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Self-esteem and Social Influences on Retaliation Behavior

James Paul Burton

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

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Department**

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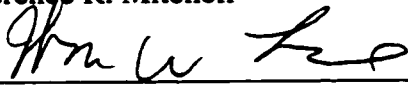
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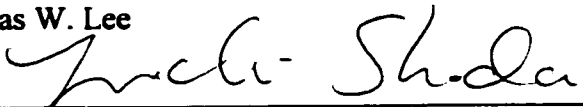
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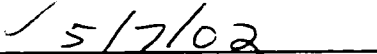
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University of Washington

Abstract

Self-esteem and Social Influences on Retaliation Behavior

James P. Burton

**Chair of the Supervisor Committee:
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Management and Organization Department
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Two studies were conducted to examine the role of a person's self-esteem and group influences in their reactions to a perceived injustice. Study 1, conducted with a sample of undergraduate business students, indicates that individuals with high self-esteem and stable self-esteem are most likely to respond negatively to a perceived injustice. Study 2 was modified to include the influences of one's group members and how self-esteem interacts with these group influences. This study conducted with current MBA students, demonstrates that one's group can have a significant influence on the perceptions of injustice and one's subsequent reactions to these injustices. Self-esteem was found to not interact with one's group members to predict retaliation behavior.

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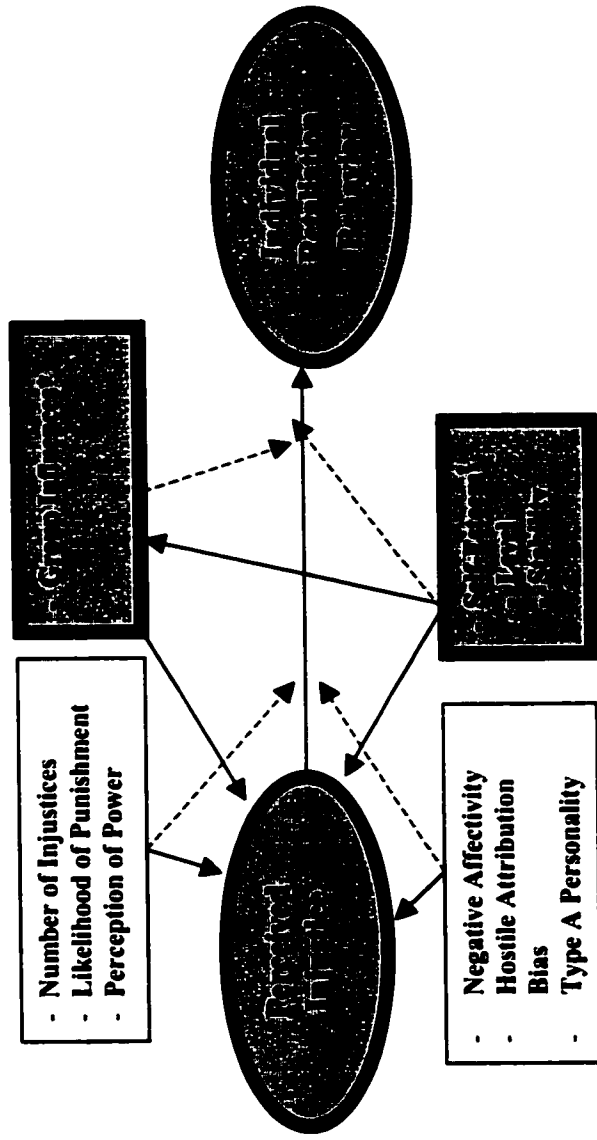
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INTRODUCTION

Workplace aggression is becoming an increasingly important topic of research in organizational behavior and in society in general. There is no doubt a person can remember hearing stories about an employee who enters his/her place of employment and fatally injures his/her coworkers. While fatal occupational injury from disputes with coworkers only accounts for four percent of all occupational deaths (Neuman & Baron, 1997), other types of personal injury are more prevalent. Non-fatal injuries such as physical assaults and verbal assaults, along with sabotage, vandalism, theft, and harassment are much more common in organizational life (Baron & Neuman, 1996; 1998). The study of workplace aggression is increasingly important because contemporary organizational changes such as downsizing and pressuring workers for increased productivity may actually be contributing to the increase in workplace aggression (Neuman & Baron, 1997; Baron & Neuman, 1998).

This dissertation examines the role that violations of justice play in one's decision to engage in aggressive behavior. Specifically, this dissertation will examine the concept of organizational retaliation behavior (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) from an individual and situational perspective. This dissertation hopes to add to the retaliation literature by exploring the factors that more strongly link perceptions of injustice to retaliation behavior. I plan to draw upon the literature dealing with workplace aggression, self-esteem, organizational justice, and social learning to help explain why someone who experiences a perceived injustice may be more likely to retaliate. While there are many factors that may influence a person's retaliatory response to injustice, I will focus this

dissertation on the factors dealing with social influence and affective feelings regarding oneself. Specifically, this dissertation discusses how a person's level and stability of self-esteem, as well as group norms and behaviors make it more likely that a perceived or real injustice leads to a retaliatory response. The proposed model is presented in Figure 1.



* Highlighted items are examined in the proposed studies in this paper.

Figure 1: Model of Retaliatory Behavior

ORGANIZATIONAL RETALIATION BEHAVIOR

Aggression has been frequently studied in the social psychology literature but is just beginning to be examined in the realm of organizational behavior. Aggression has generally been defined as behavior that is performed with the intent to do harm (Berkowitz, 1993; Tedeschi & Felson, 1994; Lee & Tedeschi, 1996). In other words, one engages in aggressive behavior in order to physically or psychologically injure another person. The construct validity of aggression has been demonstrated in a variety of lab settings (Carlson, Marcus-Newhall, & Miller, 1989).

Fairly recently, the concept of aggression (the intent to do harm) has been applied to behavior in organizations. Workplace aggression has been defined as any form of behavior that is intended to harm employees of an organization or the organization itself (Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999; Baron & Neuman, 1996). In the organizational behavior field, workplace aggression has begun to take a variety of forms. There have been studies examining workplace deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), organizational misbehavior (Vardi & Wiener, 1996), antisocial behavior (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998), violence (Folger & Baron, 1996; O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996), incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), and retaliation behavior (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999). All of these different types of behaviors deal with the common area of workplace aggression, but differ in their breadth. Andersson and Pearson (1999), in their study of incivility, distinguished these various types of aggressive behavior (Figure 2). They state that antisocial behavior is the broadest measure of workplace aggression and can include any behavior that harms or has the

potential to harm an organization or someone within an organization. Deviant behavior is a subset of antisocial behavior that includes any behavior that violates some organizational norm. Aggression is a form of deviant behavior that strictly deals with intentful behavior. Violence is a subset of aggression that represents the final act of the increasing escalation of aggressive behavior. Finally, incivility is a subset of both aggression and deviant behavior because it is ambiguous in regards to intent. Incivility is considered a subset of aggression because it can escalate into more harmful types of aggressive behavior.

This paper has chosen to focus on retaliation behavior which can be defined as any intentful behavior that is designed to harm the organization or persons within the organization in response to some perceived injustice (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Linking organizational retaliation behavior to the constructs discussed above, retaliatory behavior can be considered a subset of aggression because it deals with intentful behavior. The difference is that retaliatory behavior is in response to some injustice (real or perceived) while other forms of antisocial behavior are not necessarily in response to some injustice.

Covert vs. Overt Aggression

It is important to note at this point that aggression and/or retaliatory behavior can be covert or overt in nature. Neuman and Baron (1998; Baron & Neuman, 1998; Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999) have found three underlying factors that explain aggressive behavior in the workplace which they call “expressions of hostility”, “obstructionism”, and “overt aggression.” *Expressions of hostility* are covert forms of aggression that are primarily verbal or symbolic in nature. Examples of expression of hostility include

talking behind another person's back or spreading rumors, giving someone the silent treatment, or belittling someone's opinion (Neuman & Baron, 1998). *Obstructionism* is another covert form of aggression. Obstructionism refers to those types of behaviors that are designed to interfere with a person's ability to perform their job or an organization's ability to function effectively. Examples of this type of behavior include intentional work slowdowns and failing to return phone calls or respond to memos (Neuman & Baron, 1998). *Overt aggression* is a more direct form of aggression than the other forms discussed. This form of aggression often refers to those types of behaviors where an individual sabotages company processes, damages materials or steals from the organization.

Baron and Neuman and their colleagues (e.g., 1996, 1998, 1999) have consistently found that covert forms of aggression, such as expressions of hostility and obstructionism, are the most common type of aggression found in workplace settings. Covert aggression is often more likely in order to disguise one's intention and to avoid further retaliation from others. In other words, one finds the technique that is most effective in getting even and at the same time avoids the likelihood of personal retaliation (Bjorkqvist, Osterman, & Lagerspetz, 1994). In addition, covert aggression is thought to be more common because of the frequency of contact with the target person in a work setting and because of the possibility of witnesses which may cause social condemnation (Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999).

Perceptions of Injustice and Retaliatory Responses

Organizational retaliation behavior is grounded in organizational justice and explains behavior that is in response to a perceived injustice. Organizational justice refers to an individual's perception or evaluation of the appropriateness of some process or outcome (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). A perceived injustice can be explained in terms of distributive, procedural and interactional justice.

Distributive justice (Homans, 1961) relates to the perceived fairness of an outcome that a person receives. Equity theory (Adams, 1965) built upon the ideas initially presented by Homans. Equity theory indicates that individuals make fairness judgments regarding the outcomes they receive by comparing the ratio of their outcomes to their inputs to some referent comparison. Distributive justice was the dominant focus of the early research on organizational justice. However, more recently, procedural justice has become the primary focus of research in organizational justice (Greenberg, 1987, 1990).

Procedural justice (Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975) deals with one's perception of fairness regarding the procedures used to allocate the outcome(s). Thibaut and Walker (1975) stated that procedural fairness is enhanced if people are given a "voice" in the procedures that affect them. Lind and Tyler (1988) argue that voice can be instrumental or non-instrumental in nature. For example, individuals may perceive a system to be procedurally fair if they believe they can influence the outcomes that affect them through voice (instrumental voice). In addition, some individuals will see a system as procedurally fair simply by being able to express their concerns without any direct

control over the final outcomes (non-instrumental voice). Leventhal (1980) agreed with Thibaut and Walker's discussion of voice, but argued there were additional requirements for a system to be procedurally just. Specifically, he added that procedurally just systems require consistent application, be free from bias, accurate, correctable, represent all parties concerned, and be based on ethical standards.

Finally, interactional justice (Bies & Moag, 1986) deals with the perceived treatment one receives during the period encompassed by the specific process under review. Interactional justice includes treating people with respect and dignity, as well as providing them with adequate explanations for decisions that affect them (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Interactional justice has been largely overlooked in the justice literature. However, the few studies that have been conducted have demonstrated its link to organizational commitment (Naumann, Bennett, Bies, & Martin, 1999), absenteeism (Gellatly, 1995), and the use of control strategies (Gavin, Green, & Fairhurst, 1995).

One reason why interactional justice may not have received the attention that we think it deserves is because it is often considered a component of procedural justice. For example, Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997) state that interactional and procedural justice are parts of the same construct because 1) both deal with the process leading to some particular outcome, and 2) the two constructs are highly correlated. Therefore, they state that most of the present research in justice should view interactional justice as a component of procedural justice.

However, one could argue that procedural and interactional justice are two related, but separate constructs on a conceptual and empirical basis. Theoretically,

although there may be some overlap, fairness issues associated with the organization's formal procedures are very different than those issues dealing with the personal treatment of the employees. For example, employees may perceive that the organization's procedures are fair, but may perceive they are, or will be, treated with little respect during the use of these procedures. Empirically, there is numerous support in the literature for separating the two constructs (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001). First, the two constructs often load on two separate factors. For example, Moorman (1991) was able to demonstrate the discriminant validity of distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Second, interactions have often been found between the two indicating they are separate constructs (e.g., Skarlicki & Fogler, 1997). Third, both procedural and interactional justice have been shown to have main effects. Finally, a recent meta-analysis (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001) finds support for the separation of procedural and interactional justice.

Violations of distributive, procedural, or interactional justice may be the trigger that leads to a retaliatory response. When a person faces a perceived injustice, he/she is likely to seek some sort of remedy to this situation. While it is possible that the employee will not react to the perceived injustice due to feelings of loyalty to the company (Hirschman, 1970) or fear of reprisal (Bjorkvist, Osterman & Lagerspetz, 1994), the research has generally indicated that individuals are more likely to try to take steps to restore a sense of justice. The research on violations of justice has revealed that individuals who face a perceived injustice are more likely to engage in overt responses such as quitting an organization (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Olsen-Buchanan, 1996)

or increasing their level of absenteeism (Gellatly, 1995). More likely, however, is that individuals will engage in more subtle forms of behavior in order to restore feelings of justice (Neuman & Baron, 1998). For example, individuals may try to “beat the system” (Hodson, 1997) by covertly reducing their level of performance (Williams, 1999), organizational citizenship behaviors (Moorman, 1991), or gossiping about the boss or company (Baron & Neuman, 1996). Therefore, it is expected that perceptions of unfairness may lead to a retaliatory response. Skarlicki and his colleagues (1997, 1999) found that violations of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice interacted with each other to predict organizational retaliation behavior. In addition, they found that procedural and interactional justice were especially important in a retaliatory response. Specifically, they found that fair procedures (procedural justice) or fair interpersonal treatment (interactional justice) helped limit retaliatory behavior when distributive justice was low. This is consistent with past work in the justice literature that has demonstrated that perceptions of fairness of some procedure and treatment during the process are often more important than the particular outcome a person receives (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Cropanzano & Folger, 1991). While we could offer hypotheses regarding how each of the justice components lead to organizational retaliatory behavior, we are more interested in the factors that moderate this relationship. However, duplicating what Skarlicki and his colleagues have found in prior research may support the construct and general validity of organizational retaliation behavior. Therefore, we offer one hypothesis for perceptions of injustice and a retaliatory response to provide additional evidence of the possible

negative consequences of a perceived injustice as indicated by Skarlicki and his colleagues.

Hypothesis 1: Violations of organizational justice will be positively related to the frequency of retaliatory behaviors.

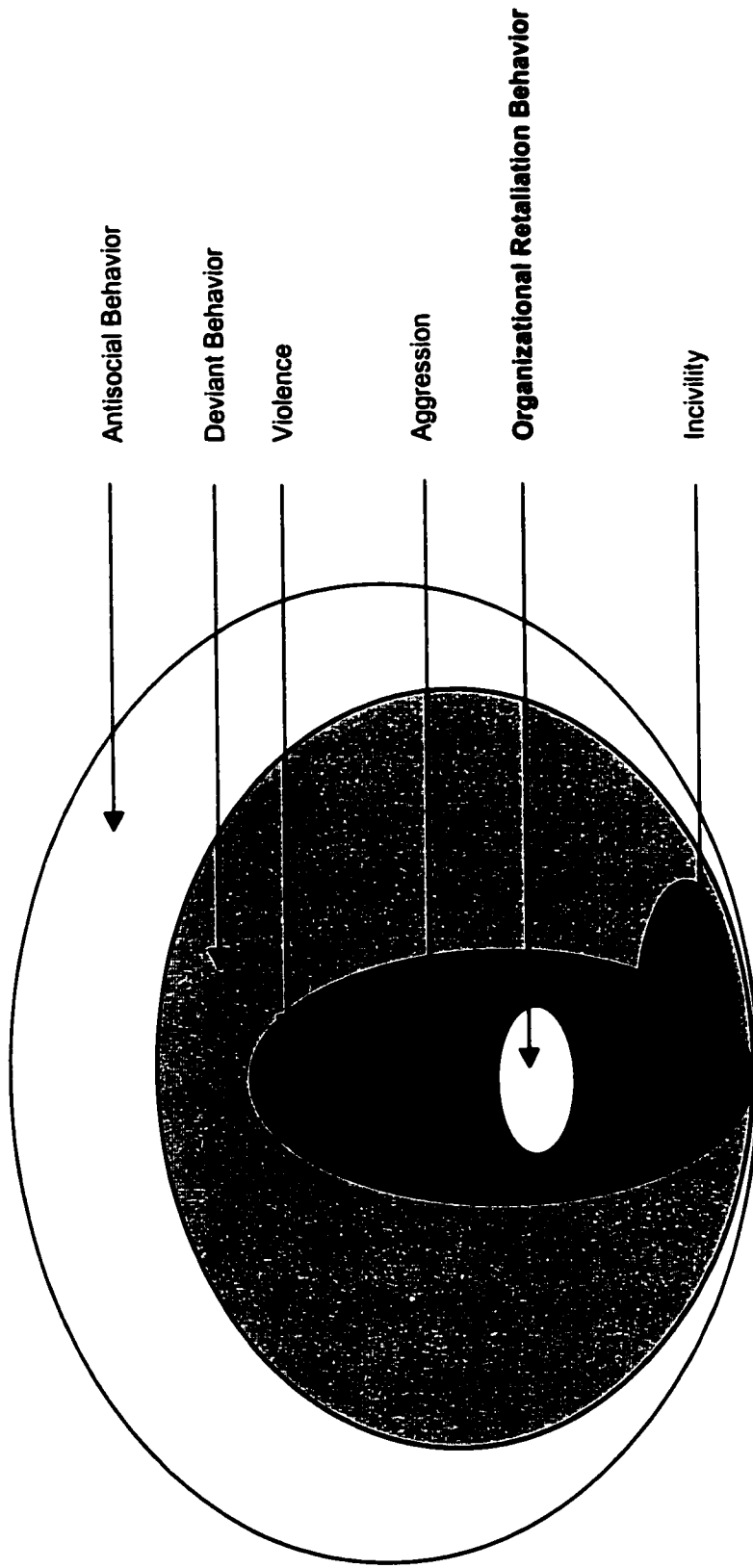


Figure 2: Organizational Retaliation Behavior vs. Other Forms of Workplace Aggression

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND RETALIATION

It has been argued in past aggression research that personality characteristics can have a significant influence on the tendency for a person to engage in aggressive behavior (Folger & Baron, 1996). When developing a model of organizational retaliation behavior, one has a number of potential personality variables to choose from. Specifically, based on past aggression research, researchers should examine those variables that have been shown to increase feelings of negative affect (Berkowitz, 1993). For example, it could be argued that personality variables such as hostile attribution bias, negative affectivity, and Type A personality are related to retaliation in response to a perceived injustice. Notice, that all of these personality characteristics may be related to increased feelings of negative affect and therefore the increased probability of aggressive actions. We should point out at this point that these particular variables will not be studied in this research. However, it is necessary to discuss these variables to help establish the nomological net of organizational retaliation behavior. Future research in this area by myself and others will need to examine these variables more closely.

Hostile attribution bias (Dodge, Price, Bachorowski, & Newman, 1990) is the tendency for someone to perceive hostile intentions in someone, even when they do not exist (Folger & Baron, 1996). The perception of hostile intentions in another person has been shown to be an important contributor to retaliatory behavior (e.g., DeRidder, Schruijer & Rijsman, 1999). The main idea in this argument is that when someone perceives an act as intentional against them, they feel “singled-out” and take the attack personally (Jones & Davis, 1965) and therefore are more likely to experience feelings of negative affect and retaliate (Allred, 1999, 2000).

Someone with high *negative affectivity* (Watson & Clark, 1984) is characterized as a person who frequently experiences negative moods and emotions. While feelings of negative affect may even occur without some stressful event (Watson & Clark, 1984), it seems likely that negative emotions are especially likely if a person experiences some negative event, such as a perceived injustice. It has already been stated that when a person experiences feelings of negative affect, they are more likely to engage in an aggressive response. In fact, Skarlicki, Folger, and Tesluk (1999) found that a person's degree of negative affectivity moderated the fairness/retaliation relationship. In other words, if someone has the tendency to be distressed, unhappy, or dissatisfied (i.e., negative affectivity), they are more likely to perceive an act as unfair and retaliate.

Type A personalities are characterized by high levels of stress, competition, and time urgency (Caplan & Jones, 1975). Berkowitz (1993) theorized that someone who has high levels of Type A personality is more likely to engage in aggressive behavior. He states that "people who have this type of personality...are especially likely to become angry and aggressive when they are confronted by a decidedly unpleasant event" (p. 155). Baron, Neuman, and Geedes (1999) found that greater Type A tendencies was related to increased levels of workplace aggression.

