a direct effect nor as a moderating effect. No noticeable influence is observed, neither negative nor positive. This finding does not give support to the argument that higher feeling of belongingness to the perpetrator does not impose a buffer effect and weaken the damage of aggression. In a similar vein, the mediating effect of feeling hurt does not change according to the target employee's identification level to coworkers.

With respect to control variables, being a full-time employee increases job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.133, p < .01$), work engagement ($\beta = 0.105, p < .05$) and altruism ($\beta = 0.124, p < .01$) levels. It is also interesting that male respondents report significantly higher levels of absenteeism compared to their female counterparts ($\beta = 0.159, p < .01$).

4.7.4. Moderated Mediation Models for Embarrassment

The models for the emotion of being embarrassed show that aggression profile-5 has a significant direct effect only with two dependent variables courtesy and absenteeism while no direct effect is observed on the rest of the dependent variables (see Table 12b). To interpret it, when an employee becomes a target of this particular type of aggression, he/she engages in courtesy behaviors less ($\beta = -0.108, p < .05$) and tends to be more absent from work ($\beta = -.196, p < .01$).

With respect to the effect of feeling embarrassed between aggression profile-5 and the outcome variables, Table 12b indicated significant mediation processes for three outcomes; job satisfaction, lateness and absenteeism. Thus, the negative effect of the aggression incidents in the particular cluster are realized on these outcomes when the target employee feels considerably ashamed about the situation. The lack of any direct effect on job satisfaction and lateness implies that this emotional mechanism is a necessary one to be able to observe visible effects of aggression on employee behaviors.

Table 12b indicates no significant moderation effect of coworker identification on any of the tested causal relationships that include embarrassment. On the other hand, being a full-time employee improves job satisfaction, work engagement and altruistic behaviors considerably, a finding similar to those from other models. Finally, male employees seem to be more absent from work than female employees.

Table 12(b). OLS Regression Estimates of Aggression Type-5 (Moderation of Hurt and Embarrassment).

Control Variables	Job Satisfaction		Lateness		Absenteeism		Work Engagement		Courtesy		Altruism		
	Hurt	Embarr.	Hurt	Embarr.	Hurt	Embarr.	Hurt	Embarr.	Hurt	Embarr.	Hurt	Embarr.	
Age	.039 (.04)	.035 (.05)	-0.013 (.09)	-0.009 (.09)	-0.038 (.07)	0.042 (.06)	-0.026 (.04)	-0.025 (.04)	0.108 (.04)	0.106* (.04)	0.068 (.04)	0.069 (.04)	
Gender	.028 (.04)	.029 (.04)	0.111 (.08)	0.113 (.08)	.159**(.05)	.154* (.06)	0.058 (.03)	0.058 (.03)	-0.002 (.03)	-0.003 (.03)	-0.038 (.04)	-0.039 (.04)	
Position	.002 (.05)	.004 (.05)	-.224* (.10)	-0.201 (.10)	0.042 (.07)	0.0333(.07)	0.043 (.04)	0.045 (.04)	-	0.0303(.04)	-0.024 (.04)	0.043 (.04)	0.047 (.04)
Contract	.133**(.05)	.126* (.05)	0.032 (.09)	0.029 (.09)	0.109 (.06)	0.114 (.06)	0.105*(.04)	0.099*(.04)	0.052 (.04)	0.053 (.04)	.124**(.04)	.121**(.04)	
University Type	.020 (.04)	.009 (.04)	0.044 (.08)	0.056 (.08)	-0.080(.05)	-0.067 (.05)	0.005 (.03)	-0.002(.03)	-0.006 (.03)	-0.009 (.03)	-0.033 (.03)	-0.039(.03)	
Education	-0.049 (.04)	-0.037 (.04)	0.035 (.08)	0.020 (.08)	-0.057(.06)	-0.060(.06)	-0.022 (.03)	-0.017 (.03)	-0.055 (.03)	-0.050 (.03)	-0.004 (.04)	0.001(.04)	
Aggression-5	-0.074 (.05)	-0.085(.05)	-0.002 (.10)	-0.028 (.10)	.154*(.07)	.196**(.07)	-0.014 (.04)	-.023 (.04)	-.067 (.04)	-.108* (.04)	-0.062 (.01)	-0.086 (.05)	
Emotion: <i>Hurt</i>	-.119** (.01)		.076* (.04)		.005 (.03)		-	.056**(.02)		-.076** (.02)		-.056** (.02)	
Emotion: <i>Embarrassed</i>		-		.128** (.04)		.097**(.03)			.031 (.02)		.028 (.02)	.001 (.03)	
Coworker Identification	.101** (.01)	.103**(.01)	-0.031 (.02)	-0.035 (.02)	0.003 (.02)	-0.018 (.01)	-0.001 (01)	0.001 (.01)	0.020 (01)	0.019 (.01)	0.010 (.01)	0.009 (.01)	
Aggression-5 x Coworker_Iden.	0.021 (.03)	-0.028 (.03)	0.069 (.06)	0.039 (.06)	-0.036(.04)	0.031 (.04)	-0.012 (.03)	-0.018 (.03)	0.017 (.03)	0.022 (.03)	0.036 (.03)	0.033 (.03)	
Emotion x Coworker_Iden.	0.007 (.01)	0.006 (.01)	0.021 (.02)	0.025 (.02)	.035* (.02)	.002 (.01)	0.003 (.01)	0.015 (.01)	-0.002 (.01)	-0.001 (.01)	0.005 (.01)	0.018 (.01)	
Constant	3.324 (.07)	3.327 (.07)	2.098 (.12)	2.088 (.12)	1.416 (.08)	1.417 (.08)	3.401 (.06)	3.400 (.06)	3.700 (.05)	3.695 (.05)	3.338 (.05)	3.337*(.05)	
R ²	0.0976	0.0810	0.0153	0.0248	0.0177	0.0308	0.0217	0.0150	0.0457	0.0244	0.0339	0.0251	
<i>F-value</i>	8.9216**	7.8472**	1.1831	2.2283*	1.6145	2.6056**	1.612	1.0510	3.5630**	1.8903*	2.8718**	2.0546*	
Direct and Indirect Effects													
Conditional direct effect	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	
Conditional indirect effect	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	
Moderated Mediation	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	

4.7.5. Moderated Mediation Models for Anger

As aggression type-5 were also designed for testing the suggested mediating and moderating effects both separately and together. As anger, hurt, embarrassment and sadness are the strongest emotions associated with aggression type-5, only the models estimated with these four emotions were shown here. While Table 12c summarizes all model results for anger and sadness, Table 12c represents the models for the feelings of being anger and, sadness.

The moderated mediation models for the emotion of anger shows that aggression profile-5 has a significant direct effect on Job-satisfaction, absenteeism, courtesy and altruism (Table 12c). When an employee becomes a target in such an aggression situation, his/her altruism ($\beta = -.1420, p < .05$), as well as courtesy ($\beta = -1.395, p < .05$) towards others significantly decrease. This employee also shows higher levels of absenteeism from work ($\beta = 0.1460, p < .05$). The job-satisfaction start to decrease ($\beta = -.1631, p < .05$).

