EXPLORING THE EXISTENCE AND CORRELATES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND WORKPLACE AGGRESSION IN THE U.S. FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

by

DHANAKORN MULAPHONG

(Under the Direction of J. Edward Kellough)

ABSTRACT

Using data from the 2016 Merit Principles Survey, which includes 14,515 randomly selected U.S. federal employees from 24 agencies, and data from FedScope, I have sought to respond to a number of research questions related to how mistreatment, including sexual harassment and three forms of workplace aggression—bullying, social undermining, and ostracism—are understood, performed, and enacted in the everyday working practices of federal employees.

Regarding evidence of mistreatment in the federal workplace, the results presented in Chapter 3 reveal that among the four forms of mistreatment, social undermining was most frequently reported by federal employees, followed by bullying, ostracism, and sexual harassment. When considering the findings by agency, sexual harassment and bullying most frequently occurred at the Department of Veterans Affairs, while the rates of undermining and ostracism were highest at the Department of Education. Concerning victims' gender, while more women than men generally reported experiencing all four forms of mistreatment, men in some agencies reported being sexually harassed, bullied, undermined, and ostracized more often than women. Respecting perpetrators' characteristics, most perpetrators of these mistreatment behaviors were men.

Additionally, these mistreatment behaviors were most frequently perpetrated by coworkers. Finally, victims took different approaches in response to each form of mistreatment.

Chapter 4 examined whether *individual characteristics* (gender, age, ethnicity, educational level, job tenure, and newcomer status), *job stressors* (job stress, workload, and job stability), and *organizational characteristics* (organizational size, female-to-male ratio, male- and female-dominated environments, and gender, ethnic, and age diversity) increase or decrease the risk of becoming victims of each form of mistreatment among federal employees. I found that these factors predict mistreatment victimization for female and male employees differently. Interestingly, higher levels of ethical/moral work climate and a more effective discrimination complaint process can decrease the occurrences of all four forms of mistreatment.

Finally, the results presented in Chapter 5 indicate that experiencing sexual harassment, bullying, undermining, and ostracism can lead to lower levels of job satisfaction, work commitment, internal collaboration, and organizational performance. However, while bullying, undermining, and ostracism decrease individual productivity and increase victims' turnover intentions, sexual harassment is not predictive of these two variables.

INDEX WORDS: workplace mistreatment, sexual harassment, workplace aggression, bullying, social undermining, ostracism, U.S. federal employee, U.S. federal government, Merit Principles Survey

EXPLORING THE EXISTENCE AND CORRELATES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND WORKPLACE AGGRESSION IN THE U.S. FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

By

DHANAKORN MULAPHONG

MPPM, The National Institute of Development Administration, Thailand, 2007

MPA, The University of Georgia, 2014

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2019

© 2019

Dhanakorn Mulaphong

All Rights Reserved

EXPLORING THE EXISTENCE AND CORRELATES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND WORKPLACE AGGRESSION IN THE U.S. FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

By

DHANAKORN MULAPHONG

Major Professor: J. Edward Kellough

Committee: Hal G. Rainey

Gene A. Brewer Sun Young Kim

Electronic Version Approved:

Ron Walcott Interim Dean of the Graduate School The University of Georgia December 2019

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my adviser, Dr. J. Edward Kellough, for his assistance, guidance, and the tremendous support and opportunities he provided throughout my studies at the University of Georgia. I am grateful to Dr. Hal G. Rainey and Dr. Gene A. Brewer for their continued guidance and kindness throughout my master's and doctoral programs. I would like to express my appreciation to Dr. Sun Young Kim for her insightful comments and guidance on this dissertation. I offer my gratitude to all the faculty, staff, and students of the Department of Public Administration and Policy for being friendly, caring, supportive, and helpful over the past seven years. I would like to acknowledge the Royal Thai Government and the Department of Public Administration and Policy for providing financial support and resources during my studies. Last, but certainly not least, a million thanks to UGA for a precious and memorable experience! Go Dawgs!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
ACKNOV	VLEDGEMENTS	IV
LIST OF	TABLES	VII
LIST OF	FIGURES	IX
CHAPTE	R	
1	INTRODUCTION	1
	Background and Significance of the Study	1
	Operationalizations of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression	6
	Research Questions and Integrated Theoretical Model	9
	Sources of Data and Organization of the Study	10
2	THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS	16
	Conceptualization of Workplace Mistreatment	16
	Conceptualization of Workplace Sexual Harassment	19
	Conceptualization of Workplace Bullying	22
	Conceptualization of Social Undermining at Work	24
	Conceptualization of Workplace Ostracism	27
	Research on Mistreatment in Public Organizations from 1990 to 2017	32
3	EVIDENCE OF MISTREATMENT IN THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT	38
	Governmentwide Incidents of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggress	ion38
	Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression Incidents by Federal Agen	cv40

	Who are the Victims?	46
	Who are the Perpetrators?	53
	How did the Victims Respond?	69
	Conclusion	71
4	PREDICTING SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND WORKPLACE AGO	GRESSION72
	Background and Hypotheses	72
	Data and Methods	85
	Findings	96
	Discussion	107
	Conclusion	114
5	EXAMINING THE EFFECTS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND	
	WORKPLACE AGGRESSION	115
	Background and Hypotheses	115
	Data and Methods	124
	Findings	134
	Discussion	148
	Conclusion	152
6	CONCLUSION	154
	Summary of Findings	154
	Theoretical Contributions	160
	Managerial Implications	167
	Conclusion	176
REFERE	NCES	178