In addition to the variables discussed above, it could be argued that personality traits such as locus of control, conscientiousness, and agreeableness could also impact one's retaliatory response to an injustice. Although in an ideal setting one would measure all of the potential individual difference variables that may have some impact on retaliation behavior, the reality is that we need to pick what we believe are the most

important variables to measure and study. In this dissertation, we want to expand the study the study of retaliation beyond just a person's personality by incorporating the role of the self (i.e., how a person thinks and feels about him/herself) in the decision to engage in retaliatory behavior.

This leap to the focus on feelings of the self is not that dramatic. In fact, the study of personality and the study of the self are closely related. An easy way to think about the relation between personality and the self is that the study of the self deals with determining how people think and feel about themselves while the study of personality deals with what people are actually like (Brown, 1998). Feelings about one's self and personality are related because what we really are (personality) influences how we feel about ourselves (McCrae & Costa, 1988). For example, if people have a natural tendency to be upset or distressed, this may influence how one feels about themselves. It has also been argued that if one is examining personality or the self, the self may be a better measure because personality reports are usually self-reported (Brown, 1998). In other words, by using self-reports to measure personality, what researchers are really measuring is how people think and feel about themselves and not their actual personality. This dissertation has chosen to focus on the role of a person's level and stability of self-esteem in relation to retaliatory behavior in organizations.

The research linking self-esteem and the other individuals difference variables discussed above has been largely non-existent. For example, there has been no research linking self-esteem and hostile attribution bias or Type A personality. However, one could theoretically make a link between these constructs. While it is doubtful that self-

esteem has a direct effect on hostile attribution bias or Type A, it could be argued that self-esteem interacts with these variables to influence a person's behavior. For example, if someone has a high degree of hostile attribution bias and low self-esteem, this person may be more likely to respond negatively to feelings of being "singled-out". In addition, we have discussed that individuals with Type A personality are more likely to become aggressive, but perhaps it is even more likely if you combine this with low self-esteem. While this will not be tested in this dissertation, future research will address these interrelationships.

Although there has not been a lot of research linking self-esteem and the variables discussed above, this does not hold true for negative affectivity. Specifically, negative affectivity is thought to lead to greater levels of negative self-evaluations (Watson & Clark, 1984). The research in this area has found support for this argument. The correlation between self-esteem and negative affectivity has been shown to range from a low of $-.24$ to a high of $-.74$ (Stokes & Levin, 1990; Tarlow & Haaga, 1996; Hills & Argyle, 2001). Negative affectivity will be controlled for in this study.

Self-Esteem and Organizational Retaliation Behavior

In general, people with high self-esteem feel good about themselves and people with low self-esteem feel poorly about themselves. Brown (1998) has stated self-esteem can be viewed as a person's love for him/herself. That is, people with high self-esteem have a general tendency to love oneself while people with low self-esteem are more likely to feel bad about themselves. Brown states that self-esteem develops primarily through feelings of belonging. Belonging is the sense that one is unconditionally loved

or accepted and is developed through social interactions or experiences. Brown states that once self-esteem develops, it is a relatively stable phenomenon and influences the way that we view the world. He says, “once high or low self-esteem develops, it guides the way we view ourselves, other people, and the experiences and events we confront” (1998, p. 200). Therefore, a person’s self-esteem may have a significant impact on the decision to engage in retaliatory behavior because it influences the way that we perceive another person’s or an organization’s actions. In other words, it may impact our perceptions of justice in an organization. In partial support of this idea, Wiesenfeld, Brockner, and Thibault (2000) found that managers’ level of self-esteem was related to their perception of procedural injustice when dealing with a layoff situation.

Hypothesis 2: The level of a person’s self-esteem will be negatively related to perceptions of unfairness in organizations. That is, a person with high self-esteem is less likely to perceive an act as unfair than someone with low self-esteem.

Not only is it possible that self-esteem influences one’s perceptions of justice in an organization, it is also expected that a person’s self-esteem will influence the emotional reaction to a perceived injustice. This reaction is best explained utilizing the literature on self-esteem and “failure”.

Self-esteem and Failure

In the self-esteem literature, it has been demonstrated that people with low self-esteem do not cope as well with failure compared to people with high self-esteem (Brown, 1998; Brown & Smart, 1991). It should be pointed out that the term “failure” is

used loosely in this literature. The term failure refers to any situation that involves negative self-relevant feedback (Brown, 1998). For example, failure could involve interpersonal slights such as having your coworkers leave for lunch without you or failing to have your proposal at work approved by your boss (Brown, 1998). Brown and Dutton (1995) found that both high and low self-esteem individuals feel unhappy when they fail, but only individuals with low self-esteem feel ashamed and humiliated (self-relevant emotions). In other words, both people with high and low self-esteem feel bad when they face failure, however, the difference is that people with low self-esteem feel bad about themselves while people with high self-esteem just feel unhappy (Brown, 1998). Kernis, Brockner, and Frankel (1989) also found that people with low self-esteem have a tendency to have greater levels of negative affect than people with high self-esteem, especially after negative feedback. They stated that this tendency for people with low self-esteem to have greater negative affect after failure might be due to a person with low self-esteem over-generalizing their perceived failure. For example, although failure on an intellectual task should have no bearing on a person's self-esteem, someone with low self-esteem has the tendency to apply their perceived "failure" to their overall feelings toward themselves.

A person's threat to their self-esteem can influence their decision to engage in aggressive behavior (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996). Berkowitz (1993) stated that any kind of negative affect or unpleasant feeling could cause aggressive behavior. He states that a threat to one's self-esteem can be viewed in these terms. He writes, "...challenges to one's favorable self-image are especially likely to produce aggressive

reactions because they're decidedly unpleasant" (p. 56). It has also been demonstrated that people with low self-esteem experience more "pain" after negative feedback (Greenier, et al. 1999; Campbell, 1990; Brockner, Derr, & Laing, 1987) and believe aggression is more justified when they believe their self-identity is threatened or to restore a sense of justice (Tripp & Bies, 1997).

Merging the psychology and organizational retaliation literatures, it can be expected that someone with low self-esteem could be more likely to have a negative reaction to a perceived injustice. Individuals with low self-esteem are more likely to have negative affect following a perceived injustice not only because they have a natural tendency for these types of feelings, but also because they have the tendency to over-generalize any self-relevant "failure". For example, a person with low self-esteem is expected to have a stronger reaction to events such as a perceived unfair performance review or low pay raise (i.e., violation of distributive justice) because they will over-generalize this negative feedback as a sign they are not a good person and will react in a manner that restores their self-identity. Therefore, it is expected that someone with low self-esteem is more likely to engage in organizational retaliation behavior.

Hypothesis 3: A person's self-esteem moderates the perceived injustice-organizational retaliation relationship. In other words, a person with low self-esteem is more likely to react to a perceived injustice by engaging in retaliatory behavior.

Stability of Self-Esteem

The previous hypothesis deals with one's level of self-esteem. This has been the dominant focus of the research in the self-esteem literature (Kernis, 1993). However, more recently researchers have explored the effect of stability of self-esteem on various outcome variables. Stability of self-esteem refers to the magnitude of short-term fluctuations in a person's level of self-esteem that are affected by specific events (Kernis, Paradise, Whitaker, Wheatman, & Goldman, 2000). This differs from a person's typical feelings of self-worth that are not dependent on a particular context (Waschull & Kernis, 1996). In addition, individuals with unstable self-esteem perceive that their self-worth is always "on the line" (Kernis, Cornell, Sun, Berry, & Harlow, 1993). Therefore, they are especially sensitive to social cues and positive or negative contextual events.

Recall that the traditional view is that individuals with low self-esteem respond to unpleasant events more negatively than high self-esteem individuals (see hypothesis 3). However, this only accounts for a person's level of self-esteem rather than the stability of self-esteem. Baumeister, Smart, and Boden (1996) argue that people with unstable, high self-esteem are the individuals who are most likely to engage in aggression if their self-esteem is threatened. Their argument is that people with high self-esteem think they are good at most things, therefore, there are more possible threats to their self-esteem, especially if their self-esteem is contingent on contextual factors. The research that has been done in this area has consistently found that stability of self-esteem, especially for those with unstable high-self esteem, predicts aggressive behavior better than level of self-esteem (Kernis, 1993).

Greenier, Kernis, McNamara, Waschull, Berry, Herlocker, and Abend (1999) found that negative events were reported as more self-esteem relevant for person's with unstable self-esteem than stable self-esteem. Kernis, Cornell, Sun, Berry, and Harlow (1993) found that individuals with unstable high self-esteem had the strongest reactions to negative events. Specifically, these individuals became more defensive than individuals with unstable low self-esteem and were more likely to derogate the source of the negative feedback. The authors argued, and subsequently demonstrated (Kernis, Greenier, Herlocker, Whisenhunt, & Abend, 1997), that individuals with unstable high self-esteem become more "ego-involved" when experiencing negative feedback while individuals with unstable low self-esteem are more likely to be more accepting of negative feedback. This may help explain why it has been shown that individuals with unstable high self-esteem are more prone to hostility and anger (Kernis, Grannemann, & Barclay, 1989).

It should be demonstrated that not everyone agrees with the notion of stability of self-esteem. One argument is that unstable self-esteem is just a disguised form of low self-esteem. For example, Brown (1998) writes,

Unstable high self-esteem represents a kind of pseudo or defensive high self-esteem. Rather than being truly secure in their self-love, people with unstable high self-esteem feel good about themselves only when things are going well. In this sense, unstable high self-esteem appears to be a disguised form of low self-esteem—one in which the person's feelings of self-worth are highly conditional on recent achievements and events (p. 211).

A second argument against self-esteem stability is the idea that individuals with unstable self-esteem are simply less reliable in their responses to self-esteem items than individuals with stable self-esteem. Third, one could argue that self-esteem stability is

actually representative of a person's mood variability. While these arguments are important to address, we believe that it is important to explore the effects of self-esteem stability on retaliation behavior. If we chose not to include self-esteem stability in this dissertation, not only would we be ignoring the psychological significance of this construct, but we also would be ignoring the empirical evidence on this issue.

First, level and stability of self-esteem represent two similar but distinct dimensions of the self. For example, a variety of studies have demonstrated the low correlation between these two constructs (e.g., Greenier, Kernis, & Waschull, 1995). In addition, if stability and level of self-esteem were the same, one would expect that the instability of self-esteem to be greatest under moderate levels of self-esteem (e.g., high or low self-esteem would be stable, but moderate levels would be unstable). However, the research demonstrates that instability is not most extreme for moderate levels of self-esteem (Greenier, et al., 1995).

Second, self-esteem instability is not simply representative of mood variability. The research has demonstrated that self-esteem stability and mood variability relate very differently to aggressive behavior. Specifically, while negative mood stability is positively related to aggression, self-esteem *instability* is positively related to acts of aggression (Kernis, et al., 1989).

Finally, we also believe it is important to examine one's stability of self-esteem in this dissertation because the evidence overwhelmingly suggests that individuals with unstable high self-esteem are more likely to become aggressive following negative feedback. In addition, the literature on level of self-esteem has been less than consistent

in finding results regarding aggression (e.g., Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). We believe that a person with unstable high self-esteem is more likely to experience negative feelings following an injustice and therefore are more likely to engage in retaliatory behavior to restore a sense of justice.

Hypothesis 4a: A person with unstable high self-esteem is more likely to perceive an event as unfair than someone with stable high self-esteem or a person with unstable or stable low self-esteem.

Hypothesis 4b: A person with unstable high self-esteem is more likely to retaliate following the perception of injustice than a person with stable high self-esteem or a person with unstable or stable low self-esteem.

Self-Esteem vs. Similar Variables

At this point, it is also necessary to differentiate self-esteem from similar variables discussed in the organizational behavior literature (please see Brockner, 1988 for an excellent discussion of these differences/similarities for a variety of variables). For the purpose of this dissertation, I will focus on three similar constructs that have been examined in the organizational behavior field, namely self-efficacy, psychological well-being, and organizational-based self-esteem. First, self-efficacy refers to one's beliefs about their ability to perform a specific task (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). While self-efficacy is situation specific, self-esteem is more general. In addition, self-efficacy refers to one's belief about their ability to perform, while self-esteem refers to one's overall evaluation of oneself (Mitchell, 1997). This distinction holds even when one considers global, or general, self-efficacy (a more recent addition to the self-efficacy field). General self-

efficacy refers to one's overall belief that they can perform at a competent level on a variety of tasks (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). Some researchers have argued that general self-efficacy is no different from self-esteem (Stanley & Murphy, 1997) empirically even though there is a clear conceptual difference. Please note that general self-efficacy does not include a self-evaluation component, although self-esteem could certainly influence these beliefs. The correlation between these two constructs has been high, but their discriminant validity has been established through confirmatory factor analyses (Chen, et al., 2001).

Psychological well-being refers to one's subjective evaluation of their satisfaction with their life (Diener, 2000). Self-esteem and psychological well-being are likely to be related in the sense that self-esteem is likely to influence one's satisfaction with their life. In fact, Diener (2000) states that individual difference variables are one of the best long-term predictors of life satisfaction. It seems likely that self-esteem can be one such individual difference variable. For example, Shamir (1986) demonstrated that self-esteem moderates the relationship between employment status (i.e., layoffs) and subsequent psychological well-being. Shamir found that lower levels of self-esteem related to lower levels of psychological well-being following layoffs. Although the two constructs are related, there is clear support for the discriminant validity of self-esteem and psychological well-being (Lucas, Diener, & Suh, 1996).

Finally, it is necessary to differentiate self-esteem from the recent concept of organizational-based self-esteem (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989). Organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) is defined as one's perceived value in an

organization. Not only are these constructs weakly related (approximately .30) (Pierce, et al., 1989), but also please note that OBSE is situation specific (i.e., organization specific), while self-esteem refers to an overall evaluation of one's worth as a person and is not dependent on a particular context. In fact, one could argue that a person could have high self-esteem and low OBSE at the same time.

SITUATIONAL INFLUENCES ON RETALIATION BEHAVIOR

Not only can one's individual attributes and perceptions lead to organizational retaliation behavior, but also one's social context can have a significant influence on the decision to engage in retaliatory behavior. Again, there are a variety of potential situational aspects that may lead to the tendency to engage in retaliatory behavior. For example, based on past research conducted in the aggression literature one could examine the likelihood of punishment, the number of injustices, or perceptions of power.

The *likelihood of punishment* or fear of retaliation has been a common variable examined in the aggression literature. Bjorkqvist, Osterman, and Lagerspetz (1994) stated that a person examines the "effect/danger ratio" prior to engaging in an aggressive act. In other words, a person will not engage in an aggressive behavior if they believe the risks outweigh the rewards. Therefore, a person calculates the costs of retaliation prior to the behavior (Allred, 1999) such as social condemnation or counter-retaliation from the target person (Bies, 1987; Bjorkqvist, Osterman, & Lagerspetz, 1994; Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999). In addition, this effect/danger ratio is one of the frequently cited reasons why individuals are more likely to engage in covert types of aggressive rather than overt forms (Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999; Baron & Neuman, 1998).

The *number of injustices* a person experiences could also be a situational variable to examine for its role in retaliatory behavior. It is likely that a person may be more willing to accept a single act or feeling of injustice (depending on the severity of the issue). However, after a length of time, if a person perceives a series of injustices, the person may reach their "breaking point" and engage in a retaliatory response. In the

frustration – aggression literature, Spector (1997a) stated that the number of frustrators influences a person's experienced frustration and subsequent behavioral reaction. In addition, Folger and Baron (1996) and Bies, Tripp, and Kramer (1997) have discussed how many small events may escalate into a single act of violence.

A person's *perceived status* within an organization could also influence their behavioral response to an injustice. It seems quite likely that a person who perceives their level of power in an organization as low is less likely to retaliate against authority or the organization than someone who has a high degree of power since members in high power positions may not fear retribution (Heider, 1958). Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, and Allen (1999) demonstrated that a person's hierarchical status in an organization influences how they respond to feelings of negative affect. Bies, Tripp, and Kramer (1997) state that a person considers their power status and influence when making the decision to engage in aggressive acts. Finally, Kim, Smith, and Brigham (1998) found that a person with lower levels of power is less likely to retaliate against their superiors or organization.

While all of these situational variables may influence the degree of retaliation in an organization, we have chosen to focus on the social or normative influences on a person's retaliatory behavior. Similar to our argument regarding the multiple individual difference variables available for study, it would be extremely difficult to examine all of the situational factors influence aggression in the workplace in a single study. We are more interested in examining the role of a person's coworkers' behavior and words on the person's own level of retaliation behavior. In addition, as will be seen below, we are

interested in determining the role that self-esteem plays in the susceptibility to social influence in terms of retaliation following a perceived injustice. The variables discussed above, while important, do not necessarily influence one's susceptibility to the behavior and norms of their coworkers. Therefore, in this dissertation, we suggest that an examination of the role of social learning in retaliation behavior is warranted.

Models and Group Norms

Social learning theory states that one's decision to act in a particular manner is influenced by the behavior of other people (Bandura, 1973). Bandura stated that observing influential models often provides appropriate behavioral examples in an organization. In other words, a person looks to someone they identify with or respect to determine how to act in a given situation. Therefore, if an influential model (e.g., respected coworker, boss, etc.) is observed engaging in a retaliatory response to a perceived injustice, it may influence a person to adopt a similar approach to dealing with an injustice.

Bandura (1973) also states that an individual's aggressive behavior may be influenced by the consequences of the aggressive acts of the model. He states that imitation of aggressive behavior is more likely when one notices that the model gains social or material success for his/her actions or does not get punished. He states this lack of punishment may cause aggressive type of behavior to be adopted by an increasing number of employees (collective aggression). Trevino (1992) also discussed how the failure to punish a person for past aggressive or antisocial behavior can have a significant impact on the behavior of the larger group. Butterfield, Trevino, and Ball (1996)

demonstrated that managers often use the punishment of an individual as a method to influence the behavior of the larger group. They found that managers were aware that if they were too lenient with disruptive behavior, that this type of behavior would become more prevalent in their work group. In other words, a norm may develop that encourages a particular undesirable behavior.

Not only can the actions and consequences of a model's behavior influence observer's behavior, but also the words and suggestions that coworkers give an employee can also influence behavior. Salancik and Pfeffer's (1978) social information processing theory states that information from coworkers, managers, or friends dictate an acceptable set of behaviors in an organization. If one's coworkers believe that retaliation is the appropriate response to a particular injustice, this provides social validation for the act. Kim, Smith, and Brigham (1998) found that retaliation was more likely if there was the presence of a third party who shared the beliefs of the person considering the retaliatory act. In addition, the person may engage in the retaliatory behavior in order to gain social acceptance of the other group members (Kacmar & Baron, 1999). Therefore, not only does the behavior of other persons influence one's behavior (modeling), but also what one is told about how to perform one's job, how to act, or how to think in a situation can have a significant impact on behavior.

Past theoretical models of aggressive behavior have included the role of a model (social learning) and group norms in the decision to engage in aggressive behavior (e.g., Bandura, 1973; O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996). Social learning and group norms have been used to explain specific potentially retaliatory responses such as

counterproductive employee behavior (Boye & Jones, 1997), absenteeism (Nicholson & Johns, 1985), and theft (Greenberg, 1997). Recent empirical work on antisocial behavior (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998) has also utilized social learning and social information processing theory. Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly found that the frequency of antisocial behavior in the group as a whole predicted individual antisocial behavior. Although the role of the group has been shown to influence overall antisocial behavior, it has not been shown to influence retaliatory type behavior. Skarlicki, Folger, and Tesluk (1999) stated that future research in organizational retaliation behavior should incorporate the role of group influences.

One could expect that a person's response to a perceived injustice could be influenced by their coworkers. For example, if an organization announces plans to layoff a larger number of employees in a particular department, an employee may observe his/her coworkers engaging in behavior such as stealing supplies, working less hard, talking back to the boss, or speaking negatively about the organization to customers. It could be assumed that the observation of this type of behavior as well as the normative pressure to conform to the group's expectations could influence someone to engage in retaliatory behavior.

Hypothesis 5: Individual ratings of injustice will be influenced by the perceptions of fairness held by other organizational members. That is, the more group members indicate a particular act is unfair, the more likely an individual will perceive a violation of justice.