According to Table 12c, the being angry has significant mediation role between being a target of this particular aggression from social comparison and several outcome behaviors (job satisfaction, work engagement courtesy, altruism and being late to work). Hence, one can determine that the negative influence of the aggression incidents in the particular cluster mostly flows through getting angrier. It can be claimed that receiving such mistreatment from other employees creates a strong feeling of hostility and displeasure and once this happens, the target employee feels less satisfaction from his/her job; shows less engagement to work and concerns less for the well-being of others. Yet, such a mechanism is not observed for absents behaviors.

It is interesting to see that social comparison does not play any moderation role in any of the examined association for aggression profile-5. Consequently, the feeling of social worth does not change the strength of these connections. Table 12a shows that identification with other social comparison only matters as a direct effect on job satisfaction ($\beta = -.240, p < .05$) and courtesy ($\beta = -.0621, p < .05$). When it increases, job satisfaction also increases. As the lack of any moderation suggests, no significant moderated mediation effect was also found. Lastly, the result did not how any moderation and mediation against any dependent variable.

Table 12(c). OLS Regression Estimates of Aggression Type-5 (Moderation of Anger and Sadness)

	Job Satisfaction		Lateness		Absenteeism		Work Engagement		Courtesy		Altruism	
	Anger	Sadness	Anger	Sadness	Anger	Sadness	Anger	Sadness	Anger	Sadness	Anger	Sadness
<i>Control Variables</i>												
Age	-.0077 (.04)	-.0018(.04)	.0207 (.08)	-.0047 (.09)	-.0357 (.07)	-.0377 (.06)	-.0390(.04)	-.0327* (.04)	.1027 (.04)	.1005 (.04)	.0640 (.04)	.0604 (.04)
Gender	-.0099 (.04)	(.04)	.1244(.08)	.1224(.08)	.1493(.06)	.1542(.06)	.0528 (.03)	.0549 (.03)	-.0071 (.03)	-.0089(.03)	-.0404 (.04)	-.0424(.04)
Position	.0151(.05)	.0227(.05)	-.1851(.10)	-.2114 (.10)	.0224 (.07)	.0294 (.07)	.0398 (.04)	.0446 (.04)	-.0175 (.04)	-.0262 (.04)	.0597 (.04)	.0473(.04)
Contract	.1606**(.05)	.1602(.05)	-.0012 (.09)	.0199(.09)	.1128(.06)	.1090(.06)	.1116*(.04)	.1098(.04)	.0522 (.04)	.0598*(.04)	.1195** (.04)	.1312**(.04)
University Type	.0507(.04)	.0567(.04)	.0667(.08)	.0553 (.08)	-.0677 (.06)	-.0696(.05)	.0005 (.03)	.0042 (.03)	.0529(.03)	.0052(.03)	-.0262 (.03)	-.0275 (.03)
Education	-.0059(.04)	-.0399 (.04)	-.0097 (.08)	.0311 (.08)	-.0662(.06)	-.0547 (.06)	-.0077(.03)	-.0265 (.03)	-.0529(.03)	-.0586 (.03)	-.0008(.04)	-.0056 (.04)
<i>Predictors</i>												
Aggression-5	-.1631**(.05)	-.1503 (.05)	-.0715 (.10)	-.0279 (.10)	-.1460* (.06)	-.1889**(.06)	-.0058 (.04)	.0015 (.04)	-.1395**(.05)	-.0982*(.04)	-.1420**(.05)	-.0863(.05)
Emotion: <i>Anger</i>	-.098** (.02)		.2243**(.04)		-.0151 (.02)		-.0588*(.02)		.0388*(.01)		.0634** (.02)	
Emotion: <i>Sadness</i>		-.1666(.02)		.1391**(.03)		.0885**(.02)		-.0916**(.01)		-.065** (.01)		-.076** (.01)
Social comparison	-.240** (.02)	-.2177 (.02)	.0329 (.05)	.0188 (.05)	.0166 (.03)	.0054(.03)	-.0278 (.02)	-.0162 (.02)	-.0621**(.02)	-.0527*(.02)	-.0362 (.02)	-.0245(.02)
Aggression-5 x Soc_Com.	.0856(.06)	.0947 (.06)	-.1770(.12)	-.1404 (.12)	-.1685*(.08)	-.1397 (.08)	.0525(.06)	.0429(.06)	-.0077 (.07)	-.0199(.07)	-.0362 (.02)	-.0458 (.07)
Emotion x Soc_Com.	.0284 (.02)	.0103(.02)	.0857(.06)	-.0484 (.04)	.0304 (.04)	-.0226 (.03)	-.0137(.02)	.0074(.02)	-.0041 (.02)	-.0037(.02)	-.0306 (.07)	-.0190 (.02)
Constant	3.316** (.06)	3.3101 (.06)	2.0693**(.12)	2.087 ** (.12)	1.4261**(.08)	1.4205**(.08)	3.4055**(.06)	3.4020**(.06)	3.6876**(.05)	3.6936**(.05)	3.3239**(.05)	3.332**(.05)
R ²	.1171	.1639	.0415	.0270	.0177	.0282	.0215	.0427	.0309	.0430	.0329	.0422
<i>F-value</i>	11.9681**	17.2589**	2.9293**	2.1454*	2.0224*	2.9207**	1.5484	3.0152**	2.4352**	3.2325**	2.8730**	3.3040**
Direct and Indirect Effects												
Conditional direct effect	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No
Conditional indirect effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Moderated Mediation	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No

The moderated mediation models for the feeling of hurt explains that aggression profile-5 has a no effect on any on all dependent except job satisfaction, and absenteeism (see Table 12d). When an employee is involved in such an aggression situation, his/her level of ($\beta = .1614$, $p < .05$) job satisfaction decrease the absenteeism start increases ($\beta = .1581$, $p < .01$).

With respect to the mediation effect of the emotion of hurt between aggression profile-5 and the outcome variables, Table 12d indicates that there is a significant mediation process for job satisfaction, lateness courtesy, and altruism. Considering the lack of direct effects except on absenteeism, one can conclude that the negative effect of the aggression incidents in the particular cluster are mostly communicated through the impact of feeling hurt. To be specific, when this type of aggression makes an employee feel psychological pain, it weakens his/her lower job satisfaction and work engagement. It also disturbs the tendency to be more understanding, helpful and concerned toward other employees. Yet, such an emotion-based mechanism is not observed for the work-engagement.

In these models, social comparison was not found to be significant except with job satisfaction, ($\beta = .232$, $p < .05$) and altruism ($\beta = .0554$, $p < .01$). Thus, no direct effect as a moderating effect were found. No noticeable influence is observed, neither negative nor positive. This finding does not give support to the argument that higher feeling of hurtness to the perpetrator does not impose a buffer effect and weaken the damage of aggression. In a similar vein, the mediating effect of feeling hurt does not change according to the target employee's social comparison to the other group members. No moderation and mediation were observed.

4.7.6. Moderated Mediation Models for Hurt and Embarrassment

The models for the emotion of being embarrassed show that aggression profile-5 has a significant direct effect only with three dependent variables, job satisfaction, courtesy and absenteeism while no direct effect is observed on the rest of the dependent variables (see Table 12b). To interpret it, when an employee becomes a target of this particular type of aggression, he/she engage in courtesy behaviors less ($\beta = .133$, $p < .05$) and decreases the altruism ($\beta = .1123$, $p < .05$), he/she decrease the job satisfaction ($\beta = .1741$, $p < .05$).