Hypothesis 6: The frequency of retaliation behavior within a group will moderate the relationship between the perceived injustice and individual retaliatory behavior. That is, the presence of group retaliation will strengthen the relationship between perceived injustice and individual retaliation.

Interaction of Individual and Situational Forces

While past research has traditionally examined personal and situational influences separately, it seems important to examine the interaction between the individual and situational variables in this dissertation (Pervin, 1989). Specifically, we believe that a person's self-esteem will interact with the social cues and behavior of the group to predict retaliatory responses to injustice.

A person's self-esteem could be expected to interact with the actions or influence tactics of a group. Brockner (1983) states that individuals with low self-esteem are more "behaviorally plastic". In other words, someone with low self-esteem is more likely to be influenced by the people around him/her. One reason may be that individuals with low self-esteem have less well defined self-concepts and therefore need to seek out information from other sources (Campbell, 1990). In addition, Brown (1998) and Brockner (1988) state that self-esteem individuals lack confidence in themselves and are especially sensitive to rejection so are more likely to be influenced by other group members. Brockner, O'Malley, Hite, and Davies (1987) state that low self-esteem individuals "tend to be more uncertain than high SEs [high self-esteem individuals] about the correct way to think, feel, and act. This uncertainty makes them more apt to scan

their social environments for cues for appropriate behavior, thus rendering them highly susceptible to influences by such cues” (p. 845). Therefore, someone with low self-esteem could be considered as more likely to engage in retaliatory behavior if they observe their coworkers engaging in similar behavior or if they feel some normative pressure to conform to the group’s actions.

Hypothesis 7: A person with low self-esteem is more likely to perceive an act as unfair if they believe their group members also perceive an act as unfair.

Hypothesis 8: A person with low self-esteem is more likely to engage in individual retaliation behavior when they experience their group engaging in similar behavior.

METHODOLOGY

In this dissertation, we conducted two experiments to measure self-esteem and organizational retaliation behavior. In the first experiment, we conducted a lab study measuring level and stability of self-esteem and whether the subjects would be more likely to perceive a situation as violating justice principles and then engage in a retaliatory response. Specifically, study 1 examines whether a person “would” engage in a variety of forms of retaliation behavior based on a perceived injustice. In addition, study 1 measures real retaliatory behavior in response to an injustice.

Study 2 extends the first study and helps in the generalizability of the findings by using MBA students who are currently working in real organizations. In addition, study 2 explores the social context’s influence on retaliatory actions in organizations. Finally, study 2 examines the interaction of a person’s self-esteem and social context to influence retaliation.

Study 1

In the first experiment, we used a combination of a short video and written scenarios to manipulate a situation that could occur in the workplace that should cause perceptions of injustice and subsequent retaliatory behavior. When reading and watching the scenario, subjects were instructed to “take the part” of the person in the scenario. Greenberg and Eskew (1993) state that this is an effective method for gauging how someone would react to a similar situation in an organization. In addition, this has been an effective method of studying other socially unacceptable behaviors such as envy (e.g., Vecchio, 1997).

Procedures

Prior to approaching subjects for study 1, I received permission from the Human Subjects Committee at the University of Washington. Subjects for study 1 were recruited from introductory management classes (HRMOB 300) in the Business School. Using subjects from the Business School is important because this allowed me to have access to subjects (most are juniors and seniors) who are more likely to have real-world experience than some other departments on campus. In addition, by using this introductory management class, it allowed us a greater degree of control over the collection of some of our measures since we could enter the classroom on multiple occasions.

Phase 1: During phase 1, the experimenter went to each HRMOB 300 section that was offering extra credit for their students' participation in this study to explain the process and the study. The potential subjects were told that the researchers were interested in how a person's mood influences their behavior in work settings. In addition, all subjects were guaranteed that the information I received from them was completely anonymous and that there were no right or wrong answers. For those students who agreed to participate, they immediately completed a consent form and a global self-esteem measure. At this time, students also completed various demographic measures and signed up for a lab session scheduled during phase 3.

In order to ensure the confidentiality and anonymity of the subjects' answers, subjects were not asked to report their names or student ID numbers. While this may appear to cause a problem in terms of matching the surveys from the three different time periods, I adopted the approach used by Fedor and his colleagues (2001). A series of

“identifier” questions were used to match the various surveys. Specifically, subjects were asked to ¹⁾ pick a random number (maximum of 4 digits) that only they would know, ²⁾ give the first letter of their mother’s maiden name, ³⁾ add up the last 2 numbers of their house or apartment’s street address (e.g., 4679 Howell Ave = 16), and ⁴⁾ add up the numbers of the month and date that mark their birthday (e.g., December 3rd → 12 + 3 = 15). This method was very successful in this study. Out of the 201 participants in the study, only 4 responses were unable to be matched to a specific person.

When the subjects completed the consent form and first set of measures, they separated the consent form from the first survey and returned both copies to the experimenter. When all the subjects had completed their surveys, the experimenter reminded them that he would be back the following week with the second set of surveys and left the classroom.

Phase 2: During the week immediately after subjects completed the measure of their level of self-esteem, the experimenter returned to each classroom and distributed the stability measures of self-esteem. For a total of four days, subjects completed a series of surveys designed to measure changes in their self-esteem. During the initial visit to the class, students were given enough forms to last two days. At the end of the 2nd day, the students were required to return the completed sheets to me in their HRMOB 300 class and pick up forms for the last two days. After the final two days, the subjects returned the forms directly to the experimenter. Kernis and his colleagues have utilized this measure with success.

Phase 3: During the week after the subjects completed the stability measure of self-esteem, they participated in a brief lab session to gage their reaction to a scenario involving a supervisor – subordinate interaction.

When the subjects entered the room, they received a booklet with a cover sheet titled “Supervisor – Subordinate Relations in Organizational Settings”. The subjects were asked to complete the four “identifier” questions and to not open the booklet until instructed by the experimenter. When everyone in the room had completed the identifier questions, they were instructed to open the booklet to the first page. At this point, the subjects were instructed to read along as the experimenter read the instructions out loud. Specifically, the subjects read and heard

This investigation is concerned with supervisor – subordinate relationships in organizational settings. There are no right or wrong answers. We guarantee your personally anonymity. This research is being conducted to advance knowledge about how people in organizations really operate.

Instructions: *In the following scenario, please play the role of the subordinate discussed in the text (i.e., assume you are the subordinate). After reading the scenario, please answer the questions that follow.*

At this point, subjects read and heard the experimenter read the first part of the scenario. Specifically, they read

You have worked in your current position at the UW for the past 2 years. Specifically, you work for one of the cafés located throughout campus in academic buildings where students, faculty, and administrators can grab a quick bite to eat, get something to drink, or simply meet and chat. Your duties include serving customers a variety of food and drinks (e.g., coffee, soup, sandwiches, etc.) and collecting payment for these items. Your café has a suggestions-award program. The café encourages its student employees to submit suggestions to improve workplace procedures.

The subjects were then told to stop reading and to watch a short video that depicts the job described in the written scenario. The purpose of the video is not for manipulation purposes, but rather to make the job seem as “real” as possible to the subjects. Following the video, subjects were instructed to turn to the next page of the booklet and to continue reading the scenario and to answer the questions that follow. In addition, they were reminded that they were to assume the role of the subordinate depicted in the video and written scenario.

The subjects were randomly assigned to one of two scenarios. In one scenario, subjects read a situation that depicted a potentially unfair response of a manager to a suggestion by the employee. In the other scenario, the supervisor reacts positively to the suggestion by the employee. The scenario read as follows:

Currently, your café maintains a separate office where it stores the materials it needs to serve its customers (e.g., coffee cups, soup bowls, napkins, etc.). Recently, you submitted a suggestion to your supervisor that may reduce the current level of supplies on hand in your café. Specifically, you recommend that the department adopt a just-in-time delivery schedule for its inventory. Your suggestion could save your business a lot of money by cutting the cost of maintaining inventory. You went out of your way and checked with suppliers and were assured by them that they could supply the necessary materials to the café within 48 hours of an order.

In the *injustice condition*, students read a scenario and a written “transcript” of a conversation where they are reprimanded for making a suggestion. It read as follows:

Upon reading your suggestions, your boss becomes angry. In front of your coworkers and visibly upset, he asks to speak to you in private. Once you enter his office, he severely criticizes you. The following transcript involves the conversation you had with your supervisor:

“I just looked at the recommendation you want me to send to my superiors. I don’t know what you are thinking. If I send this suggestion to my supervisors,

it will make me look bad in front of them. People at this organization expect supervisors to think of these things and not a simple counter clerk.”

You try to make a comment, but the boss cuts you off.

He says “Any type of this behavior in the future will be severely reprimanded. In fact, you may lose your job.”

You again try to make your point, but again are interrupted.

Your boss says, “Stop acting like a supervisor and focus on your own job. Now, get back to work.”

To make matters worse, two weeks after your “conversation” with your boss, you learn that he has taken your idea and presented it to his superiors as “his own idea.” Your boss is now receiving praise from his superiors regarding his bright ideas and contribution to the café and the UW. You learn that the idea will save the café thousands of dollars per month.

In the *control condition*, subjects simply read that their suggestion was approved for implementation. It read as follows:

Two weeks after you make your suggestions to your supervisor, you learn that your idea has been approved for implementation. Your boss thanks you for your suggestion.

Following the subject’s reading of the scenario, they were instructed to answer a series of questionnaires examining their reaction to the particular scenario they have been exposed to. Specifically, subjects were asked items designed to measure their expected retaliation to the situation in the “near future”. In addition, the subjects were asked to complete some rating scales regarding their opinion of the organization and the supervisor. In the instructions, subjects were told that that these ratings would be shown to prospective employees. It is expected, since these measures will be shown to a prospective employee, that lower levels of satisfaction with the organization or supervisor represent retaliation against the organization (i.e., they want to make sure the new

employee does not work for the company). Following their completion of this activity, subjects were debriefed and excused.

Subjects

One hundred ninety-six individuals agreed to participate in the study and completed the first measure of self-esteem and various demographic variables. Of these individuals, 49.2 % (n = 97) are female and 49.7% (n = 98) are male. The subjects' average age is 22.14 (SD = 4.74). Ninety-six percent of the subjects were business school students, while the remaining 7 subjects had majors outside the business school (e.g., psychology, engineering, etc.). Ninety-seven percent of the subjects were juniors or seniors and the subjects averaged 5.6 years of work experience.

The study was completely voluntary and some subjects decided to remove themselves from the remaining segments of the study or inadvertently missed the lab section of the study. A total of 44 subjects were unable to complete all three phases of the study, yielding a sample size of 152. To test for differences between those subjects who remained in the study and those that left, t-tests were performed on self-esteem level, self-esteem stability, and the various demographic variables. There were no significant mean or variance differences between those subjects who completed the entire study and those who did not ($p > .10$) for any of the variables.

Measures

Self-Esteem Level. Subjects' level of self-esteem (or global self-esteem) was measured using a scale developed by Rosenberg (1965). This scale is one of the most frequently used instruments for measuring a person's self-esteem (Brown, 1998) and has

consistently exhibited strong internal consistency and stability in past research (e.g., Kernis, Brockner, & Frankel, 1989). In addition, this scale was adopted because it measures a person's global self-esteem rather than a person's perceptions of their specific qualities. Accordingly, it is the most appropriate scale for this research purpose.

Respondents answered 10 items measuring self-esteem on a 7-point scale (1=strongly disagree, 7 =strongly agree). In addition, they were instructed to answer the question based on how they feel "**in general**". A factor analysis with Varimax rotation revealed 2-factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. However, the scree plot indicated one clearly dominant factor (please see Figure 3). Although one would expect a single factor when conducting these analyses, it has been very common in past research to find two factors when using Rosenberg's scale (Hensley & Roberts, 1976). Often the positively worded items load on one factor and the negatively worded items fall on the second factor. This is what occurred in this particular sample. Please see Table 1. Hensley and Roberts (1976) recommend that although two factors emerge, the factors still represent the underlying concept of global self-esteem and therefore researchers should use this scale as if it were unidimensional. Consistent with this logic, I summed the 10 items to form the measure of global self-esteem (Mean = 57.90, SD = 8.23). I believe using a single factor to measure self-esteem is the correct approach for two reasons. First, this measure of global self-esteem is the most well documented scale in the self-esteem literature and using a unidimensional scale is consistent with past research. Second, the scale demonstrates high internal consistency ($\alpha = .85$) in this sample.

The mean and standard deviation of the self-esteem scale is consistent with past research in the field. For example, three studies by Kernis and his colleagues (2000, 1999, 1997) used this scale and found that the mean was approximately 79-81% of the total possible summation of the scale. In this dissertation, the mean (57.90) is 82% of the total possible score (70, i.e., 7 x 10 items).

Self-Esteem Stability. In order to measure self-esteem stability, subjects were instructed to complete a modified Rosenberg's (1965) scale twice daily (e.g., 10:00 a.m. and 10:00 p.m., or approximately 10 – 12 hours apart) for a period of four days (Monday – Thursday, or Tuesday – Friday). In addition, students were instructed to answer the questions based on how they felt “**at that moment**”. Students were given each question followed by 10 dots anchored by “strongly agree” and “strongly disagree”. Subjects were instructed to circle the appropriate “dot”. Kernis and his colleagues have consistently used this approach in measuring self-esteem stability. In addition, this method has been found to be superior to measuring self-esteem stability than other methods (Kernis, Grannemann, & Barclay, 1989; Marsh, 1993).

Consistent with Kernis and his colleagues, only individuals who completed 6 or more of the stability measures (i.e., at least 6 of 8) were used in the analysis. One hundred sixty-eight individuals completed the stability measures and, of these, only 7 individuals failed to complete more than 6 of the measures. To check for bias among the primary variables in the sample for those who completed 6 or more and those that did not, t-tests were performed. There were no significant differences ($p > .10$) among these

individuals in terms of their general level of self-esteem, self-esteem stability, or the various demographic variables (e.g., gender, age, etc.).

I also checked to see how conscientious the subjects were in completing the stability measures as described. A random sample of 28 subjects was asked to indicate the degree to which they followed the appropriate protocol for filling out the stability measures of self-esteem. Of these 28 individuals, 96.4% indicated that they almost always were able to complete the stability measures approximately 10 – 12 hours apart.

In order to measure the stability of self-esteem, a standard deviation measure was used. In other words, the greater the standard deviation in the person's self-esteem at the various measure points, the greater their instability in their feelings regarding self-esteem. The lower the standard deviation, the more stable the person's self-esteem. Kernis and his colleagues have used this method in past research. In this sample, self-esteem stability averaged 5.67 (SD = 3.97). This mean and standard deviation is consistent with the work that has been conducted by Kernis in past research.

Expected Retaliation. After reading the scenario in the lab and watching the video, the degree that subjects expected they would take action against the organization and/or supervisor was measured with a scale adapted from Skarlicki and Folger (1997). Subjects were asked to indicate "how likely" it was that they would engage in a list of 15 activities in the "near future" (1 = never; 5 = highly likely). Sample items include "Waste company material" and "Disobey a supervisor's instructions". Please see appendix for items of all scales.

Skarlicki and Folger (1997) found one factor best explained their list of retaliation type behaviors. In addition, their one factor explained approximately 55% of the variance in the construct. In this study, factor analyses with Varimax rotation revealed three underlying factors based on eigenvalues greater than one. However, one factor appeared dominant according to the scree plot and explained approximately 53% of the variance (Please see Figure 4). Therefore, I decided to create a composite measure of overall retaliation by averaging the 15 items (mean = 2.64, SD = .83). Coefficient alpha for this scale reached .93.

However, as stated earlier, there is also a theoretical reason to explore the underlying factor structure of the retaliation measure. Past research in workplace aggression has found consistent support for three types of workplace aggression; overt aggression, obstructionism, and expressions of hostility (Neuman & Baron, 1998). The factor structure in this dissertation indicates some support for these three factors. Please see table 1 for the factor loadings and items associated with this scale. From the table, it appears that items loading on factor 1 represent behaviors designed to impede the effectiveness of the organization by limiting the employee's output. Therefore, these items were combined to represent obstructionism (mean = 2.87, SD = 1.00, alpha = .90). Items loading on factor 2 all appear to be associated with verbal abuse of one's supervisor or organization and were classified as expressions of hostility (mean = 2.85, SD = 1.09, alpha = .87). Finally, items loading on factor 3 appear to represent direct forms of retaliation against the company and therefore were classified as overt aggression (mean = 2.07, SD = .85, alpha = .78).

Satisfaction (actual retaliation). Recall that we also attempted to measure actual retaliation in the study by asking subjects to rate their satisfaction with their job and supervisor. The subjects were told that they were to assume that their responses would be shown to a prospective employee of the organization. Therefore, anything they said about their job and supervisor would have a significant influence on the potential employee's decision to work at the company. "Actual" retaliation was measured with 9 items (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) that represented a combination of general satisfaction questions and items developed by Spector (1997b). Sample items include "All in all, I am satisfied with my job" and "I like my supervisor". It was expected that *lower* levels of reported satisfaction indicated actual retaliation because the subjects were to assume that these responses would be shown to a "prospective" employee. Therefore, subjects had a chance to actually retaliate against the supervisor and/or organization by indicating their feelings about the company to the prospective employee. Factor analyses with Varimax rotation yielded one underlying factor explaining 66% of the variance. In addition, the scree plot clearly indicates one factor. Items were averaged to form our measure of actual retaliation (mean = 2.96, SD = 1.05, alpha = .93).

Organizational Justice. In order to check that we accurately manipulated fairness perceptions in the different scenarios in this study, subjects also completed a measure of distributive (5 items: 1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) and interactional justice (6 items: 1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) developed by Moorman (1991). Both

the distributive ($\alpha = .96$) and the interactional justice ($\alpha = .95$) scale had clean factor structures.

Control Variables.

Negative Affect. A person's negative reaction to the scenario was measured to help control for alternative explanations to my findings. Skarlicki, Folger, and Tesluk (1999) found that negative affectivity moderates the relationship between perceived justice and retaliation. Negative affect was measured in this study using a scale developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). Respondents were instructed to indicate how they feel in response to the scenario, at that moment, to 10 adjectives (e.g., scared, distressed, etc.) on a 5-point scale (1 = not at all; 5 = very much). The 10 items were averaged to form the composite of negative affect (mean = 1.94, SD = .81, $\alpha = .87$).

Gender. It is also necessary to control for gender in this study because it has been demonstrated that men and women have different preferences for the kinds of aggression they pursue in the workplace (Bjorkqvist, Osterman, & Lagerspetz, 1994). It has also been demonstrated that men are, in general, more aggressive under neutral conditions (Bettencourt & Miller, 1996).

RESULTS¹

The means, standard deviations, and correlation matrix for the variables in this study are presented in Table 3.

Discriminant/Convergent Validity Issues. While the factor analyses discussed above begin to establish the construct validity of the measures, the correlation matrix and

some additional factor analyses yield additional information and support for the validity of the self-esteem and retaliation measures. First, it is expected that the correlation between one's level of self-esteem and stability of self-esteem to be inversely related and significant, but minimal. As seen in the correlation matrix, level and stability of self-esteem are indeed related ($r = -.30, p < .001$). This is consistent with past research in this area (e.g., Kernis, et al., 2000, 1997) that has found correlations between level and stability to range from the high .20s to the low .40s. In addition, one would expect a significant but minimal relationship between negative affect (a mood measure) and self-esteem stability. As expected, self-esteem stability and negative affect are weakly correlated ($r = .19, p < .05$). Global self-esteem and negative affect should also be weakly related. As expected, the correlation between these two constructs is weakly related ($r = -.19, p < .05$). In addition, a factor analysis with Varimax rotation demonstrates that the items measuring global self-esteem and negative affect load cleanly on two separate factors. These analyses lend additional support for the discriminant and convergent validity of the self-esteem measures.

Next, I ran a factor analysis with Varimax rotation for all of the predictor variables. There were no cross-loadings among the various predictor variables. The items for self-esteem, organizational justice, and negative affect all loaded on separate factors. Please see Table 4.

It would also be expected that our two different measures of retaliation (i.e., expected retaliation and satisfaction) should be significantly and strongly correlated. As expected, our measure of overall expected retaliation behavior and actual retaliation

behavior (i.e., satisfaction) were strongly related ($r = -.74, p < .001$). In addition, all of the sub-components of retaliation (i.e., expressions of hostility, obstructionism, overt aggression) were significantly related to the satisfaction measure, thereby lending support for the convergent validity of the measure. To assist in the discriminant validity of the retaliation measures, I also had a random sample ($n = 35$) of the subjects complete a 5-item measure of organizational citizenship behavior (Posdakoff & Mackenzie, 1994) after reading the scenario (mean = 3.70, SD = .97, alpha = .89). In all cases, the correlations were significant and in the expected direction (inverse relationship). In addition, factor analyses conducted on the overall retaliation measure and the items representing OCBs demonstrated that the items load cleanly on separate factors.

Manipulation checks. In order to check that our scenario manipulated perceptions of justice and resulted in increased levels of retaliation behavior, independent-sample t-tests were performed. As expected, perceptions of distributive ($t = 18.58, p = .000$) and interactional justice ($t = 37.90, p = .000$) were lower in the experimental condition than in the control condition. In addition, the level of expected retaliation was significantly higher in the experimental (MEAN = 3.16) condition than the control (MEAN = 2.05) condition ($t = -11.10, p = .000$).

Checks for normal regression model. All analyses were checked for violations of the assumptions of the normal error regression model (e.g., linear function, homogeneity of variance, etc.). While I will not go into explicit detail at this point, the following analyses were conducted. I first examined a scatter plot of the variables in my study against the dependent variables. This may give me some insight into the linearity of the

data. There were no clear violations of linearity present. I also examined histograms of all major variables in my study and found no problems.

A more thorough analysis was also conducted for all of the analyses described in the sections below. First, I examined the plot of the studentized deleted residuals against the predictor variables in the study. This plot allowed me to examine the linearity of my data, homogeneity of variance violations, and see potential outliers. There were no problems with any of the analyses, even after correcting the data using a Bonferonni correction. In addition, I conducted a Modified Levene Test for each analysis. Again, there were no problems present in terms of homogeneity of variance violations. Finally, to check for potential outliers (and their potential effects on my analyses), I not only checked the studentized residuals, but I also conducted a Cook's Distance test to determine if these data points are influential for my results. The Cook's Distance test measures the influence of a particular data point on the predicted values of all of the observations. None of the analyses indicated an outlier with a Cook's distance value greater than the 50th percentile of the F distribution for the data set thereby indicating no points had a strong influence on my analyses. Finally, I also utilized the DFFITS and DFBETA tests to further examine the effects of a potential outlier on my analysis. Again, there appear to be no large outliers in the study.

Method of analysis. Normally in the self-esteem literature, researchers use a series of ANOVAs to test for effects in their model. They accomplish this by artificially splitting the self-esteem variables into their high and low components using a median split. In order to avoid eliminating useful variance, I will first conduct a series of

moderated multiple regression analyses that allow me to examine the self-esteem variables (global self-esteem, self-esteem stability) as continuous variables. In addition, I will be controlling for other important variables to help eliminate alternative explanations to my findings. If I find a significant interaction as predicted by the model, I will then run a series of ANCOVAs controlling for the same variables in order to get a clearer picture of the interaction (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

In addition, rather than ordinary least squares (OLS) regression, a weighted least squares (WLS) approach to regression will be used for the analyses that follow. Ordinary least squares regression was not conducted because there has been increasing concerns in the research community about the inaccuracy of using this method when conducting moderated regression analyses (e.g., Overton, 2001; Aguinis & Pierce, 1998). The argument is that when testing for interactions (such as I am in this dissertation), heterogeneity in the error variances will bias the results. Error variance heterogeneity can increase the probability of a Type II error occurring. WLS will restore the homogeneity of the error variances therefore increasing the likelihood of finding true interaction effects in the model and controlling Type I error rates. Please refer to Overton (2001) for a complete discussion of this issue. In fact, Overton (2001) argues that OLS should not be performed under any condition when testing between two-groups because it does not offer any greater statistical accuracy and by using WLS, one avoids any concerns about heterogeneity of error variance.

In support of using weighted least squares approach to moderated regression analysis, the mean square error or residual was approximately two times higher in the

experimental condition than in the control condition for the majority of my analyses. This exceeds the 1.5:1.0 ratio that has been suggested as a criterion for evaluating heterogeneity of error variance (DeShon & Alexander, 1996).

Tests of Hypotheses

Study 1 allows us to examine hypotheses 1 through 4a. Hypothesis 1 examined the relationship between injustice and retaliation behavior. It was expected that lower levels of perceived fairness will be associated with higher levels of retaliation behavior. A perusal of the correlation matrix lends initial support for this hypothesis. Distributive justice perceptions were negatively related to overall expected retaliation behavior ($r = -.61, p < .001$), overt aggression ($r = -.28, p < .001$), expressions of hostility ($r = -.65, p < .001$), obstructionism ($r = -.52, p < .001$), and satisfaction ($r = .81, p < .001$). Interactional justice was significantly related as well to overall expected retaliation behavior ($r = -.66, p < .001$), overt aggression ($r = -.34, p < .001$), expressions of hostility ($r = -.74, p < .001$), obstructionism ($r = -.53, p < .001$), and satisfaction ($r = .84, p < .001$). Hypothesis 1 gains additional support when examining the analyses that follow (please see tables 5-7). Even after controlling for negative affect and gender, the experimental condition was significantly related to the majority of measures of retaliation. In addition, the experimental condition explained significant amounts of variance in these outcome variables. Finally, recall that the manipulation checks demonstrated higher levels of all types of retaliation in the experimental condition. Therefore, hypothesis 1 is supported.

Hypothesis 2 stated that a person's level of self-esteem will be negatively related to perceptions of unfairness. The correlations between global self-esteem and distributive ($r = -.08$) and interactional justice ($r = .01$) were not significant. In addition, independent sample t-tests showed no significant differences among low and high self-esteem for perceptions of distributive ($t = .92$, n.s.) or interactional justice ($t = .67$, n.s.).

To further test this hypothesis, moderated regression analyses were conducted using the weighted least squares approach as suggested by Overton (2001). The WLS approach to moderated regression analyses is conducted identical to the OLS approach but includes a weight term that is calculated for each condition using the formula $W_i = (df_i - 2) / SSRESID_i$. To get this weight term, I first regressed the particular justice variable onto global self-esteem for individuals in each condition (control vs. experimental). The statistical output gives the residual terms for each group. Next, I created a single weight term using the equation above where W_1 was assigned to all subjects in group 1 (i.e., control group) and W_2 was assigned to all members of group 2 (i.e., experimental group).

After calculating the weight terms as suggested by Overton (2001), in step 1 the particular condition the subject was assigned to was entered. In step 2, the person's level of self-esteem was entered. Finally, in step 3 the interaction between the condition and self-esteem was entered into the regression equation. For both distributive and interactional justice, none of the interactions became significant. Therefore, hypothesis 2 is not supported.

Hypothesis 3 indicated that self-esteem moderates the relationship between a perceived injustice and subsequent retaliation behavior. The following analyses were done for all forms of retaliation behavior (i.e., overall expected retaliation, overt aggression, expressions of hostility, obstructionism, satisfaction), but only the results for expressions of hostility will be reported since none of the other variables yielded significant findings (with the exception of self-esteem stability and overall expected retaliation). Please see table 5 for a description of the analyses for the other retaliation variables.

Although there were not significant findings for overall retaliation (for all but one of the analyses), results were found as expected for one of its sub-dimensions, specifically expressions of hostility. To test this hypothesis, I first conducted a moderated regression analysis (again using the weighted least squares approach). To control for alternative explanations to my findings, I entered the various control variables into the regression equation in step 1 (i.e., gender, negative affect, and one's self-esteem stability). In step 2, a dummy variable representing the experimental condition was entered (i.e., injustice vs. justice). In step 3, the potential moderating variable (self-esteem) was entered. Finally, in step 4 the interaction term between condition and self-esteem level was entered. A significant interaction indicates a moderating effect. Consistent with hypothesis 3, the interaction term becomes significant in step 4 ($F = 4.57$, $p < .05$) and explains an additional 1.3% of the variance in expressions of hostility.² Please see table 6 for a complete description of the results.

After finding a significant interaction among self-esteem and the experimental condition, a median split was conducted on self-esteem level in order to gain a clearer picture of the interaction (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). I should point out that almost all of the studies in self-esteem examine the variables initially using ANOVA or ANCOVA, however I started with regression in order to avoid eliminating unnecessary variance by artificially splitting a continuous variable (self-esteem). The ANCOVAs conducted in this study were only used for descriptive purposes to gain a clear picture of the interactions.

Using ANCOVA, controlling for gender, negative affect, and one's stability of self-esteem, and using the same weighting term as discussed above, the results indicate that one's level of self-esteem moderates the relationship between an injustice and subsequent retaliation behavior. An examination of the plot of the interaction indicates support for the idea that self-esteem moderates the relationship between an injustice and retaliation behavior, but not in the expected direction. Specifically, individuals with high self-esteem were the ones most likely to be responsive to a perceived injustice by engaging in a retaliatory response (please see figure 5). Finally, the same analyses above were conducted by entering the subject's perceptions of justice in the regression equations and the ANCOVA rather than experimental condition. In all cases, similar results were found. Hypothesis 3 is supported.

Hypotheses 4a and 4b deal with the relationship between stability and reactions to injustice. Hypothesis 4a states that individuals with unstable high self-esteem are the individuals most likely to perceive something as unfair. The correlation matrix shows

insignificant relationships between self-esteem stability and interactional ($r = -.02$) and distributive justice ($r = .02$). In addition, an independent sample t-tests shows no difference in perceptions of interaction ($t = .27$, n.s.) or distributive justice ($t = -.59$, n.s.) between those individuals with stable versus unstable self-esteem. To further test this hypothesis, a moderated regression analysis was conducted by regressing self-esteem stability onto both distributive and interactional justice. For both justice variables, none of the interactions between self-esteem stability and condition became significant. Therefore hypothesis 4a is not supported.

Hypothesis 4b examined the moderating effect of stability on the relationship between injustice and retaliation. As a first step, the same analyses as discussed above in hypothesis 3 were run using one's stability of self-esteem as the moderator variable. Significant interactions were found (change in $R^2 = .02$, $F = 7.54$, $p < .01$) even after controlling for gender, negative affect, and one's level of self-esteem.³ When a median split is conducted on self-esteem stability and using ANCOVA, it is individuals with stable self-esteem that are the ones most likely to react to a perceived injustice (please see figure 6). Please see table 7 for the analysis.

Although there appears to be an interaction between stability and justice in predicting retaliation type behavior, further analyses need to be conducted to see whether it the individuals with high unstable self-esteem that are the ones most likely to retaliate in the face of an injustice as hypothesis 4b suggests. In order to conduct these analyses, I first split the stability measure into 1) high unstable self-esteem, 2) high stable self-esteem, 3) low stable self-esteem, and 4) low unstable self-esteem (e.g., individuals

above the median for level of self-esteem are classified as “high”; individuals above the median for stability are classified as “unstable”; therefore these individuals would be classified as “unstable high self-esteem”). I then conducted an ANCOVA looking for differences among the four sub-sets of self-esteem (i.e., unstable high, unstable low, stable high, and stable low) across conditions controlling for negative affect and gender.⁵ The interaction between the condition and self-esteem variables reached significance ($F = 3.27, p < .05$) indicating that there are significant differences between the various types of self-esteem and their reaction to injustice (Please see Figure 7). To specifically test hypothesis 4b, a set of contrasts were conducted using expressions of hostility as the dependent variable. Using weighted ANCOVA, controlling for negative affect and gender, the three contrasts involved unstable high self-esteem being tested against stable high self-esteem ($F = .01, n.s.$), unstable low self-esteem ($F = 3.82, n.s.$), and stable low self-esteem ($F = 1.02, n.s.$). Hypothesis 4b is not supported.

General Discussion Study 1

The analyses in study 1 lent some additional support for some of the hypotheses proposed in this study. First, we found additional support that individuals are more likely to engage in aggressive behavior in the workplace if they experience a perceived injustice (hypothesis 1). In addition, we found support for the idea that one’s global level of self-esteem moderates the injustice – retaliation relationship (hypothesis 3). We also found that individuals with stable self-esteem are more likely to retaliate if they experience an injustice. Unfortunately, this particular study failed to find support for the idea that a person’s self-esteem (both level and stability) influences their perceptions of

injustice (hypotheses 2 and 4a). Finally, study 1 failed to find support for the hypothesis that individuals with high, unstable self-esteem were the ones most likely to respond negatively to a perceived injustice.

Study 1 offers some interesting findings and implications for the self-esteem and retaliation literatures. First, the results indicate that both one's level and stability of self-esteem are a potentially important variable in the study of reactions to injustice and subsequent retaliation behavior. However, counter to our hypotheses, the results indicate that it is individuals with high or stable self-esteem that are most likely to engage in retaliatory behavior following a perceived injustice. Although this is not what we predicted, it is not unexpected or unusual in the self-esteem literature. As stated earlier, there are competing theoretical arguments in the field regarding whether it is individuals with high or low self-esteem that are more likely to engage in aggressive behavior. The traditional view is that it is more likely for individuals with low self-esteem to engage in this type of behavior. This is the theoretical argument that I adopted for the purposes of this dissertation. However, there is a more recent argument that it is actually individuals with high self-esteem that are more likely to be aggressive. The findings in study 1 support the more recent arguments regarding self-esteem and aggression and can be explained using behavioral plasticity theory, as well as self-enhancement and self-verification theory. The main argument I adopt in this section is that individuals with low self-esteem or unstable self-esteem may feel more pain following negative feedback, but that does not necessarily mean they will be more reactive to these events because they

over-generalize this feedback as “correct” and they are not confident in the appropriate course of action following some negative event.

According to behavioral plasticity, individuals with low self-esteem are more likely to feel uncertain about the appropriate way to act or respond to some situation (Brockner, 1988). Therefore, individuals with low self-esteem are often more cautious in their response to some event (Campbell & Lavalley, 1993). Since individuals with low self-esteem are risk averse, they are unlikely to engage in an aggressive act since this can be a risky proposition (Baumeister, Bushman, & Campbell, 2000). In addition, negative feedback or events may influence the self-feelings of individuals with low or unstable self-esteem because they have the tendency to over-generalize these events as representative of something they are or did (Brockner, 1988). Therefore, although individuals with low or unstable self-esteem may feel “bad” following some negative event, they are more likely to accept this negative feedback as “correct” and therefore not take any action (e.g., Campbell, 1990; Greenier, et al., 1999; Brockner, et al, 1987; Kernis, et al., 2000; Kernis, et al, 1993).

It may be the individuals with high or stable self-esteem that have the most to lose and therefore be more likely to retaliate in the face of injustice. According to self-enhancement theory, individuals have a desire to promote a self-image. Individuals with high self-esteem think they are good at most things and therefore may have more to lose (Brockner, 1988). In addition, individuals with high self-esteem have the desire to protect their positive views of themselves according to self-verification theory (Swann, 1996). Brockner (1988) states that when individuals with high self-esteem face a threat

to their positive self-image, this causes arousal and action since this is inconsistent with their own positive self-views. Individuals with low self-esteem, on the other hand, do not experience any feelings of dissonance because the feedback is not inconsistent with their self-views. Therefore, individuals with high or stable self-esteem may have the strongest reactions to negative events because they feel good about themselves and have a strong desire to maintain these feelings (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996). In fact, research in the field has found evidence that individuals with high self-esteem have the greatest desire to restore a sense of inequity (Brockner, 1985) and are more reactive to negative self-relevant feedback (Brockner & Chen, 1996). In addition, individuals with high or stable self-esteem are much more likely to be confident in their actions and feel comfortable engaging in behavior that may be contradictory to the negative feedback they have received compared to individuals with low or unstable self-esteem (e.g., Baumeister, 1982). Finally, individuals are more likely to become aggressive to defend a strongly held belief about themselves (Baumeister, et al., 2000). Therefore, it makes sense that individuals with high and stable self-esteem are the ones most likely to react negatively to an injustice in this study.

I was also a little surprised by the lack of effects for self-esteem found in study 1. Pilot tests conducted with a similar, although weaker, scenario found much stronger predictive power than the current study for both the perceptions of justice and subsequent retaliation behavior. One reason that appears likely is the scenario used in this study was created to have a powerful impact on perceptions of injustice and to manipulate subsequent retaliation behavior. Many researchers have argued that when the situation is

very strong, individual difference variables effects are less likely to appear (Davis-Balke & Pfeffer, 1989; Mischel, 1973). In fact, Brockner (1988) has argued that when one does not find effects for self-esteem, it may be that the situation is so strong that it is not possible for self-esteem effects to emerge. In the current study, for almost every analysis the condition (justice vs. injustice) was the most dominant predictor of subsequent retaliation behavior or perceptions of justice. It may be that we made the scenario too strong in study 1 where self-esteem effects could not appear.

To address some of the concerns with Study 1 and to further generalize our results, Study 2 will be conducted with some slight changes. First, study 2 will be conducted with current MBA students with real-world experience. Second, study 2 will modify the scenario to lessen the impact of the situation on retaliation behavior and hopefully allow self-esteem differences to emerge. Third, the retaliation measure will be expanded in study 2 to further test the 3 component model of aggression of Baron and Neuman that was supported in Study 1. Finally, we will add to the model presented in this dissertation by incorporating the role of one's group members in the decision to engage in retaliation type behavior.