The moderated mediation models for the feeling of hurt explains that aggression profile-5 has a no effect on any on all dependent except job satisfaction,

and absenteeism (see Table 12d). When an employee is involved in such an aggression situation, his/her level of ($\beta = .1614$, $p < .05$) job satisfaction decrease the absenteeism start increases ($\beta = .1581$, $p < .01$).

With respect to the mediation effect of the emotion of frustration between aggression profile-5 and the outcome variables, Table 12d indicates that there is a significant mediation process for job satisfaction, lateness courtesy, and altruism. Considering the lack of direct effects except on absenteeism, one can conclude that the negative effect of the aggression incidents in the particular cluster are mostly communicated through the impact of feeling frustration. To be specific, when this type of aggression makes an employee feel psychological pain, it weakens his/her lower job satisfaction and he or she starts to come late. It also disturbs the tendency to be more understanding, helpful and concerned toward other employees. Yet, such an emotion-based mechanism is not observed for the absenteeism and altruism.

Table 12d indicates no significant moderation effect of social comparison on any of the tested causal relationships that include embarrassment. On the other hand, being a full-time employee improves job satisfaction, work engagement and altruistic behaviors considerably, a finding similar to those from other models. Finally, male employees seem to be more absent from work than female employees. Hence, no moderation and mediation model were found.

Table 12(d). OLS Regression Estimates of Aggression Type-5 (Moderation of Hurt and Embarrassment)

Control Variables	Job Satisfaction		Lateness		Absenteeism		Work Engagement		Courtesy		Altruism	
	Hurt	Embarr.	Hurt	Embarr.	Hurt	Embarr.	Hurt	Embarr.	Hurt	Embarr.	Hurt	Embarr.
Age	-.0160(.04)	-.0001 (.04)	.0046 (.09)	-.0081 (.08)	-.0375 (.06)	-.0407 (.06)	-.0399(.04)	.0194(.04)	.0907(.04)	.0988 (.04)	.0526 (.04)	.0597(.04)
Gender	.0035(.04)	-.0031(.04)	.1156 (.08)	.1245 (.08)	.1560(.06)	.1527 (.06)	.0578 (.03)	.0467(.03)	-.0043 (.03)	-.0122(.03)	-.0400(.04)	-.0445(.04)
Position	.0256(.05)	.0205 (.05)	-.2157 (.10)	-.2029(.10)	.0303(.07)	.0369(.07)	.0467(.04)	.0293(.03)	-.0238(.04)	-.0201(.04)	.0504(.04)	.0500(.04)
Contract	.1539**(.05)	1509** (.05)	.0227 (.09)	.0249(.09)	.1137 (.06)	.1136(.06)	.1064(.04)	.0918*(.03)	.0582 (.04)	.0567 (.04)	.1276(.04)	.1257**(.04)
University Type	.0548(.04)	.0566(.04)	.0581(.08)	.0535 (.08)	-.0711(.06)	-.0707 (.05)	-.0029(.03)	-.0098(.03)	.0032 (.03)	.0038 (.03)	-.0295 (.03)	-.0282(.03)
Education	-.0217(.04)	-.0234(.04)	.0143(.08)	.0247 (.08)	-.0670(.06)	-.0590(.06)	-.0161 (.03)	.0145(.03)	-.0531(.03)	-.0479(.03)	.0024 (.04)	.0052(.04)
Aggression-5	-.1614**(.05)	-.1741**(.05)	-.0074(.10)	-.0363 (.09)	-.1581*(.06)	-.1998(.08)	-.0075(.04)	-.0019(.03)	-.0882(.04)	-.133**(.04)	-.0874(.05)	-.1123*(.05)
Emotion: <i>Hurt</i>	-.1126**(.01)		.0756*(.03)		.00084(.02)		-.0555(.01)		-.0740**(.02)		-.0550**(.02)	
Emotion: <i>Embarrassed</i>		-.0778**(.01)		.1264* (.03)		.0963(.02)		.0120 (.01)		.0283*(.01)		.0004(.01)
Social comparison	-.232**(.02)	-.2376**(.02)	.0314 (.05)	.0322 (.05)	.0186(.03)	.0135(.01)	-.0246(.02)	-.0313 (.02)	-.0554*(.01)	-.0629**(.02)	-.0305(.02)	-.0357(.02)
Aggression-5 x soc-comparison	.1076 (.06)	.0871(.06)	-.1571(.12)	-.1074(.12)	-.1349(.08)	-.1270 (.08)	.0512 (.06)	-.0125(.06)	-.0088 (.07)	-.0168(.07)	-.0349 (.07)	-.0413(.07)
Emotion x Social comparison	.0413 (.02)	.0436(.02)	-.0301 (.04)	-.1040* (.02)	-.0579 (.03)	-.0383 (.03)	.0178 (.01)	.0163(.02)	-.0015 (.02)	.0128 (.01)	-.0092 (.02)	-.0005(.02)
Constant	3.312** (.06)	.1509** (.05)	2.089** (.12)	2.079** (.12)	1.4208** (.08)	1.4151(.08)	3.403**(.06)	3.606**(.04)	3.695** (.05)	3.691** (.05)	3.333** (.05)	3.331**(.05)
R ²	.1321	.1169	.0156	.0292	.0198	.0318	.0244	.0166	.0494	.0303	.0339	.0234
<i>F-value</i>	13.2434**	11.8870**	1.2167	2.6717**	2.0414*	2.9451**	1.753*	1.4406	3.7068**	2.5218**	2.8281**	1.8939*
Direct and Indirect Effects												
Conditional direct effect	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No
Conditional indirect effect	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Moderated Mediation	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No

4.8. Summary of Hypothesis Testing

The study is composed of five hypotheses around a common research model. After summarizing the analysis results, one can conclude that all hypotheses found some support. The first hypothesis was tested by the results of a cluster analysis. The analysis showed that as predicted, the data consists of specific aggression profiles which are formed by specific aggression acts and aggression event attributes. It was also indicated that these aggression profiles are statistically distinct from one another.

The second hypothesis was tested through contingency tables which identify the significant relationships between the resulting aggression profiles (binary measures) and the possible negative emotions employees feel as a consequence of the particular type of aggression they are involved. The findings from chi-square (χ^2) significance tests depict that not all aggression types lead to emotional responses from the target employee. Moreover, when such responses are present and significant, they vary enormously across the aggression types based on the content of the aggression incident. Therefore, hypothesis 2 is also supported.

Hypothesis 3 was about the significant mediating effect of these multiple negative emotions. Even though such mediation was not observed for three aggression types, findings on aggression profile-4 and profile-5 provides considerable evidence for such mechanisms. Hence, these hypotheses found partial support.

Hypothesis 4 and 5 assumes significant moderation effect of two relational variables: Identification to supervisor/coworker and social comparisons to others at work. In addition to moderation effects on the direct link between aggression incidents and employee outcomes, a number of substantial moderations were also found between the emotional responses and outcomes, as it was predicted. Besides these individual effects, moderated mediation was also tested but the results were not significant for a combined effect. Again, these represent a partial support for Hypothesis 4 and 5.

To sum up, all model hypotheses found certain levels of significance. While the first two hypotheses found full support, the others received selected evidence from the data. The status of hypothesis testing for each hypothesis is shown in Table 15.

Table 13. Summary of Analysis Results

Hypothesis	Conclusion
<i>Hypothesis 1: Specific combinations of key event attributes (aggressive behaviors involved in the aggression event, perceived severity, perceived intent, identity of the perpetrator, witness presence) will create significantly different workplace aggression profiles.</i>	Supported
<i>Hypothesis 2: Diverse workplace aggression profiles will lead to different emotional responses from the target of aggression.</i>	Supported
<i>Hypothesis 3: Diverse negative emotions will significantly mediate the relationship between different workplace aggression profiles and the following: a) work-related outcomes, b) employee satisfaction outcomes, c) OCB outcomes</i>	Partially supported
<i>Hypothesis 4: Identification with the perpetrator will moderate the relationship between negative emotional responses and employee outcomes. Employees with higher identification will report weaker negative influences on work outcomes compared to employees with lower identification.</i>	Partially Supported
<i>Hypothesis 5: Comparison of individual experience to those of others will moderate the relationship between negative emotional responses and employee outcomes. The relationship will be stronger when the employee perceive others are treated more positively in the organization.</i>	Partially Supported

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION

5.1. General Overview

In order to fill the recent research problem in the literature the purpose of current study was to provide a comprehensive model of workplace aggression by identifying different aggression event profiles and to explain how these profiles bring about significant work-related outcomes through emotion-based processes under specific relationship contexts. In order to fill the above-mentioned gaps in the literature, this study sought to find answers to four key research questions:

1. *What are the different workplace aggression profiles based on key dimensions of the aggression event such as perceived severity, intention, visibility, perpetrator and witness presence?*
2. *What is the relationship between different workplace aggression profiles and important outcomes for the employee?*
3. *What particular emotions do play a mediating role between different aggression profiles and employee outcomes?*
4. *What are the effects of interpersonal relations on these relationships as a moderator?*

The importance and originality of my study can be summarized in four points. First, it presented a comprehensive evaluation of diverse workplace aggression profiles based on a set of event characteristics in a single study. Second, it uncovered that instead of a single typical reaction (such as anger) multiple negative emotional responses match with different aggression profiles. Third, it showed how particular relational factors including identity-based linkages and comparisons at work might buffer the negative impact of aggression that is imposed by others on the focal employee. Fourth, my research explained all these relationships and possible influences on six different work outcomes (job satisfaction, altruism, courtesy, work-engagement, lateness and absenteeism). It outlined when and how these important attitudes and behaviors emerge as a response to certain aggression experiences.

To achieve these, data was collected from 14 universities in Pakistan, where both academic and administrative participants were sampled. In terms of methodology, an initial qualitative study was designed and critical incidents were collected from a sub-sample of respondents with the aim of getting a deeper and better understanding of the

empirical context and the ways workplace aggression was manifested in it. Then I collected quantitative data through a diary-form survey and analyzed it to test my hypotheses. For some time, the application of qualitative and quantitative methods together as well as using new and improved techniques like experiments, critical incidents and diary surveys have been considered as more fitting to the nature of workplace aggression for the purpose of data collection (Barling, Dupré, & Kelloway, 2009; Hershcovis, 2011; Hershcovis et al., 2007). Hence, my study also represents a reply to these calls and represents a correct application of data collection methods which are answering to the theoretical needs and demands of the topic.

My study's key findings can be described as follows: As it was hypothesized, I found that the specific event and the context surrounding it matter a lot as they shape the aggression experience in the workplace immensely. Based on the specific characteristics of the incident (what particular behaviors are evident, who the perpetrator is, whether other people are involved, how the target employee perceives its strength and where the blame is put) shapes the experiences aggression profoundly. The results of the cluster analysis where all these attributes are examined showed that we are indeed dealing with different aggression types, each one being a complex combination of the above listed aspects. As such, I found five distinct aggression profiles in the data. Even though there have been debates on the usefulness of differentiating aggression experiences based on key situational and relational attributes, my study is the first attempt to achieve it considering both the theoretical and empirical dimensions of such categorization.

The cluster result gives important support for the existence of different aggression conditions in organizations. Perhaps more importantly, it was found that this diversity not only originates from the existence of specific behaviors involved, as it has been generally thought and considered in the literature. Along with the multiplicity of several verbal vs. physical, low vs. high-intensity, direct vs. indirect set of actions, a large part of the difference encompasses the attributes of the event in which aggression plays out such as perpetrator identity, perceived intention, and degree of severity and witness presence. Except a few studies focusing on the intentionality and perpetrator type separately, all these attributes have not been considered and measured together before which can be considered a significant contribution to the literature. The construct measurement in my study supports especially the recent research claiming such formative measures (which "forms" the

construct through the assessment of its different attributes as experienced) should be used more frequently to understand complex, multi-dimensional situations like aggression at workplace (Low, 2012; Myburgh et al., 2011) as opposed to typical reflective measures which are composed of a set of inter-correlated items.

Another important finding of my study is related with how and when emotions come into the picture when aggression occurs at workplace. To this end, my research provides clear evidence for the following:

1. Instead of a single overarching negative feeling such as anger or anxiety, several different emotions such as embarrassment, insult, hurt, sadness and frustration may emerge in a mistreatment situation. Therefore, limiting studies to one or two emotions and forcing everything inside these categories does not reflect the reality of the employees experiencing such mistreatment.
2. The degree to how those emotions are linked to different aggression types also varies. While some of them are very strongly felt in a particular aggression situation, they may be very weak or almost non-existent in another. There is a strong match between the specific type of aggression imposed on an individual and the type of negative emotions felt by this victim. Thus, the specific differences among aggression situations across multiple aspects matter a lot in shaping the emotions that will follow.
3. In the literature, it has been emphasized that people have a more direct and visible emotional response when the stressful event they confronted is strong enough to have an impact. In line with this argument, the present study results suggest that not all types of aggression behaviors make the person emotionally suffer or acknowledge such a suffering. This finding also provides a preliminary evidence that there is not always an emotional mediation process in workplace aggression.

Considering these three points together, my study gives important support to the recent theoretical debated that research on aggression in particular and stressful events in general should not be limited to an oversimplified understanding of the role of affect. Instead, more nuanced emotional and psychological states should be taken into account and investigated. In the light of finding the results are consist with the previous literature (Barling et al., 2009; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010).

Regarding the results for testing the causal relationships in the research model, several significant linkages were found. First and foremost, the findings clearly suggest that the hypothesized mediating and moderating effects as well as how and to what extent aggression experience directly predicts key employee outcomes changes considerably from one aggression type to another. That is, the results of regression models imply differentiated connections and causal links depending on the particular form of aggression. To summarize:

- What employee outcomes are affected more heavily than the others,
- The strength of these effects,
- What particular emotions significantly mediates these relationships,
- The impact of two relational moderating factors

Changes according to which specific aggression form is considered as the independent variable.