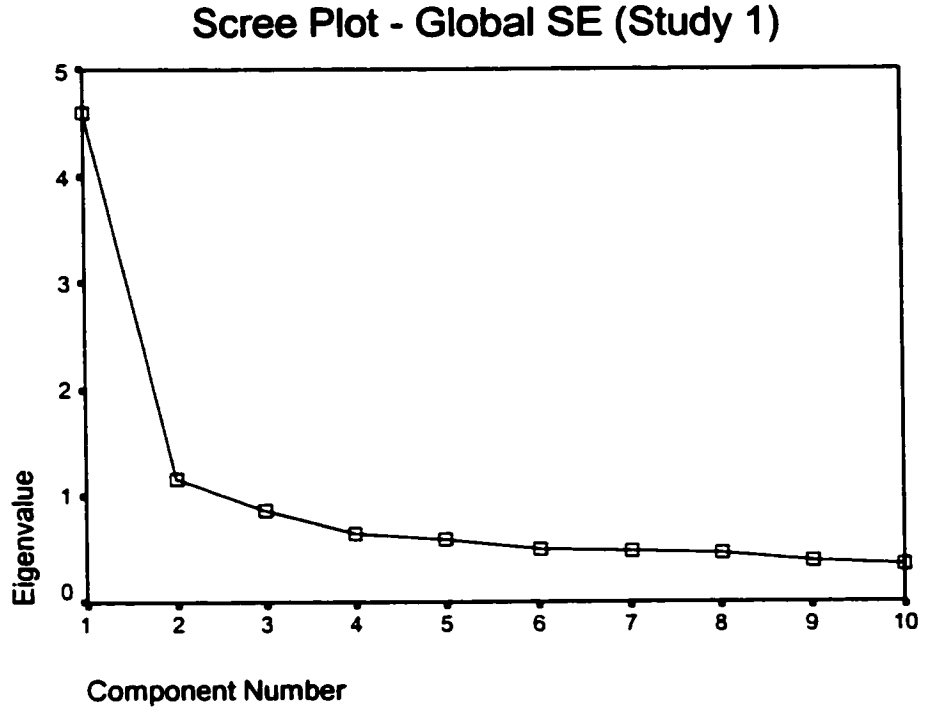


Figure 3: Scree Plot of Global Self-Esteem (Study 1)

Table 1: Global Self-Esteem Factor Analysis (Study 1)^a

Item	Factor 1^b	Factor 2^c
At times, I think I am no good at all.	.38	.75
I take a positive view of myself.	.63	.16
All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	.13	.79
I wish I could have more respect for myself.	.35	.62
I certainly feel useless at times.	.12	.79
I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plan with others.	.71	.27
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	.65	.39
I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	.58	.46
I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	.74	.20
I am able to do things as well as most other people.	.76	.09

^a Varimax Rotation

^b Factor 1 Eigenvalue = 4.59; Percent of Variance Explained = 45.86%

^c Factor 2 Eigenvalue = 1.15; Percent of Variance Explained = 11.50%

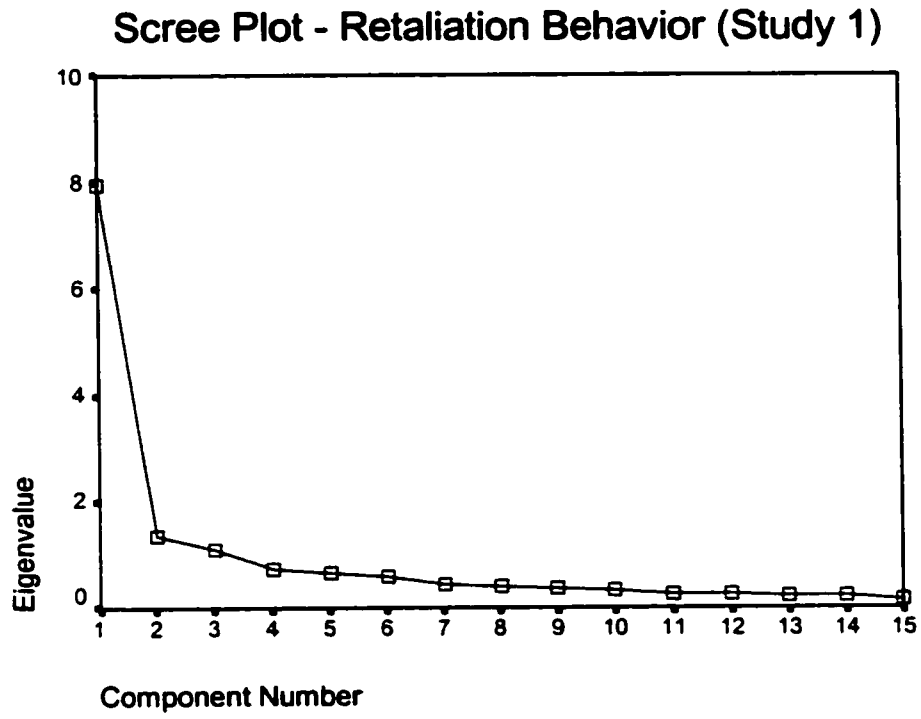


Figure 4: Scree Plot of Retaliation (Study 1)

Table 2: Retaliation Factor Analysis (Study 1)^a

Item	Factor 1^{b,c}	Factor 2^d	Factor 3^e
On purpose, damage equipment or work processes.	.11	.30	.82
Take supplies home without permission	.33	.01	.76
Waste company materials.	.34	.26	.71
Call in sick when not ill.*	.54	.28	.42
Speak poorly about the company to others.	.37	.73	.12
Refuse to work weekends or overtime when asked.*	.46	.63	.15
Leave a mess unnecessarily (do not clean up).*	.51	.37	.43
Disobey a supervisor's instructions.	.10	.78	.41
"Talk back" to boss.	.18	.81	.18
Gossip about your boss.	.36	.78	.07
Try to look busy while wasting time.	.86	.20	.22
Take an extended coffee or lunch break.	.77	.26	.29
Intentionally work slower.	.76	.32	.21
Deliberately bend or break a rule(s).*	.49	.48	.40
Spend time on personal matters while at work.	.77	.30	.20

^a Varimax Rotation

^b Factor 1 = Obstructionism; Factor 2 = Expression of Hostility; Factor 3 = Overt Aggression

^c Factor 1 Eigenvalue = 7.94; Percent of Variance Explained = 52.95%

^d Factor 2 Eigenvalue = 1.37; Percent of Variance Explained = 9.15%

^e Factor 3 Eigenvalue = 1.11; Percent of Variance Explained = 7.42%

* Item dropped from sub-dimension analyses due to significant cross-loadings (These are included in overall retaliation measure).

Table 3: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (Study 1)^{a, b}

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Global Self-Esteem	57.90	8.23	(.85)												
2. Self-Esteem Stability ^{c, d}	5.67	3.97	-.30***	--											
3. Expected Retaliation	2.64	.83	-.05	.00	(.93)										
4. Overt Aggression	2.07	.85	-.11	.05	.74***	(.78)									
5. Expressions of Hostility	2.85	1.09	-.04	-.03	.86***	.47***	(.87)								
6. Obstructionism	2.87	1.00	-.02	-.00	.88***	.57***	.62***	(.90)							
7. Interactional Justice	2.64	1.30	.01	-.02	-.66***	-.34***	-.74***	-.53***	(.95)						
8. Distributive Justice	2.27	1.20	-.08	.02	-.61***	-.28***	-.65***	-.52***	.80***	(.96)					
9. Negative Affect	1.94	1.60	-.19*	.19*	.58***	.32***	.58***	.50***	-.67***	-.62***	(.87)				
10. Satisfaction (Retaliation) ^e	2.96	1.05	.04	-.07	-.74***	-.44***	-.75***	-.63***	.84***	.81***	-.71***	(.93)			
11. Gender	--	--	.07	-.13	-.14'	-.05	-.10	-.19*	.18*	.17*	-.28***	.19*			
12. Age	22.14	4.74	-.06	.16*	-.06	-.07	-.02	-.10	-.03	-.02	.09	-.06	.01		
13. Work Experience	5.55	5.19	.04	.14'	-.05	-.06	-.03	-.06	-.06	-.06	.13'	-.09	-.03	.91***	

^a + p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

^b Numbers in parentheses are coefficient alpha.

^c Self-esteem stability is standard deviation of eight different time measures (only those who completed 6 or more are included in the analyses).

^d Higher numbers for self-esteem stability equal greater instability.

^e Lower numbers for satisfaction equal greater levels of retaliation.

Table 4: Overall Factor Analysis (Study 1)^a

Item	Factor 1^b	Factor 2^c	Factor 3^d	Factor 4^e	Factor 5^f
SE1 ^g	.50	.66	.05	-.05	-.14
SE2	.69	.07	.01	.06	.12
SE3	.23	.75	.04	-.22	-.09
SE4	.42	.47	.02	-.09	-.22
SE5	.29	.73	-.04	-.06	-.16
SE6	.68	.28	-.02	-.06	.03
SE7	.72	.29	-.08	.02	-.02
SE8	.53	.50	-.08	-.12	-.22
SE9	.76	.10	.01	-.11	.06
SE10	.75	.05	-.09	-.07	-.15
IJ1 ^h	-.01	.05	.84	-.17	.05
IJ2	.05	-.07	.82	.13	.10
IJ3	-.06	.17	.83	-.10	.05
IJ4	-.04	.03	.95	-.09	-.03
IJ5	-.06	.03	.93	-.08	-.04
IJ6	-.06	.13	.87	.01	-.02
DJ1 ⁱ	-.07	-.02	.84	-.04	-.06
DJ2	-.08	.06	.83	-.04	-.07
DJ3	-.06	-.04	.77	.01	-.04
DJ4	-.02	-.05	.82	.03	-.05
DJ5	-.08	.07	.80	-.09	-.09
NA1 ^j	-.03	-.17	-.09	.85	.08
NA2	-.01	-.10	-.07	.85	.09
NA3	-.10	.10	-.85	.16	.18
NA4	-.20	.07	-.61	.43	.22
NA5	-.22	-.04	-.29	.74	.13
NA6	.05	-.05	-.05	.84	.18
NA7	-.12	-.16	-.20	.27	.80
NA8	.05	-.18	-.12	.22	.82
NA9	-.06	.08	-.82	.14	.26
NA10	-.07	.06	-.79	.18	.23

^a Varimax Rotation^b Factor 1 Eigenvalue = 5.46; Percent of Variance Explained = 17.61%^c Factor 2 Eigenvalue = 1.28; Percent of Variance Explained = 4.14%^d Factor 3 Eigenvalue = 11.16; Percent of Variance Explained = 36.00%^e Factor 4 Eigenvalue = 2.78; Percent of Variance Explained = 8.97%^f Factor 5 Eigenvalue = 1.07; Percent of Variance Explained = 3.44%^g SE = Global Self-Esteem^h IJ = Interactional Justiceⁱ DJ = Distributive Justice^j NA = Negative Affect

Table 5: Non-Significant Retaliation Analyses: Global Self-Esteem^{a,b,c}**Overall Expected Retaliation**

Step 1		<u>Std. Beta</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>Change in R²</u>
	<u>Variable</u>			
	Negative Affect	.24**		
	Gender	.01		
	Self-esteem Stability	-.02		
			.37***	
Step 2				
	Condition	.23		
			.49	.12***
Step 3				
	Global Self-esteem	-.04		
			.49	.00
Step 4				
	Global S.E. x Condition	.29		
			.49	.00

^a Standardized betas from final regression equation are reported.

^b * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

^c Weighted Least Squares Regression used

Expected Overt Aggression

Step 1		<u>Std. Beta</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>Change in R²</u>
	<u>Variable</u>			
	Negative Affect	.24*		
	Gender	.03		
	Self-esteem Stability	-.01		
			.15***	
Step 2				
	Condition	-.41		
			.17	.02
Step 3				
	Global Self-esteem	-.15		
			.18	.01
Step 4				
	Global S.E. x Condition	.62		
			.18	.01

Expected Obstructionism

Step 1		<u>Std. Beta</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>Change in R²</u>
	<u>Variable</u>			
	Negative Affect	.30**		
	Gender	-.04		
	Self-esteem Stability	-.03		
			.29***	
Step 2				
	Condition	.39		
			.34	.05***
Step 3				
	Global Self-esteem	.04		
			.34	.00
Step 4				
	Global S.E. x Condition	-.07		
			.35	.00

Satisfaction (Actual Retaliation)

Step 1		<u>Std. Beta</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>Change in R²</u>
	<u>Variable</u>			
	Negative Affect	-.23***		
	Gender	-.02		
	Self-esteem Stability	-.02		
			.49***	
Step 2				
	Condition	-.30		
			.73	.24***
Step 3				
	Global Self-esteem	.03		
			.73	.00
Step 4				
	Global S.E. x Condition	-.39		
			.74	.00

Table 5 (cont.): Non-Significant Retaliation Analyses: Self-Esteem Stability**Overall Expected Retaliation**

Step 1		<u>Std. Beta</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>Change in R²</u>
	<u>Variable</u>			
	Negative Affect	.24**		
	Gender	.02		
	Global S.E.	.00		
			.36***	
Step 2				
	Condition	.68***		
			.49	.13***
Step 3				
	Self-esteem Stability	.08		
			.49	.00
Step 4				
	Stability x Condition ¹	-.24*		
			.50	.02*

Expected Overt Aggression

Step 1		<u>Std. Beta</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>Change in R²</u>
	<u>Variable</u>			
	Negative Affect	.23*		
	Gender	.04		
	Global S.E.	-.09		
			.15***	
Step 2				
	Condition	.27		
			.18	.02*
Step 3				
	Self-esteem Stability	.02		
			.18	.00
Step 4				
	Stability x Condition	-.07		
			.18	.00

Expected Obstructionism

Step 1		<u>Std. Beta</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>Change in R²</u>
	<u>Variable</u>			
	Negative Affect	.32***		
	Gender	-.04		
	Global S.E.	.03		
			.29***	
Step 2				
	Condition	.44***		
			.34	.07***
Step 3				
	Self-esteem Stability	.03		
			.34	.00
Step 4				
	Stability x Condition	-.16		
			.35	.01

Satisfaction (Actual Retaliation)

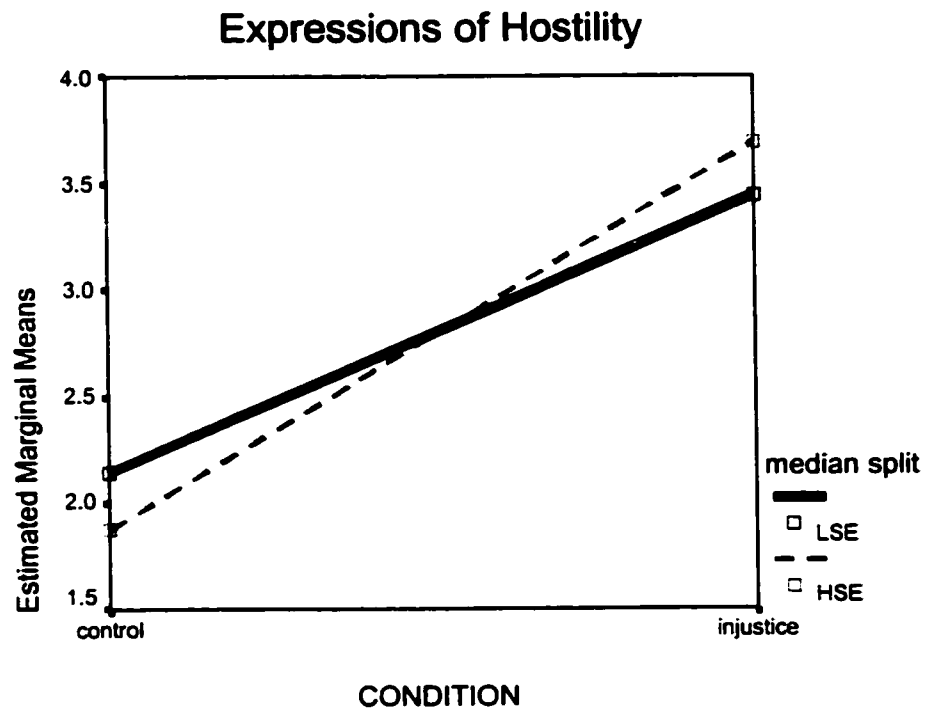
Step 1		<u>Std. Beta</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>Change in R²</u>
	<u>Variable</u>			
	Negative Affect	-.23***		
	Gender	-.02		
	Global S.E.	-.04		
			.50***	
Step 2				
	Condition	-.74***		
			.73	.23***
Step 3				
	Self-esteem Stability	-.07		
			.73	.00
Step 4				
	Stability x Condition	.08		
			.73	.00

Table 6: Expression of Hostility Analyses: Global Self-Esteem^{a,b}

Regression Analysis				
Step 1				
	<u>Variable</u>	<u>Std. Beta</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>Change in R²</u>
	Negative Affect	.13		
	Gender	.05		
	Self-esteem Stability	-.04		
			.37***	
Step 2				
	Condition	-.20		
			.59	.22***
Step 3				
	Global Self-esteem	-.14		
			.59	.00
Step 4				
	Global S.E. x Condition	.90*		
			.60	.01*

^a Standardized betas from final regression equation are reported.

^b * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001



^a LSE = Low Self-Esteem; HSE = High Self-Esteem

^b ANCOVA controlling for gender, negative affect, and self-esteem stability

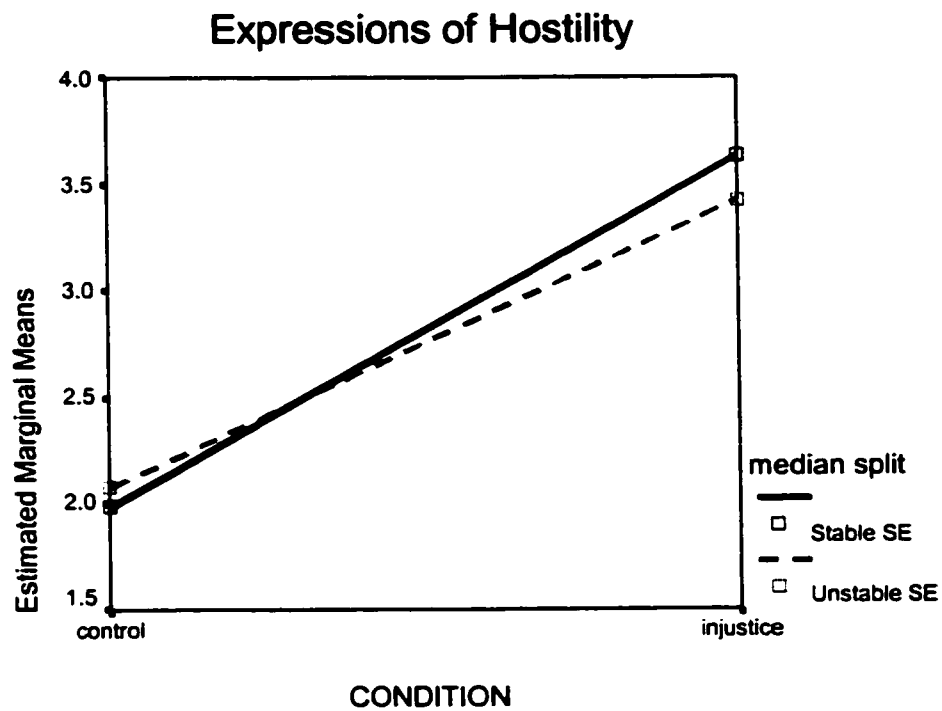
Figure 5: Plot of Median Split of Global Self-Esteem and Expressions of Hostility^{a,b}

Table 7: Expression of Hostility Analyses: Self-Esteem Stability

Regression Analysis^{a,b}				
Step 1				
	<u>Variable</u>	<u>Std. Beta</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>Change in R²</u>
	Negative Affect	.13		
	Gender	.06		
	Global S.E.	-.02		
			.36***	
Step 2				
	Condition	.89***		
			.59	.23***
Step 3				
	Self-esteem Stability	.10*		
			.59	.00
Step 4				
	Stability x Condition	-.29**		
			.61	.02**

^a Standardized betas from final regression equation are reported.

^b * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001



^a SE = Self-Esteem

^b ANCOVA controlling for gender, negative affect, and self-esteem level

Figure 6: Plot of Median Split of Self-Esteem Stability and Expressions of Hostility^{a,b}

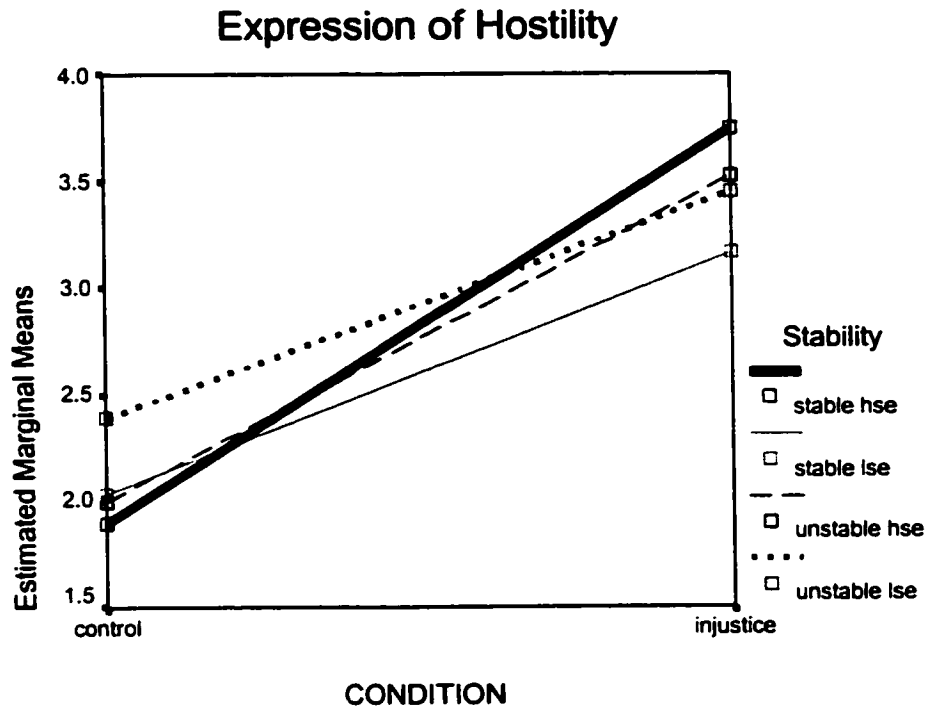


Figure 7: Expressions of Hostility and Stability (Study 1)

STUDY 2

Procedures

Subjects for study 2 were recruited from the day and evening MBA programs in the Business School at the University of Washington and a large, public university in the Midwest. Using subjects from this population allowed me to enhance the external validity of the results of the study since it is expected that these individuals have extensive work experience and more than likely have experienced injustices in the workplace and subsequent reactions from their coworkers. In addition, the samples are geographically different which may lend some external validity to the results.