When we look at the results of each aggression profile identified in the study, it is observed that no strong emotion was found to be associated with aggression type-1, type-2 and type-3. Thus, no emotional mediation mechanism was tested for these aggression clusters. Aggression profile-1 significantly predicted most of the employee outcomes taken into account in the anticipated direction. Even though two relational context variables, identification with the supervisor and social comparison has significant influence on several outcomes, no moderating effect of them was found.

In contrast to profile-1, no significant direct influence of the aggression event was found on the outcome variables in aggression profile-2. Even though there were a number of significant direct effects of the relational context variables, the anticipated moderating effect was not observed.

In profile-3, results indicated that this particular aggression experience predicts almost all six dependent variables but in the opposite direction. That is, the aggression event did not lead to worse outcomes for the well-being, productivity or health of the employee; instead they somehow seem to improve these outcomes. A possible explanation for this can be the distinctive content of this aggression. Participants who are exposed to this type of aggression perceive it very weak and unintentional as opposed to strong and intentional. Hence, probably they perceive it as a part of routine discussions and conflicts embedded in daily relationships, even an indicator of

sincerity and rapport. It may even indicate a state of comfort because they are being taken seriously by others at the workplace.

Alternatively, when employees receive such behaviors from coworkers, they may see it as a warning and fear that something does not go well and they are being put under the spotlight. Then, they might be more likely to increase their efforts for work and supportive organizational relationships while avoiding withdrawal as much as possible. So, it can be an attempt for avoiding being the target of such behaviors and experiencing similar stressful situations in the future by increasing work efforts and treating others more thoughtfully. Employees might not perceive some behaviors as “aggressive” due to previous experiences or the existing relationship norms in the particular organizational or cultural setting. Nevertheless, this result for aggression profile-3 is worth considering for further theoretical debates on the topic.

With respect to moderating effects, across the first three aggression forms, only four significant interaction effects were found; one in aggression profile-2 and three in aggression profile-3. In profile-2, the impact of the particular aggression experience on work engagement level of the employee is significantly conditioned by social comparison. Aggression profile-3 also represents significant moderating relationships; moderating effect of coworker identification for courtesy and absenteeism behaviors and the moderating effect of social comparison on courtesy behavior. A general interpretation for these findings is that the impact of particular aggression experiences in the mentioned behaviors considerably changes based on employee’s degree of identification their coworkers and how they judge their relationship to their supervisor relative to those of coworkers. However, since interaction effect is detected in only a couple of models, the results from the first three aggression cluster do not support the moderation hypotheses of the study.

In aggression profile-4 and profile-5, all hypothesized relationship on the research model were empirically tested. According to the statistical estimates, it was found that aggression profile-4 is the form of aggression which has the strongest connections with other variables in the model in the anticipated way. Direct influences of this aggression form on the six outcome variables is largely evident, implying that even leaving everything aside aggression type-4 alters significant work attitudes and behaviors of the target employee in a negative way. Moreover, most of the emotional mediation processes hypothesized were found to be significant. The negative effect of the aggression incidents in the particular cluster are transmitted through the impact of

being four particular emotions; frustration, sadness, feeling insulted, and feeling embarrassed. Altogether it reveals that different emotion-based mechanisms are in action and if not all, a significant part of the effect of workplace mistreatments on the employee only becomes critical or evident through the experience of particular emotions.

Most of the relational moderating effects tested in this aggression cluster were also significant. That is, the level of the impact of workplace aggression on several outcomes was depending on the level of supervisor identification or social comparison. This indicates that the damaging effect of aggression on the target employee will decrease (get smaller) as supervisor identification level increases. Then, as it is hypothesized, this relational factor imposes a protection effect, weakening the undesirable influence of aggression. Regardless of how bad the aggression towards the employees inflicted by the supervisor, they will assess it depending on how strong and positive their general connection to the supervisor. Better and stronger relations with the supervisor and identifying with him/her, will make the employees judge the aggression event less severe.

Although not too strong, some moderated mediation relationships were also found significant in aggression profile-4. As an example, the mediation of frustration between experienced aggression and being late to work was found to be conditional on supervisor identification. Supervisor identification mitigate the strength of the negative emotional mechanism and for the higher levels of identification, the mediation effect is weaker whereas for the lower levels of it, the mediation effect is stronger. Although rare, such combined effects (moderation and mediation effects together) reveals that more complicated interactions might be evident in workplace aggression situations.

Lastly, for aggression profile-5 several direct influences were found on employee outcomes. Yet, compared to other aggression forms, these linkages were weaker. On the other hand, several significant mediating effects were evident in the data for all four negative emotions considered; anger, hurt, sadness and embarrassment. This suggests that the influence of these aggression incidents becomes visible and acknowledged only when certain emotions arise out of it. In turn, these negative emotions lead to several damages on work outcomes and interpersonal behaviors in the organization. In contrast to the findings for aggression profile-4, no significant moderation or moderated mediation effect was observed for profile-5.

As a general evaluation of the above findings, one can conclude that while there is a clear support of the existence of different types of aggressions composed by a different configuration of event attributes and their distinct connections to multiple negative emotional responses, the results only let partial support to the existence of the predicted mediation and moderation processes. Yet the ones which are present are in line with previous studies claiming how negative emotions mediate the work environment's influence on employee outcomes including withdrawal behaviors (Bowling & Beehr, 2006), OCB (Lilius et al., 2008), CWB (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007), and performance at work (Geddes & Baron, 1997). The findings regarding how the outcomes of aggression events depends on who is involved and the nature and strength of the relationship the victim has with this person also provides support to the research discussing the importance of interpersonal mechanisms, especially those related to identity-based evaluations in the cases of workplace mistreatments.

5.2. Theoretical and Practical Implications

As it is discussed in the above section, this study gives partial yet important support to affective events theory, emotional stress model and social identity theory by revealing some important emotional and relational mechanisms underlying stressful and undesirable situations in the workplace.

As another contribution, prior studies has reflected or discussed the influence of aggression event characteristic (Dupré & Barling, 2006; LeBlanc & Barling, 2004) individually and only in a limited extent. The present study can be regarded as unique in measuring all important aggression incidence characteristics (e.g. source of aggression, severity, perceived intention, witness presence) together. It shows how the nature and impact of workplace aggression can be better determined if all these aspects are taken into consideration and directly measured rather than assumed as it has often been done in the literature through the use of existing reflective measures such as incivility, bullying or supervisor abuse. Furthermore, it also provides extensions on these attributes such as considering member of top management along with supervisor and coworkers as a possible perpetrator.

As far as my knowledge the present study conducted for explaining the construct of workplace aggression in Pakistan, which is a highly collectivist, honor culture. Doing it in a context which is considerably different from those western contexts

where the majority of workplace aggression studies have been conducted brings the possibility of understanding how aggression manifests itself or how it is perceived in different sociocultural and economic settings. In the future, more studies can be conducted in similar cultural contexts and systematic comparisons can be done. It also provides a fresh evidence on how aggression at workplace in an organizational field like higher education, which is often considered to be different from a typical business environment. Perhaps in contrast to some existing presumptions, the empirical evidence shows that aggression is a real phenomenon and shows itself in several different ways embedded in typical work relationships in this field.

Compared to prior research typically focusing on a very limited number of emotional responses (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007), usually one or two, this study is a first attempt to examine and test the impact of multiple emotional responses including being upset, insulted, frustrated, embarrassed, hurt, angry and anxious.

Distinct aggression profiles as directly measured and determined in this study point out that our understanding of aggression in organization may be still very limited and hence, we should go beyond the existing theoretical presumptions and indirect measurements which have been dominating the research for some time. The findings in this study reveal that the sources, organizational processes and underlying social dynamics might vary a lot across different aggression experiences depending on what the topic is, who are involved and how the targets perceive it.

While characteristic of my data (e.g. the specific empirical context, the number of variables considered) as well as the overall exploratory nature of this research may put some limits to its theoretical and practical contributions, I believe that it provides enough encouragement for future studies to run additional tests by considering additional factors and examine larger theoretical connections to better understand the essence of aggression and its specific manifestations in the workplace.

5.3. Limitations of the Study

This study has some limitations like all studies. Identifying them can encourage additional and better theoretical models and more advanced empirical tests on the selected topic. The most important limitations can be listed as follows:

- The data was collected from only one country and from one sector. Therefore, the generalizability and applicability of the study findings to other countries, other industries and other organizations types can be difficult.
- The data of my study is cross-sectional in nature which increases the possibility of common-method bias in the data. Even though multiple data was collected in different weeks, the independent and dependent variable data was still collected in same time frame. For the future, an improved design can be applied such as a longitudinal one. In doing, independent and dependent variable data can be collected in different times.
- Even though I analyzed my data through a set of regression models using a distinctive procedure suitable for my data structure, structural equation modeling (SEM) can be a better option to run entire models and estimate all relationships together. The existence of binary variables and the high number of single-item measures in my data did not allow me to do it.
- Instead of an existing reflective measure like bullying or incivility, I utilized a more comprehensive formative measurement. In the future, the results of the present study can be compared with those existing reflective measures. The aggression profiles identified can be also theoretically compared to those standard categorizations of aggression behaviors already existing in the literature.
- There might be other incidence characteristics that can involve and significantly predict results. Thus, other important aggression characteristics can be identified and measures.
- Due to the sensitivity of the research topic the participants were feeling hesitate to provide the information.

5.4. Directions for Future Research

This study provides enough encouragement for future studies to run additional tests by considering additional factors and examine larger theoretical connections to better understand the essence of aggression and its specific manifestations in the workplace.

In this study, I only measured and examined work-related outcomes including work-engagement, work-effort and job satisfaction and two OCB dimensions. Other important outcomes such as deviant behaviors (CWB), employee well-being satisfaction with particular foci such as with supervisor and coworkers can also be investigated and tested. Physical and psychological health of the person can also be an important outcome to consider. Again, each of these outcomes can be studied with their specific connections to different emotional and relational mechanisms.

As a mediating factor, I also studied the impact of emotional responses. However, there are some other concreted factors playing a role in workplace aggression situations such as cognitive evaluations, injustice perceptions, motivation and etc. Similarly other moderating factors can be examined such as individual and organizational factors (e.g. personality, psychological state). Some of the event attributes might also be tested as separate moderators. Such alternative theoretical models can be designed and tested.

While this study focuses mostly on social identification and emotional response mechanisms, future research can investigate them further or bring more mechanisms such as how some broader organizational climate factors such as possible organizational and/or group policies and practices may play a role and whether employees feel more comfortable in such environments. If they work in a more secure and comfortable environment like that, aggression situations happening might have more limited or short-term impacts on the person and his/her well-being since the general positive environment and healthy social relationships triumphs at the end.

So how such aggression events can be prevented or at least reduced and how emotional and cognitive reactions to the existing aggression events can be better managed and controlled are some interesting questions for future studies. Similarly the coping mechanisms that the employees can use to decrease the negative effects on themselves once they experience such mistreatment can also be investigated along with considering the specific characteristics of the event and underlying relational context.

In the future, above and beyond using standard scale measures and collecting qualitative data, more qualitative studies can be conducted by utilizing different techniques such as interviews, focus groups, diary methods and critical incident techniques. I believe in order to understand the underlying mechanisms and the values and meanings behind imposing and receiving such mistreatment at workplace, more

detailed qualitative investigations should be done. This is particularly important to understand the impact of different cultural context including specific group norms and power relationships. Additional quantitative methods can also be utilized. For instance, social network analysis can help to get and enhance our knowledge about the dyadic and group-level associations between targets and initiators of aggression and how comparative evaluations matter in all.

The possibility of the generalizability of study results can be limited even to similar cultural context cultures such as Iran, Turkey, or Spain. Therefore, it is essential to conduct additional studies in different contexts with larger samples as well as with multiple methodologies.



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APPENDIX-1

Academic Research on Workplace Aggression and its Outcomes

Dear Participant,

This research is aimed at examining workplace aggression and its possible outcomes in the higher education sector of Pakistan. The current survey is being conducted for the partial requirements of Doctor of Philosophy Degree at Yasar University Izmir, Turkey.

Workplace aggression is a common phenomenon all over the world. It is important to examine the interplay of various factors within specific aggressive events to reveal the general patterns of aggressive behaviors. These behaviors can be present in many different ways and intensities including being rude, making angry expressions, intimidating, making offensive remarks, avoiding another person, talking behind someone's back, making another person look bad, or physically assaulting another. The initiators of these behaviors can also differ.

This survey form is organized in two main parts: The first part asks for some general information on yourself and on your social relationships at workplace. The second part includes questions on specific aggression events that you may have experienced at workplace, how you emotionally respond to such incidents, and a number of other work behaviors.

While the first part of the survey will be completed once, second part is designed to be answered on a weekly basis. In four consecutive weeks, you will fill a new survey form with the same questions about your experiences in the most recent week at work. You can fill these weekly surveys on Friday or at the weekend. In order to do that, you will be sent an email beforehand with a link to an electronic form. When you open the link, you can easily fill the form by following the necessary instructions.

The entire survey will require 20 minutes of your time to fill out at most. Please provide answers to all of the questions. Your honesty in answering them is very important. All the information you give will be kept strictly confidential. The findings will be used only for research purposes and will not be shared with any third party. When the study is complete, its overall findings can be provided to you upon request.

Thanks a lot for your valuable time and contribution.

Sincerely,

Sobia Nasir

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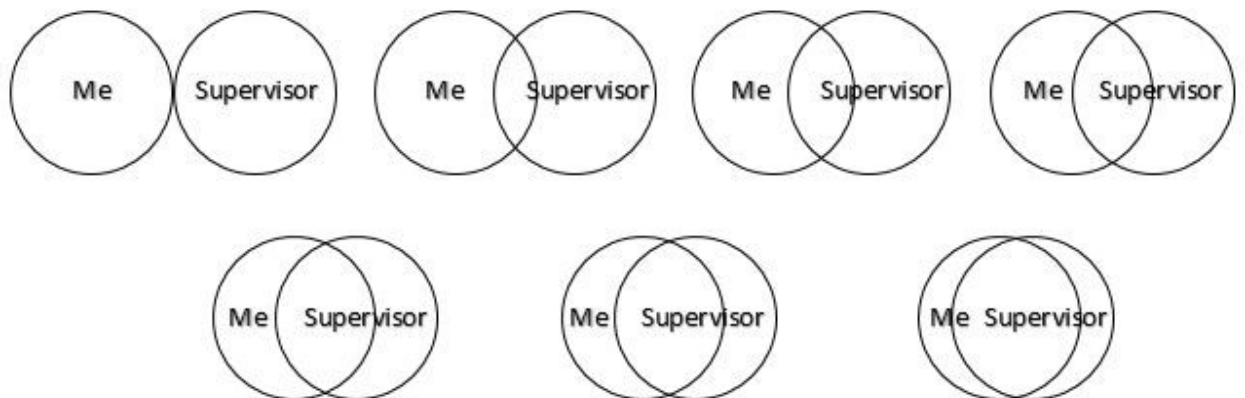
PART 1.