During this study, in order to obtain the greatest number of respondents, I adopted the approach suggested by Luong and Rogelberg (1998). All potential participants were sent an initial email explaining the study and notifying them that a survey will be forthcoming. Therefore, they did not just receive a survey in their email without notice. The potential subjects were told that the research was concerning how a person's mood influences their behavior in the workplace. Two days later, subjects received an email reminding them about the study and included a link to a web page providing a detailed description of the study. After reading the information provided on the web page, if they agreed to continue with the study, they clicked a link to the first survey. The potential subjects were asked to complete the study within a week. In addition, during the next week the experimenter sent a reminder notice to the potential subjects to remind them of the end date of the study. A web-survey was used in order to increase the likelihood of responses by the subjects. It was expected that MBA students would value their time and would be more likely to respond to a survey request if it was made as user-friendly as

possible. In this case, all the subjects had to do was click on a link to a web page from their initial email and complete the study.

The initial survey the subjects completed included measures of the person's global self-esteem, self-esteem stability, negative affect, and various demographic data (i.e., age, gender, etc.). When the subjects completed the items on the survey, they clicked on a "submit" button and all results were sent directly to the experimenter at the University of Washington. All responses were anonymous. When the subjects hit the submit button, they were taken to a written scenario and they were instructed to play the part of the employee discussed in the text. The scenarios were designed to accurately manipulate or duplicate group social pressures or information that occurs in the workplace. All subjects read the following situation.

Instructions: In the following scenario, please play the role of the employee discussed in the text (i.e., *assume you are the employee*). After reading the scenario, please answer the questions that follow assuming you are the employee. We are interested in your perceptions and expected behavior if you were the employee discussed in the text.

You have worked in your current position for the past 2 years. Specifically, you are an entry-level manager at one of the biggest retail outlets in the Northwest (Midwest). Currently, there are 5 other managers at your level in your branch division and you each supervise approximately 10 to 15 employees. Your organization has a suggestions-award program. The organization encourages its employees (including managers) to submit suggestions to improve workplace procedures. Employees receive a lump-sum bonus for successfully implemented suggestions.

Currently, your branch division has a large stock room where it stores the materials it needs to serve its customers. Recently, you submitted a suggestion to your immediate supervisor (one of the assistant managers) that may reduce the current level of supplies on hand in your organization. Specifically, you recommend that the branch division adopt a just-in-time delivery schedule for its inventory. Your suggestion could

save your business a lot of money by cutting the cost of maintaining inventory. You went out of your way and checked with suppliers and were assured by them that they could supply the necessary materials to the organization within 48 hours of an order.

Upon reading your suggestions, your boss becomes angry. In front of your coworkers and visibly upset, he asks to speak to you in private. Once you enter his office, he severely criticizes you. He states to you that if he were to send this type of suggestion to his superiors, that you would be making him look bad. He says that his bosses expect him to come up with a suggestion like this, not his employees.

After your interaction with your supervisor, you share your feelings with some of your coworkers. The following transcript involves the conversation you had with three (two) of your coworkers:

Please note that subjects in Study 2 initially received an almost identical scenario as was depicted in Study 1. Based on the results of Study 1, we attempted to lessen the effects of perceived injustice by eliminating the section of the scenario that indicated the supervisor stole the employee's idea. Study 2 builds on Study 1 by integrating the role of group influences in the retaliation process.

Following the subjects reading this scenario, the subjects were randomly assigned to one of two conditions. The first condition involved the scenario depicting coworkers encouraging the employee to work things out with the manager. It read as follows:

You tell your coworkers what happened and that you are fairly upset.

Jane: "I can't believe the boss said that. I guess he was having a bad day. Occasionally people in this company have problems with each other, but it always seems to work out in the end."

Bob: "Yeah, I think it is just part of the type of business we are in. Sometimes our jobs can be stressful and we take it out on each other. However, most of us realize this and try to work things out with the people that upset us."

You ask what they think you should do.

Jane: "You'll have to figure that out for yourself. However, like Bob said, the normal approach in this company is to try to work things out. Perhaps you could just let him know how you are feeling. He could then explain why he was acting that way. I did this in the past and it was pretty effective."

In the second condition, subjects were encouraged by their coworkers to "get even" with their boss. It read as follows:

You tell your coworkers what happened and that you are fairly upset.

Jane: "I can't believe he did that! He did the same thing to me last year. Since then I haven't bothered giving any other suggestions on how to improve this place."

Bob: "I also had the same kind of thing happen. The guy is a jerk. You aren't just going to take it, are you?"

Jane: "Yeah, like I said, I stopped giving suggestions to him since I had the same problem. However, that isn't the only thing I have been doing since that time."

You ask Jane what she means.

Jane: "Well, do you remember hearing about the customer who complained about our boss? That wasn't true. I started that rumor to make him look bad. It was pretty effective! A few times, I also failed to let him know supplies were getting low so that we would run out of something and it would make him look bad. I even take a few packets of coffee home every once in a while when my supplies get low at home. There are a lot of things you could do to get even with him."

Pat: "I remember hearing that story. That was a good one! After I had problems with the boss, I simply tried to avoid him whenever I could. I didn't want anything to do with him. If he entered the room, I left!"

You ask your coworkers about possibly getting in trouble for these types of behaviors.

Bob: "No one ever gets in trouble for this kind of thing. I've worked here for 5 years and cannot think of anyone getting in trouble. In fact, I think a lot of people working here, both employees and entry-level managers, have engaged in these types of behavior at one point or another in response to something the boss did."

You state that you didn't realize it was so wide spread.

Jane: "Yeah, that's right. You can't let the boss get away with what he did. We just wanted to let you know that you're not the only one who has had a problem with the boss and that a lot of us here get back at him in one way or another."

A pilot test with 18 graduate student volunteers (from the University of Washington's Ph.D. Program) demonstrated that the differences in the scenario correctly manipulated the desired behavior. While statistically not significant due to power issues, the mean differences were in the expected direction. Specifically, subjects in the situation involving group retaliation were more likely to engage in a similar behavior. Subjects in the control condition were more likely to accept the outburst of their manager.

Following the reading of the scenario, subjects completed the second part of the study. Specifically, were instructed to answer a series of questions based on the scenario (i.e., how they would react assuming they are the employee discussed in the text). Subjects completed measures of retaliation behavior, OCBs, satisfaction, likelihood of punishment, and interactional justice.

Subjects

One hundred seventeen individuals agreed to participate in the study and completed the first measure of self-esteem and various demographic variables. Of these individuals, 44.4 % (n = 52) are female and 55.6% (n = 65) are male. The subjects' average age is 29.13 (SD = 5.10). The subjects were employed with their current employer an average of 3.11 years (SD = 3.51) and averaged a total of 8.01 years (SD = 5.60) of work experience. Fifty-one percent (n = 63) of the subjects were current MBA students at the University of Washington and the remaining 48.4 % (n =59) were MBA

students at a large, public university in the Midwest. There are no significant mean differences between the two universities across any of the demographic variables ($p > .10$). In addition, there are no significant mean or variance differences between the two universities on any of the independent variables ($p > .05$). However, there was a significant difference between the two samples in terms of the level of reported satisfaction they experienced during the scenarios ($t = -2.57, p < .05$) and therefore will be controlled for in any analyses using the satisfaction variable.

The study was completely voluntary and some subjects decided not to continue with the remaining segments of the study after completing the first set of questionnaire items. A total of 10 subjects were unable to complete all the phases of the study, yielding a sample size of 107. To test for differences between those subjects who remained in the study and those that left, t-tests were performed on self-esteem level, self-esteem stability, and the various demographic variables. There were no significant mean or variance differences between those subjects who completed the entire study and those who did not ($p > .10$) for any of the variables.

Measures

Global Self-Esteem. As in study 1, subjects' general level of self-esteem was measured using Rosenberg's (1965) self-esteem scale. Respondents answered 10 items measuring self-esteem on a 7-point scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree). In addition, they were instructed to answer the question based on how they feel "in general". As in study 1, a factor analysis with Varimax rotation revealed 2-factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. However, the scree plot indicated one clearly dominant factor. Due to the

extensive reported validity of this measure of self-esteem and the high internal consistency of the measure ($\alpha = .87$), I summed the 10 items to form the measure of global self-esteem (Mean = 57.04, SD = 8.75). Notice that the level and dispersion of the self-esteem measure is almost identical to the subjects used in study 1 (i.e., Mean = 57.90, SD = 8.23).

Self-Esteem Stability. Due to the nature of this sample and the difficulty in gathering data at multiple times, a single time measure of self-esteem stability had to be utilized. In this study, I used a 5-item (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree) stability scale developed and validated by Rosenberg (1986). Although this measure has been shown to be weakly correlated (e.g., $r = -.15$) with the stability measure used in study 1 (Kernis, et al., 1989), it had to be used since it would be unlikely that MBA students would agree to participate in a study that required multiple measures twice a day for four days. A factor analysis with Varimax rotation yielded one factor with eigenvalues greater than 1. This factor explains approximately 66% of the variance in the construct. The scree plot also clearly indicates 1 dominant factor. A composite was created by summing the five items (Mean = 22.56, SD = 7.03, Alpha = .86).

Interactional Justice. As in study 1, interactional justice was measured using a scale developed by Moorman (1991). Consistent with the findings in study 1, the interactional justice scale demonstrated strong internal consistency ($\alpha = .86$) and all items loaded as expected on one factor.

Expected Retaliation Behavior. Based on the findings of Study 1 and concerns over survey length, a slight modification was made to the expected retaliation scale.

First, we reduced the 15 items found in study 1 to 7. Based on the sample and lack of expected findings for the overt aggression dimension (similar to study 1), we focused our attention on items designed to measure expressions of hostility and obstructionism.

Recall that these covert forms of aggressive behavior are far more likely than overt types of aggression. In addition, we added 3 items from Baron and Neuman (1996, 1998) that were specifically designed to measure expressions of hostility and obstructionism.

After reading the particular scenario, subjects were instructed to indicate how likely it would be for them to engage in a list of behaviors (10 items; 1 = never; 5 = highly likely) in the near future if they were the employee discussed in the text. A factor analysis with Varimax rotation failed to yield two factors as expected (Please see table 8). In fact, the factor analysis revealed four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. However, the scree plot still indicates one dominant factor emerging (Please see figure 8). In addition, the first factor explained approximately 31% of the variance in the construct. Based on the limited evidence of two underlying factors and the evidence of one dominant factor, I created a composite for overall expected retaliation by averaging the 10 items (Mean = 2.56, SD = .54, alpha = .72).

Satisfaction (actual retaliation). As in study 1, we also wanted to attempt to get the subjects' "actual" level of retaliation to the scenario. Subjects were given the following instructions

Please assume that a potential employee has contacted you regarding your opinion about working for the company depicted in the scenario. He/she has asked you to give an honest representation of "life as an employee" at your company. He/she has asked you the following questions. Please check the box that best represents how you feel about your organization.

Subjects responded to these instructions by answering a set of 8 items (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) representing overall satisfaction as well as satisfaction with one's job and supervisor (Spector, 1997b). As in study 1, factor analysis with Varimax rotation yielded a 1-factor solution explaining approximately 66% of the variance in the construct. Therefore, I created an overall measure of satisfaction (i.e., actual retaliation) by averaging the 8 items (Mean = 2.78, SD = .76, alpha = .92) Lower levels of satisfaction represent greater levels of retaliation for the perceived injustice.

Control Variables

Gender. As in study 1, gender will be included as a control variable since it has been demonstrated to effect one's level of aggressive behavior. This helps allow me to control for alternative explanations to my findings (Mitchell, 1985).

Likelihood of Punishment. The perceived likelihood of punishment is necessary to control for because it has shown to impact the decision to engage in aggressive behavior (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998; Bettencourt & Miller, 1996). Bjorkqvist, Osterman, and Lagerspetz (1994) indicate that the decision to engage in aggressive behavior in the workplace is determined by an "effect/danger ratio". A person finds the best technique to retaliate that has the lowest possibility of punishment. Therefore, if the likelihood of punishment is high, a person may feel that it is too dangerous to engage in retaliatory behavior. To measure the likelihood of punishment, I presented three behaviors that could be considered aggressive and then ask the respondents to indicate the degree they think they would be punished in the scenario (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree). Borrowing from Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly

(1998), the three items are “engaging in destructive activities such as stealing or damaging property belonging to our employer,” “doing things that could hurt the department or the organization,” and “doing work badly, slowly or incorrectly on purpose.” Factor analysis indicated one dominant factor ($\alpha = .85$).

Negative Affectivity. As in study 1, a person’s natural disposition for negativity was measured to help control for alternative explanations to my findings. Negative affectivity was measured in this study using a scale developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). Respondents were instructed to indicate how they feel, in general, to items such as being upset, irritable, or distressed. In study 2, we focused on those items designed to measure how “upset” or “angry” a person naturally is (Please see appendix). This was done in order to reduce the number of items we needed to ask this particular population and because this subset of negative affectivity appears to be most relevant to our research purposes. Factor analysis clearly indicated one factor ($\alpha = .73$).

RESULTS

The means, standard deviations, and correlation matrix for the variables in this study are presented in Table 9.

Discriminant/Convergent Validity Issues. While the factor analyses discussed above begin to establish the construct validity of the measures, the correlation matrix and some additional factor analyses yield additional information and support for the validity of the self-esteem and retaliation measures. First, although the two scales designed to measure global self-esteem and self-esteem stability are expected to be highly correlated, they should load on separate factors. As expected, the two scales in this study were

highly correlated ($r = .66, p < .001$) which is consistent with past research in this area (Rosenberg, 1986; Kernis, et al., 1989). However, the items representing stability and global self-esteem load on different factors although there is some small cross loadings (Please see Table 10). Past research using these two scales has also demonstrated the discriminant validity of the global and stability scale (Marsh, 1993; Rosenberg, 1986). In addition, one would expect a significant relationship between negative affect (a mood measure) and self-esteem stability. As expected, self-esteem stability and negative affect are significantly correlated ($r = -.40, p < .05$). Global self-esteem and negative affect should also be significantly related. As expected, the correlation between these two constructs is significant ($r = -.34, p < .05$) and is consistent with past research in the area (e.g., Tarlow & Haaga, 1996). In addition, a factor analysis with Varimax rotation demonstrates that the items measuring global self-esteem and negative affect load cleanly on two separate factors and items measures self-esteem stability and negative affect also load on separate factors. These analyses lend additional support for the discriminant and convergent validity of the self-esteem measures.

As in study 1, it is also expected that our two different measures of retaliation (i.e., expected retaliation and satisfaction) should be significantly correlated. As expected, our measure of overall expected retaliation behavior and actual retaliation behavior (i.e., satisfaction) were significantly related ($r = -.47, p < .001$). A factor analysis with Varimax rotation was also conducted to help establish the discriminant validity of the retaliation measures from items measuring OCBs. I included 6 items designed to measure of organizational citizenship behavior (Mean = 3.96, SD = .61, alpha

= .81) within the retaliation items in the survey (i.e., subjects indicated how likely it would be that they would engage in these behaviors after reading the scenario). Factor analysis with the items representing OCBs, expected retaliation, and satisfaction all loaded on different factors. Please see table 11 and figure 9.

Checks for normal regression model. All analyses were checked for violations of the assumptions of the normal error regression model (e.g., linear function, homogeneity of variance, etc.). The same analyses that were conducted in study 1 were also conducted in study 2. These analyses did yield 5 points that were considered influential data points according to DFFITS, DFBETAS, and the studentized deleted residuals. The analyses discussed below were run with and without these data points included with no significant differences emerging in the results. Therefore, in order to maintain the greatest “n”, the analyses below represent all data points included.

Tests of Hypotheses⁴

Hypothesis 1 indicates that perceptions of injustice will be significantly related to the frequency of a retaliatory response. The correlation matrix reveals that perceptions of interactional justice are indeed significantly related to one’s expectations for retaliation ($r = -.33, p < .001$) and the actual level of retaliation (i.e., satisfaction) ($r = .58, p < .001$). Therefore, greater levels of injustice lead to greater levels of retaliation. Hypothesis 1 is supported.

Hypothesis 2 indicates that a person’s self-esteem will be negatively related to perceptions of fairness. The correlation between global self-esteem and interactional justice ($r = -.06$) was not significant. In addition, I conducted a linear regression

controlling for the effects of self-esteem stability. There is no significant effect of self-esteem on perceptions of interactional justice ($F = .27$, n.s.). Finally, independent sample t-tests conducted after a median split of global self-esteem indicate no significant differences in the perceptions of interactional justice between those individuals with low and high self-esteem ($t = -.36$, n.s.). Hypothesis 2 is not supported. It should be noted that it would be very difficult to find significance for this analysis because the scenario was designed to manipulate perceptions of injustice. Although there is not significant difference between those individuals with high and low self-esteem, individuals with low self-esteem did report lower levels of interactional justice in the scenario (Mean 2.09 vs. Mean = 2.15).

Hypothesis 4a examines the effects of self-esteem stability on perceptions of justice. According to hypothesis 4a, individuals with high unstable self-esteem are more likely to perceive an event as unfair. The correlation between self-esteem stability and interactional justice ($r = -.01$) is not significant. In addition, independent sample t-tests demonstrate that there is no significant difference between those individuals with stable or unstable self-esteem ($t = -.47$, n.s.). Hypothesis 4a is not supported.

Study 2 was specifically designed to measure the effects of group influences on individual perceptions and behavior and how a person's self-esteem interacts with these group influences. Hypotheses 5, 6, 7, and 8 address these issues. Hypothesis 5 states that a person's group can significantly effect the individual's perceptions of justice. Independent sample t-tests indicate a significant difference between those individuals in the control (mean = 2.34) and the experimental (mean = 1.86) group ($t = 3.07$, $p < .001$).

Specifically, individuals who are encouraged to work things out with their supervisor report higher levels of perceived interactional justice than individuals who are told that the boss is unfair and that they should get even. To further test this hypothesis, a ordinary least squares regression analysis was conducted controlling for the subjects' level of negative affectivity. Entering a dummy variable (i.e., 0 and 1) representing the condition (group influences) in the regression equation explains an additional 7.6 % of the variance in the subjects' perceptions of justice ($F = 8.61, p < .001$). Please see Table 12. Hypothesis 5 is supported.

Hypothesis 6 stated that the presence of an employee's fellow organizational members engaging in retaliation-type behavior will be positively associated with that employee's own retaliation behavior. T-tests indicate that individuals in the experimental condition (mean = 2.65) had a significantly greater likelihood of expected retaliation than those in the control (mean = 2.48) group ($t = -1.65, p < .05$ in a one-tail test). In addition, individuals in the experimental condition (mean = 2.47) had lower levels of reported satisfaction than those individuals in the control (mean = 3.04) condition ($t = 4.18, p < .001$). To further test this hypothesis, ordinary least squares regression was conducted controlling for the effects of the subjects' gender, level of negative affectivity, and expected punishment (school was also controlled for in the satisfaction analyses). The regression for expected retaliation behavior failed to gain significance ($F = 1.37, n.s.$), but the results demonstrate that the condition explains an additional 11.9% of the variance in the subjects' actual level of retaliation (i.e., satisfaction) ($F = 15.33, p < .001$). Hypothesis 6 is supported.

Hypothesis 7 and 8 state that it is those individuals with low self-esteem that are most likely to be influenced by their group member's actions and words. As in study 1, since I am exploring interaction effects with a dichotomous variable, I utilized weighted least squares regression controlling for the many of the variables discussed above. For all of the dependent variables (i.e., interactional justice, expected retaliation, satisfaction), none of the regressions demonstrated significant interactions for level or stability of self-esteem (Please see Table 13). Hypothesis 7 and 8 are not supported.

General Discussion Study 2

The analyses in the second study lend some additional support for some of the hypotheses presented in this study. First, as in study 1, we found support for the idea that individuals who experience a perceived injustice are more likely to engage in aggressive behavior in the workplace (hypothesis 1). In addition, we found strong support for the ideas that a person's group can have a significant influence on individual perceptions of justice (hypothesis 5) and subsequent retaliation behavior (hypothesis 6). However, as in study 1, we failed to find support for the idea that a person's level and stability of self-esteem is related to perceptions of justice (hypotheses 2 and 4a). In addition, support for the behavioral plasticity of self-esteem was not found in this study (hypotheses 7 and 8). Finally, please note that study 2 was not designed to directly test hypothesis 3 (or 4b) involving self-esteem acting as a moderating force on perceptions of injustice. While the first experiment included both a fair and an unfair condition, study 2 only involved conditions of injustice. Future research will need to be conducted that combines these two studies.

Study 2 extends study 1 by incorporating the role of group influences in the retaliation process. In this study, the results demonstrate that a person's group members can have a dramatic influence on perceptions of justice and subsequent retaliation behavior. While both scenarios in this study included the *same* injustice situation (i.e., negative interaction with one's boss), individuals in the condition where their coworkers suggested the employee try to work things out had much higher perceptions of justice and lower levels of retaliation than those individuals assigned to the condition where their coworkers suggest they get even. Therefore, the results demonstrate that one's group members can have both positive and negative influences on the retaliation process even though individuals in both conditions experienced the same injustice.

Study 2 also extends study 1 by utilizing a different sample that included individuals from day and evening MBA programs that are currently working or have many more years of real world work experience. Therefore, they may have been more likely to have experienced an injustice in the workplace and the subsequent group interactions/influences that are depicted in the scenario. The use of this sample helps extend the external validity of the findings.

Unexpectedly, I did not find a significant interaction between self-esteem and the conditions involving group influences. This is somewhat troubling since the ideas of behavioral plasticity have generally been supported in the literature (Brockner, 1988; Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). However, even Brockner (1988) admits that there are situations where the plasticity hypothesis is limited, although that does not mean the argument is irrelevant. Brockner indicates there the plasticity argument is limited when

1) self-esteem is theoretically irrelevant to external influences, and 2) the situation is so strong that individual forces, such as self-esteem, cannot emerge.

Brockner's (1988) first limiting factor seems unlikely based on the results of study 1 and the fact that self-esteem is only theoretically irrelevant if the situation does not involve uncertainty. Recall that one of the main arguments of behavioral plasticity is that individuals with low self-esteem are more likely to be influenced by external cues because they are uncertain about the correct course of action and therefore search the external environment for appropriate behavioral cues. Both scenarios presented in study 2 involved situations of uncertainty. Specifically, the employee in the situation did not know what to do and consulted with their coworkers. While the first limiting factor may not be useful to explain the results of study 2, the second limiting factor may be more applicable to this study. It may have been that the situational forces were so strong that individual differences may not have easily emerged. In all of the analyses, the condition was the dominant factor in explaining the variance in the dependent variables.

Support for the behavioral plasticity hypotheses may also not have been found because it may be extremely difficult to find an interaction between self-esteem and group influences using a scenario format with approximately 100 volunteers. In fact, Brockner (1988) states that in almost every case where behavioral plasticity has not been supported, lab studies have been used. Perhaps in a field setting with more natural group settings, the interaction would emerge.

Table 8: Expected Retaliation Behavior (Study 2)^a

Item	Factor 1^b	Factor 2^c	Factor 3^d	Factor 4^e
Speak poorly about the company to others.	.41	.41	-.16	.41
Give your supervisor the "silent treatment."	-.04	.78	.09	.34
Disobey a supervisor's instructions.	.03	.29	.68	-.22
Spend time on personal matters while at work.	.82	-.19	.28	.12
Intentionally work slower.	.66	.59	.09	-.08
"Talk back" to your supervisor.	.05	-.02	.80	.24
Fail to return phone calls or respond to memos from my supervisor when in need of my help.	.21	.69	.34	-.24
Criticize people at work.	.14	.05	.07	.85
Deliberately waste company materials	.45	.39	.02	.10
Try to look busy while wasting time.	.78	.17	-.05	.11

^a Varimax Rotation

^b Factor 1 Eigenvalue = 3.10; Percent of Variance Explained = 30.97%

^c Factor 2 Eigenvalue = 1.37; Percent of Variance Explained = 13.74%

^d Factor 3 Eigenvalue = 1.10; Percent of Variance Explained = 11.02%

^e Factor 4 Eigenvalue = 1.04; Percent of Variance Explained = 10.42%

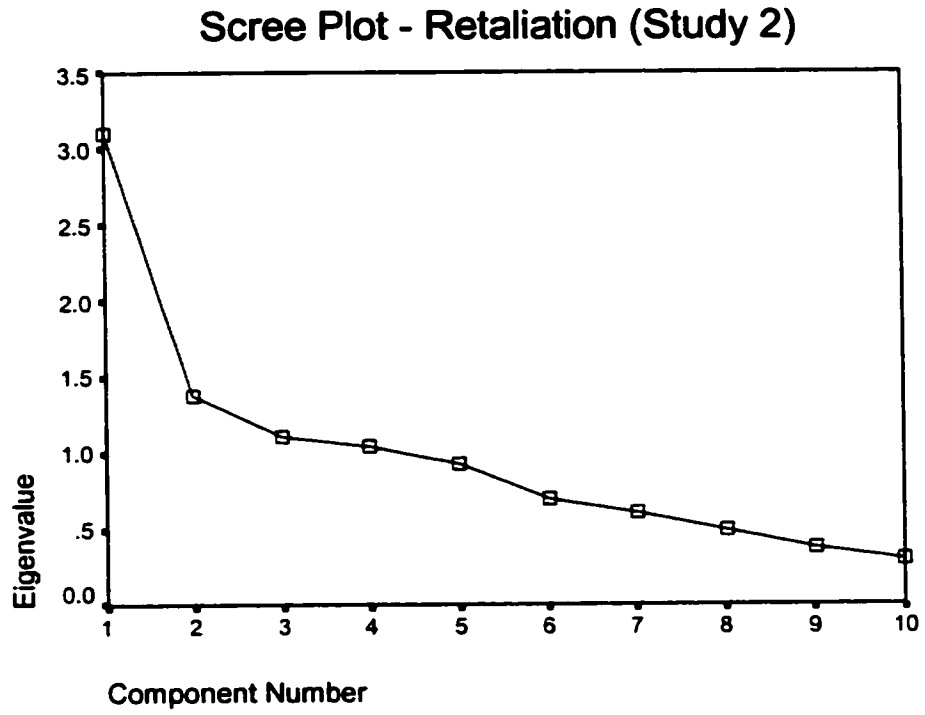


Figure 8: Scree Plot for Retaliation Items (Study 2)

Table 9: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (Study 2)^{a, b}

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Global Self-Esteem	57.04	8.75	(.87)									
2. Self-Esteem Stability ^c	22.56	7.03	.66***	(.86)								
3. Expected Retaliation	2.56	.54	-.29**	-.37***	(.72)							
4. Satisfaction (retaliation) ^d	2.78	.76	.12	.19*	-.47***	(.92)						
5. Interactional Justice	2.12	.83	-.06	-.01	-.33***	.58***	(.86)					
6. Expected Punishment	3.96	.91	-.07	-.05	-.07	-.06	-.03	(.85)				
7. Negative Affect	2.02	.66	-.34***	-.40***	.34***	-.10	-.11	.06	(.73)			
8. Gender	--	--	.05	.20*	-.14	.23*	.19*	.19	-.11			
9. Age	29.41	5.82	-.10	.10	-.15	-.11	-.11	-.01	-.18*	.15 ^e		
10. Tenure	3.26	3.75	-.01	-.07	-.13	-.09	.03	.07	-.10	.01	.38***	
11. Work Experience	8.34	6.62	-.07	.09	-.23*	-.06	-.03	.01	-.25**	.09	.92***	.38***

^a + p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

^b Numbers in parentheses are coefficient alpha.

^c Higher numbers for self-esteem stability equal greater stability.

^d Lower numbers equal greater levels of retaliation.

Table 10: Global Self-Esteem and Self-Esteem Stability (Study 2)

Item^{a,b,c}	Factor 1^d	Factor 2^e	Factor 3^f
1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	.72	.22	.26
2. I wish I could have more respect for myself.*	.60	.19	.31
3. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	.43	.47	.04
4. At times I think I am no good at all.*	.65	.16	.38
5. I take a positive view of myself.	.75	.26	.27
6. I am able to do things as well as most other people.	.06	.87	.17
7. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	.31	.67	.02
8. I certainly feel useless at times.*	.78	.02	.18
9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.*	.71	.41	.08
10. I feel that I do not have much to be proud of.*	.64	.22	.14
11. My opinion of myself tends to change a good deal instead of always remaining the same.*	.18	.12	.80
12. I find that on one day I have one opinion of myself and on another day I have a different opinion.*	.44	-.06	.79
13. Some days I have a very good opinion of myself; other days I have a very poor opinion of myself.*	.61	.01	.62
14. I have noticed that my ideas about myself seem to change very quickly.*	.51	.05	.68
15. I feel that nothing, or almost nothing, can change the opinion I currently hold of myself.	.03	.17	.71

^a* = reverse coded

^b Items 1 – 10 = global self-esteem; Items 11 – 15 = self-esteem stability

^c Items are listed in table grouped by self-esteem level and stability for readability. In the survey they were mixed together.

^d Factor 1 Eigenvalue = 6.80; Percent of Variance Explained = 45.32%

^e Factor 2 Eigenvalue = 1.01; Percent of Variance Explained = 6.75%

^f Factor 3 Eigenvalue = 1.61; Percent of Variance Explained = 10.70%

Table 11: Discriminant Validity of Retaliation, OCBs, and Satisfaction (Study 2)

Item^a	Factor 1^b	Factor 2^c	Factor 3^d	Factor 4^e	Factor 5^f	Factor 6^g	Factor 7^h
R1	-.378	-.205	.350	.116	.302	-.087	.519
R2	-.217	-.170	-.030	.550	.544	.078	.168
R3	-.010	.106	.103	.458	-.123	.480	-.392
R4	-.234	-.183	.718	-.152	-.048	.283	-.043
R5	-.131	-.154	.649	.517	.013	-.046	.194
R6	-.175	-.014	.054	.109	.095	.802	.144
R7	-.145	-.052	.197	.857	-.058	.068	-.025
R8	-.038	.060	.282	-.120	.806	.018	-.042
R9	.026	.000	.564	.290	.285	.039	-.021
R10	-.058	.006	.793	.086	.141	-.102	-.078
OCB1	.029	.857	.086	.026	-.040	-.238	.023
OCB2	.046	.854	-.086	-.019	.095	-.121	.007
OCB3	.115	.596	-.029	-.257	-.021	.422	-.044
OCB4	.156	.618	-.066	-.120	.013	.210	-.077
OCB5	.211	.651	-.283	.135	-.131	.105	.259
OCB6	.026	.450	-.168	-.008	-.177	.283	.660
SAT1	.852	.047	-.150	.020	.014	-.107	-.158
SAT2	.800	.141	-.069	.098	.047	-.041	-.102
SAT3	.757	-.062	.054	-.179	-.205	.015	.258
SAT4	.879	.127	-.161	-.071	.073	-.048	-.075
SAT5	.733	-.051	.033	-.143	-.407	-.131	.137
SAT6	.586	.126	-.472	-.034	.060	-.062	-.136
SAT7	.802	.057	-.007	-.251	-.285	-.004	.109
SAT8	.869	.167	-.086	-.089	.104	.012	-.053

^a R = Expected Retaliation; OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors; SAT = Satisfaction (Actual Retaliation)

^b Factor 1 Eigenvalue = 6.78; Percent of Variance Explained = 28.25%

^c Factor 2 Eigenvalue = 2.84; Percent of Variance Explained = 11.81%

^d Factor 3 Eigenvalue = 2.28; Percent of Variance Explained = 9.50%

^e Factor 4 Eigenvalue = 1.50; Percent of Variance Explained = 6.26%

^f Factor 5 Eigenvalue = 1.41; Percent of Variance Explained = 5.89%

^g Factor 6 Eigenvalue = 1.18; Percent of Variance Explained = 4.93%

^h Factor 7 Eigenvalue = 1.08; Percent of Variance Explained = 4.49%

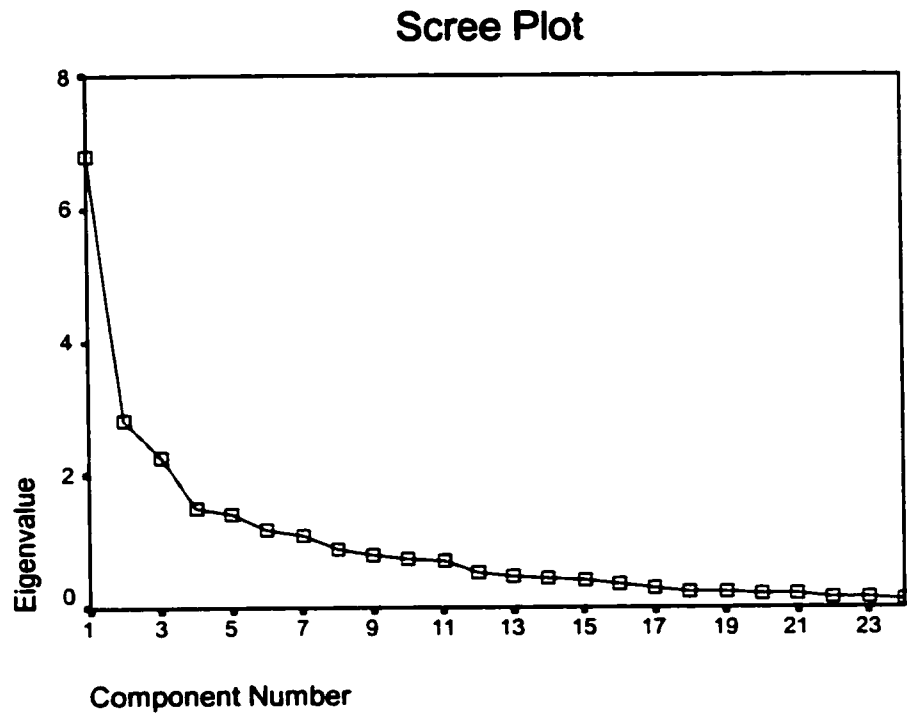


Figure 9: Scree Plot of Retaliation, OCBs, and Satisfaction Items (Study 2)

Table 12: Condition Effects on DVs**Regression Analyses^{a,b}**

	<u>Variable</u>	<u>IJ^c</u>	<u>Retal.</u>	<u>Sat.</u>
<i>Step 1</i>	Negative Affect	-.07	.33***	-.02
	Expected Punishment		-.07	-.09
	Gender		-.09	.21*
	School			.20*
<i>Step 2</i>	Condition	-.28***	.11	-.35***
	Total R ²	.09	.14	.23
	Change in R ^{2d}	.08**	.01	.12***

^a Standardized betas from final regression equation are reported.

^b * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

^c IJ = Interactional Justice, Retal. = Expected Retaliation, Sat. = Overall Satisfaction (actual retaliation)

^d Change in R² reported for addition of Condition to regression equation

Table 13: Behavioral Plasticity Hypotheses (Study 2)**Regression Analyses^{a,b}**

	<u>Variable</u>	<u>IJ^c</u>	<u>Retal.</u>	<u>Sat.</u>
<i>Step 1</i>	Negative Affect	-.10	.20*	.02
	Self-Esteem Stability	.03	-.22	.18
	Expected Punishment		-.08	-.08
	Gender		-.04	.18*
	School			.21*
<i>Step 2</i>	Condition	-.53	.02	-.85
<i>Step 3</i>	Self-Esteem	-.16	-.10	-.10
<i>Step 4</i>	SE x Condition	.25	.10	.51
	Total R ²	.10	.20	.28
	Change in R ^{2d}	.00	.00	.01

^a Standardized betas from final regression equation are reported.

^b * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

^c IJ = Interactional Justice, Retal. = Expected Retaliation, Sat. = Overall Satisfaction (actual retaliation); SE = Global Self-Esteem

^d Change in R² reported for addition of the self-esteem x condition interaction.

Table 13: Behavioral Plasticity Hypotheses (Study 2) (Cont.)**Regression Analyses^{a,b}**

	<u>Variable</u>	<u>IJ^c</u>	<u>Retal.</u>	<u>Sat.</u>
<i>Step 1</i>	Negative Affect	-.10	.21*	.02
	Global Self-Esteem	-.10	-.08	.02
	Expected Punishment		-.06	-.09
	Gender		-.04	.19*
	School			.20*
<i>Step 2</i>	Condition	-.37	.29	-.64*
<i>Step 3</i>	Self-Esteem Stability	-.02	-.18	.05
<i>Step 4</i>	ST x Condition	.10	-.18	.32
	Total R ²	.10	.21	.28
	Change in R ^{2d}	.00	.00	.01

^a Standardized betas from final regression equation are reported.

^b * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

^c IJ = Interactional Justice, Retal. = Expected Retaliation, Sat. = Overall Satisfaction (actual retaliation); ST = Self-Esteem Stability

^d Change in R² reported for addition of self-esteem stability x condition interaction.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

A summary of the findings across study 1 and study 2 is provided in Table 14. The results support the notion that retaliation is one possible negative consequence to perceptions of justice. While retaliation may occur for other reasons (e.g., hostile attribution bias, etc.), the direction of the relation between injustice and retaliation is as expected. In addition, study 1 lends greater support for the idea that a perceived injustice leads to a retaliatory response since it was conducted in a lab setting where expected retaliation was measured following the manipulation of perceived justice. The studies in this dissertation also increase the external validity of the retaliation results. In both studies, using two different samples, support was found for the idea that increased violations of justice lead to increased retaliation behaviors. Overall, the results of these studies lend additional support for the construct validity of the Skarlicki and Folger's idea of retaliation in the workplace.

In addition, the studies in this dissertation measured both "intended" retaliation and actual retaliation. One of the criticisms of the literature on workplace aggression is that it is hard to measure a person's intention for harm (recall that aggression and retaliation are defined as the intent to harm). While one way to address this criticism, as stated above, is to state that the relationship between injustice and retaliation is consistent with what is expected or to discuss causal relations using lab studies, another way may be to ask subjects what they intend to do. In both of these studies, subjects were asked how likely it was that they would engage in retaliatory-type behaviors in the near future. In

addition, we also collected data on actual retaliation in this study. Therefore, the methods used in this dissertation may have greater face validity.

This dissertation also adds to the literature because it examined the moderating influences on the perceived injustice – retaliation relationship. To my knowledge, only one other study has examined the moderating influences on this relationship, and it explored the effects of negative affectivity (Skarlicki, et al., 1999). In study 1, we found that both a person's level and stability of self-esteem moderated the effects of injustice on subsequent retaliation. Specifically, individuals who have high or stable self-esteem are more likely to react to a perceived injustice in a negative manner. This is an interesting finding because self-esteem was not directly related to perceptions of justice or retaliation. Therefore, the effects we found were not caused by individuals with high self-esteem noticing more injustice or just being more likely to engage in aggressive behavior without provocation. It was only when individuals experienced an injustice that they responded in an aggressive manner. In addition, the interactive effects for self-esteem were found over and above the effects for negative affectivity and other control variables that have been demonstrated to influence aggressive behavior. Therefore, even when taking a conservative approach, self-esteem appears to be an important variable to explore in a person's reactions to injustice. This is an important contribution to the field and future research should examine other potential moderating influences on reactions to injustice.

Another important contribution to this literature is the incorporation of group influence processes in retaliation behavior. While this has been explored in other

aggression research, it has not been explored in retaliation behavior. Study 2 in this dissertation found that group members can have a positive or negative influence on a person's perceptions of justice and subsequent retaliation behavior. Specifically, individuals who experienced an unfair situation involving their supervisor and then received information from coworkers that "there are ways to get even" with the boss were much more likely to perceive the interaction with the boss as unfair and then retaliate compared to subjects who received information from their coworkers that "they should try to work things out". This is interesting considering both conditions involved the exact same unfair situation. In addition, the effects for the condition were found over and above the subjects' level of negative affectivity, the perceived likelihood of punishment, and other control variables demonstrated in past research to be important in aggressive behavior. Future research should explore other situational factors that may influence one's reactions to a perceived injustice.

Limitations

There are several limitations to these studies that must be addressed. First, both studies may suffer from common method variance problems. In study 1 and study 2, both the independent and dependent variables were assessed using the same method from the same source. However, steps were taken to control for any possible bias in the results. Podsakoff and Organ (1986), as well as Mitchell (1985), recommend that the independent and dependent variables be collected at different times. In fact, they recommend this is one of the best ways to avoid common method problems. In study 1, the various measures were collected over three different time periods separated by one

week or more. In study 2, although not separated by a long time period, the collection of the independent and dependent variables was separated by the particular scenario.