I. Personal Information

<p>1. Your gender:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Male</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Female</p>	<p>2. Your age:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Under 30 years</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 30 – 39</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 40 – 49</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 50 – 59</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Above 60 years</p>	<p>3. Your education:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Doctoral degree</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Master’s degree</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> University or college degree</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> High school</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Other: _____</p>
<p>4. Your position in the organization:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Administrative staff</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Academic staff</p>	<p>5. The office, department, or unit you are working in:</p> <p>_____</p>	<p>6. Type of your employment contract:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Full-time employee</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Part-time employee</p>
<p>7. Marital status:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Single</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Married</p>	<p>8. Organizational tenure:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Less than 2 years</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 2 – 5 years</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 6 – 10 years</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 11-15 years</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 16-20 years</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> More than 20 years</p>	

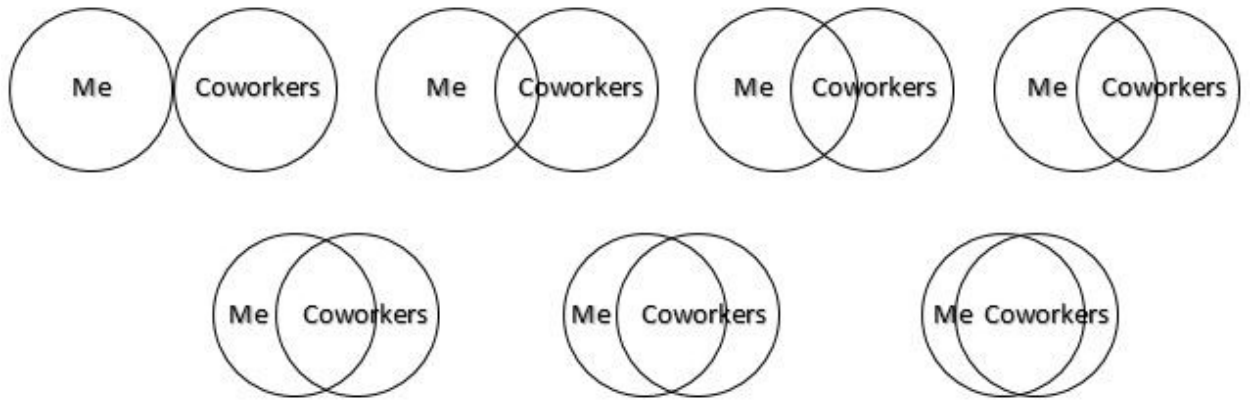
II. Identification with Supervisor

Please circle the picture below which best describes your relationship with your supervisor.



III. Identification with Coworkers

Please circle the picture below which best describes your relationship with your coworkers.



IV. Social Comparison

The following questions are about how your supervisor treats you compared to others. Please indicate to what extent you agree with each of the below statements.

S.#	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	I have a worse relationship with my supervisor than most others in my workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	When my supervisor cannot make it to an important meeting, it is less likely that s/he will ask me to fill in.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Relative to my coworkers, I receive less support from my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	The working relationship I have with my supervisor is less effective than the relationship most of my coworkers have with him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	My supervisor is less loyal to me as compared to my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	My supervisor enjoys my company less than s/he enjoys the company of my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5

PART 2.

I. Work Withdrawal

Please indicate to what extend you have engaged in each of the following behaviors at work this week (5=almost every day; 1=almost never)

S.#	During this week:	Almost never	Only a few days	In some days	Most of the days	Almost every day
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	I came to work late.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I took more or longer breaks than I should.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I was absent from work. (e.g. took sick leave when I was no sick or did not come to work by using false excuses)	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I made excuses to go somewhere to get out of work.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I left work earlier than the regular time.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I failed to attend or was late for scheduled meetings.	1	2	3	4	5

II. Work Engagement

Please indicate the degree of your agreement with each statement below regarding how you felt about your work this week (5=strongly agree; 1=strongly disagree).

S.#	During this week:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	I felt strong and vigorous at my job.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I was enthusiastic about my job.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I was immersed in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I burst with energy at work.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I was proud of the work that I did.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I got carried away when I was working.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I felt happy when I was working.	1	2	3	4	5

III. Work Effort

The following questions are about your efforts at workplace during this week. Please indicate to what extend you agree with the below statements (5=strongly agree; 1=strongly disagree).

S.#	During this week:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	I did not give up when something did not work well.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I really did my best to get my work done, regardless of potential difficulties.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	When I started an assignment, I pursued it to the end.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I did my best to do what was expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I was trustworthy in the execution of the tasks that were assigned to me.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I put a lot of energy into the tasks that I commenced.	1	2	3	4	5

IV. Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Please indicate to what extent you engaged in each of the following behaviors during this week (5=strongly agree; 1=strongly disagree).

S.#	During this week:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	I took steps to try to prevent problems with other employees.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I was mindful of my behavior effecting other people's job.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I did not abuse the rights of others.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I avoided creating the problems for other coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I considered the impact of my actions on coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I helped others who were absent.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I helped others who had heavy workloads.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I helped orient new people even though it was not required.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I willingly helped others who had work related problems.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I was always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.	1	2	3	4	5

V. Job Satisfaction

Please indicate to what extent do you agree with the following statements (5=strongly agree; 1=strongly disagree).

S.#	During this week:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	This week I was satisfied with my job.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	This week I was satisfied with my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	This week I was satisfied with my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5

VI. Workplace Aggression Incident

Please recall what has happened at work this week. Did you have any experience in which you were a target of aggression? If yes, think about one particular aggression incident that had the most impact on you. Indicate whether any of the following behaviors were directed towards you in this incident. Note: Please choose all that apply. Leave the table blank if no aggression happened.