Finally, Podsakoff and Organ also recommend some post-hoc remedies using factor analysis techniques to control for common method variance problems. In both studies 1 and 2, I ran factor analyses with all the variables entered and did not find one overriding factor (i.e., indicating common method variance). More specifically, the first factor in each case was representative of one of the main variables in our studies. Therefore, controlling for this factor would not be appropriate to control common method problems and I would be eliminating good variance.

A second limitation to these studies is the use of a student population. Sackett and Larson (1990) state that the use of lab studies with student populations weakens the generalizability of the results. However, this argument has been met with some criticism (Dipboye & Flanagan, 1979). More specifically, it has been argued that field studies are no more generalizable than lab studies due to the narrow range of subjects in field studies (just like labs) and because of the over-reliance on convenience samples (Mitchell, 1985). In this study, generalizability may not be a large problem since we found similar results among undergraduate and graduate students with real-world experience. In addition, the results achieved in this dissertation may be even more accurate because all subjects were anonymous and had no concerns about their retaliation behavior becoming public knowledge in their organizations. Therefore, we may have received a more realistic response from our subjects regarding their intended response to feelings of injustice.

A third limitation to this study could be the exclusive use of scenarios. A critic of these studies could argue that they lack realism because we are asking the subjects how they would react to a hypothetical situation. However, Greenberg and Eskew (1993) state “the value of role playing studies lies not in assuming the people really would do what they say, but in learning what they say they would do” (p. 225). Specifically, this type of methodology allows researchers to learn about basic psychological processes. In addition, this methodology was used for another reason. Since the study of retaliation in the organizational behavior field is fairly new, lab studies that have a high degree of internal validity and that allow causal inferences to be made are desirable (McGrath, 1964). In this particular study, this was important because we were able to demonstrate that retaliation behavior does follow perceptions of injustice, even after controlling for other important factors.

Finally, the measurement of self-esteem stability at one time in study 2 is a limitation in this dissertation. Our preference would have been to measure stability, as in study 1, over multiple days. However, our sample in study 2 did not allow this type of measurement. It would have been highly unlikely that a voluntary sample of MBA students would agree to complete measures of their self-esteem twice a day, for a period of four days. Therefore, we chose to utilize a well-validated scale developed by Rosenberg.

Future Research Directions

There are several areas that future research needs to address. First, do individual difference variables such as self-esteem interact with perceptions of injustice consistent

with the relational or instrumental model of justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Brockner, 2002)? The instrumental view of justice states that individuals are concerned with the fairness of the procedures that affect them to the degree that the procedures have an effect on the outcomes they receive. The relational view states that individuals desire fair procedures because it provides information to them about their value as a group member and has implications for their own feelings of self-worth. It may be that different levels of self-esteem may react differently to perceptions of injustice depending on what the underlying motive for justice is present. For example, it may be that individuals with high self-esteem may be more likely to respond in accordance with an instrumental view, while individuals with low self-esteem may be more responsive to a relational model of justice.

A second area that should be examined is the role of self-control/regulation in the retaliation process. Baumeister and his colleagues have demonstrated that self-control acts in a manner similar to “will-power” (Baumeister, 2001). Specifically, they view self-control as a “muscle” that becomes tired and less effective for subsequent needs. It may be that individuals may be able to control their initial reactions to a perceived injustice, but as they face additional injustices, their ability to control their negative reactions are diminished. On a related note, future research should also examine the number of injustices and subsequent retaliation behavior. It may be that individuals are likely to accept several injustices and then reach a “breaking point” where they no longer accept these injustice and seek to restore a sense of fairness through retaliatory behavior.

In addition, future research should examine the role of one's personal morality (Batson, Bowers, Leonard, & Smith, 2000) in the decision to respond to a perceived injustice. Batson and colleagues demonstrated restrained the desire for revenge, but only looked at perceptions of distributive justice. What effect does personal morality have on reactions to perceived violations of interactional justice? What about the moral intensity (Jones, 1991) of the injustice? If the perceived injustice is considered very strong, it is self-relevant, and there is social consensus, this may be more likely to cause someone to react to the injustice by retaliation.

Finally, a person's self-esteem could be examined in relation to its influence on the tendency to be victimized by the retaliatory acts of others. Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, and Allen (1999) recently found that certain personality characteristics such as negative affectivity are related to the frequency of being victimized by aggressive behavior. It may be the case that someone with low self-esteem, especially if this is perceived by a third party, may be more susceptible to retaliatory acts because they may be seen as weak. Therefore, even if they were not the cause of the initial action, a person with low self-esteem could become a target of another person's retaliatory action.

Implications for Practice

This dissertation also has implications for managers in organizations. The research on workplace aggression has demonstrated that many of the current practices of organizations (i.e., increased downsizing, increased pressures for productivity, etc.) are actually leading to increases in aggressive acts (Baron & Neuman, 1998). In addition, this dissertation has demonstrated that individuals can engage in subtle forms of

aggression in response to perceptions of injustice when dealing with one's supervisor. Therefore, managers in organizations must be aware that not everyone will react the same way to these activities and interactions. This does not mean that organizations should implement staffing policies that measure self-esteem (although Judge and Bono (2001) have recently suggested this since self-esteem was shown to be an important variable in work performance in a recent meta-analysis). Limiting employment based on self-esteem is ethically problematic and wrong. Instead, managers must simply be aware that when interacting with their employees, some employees may be more likely to retaliate if they face and injustice. If a manager suspects one of their employees has high self-esteem, they may approach the situation a little more carefully than if they were dealing with someone who they perceived to have low self-esteem.

More importantly, the studies in this dissertation make it clear that managers have to be especially careful when designing or modifying organizational groups. The results in this dissertation indicate that the subjects were influenced by their group members, both positively and negatively, in their perceptions of injustice and their subsequent decision to engage in retaliation type behavior. Therefore, if managers suspect they have a number of members engaging in retaliatory type behavior, they must be careful who these individuals are put with since they could have a negative impact on the group. In addition, when assigning new recruits to existing teams, special care must be taken since these individuals will be especially susceptible to these group influences.

Table 14: Summary of Findings Across Studies

Hypothesis	Study 1	Study 2
1. Violations of organizational justice will be positively related to the frequency of retaliatory behavior.	Supported - IJ & DJ negatively associated with Expected and Actual Retaliation	Supported - IJ negatively associated with Expected and Actual Retaliation
2. The level of a person's self-esteem will be negatively related to perceptions of unfairness.	<i>Not Supported</i>	<i>Not Supported</i>
3. Self-esteem moderates the perceived injustice – retaliation relationship.	Supported - Individuals with high self-esteem are more likely to respond to a perceived injustice by engaging in a retaliatory response.	N/A
4a. A person with unstable HSE is more likely to perceive an act as unfair than someone with stable HSE or a person with unstable or stable LSE.	<i>Not Supported</i>	<i>Not Supported</i>
4b. A person with unstable HSE is more likely to retaliate following the perception of injustice than a person with stable HSE or a person with unstable or stable LSE.	Supported - Stability acts as a moderator of the injustice – retaliation relationship, but it is individuals with stable self-esteem that are most likely to react to an injustice.	N/A
5. Individual ratings of injustice will be influenced by the perceptions of fairness held by other organizational members.	N/A	Supported - Group influence explains additional variance in IJ
6. The frequency of retaliation behavior within a group will moderate the relationship between the perceived injustice and individual retaliation behavior.	N/A	Supported - Group influences explain additional variance in retaliation
7. A person with LSE is more likely to perceive an act as unfair if their group members indicate it is unfair.	N/A	<i>Not Supported</i>
8. A person with LSE is more likely to engage in retaliation behavior when they experience their group members engaging in similar behavior.	N/A	<i>Not Supported</i>

CONCLUSION

Given that instances of workplace aggression have been increasing in recent years due to the potentially unfair actions of managers (Baron & Neuman, 1998), this dissertation adds to the literature and provides practical information for managers engaging in activities that may be considered unfair by their workforce (i.e., downsizing, increased pressure for productivity, etc.). This dissertation examined how individual differences and social processes affect the negative reactions individuals may have to perceptions of injustice. Specifically, we examined how self-esteem and social influence processes interacted with perceptions of injustice to predict retaliatory responses. Considering the importance of one's self-esteem to positive work behaviors such as increased work performance and OCBs (Judge & Bono, 2001), it is important to examine how self-esteem relates to "negative" behaviors in organizations. The results indicate that individuals with high or stable self-esteem are more likely to react negatively to unfair situations. In addition, the results indicate that one's group members can have a significant influence on retaliation behavior. Implications for theory and directions for future research were discussed.

End Notes

- ¹ All of the following analyses were also conducting using standardized values for the predictor and dependent variables. This was done to correct for possible bias in the results given the different response formats (i.e., 7 vs. 5 – point scales). The data analysis revealed almost identical results to the non-standardized analyses. Therefore, the non-standardized analyses are reported.
- ² After finding the significant interaction among the experimental condition and global self-esteem, I also re-ran the weighted least squares analysis controlling for the squared terms of condition and self-esteem to control for any potential non-linear effects. With these items included with the other control variables, similar results were found (Change in $R^2 = .014$, $F = 4.96$, $p < .05$).
- ³ After finding significant interactions among the experimental condition and self-esteem stability, I also re-ran the weighted least squares analysis controlling for the squared terms of condition and stability. With these items included with the other control variables, similar results were found (Change in $R^2 = .022$, $F = 7.83$, $p < .01$).
- ⁴ All of the following analyses were also conducting using standardized values for the predictor and dependent variables. This was done to correct for possible bias in the results given the different response formats (i.e., 7 vs. 5 – point scales). The data analysis revealed almost identical results to the non-standardized analyses. Therefore, the non-standardized analyses are reported.
- ⁵ Prior to conducting the ANCOVA, I checked for violations of homogeneity in the slopes of the regression lines since ANCOVA cannot be run without meeting this requirement (Neter, et. al, 1996). Tests indicate the regression lines have the same slope ($F = 1.00$, n.s.).

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Appendix: List of Additional Items**STUDY 1****Interactional Justice:**

Based on the scenario, please check the box that best represents how you feel you have been treated by your supervisor.

1. Your supervisor considers your viewpoint.
2. Your supervisor is able to suppress personal biases.
3. Your supervisor provides you with timely feedback about decisions and their implications.
4. Your supervisor treats you with kindness and consideration.
5. Your supervisor shows concern for your rights as an employee.
6. Your supervisor takes steps to deal with you in a truthful manner.

Distributive Justice:

Based on the scenario, please check the box that best represents how you feel you have been rewarded.

1. Fairly rewarded considering your responsibilities.
2. Fairly rewarded in view of the amount of experience you have.
3. Fairly rewarded for the amount of effort you put forth.
4. Fairly rewarded for the work you have done well.
5. Fairly rewarded for the stresses and strains of your job.

Negative Affect:

Based on the scenario, please check the box that best represents how you feel at this moment.

1. scared
2. afraid
3. upset
4. distressed
5. jittery
6. nervous
7. ashamed
8. guilty
9. irritable
10. hostile

Actual Retaliation (i.e., Satisfaction):

Based on the scenario, please check the box that best represents how you feel about your organization and supervisor.

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I don't like my job.
3. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.
4. My job is enjoyable.
5. My supervisor is unfair to me.
6. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his job.*
7. I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.
8. I like my supervisor.
9. In general, I like working here.

**dropped in Study 2*

OCBs:

Based on the scenario, please check the box that best represents how likely it is that you would engage in the following behaviors in the near future.

1. Willingly give my time to help other employees who have work-related problems.
2. Willingly take time out of my busy schedule to help other employees.
3. Encourage other employees when they are down.
4. Attend functions that are not required by help the café.
5. Attend and actively participate in the café's meetings.

STUDY 2 (ITEMS CHANGED OR ADDED)**Self-Esteem Stability:**

Please check the box that best represents how you *generally* feel.

1. My opinion of myself tends to change a good deal instead of always remaining the same.
2. I find that one day I have one opinion of myself and on another day I have a different opinion.
3. Some days I have a very good opinion of myself; other days I have a very poor opinion of myself.
4. I have noticed that my ideas about myself seem to change very quickly.
5. I feel that nothing, or almost nothing, can change the opinion I currently hold of myself.

Negative Affectivity:

Please check the box that best represents how you feel in *general*, that is, on the average.

NA:

1. upset
2. distressed
3. irritable
4. hostile

Expected Punishment:

Based on the scenario, please indicate the extent to which you believe the following behaviors would be punished by the supervisor and/or organization.

1. Engaging in destructive activities such as stealing or damaging property belonging to the employer.
2. Doing things that could hurt the department or the organization.
3. Doing work badly, slowly, or incorrectly on purpose.

James Paul Burton

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Education

University of Washington, Seattle, Washington

Ph.D. in Human Resource Management and Organizational Behavior, 2002

Dissertation: "Self-esteem and social influences on retaliation behavior"
Committee: Terry Mitchell (chair), Tom Lee, Yuichi Shoda

Research Interests: Organizational justice, self-esteem, envy, retaliation behavior, selection issues, teaching effectiveness

Illinois State University, Normal, Illinois

M.B.A., 1996

Emphasis: Management

Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

B.S. in Business Administration, 1992

Major: Finance

Experience

University of Washington, Seattle, Washington

September 1998 - *Instructor, Department of Management and Organization*

Present

Duties include teaching, with sole responsibility, a variety of upper-level undergraduate courses.

- Recipient of the Business School's Ph.D. *Outstanding Teaching Award*, 2002

<u>Course</u>	<u>Average Overall Evaluation</u>
• Managing for Organizational Effectiveness	4.4/5.0
• Motivation and Performance	4.7/5.0

September 1999- *Assistant to the Program Chair, Research Methods Division of the 2000*

September 2000

Academy of Management Meeting, Toronto, Canada

Duties included assisting the program chair with the creation, organization, and management of the Research Methods Division program of the annual Academy of Management meetings.

Buena Vista University, Storm Lake, Iowa

September 1996-

August 1998

Instructor of Business / Business Internship Director

Duties included teaching a variety of lower- and upper-division courses, advising new and current students, participating in program development, and supervising, evaluating, and improving the Business Internship program.

Illinois State University, Normal, Illinois

*August 1995-
August 1996* **Graduate Assistant in the Business Education Department**
Duties included team-teaching Business and Its Environment, collaborating with faculty in the development of a new business education curriculum, and creating a World Wide Web home page for the Business Education Department.

Summer 1996 Duties included instructing two Novell NetWare self-study workshops designed for students, faculty, and local business personnel and team-teaching International Management for Illinois State University's Summer International Business Institute program that involved students from Mexico, Canada, Australia, Europe and various other international areas.

Ford Credit, Waterloo, Iowa

*December 1993-
January 1995* **Field Representative / Dealer Service Analyst**
Duties included visiting automobile dealerships to sell the benefits of programs that Ford Credit offers, training dealership personnel, approving or declining consumer loans, and completing semi-annual credit reviews of dealerships.
• **Maintained or improved dealership "finance ratio" with Ford Credit during the most competitive market in recent years for the majority of assigned dealerships.**

Ford Credit, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

*June 1992-
December 1993* **Customer Service Representative / Wholesale Auditor**
Duties included collecting delinquent accounts, dealing with a wide range of customer problems and complaints, and dealer auditing.
• **Voted outstanding Ford Credit Customer Service Representative by peers and managers.**

Publications

- Burton, J.P., Lee, T.W., & Holtom, B.C. (*forthcoming*). The influence of motivation to attend, ability to attend, and organizational commitment on different types of absence behaviors. *Journal of Managerial Issues*.
- Burton, J.P., Butler, J.E., & Mowday, R.T. (*in press*). Lions, tigers, and alley cats: Human resource management's role in Asian business development. *Human Resource Management Review*.
- Sablynski, C.J., Lee, T.W., Mitchell, T.R., Burton, J.P., & Holtom, B.C. (2002). Turnover: An integration of Lee and Mitchell's unfolding model and job embeddedness construct with Hulin's withdrawal construct. In J.M. Brett & F. Drasgow (Eds.) *The psychology of work: Theoretically based empirical research*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Works in Progress

- Lee, T.W., Mitchell, T.R., Sablynski, C.J., Burton, J.P., & Holtom, B.C. The effects of job embeddedness on turnover, absenteeism, job performance, and OCBs. (*under review, Academy of Management Journal*)
- Burton, J.P. & Peterson, R.B. (*under second review, Advances in Industrial Relations Research*). Organizational justice and grievance research: An agenda for future research on workplace fairness.
- Yao, X., Lee, T.W., Mitchell, T.R., Burton, J.P., & Sablynski, C.J. Job embeddedness: Current research and future directions. (*working paper – to appear in a book on turnover research edited by Peter Hom and Rodger Griffeth*)

- Chen, Y., Brockner, J., & Burton, J.P. Cultural differences and similarities in in-group favoritism: The role of individual-collective primacy. (*data analyses complete by Spring 2002*)
- Burton, J.P., Bamberly, N.J., & Harris-Boundy, J.C. The determinants and consequences of personal teaching efficacy. (*working paper – data collection began Fall 2001*)
- Burton, J.P. (*working paper*). The antecedents and consequences of envy in organizations.

Conference Presentations

- Lee, T.W., Mitchell, T.R., Sablynski, C.J., Burton, J.P., & Holtom, B.C. The effects of job embeddedness on turnover, absenteeism, job performance, and OCBs. Paper to be presented at the Annual Academy of Management Meeting, Denver, Colorado, August, 2002
- Yao, X., Holtom, B.C., Lee, T.W., Mitchell, T.R., Burton, J.P., & Sablynski, C.J. Job embeddedness: Construct comparison and methodological issues. Paper to be presented at the Hawaii International Conference on Business, Honolulu, Hawaii, June, 2002
- Burton, J.P., Lee, T.W., & Holtom, B.C. An empirical test and theoretical extension of Steers and Rhodes' model of absenteeism. Presented at the Annual Western Academy of Management Meeting, Sun Valley, Idaho, April 2001 – **Finalist for the Past President's Best Paper Award**
- Burton, J.P. & Peterson, R.B. Organizational justice and grievance research: An agenda for future studies. Presented at the Industrial Relations Research Association Annual Meeting, New Orleans, January 2001

Honors

- Two-time recipient of the McCabe Fellowship, University of Washington, 2002
- Recipient of the University of Washington Business School **Ph.D. Teaching Award**, 2002
- Recipient of the Boeing Fund for Academic Excellence, University of Washington, 2001
- Two-time recipient of the Stroum Fellowship, University of Washington, 2001
- Western Academy of Management's Past President's Best Paper Finalist, 2001
- Recipient of the **Dean's Achievement Award** from the University of Washington Business School, 2000
- Nominated for Illinois State University's Outstanding MBA Student Award, 1996
- Obtained the fastest promotion in the history of Ford Credit's Midwestern Region, 1993

Professional Affiliations

- Member of the Academy of Management
- Member of the Southern Management Association
- Member of the Organizational Behavior Teaching Society

Activities

- Ad-hoc reviewer for the *Academy of Management Journal*, 2001 - present
- University of Washington
 - Panel member, "Preparing and Teaching Your Own Class", University of Washington Graduate School New Teaching Assistant Orientation, 1999 & 2001
- University of Washington, Business School

- Presenter, "Creating and Using Active Learning Experiences in the Classroom", Teaching Effectiveness Seminar, 2001
- Presenter, "Presence in the Classroom", Teaching Effectiveness Seminar, 2001
- Committee member involved in restructuring the Ph.D. program in management, 2001
- Presenter, "Using Peer Observations in the Classroom", Teaching Effectiveness Seminar, 1999
- Presenter, "Creating an Effective Syllabus", Teaching Effectiveness Seminar, 1999
- Member of *Doctoral Business Students Association*, 1998-Present
- Buena Vista University
 - Academic & Cultural Events Series Planning Committee, 1997-1998
 - Common Business Core Committee, 1997
 - School of Business Web Page Committee, 1997
- Volunteer work with Habitat for Humanity, Partners in Excellence, Rockin' Readers, BVU's Quiz Bowl and Storm Lake's historic Santa's Castle, 1996-1998
- Member of Illinois State University's *M.B.A.A.*, 1995-1996