- Making angry facial expressions or gestures (e.g., pounding fists, rolling eyes)
- Avoiding or ignoring you (giving you the “silent treatment”)
- Making you look bad
- Yelling or raising their voice
- Withholding information or resources (e.g., supplies, equipment) from you
- Sabotaging your work
- Cursing at you
- Physical assaulting you
- Using hostile body language
- Insulting or making offensive remarks (including excessive sarcasm)
- Failing to correct false information about you
- Interrupting you or “cutting you off” while speaking
- Getting in your face or provoking you
- Spreading rumors/ talking behind your back
- Making threats
- Damaging your property
- Whistle-blowing/ telling others about your negative behavior
- Belittling you or your opinions
- Making fun of you or playing a prank
- Intimidating behavior (e.g. finger pointing, invading personal space, pushing roughly)
- Being rude

VII. Description of the Aggression Incident

Please answer the following questions according to the particular aggression experience you evaluated in the previous section. (Skip the questions under this section if no aggression happened)

1. Who was the person that engaged in the aggressive behaviors towards you in this event?
 - My supervisor
 - A member of top management
 - A coworker from my department/unit
 - A coworker from another department/unit
 - Other

2. How do you rate the degree of severity (aggression level) of the incident?
 - Very low
 - Low
 - Medium
 - High
 - Very high

3. Do you think the aggressive behavior towards you was intentional?
 - Yes
 - No
 - Not sure

4. Were there any witnesses to this incident?
 - Yes
 - No

5. Please identify the witness (e.g. supervisor, coworkers, a stranger): _____

VIII. Emotional Response

Below is a list of different emotions. Please indicate to what extent you felt any of them because of the aggressive behaviors towards you in the particular incident (5=extremely; 1=not at all). Note: Leave the table blank if no aggression happened.

S.#	The aggression incident made me feel:	Not at all	Slightly	Somewhat	Considerably	Extremely
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Sadness	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Insulted	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Anxious	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Hurt	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Depressed	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Disgusted	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Frightened	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Shocked	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Miserable	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Angry	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Frustrated	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Embarrassed	1	2	3	4	5

Thank You
The Survey Is Complete

University Profile

Name of the University	Type	Foundation Year	Number of Students	Geographic Coverage	Key Academic Fields
Superior University	Private	2000	6314	Punjab, Islamabad Capital Territory	Economics and Commerce, Business and Management Sciences, Computer Science and Information Technology, Law.
University of Lahore	Private	1999	36000	Punjab, Islamabad Capital Territory	Allied Health Sciences, Arts and Architecture, Engineering & Technology, Information Technology, Languages & Literature.
University of Punjab	Public	1882	45000	Punjab	Arts & Humanities, Social Sciences, Commerce, Education, Engineering & Technology, Health Sciences, Islamic Studies, Law, Pharmacy, Science.
University of Turbat	Public	2013	1500	Baluchistan	Science & Engineering, Economics Commerce and Business Administration, Arts & social sciences, Law
Bahria University	Public	2000	10100	Punjab, Sindh, Islamabad Capital Territory	Engineering Sciences, Management Sciences, Health Sciences, Professional Psychology
National College of Business Administration and Economics	Private	1994	4417	Punjab	Business Administration, Computer Sciences, Telecommunication, Human Resource Management, Environmental Management, Mathematics.
Hamdard University	Private	1991	5200	Sindh, Islamabad Capital Territory	Pharmacy, Management Sciences, Law, Social Sciences & Humanities, Health & Medical Sciences, Engineering Sciences & Technology, Eastern Medicine
NED University of Engineering and Technology	Public	1921	12279	Sindh	Civil and Petroleum Engineering, Mechanical and Manufacturing Engineering, Electrical and Computer Engineering.
University of Engineering and	Public	1921	11241	Punjab	Electrical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Civil Engineering, Chemical

Technology Lahore					Metallurgical & Polymer Engineering.
Lahore University of Management Sciences	Private	1984	6000	Punjab	Accounting and finance, Management, Economics, Computer sciences, Electrical Engineering, Mathematics, Physics
University of Central Punjab	Private	1999	10000	Punjab	Information Technology, Management Studies, Arts & Social Sciences, Pharmacy, Life Sciences, Engineering, Sciences, Media & Communication.
University of Management and Technology	Private	1990	12000	Punjab	Business & Economics, Systems & Technology, Social Sciences, Professional Advancement, Textile & Design, , Engineering, Commerce & Accountancy.
Institute of Business Administration	Private	1955	3377	Sindh	Accounting & Law, Computer sciences, economics, Management, Marketing, Mathematical sciences, Social sciences & Liberal arts.
Government College University Lahore	Public	1864	11500	Punjab	Science & Technology, Arts & Social Sciences, Languages, Islamic & Oriental Learning, Engineering

APPENDIX-2

Academic Research on Workplace Aggression Critical Incident Record Sheet

Dear Participant,

I am a doctoral candidate at Yasar University, Turkey, and working on my Ph.D. dissertation. The aim of my study is to understand workplace aggression and its possible outcomes for organizations and their members. It will help me to pinpoint the ongoing problems caused by workplace aggression and to develop a better and more comfortable work environment for employees.

Workplace aggression incidents are very common and almost all employees around the world become targets of diverse types of aggression including yelling, making offensive remarks, making another person look bad, ignoring another person, flaunting power over others, talking behind someone's back, threatening others, sabotaging someone's work, or physically assaulting another. Thus, aggression behaviors in workplace can be in different levels of intensity, direct or indirect, verbal or physical.

Please select a workplace aggression incident that you clearly remember which had an important effect on you. This can be an event you were either directly involved or you observed. Fill out this form based on this particular incident and try to give a complete and vivid account of it as much as possible.

Keep in mind that there is no right or wrong answers and you just need to share your own view and reflection on the event. The data collected through this form will be kept strictly anonymous and confidential. The findings will be used only for research purposes and will not be shared with any third party.

Please feel free to contact me if you want to ask anything about the study or how to complete the form. Thanks a lot for your valuable time and effort.

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I. PERSONAL INFORMATION: Please answer the following general questions about yourself.

<p>1. Your gender:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female</p>	<p>2. Your age:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Under 30 years <input type="checkbox"/> 30–39 <input type="checkbox"/> 40–49 <input type="checkbox"/> 50–59 <input type="checkbox"/> Above 60 years</p>	<p>3. Your education:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> PhD <input type="checkbox"/> Master’s Degree <input type="checkbox"/> Under graduate <input type="checkbox"/> High school <input type="checkbox"/> Other: _____</p>
<p>4. The office, department, or unit you are working in:</p> <p>_____</p>	<p>5. Your position in the organization:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Administrative staff <input type="checkbox"/> Academic staff</p>	<p>6. Type of your employment contract:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Full-time employee <input type="checkbox"/> Part-time employee</p>

II. GENERAL DESCRIPTION: Please think about one particular aggression incident that you experienced in your workplace and had the most impact on you. Give a general account of this incident by making your description as specific as possible.

III. INCIDENT DETAILS: Answer the following question about the incident you described above. Please give as much detail as you want.

7. When did this aggression incident happen? (If you do not remember the exact time, please give an approximate one). How long did it continue?

8. What was the setting and/or conditions under which the aggression incident took place?

9. Who initiated the incident (E.g. your coworker, your supervisor or any other person)? Please briefly describe your relationship with this person.

10. Were there any others involved in it? (For instance, as a witness)?

11. How and why did the incident start? If there was any particular reason behind it, what was that?

12. What was your reaction as the incident unfolded? If any, what actions did you take during it?

13. What were your thoughts and/or feelings during the incident? Afterwards?

14. How did this incident end or was resolved?

15. What were the outcomes of this event; immediately and in longer term? (E.g. for yourself, your relationship with the perpetrator and your relationship with others in the same workplace).

16. Please share if you want to add anything further relevant to this experience.

The form is complete.
Thank you.