LIST OF TABLES

Pag	ge
e 1.1. Operational Definitions and Measures of Study Variables	.8
e 1.2. List of 24 Federal Agencies Surveyed (MPS 2016 – Path 1)	12
e 1.3. Summary of Demographic Data of Federal Employees from 24 Federal Agencies	
Surveyed (MPS 2016 – Path 1)	13
e 2.1. Terms related to Workplace Mistreatment and Measures	30
e 2.2. Research on Mistreatment in Public Organizations from 1990 to 2017	34
e 3.1. Number of Federal Employees Experiencing Sexual Harassment and Three Forms	
of Workplace Aggression	39
e 3.2. Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression Experiences Categorized by the	
Victims' Gender	17
e 3.3. Sexual Harassment Statistics by Gender of Victims and Perpetrators5	54
e 3.4. Bullying Statistics by Gender of Victims and Perpetrators5	56
e 3.5. Social Undermining Statistics by Gender of Victims and Perpetrators	58
e 3.6. Ostracism Statistics by Gender of Victims and Perpetrators	50
e 3.7. Status of Sexual Harassers and Workplace Aggressors6	54
e 3.8. Victims' Responses to Sexual Harassment and Each Form of	
Workplace Aggression	70
e 4.1. Variables and Measures) 1
e 4.2. Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables9) 6

Table 4.3.	Inter-Correlations of the Study Variables
Table 4.4.	Survey-Weighted Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Sexual Harassment100
Table 4.5.	Survey-Weighted Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Workplace Bullying102
Table 4.6.	Survey-Weighted Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Social Undermining 104
Table 4.7.	Survey-Weighted Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Workplace Ostracism 106
Table 5.1.	Variables and Measures
Table 5.2.	Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables
Table 5.3.	Bivariate Correlations and Reliabilities Among Studied Variables
Table 5.4.	Survey-Weighted OLS Regression Predicting Job Satisfaction from Workplace
	Sexual Harassment and Aggression Experiences
Table 5.5.	Survey-Weighted OLS Regression Predicting Work Commitment from Workplace
	Sexual Harassment and Aggression Experiences
Table 5.6.	Survey-Weighted OLS Regression Predicting Internal Collaboration from
	Workplace Sexual Harassment and Aggression Experiences
Table 5.7.	Survey-Weighted Logistic Regression Predicting the Decrease in Individual
	Productivity from Workplace Sexual Harassment and Aggression Experiences144
Table 5.8.	Survey-Weighted OLS Regression Predicting Organizational Performance from
	Workplace Sexual Harassment and Aggression Experiences
Table 5.9.	Survey-Weighted OLS Regression Predicting Work Withdrawal from Workplace
	Sexual Harassment and Aggression Experiences
Table 5.10.	. Survey-Weighted Logistic Regression Predicting the Intention to Quit the Job from
	Workplace Sexual Harassment and Aggression Experiences

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1.1.	The total number of employment discrimination charges (claiming multiple types
	of discrimination) filed with the EEOC from fiscal year 1997 to fiscal year 20173
Figure 1.2.	The total number of harassment allegation charges filed with the EEOC from fiscal
	year 2010 to fiscal year 20174
Figure 1.3.	The total amount of monetary benefits spent on harassment resolution (including
	sexual harassment) in U.S. workplaces from fiscal year 2010 to fiscal year 20174
Figure 1.4.	An integrated theoretical model of the study
Figure 3.1.	Percentage of federal employees experiencing sexual harassment and workplace
	aggression40
Figure 3.2.	Percentage of federal employees experiencing sexual harassment by agency42
Figure 3.3.	Percentage of federal employees experiencing workplace bullying by agency43
Figure 3.4.	Percentage of federal employees experiencing social undermining at work
	by agency44
Figure 3.5.	Percentage of federal employees experiencing workplace ostracism by agency45
Figure 3.6.	Gender of sexual harassment victims categorized by agency
Figure 3.7.	Gender of workplace bullying victims categorized by agency50
Figure 3.8.	Gender of social undermining victims categorized by agency51
Figure 3.9.	Gender of ostracism victims categorized by agency
Figure 3.10.	Gender of sexual harassment victims and perpetrators

Figure 3.11. Gender of bullying victims and perpetrators.	58
Figure 3.12. Gender of social undermining victims and perpetrators	60
Figure 3.13. Gender of ostracism victims and perpetrators	62
Figure 3.14. Status of sexual harassers.	65
Figure 3.15. Status of workplace aggressors: Bullying	66
Figure 3.16. Status of workplace aggressors: Social undermining	67
Figure 3.17. Status of workplace aggressors: Ostracism.	68
Figure 4.1. A theoretical model	73
Figure 5.1. A theoretical model	117

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background and Significance of the Study

Workplace mistreatment is common, can cause painful experiences and can produce negative outcomes for victims in terms of personal well-being, work attitudes and behaviors, and job performance (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hershcovis, 2011; Jex & Bayne, 2017). It is defined as negative efforts and behaviors of the perpetrators, who intend to harm other organizational members and the organization itself, and which the victims/targets feel motivated to avoid (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Hershcovis, 2011; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Neuman & Baron 1998; 2005). There is a wide range of negative behaviors which fall under the label of workplace mistreatment, such as workplace bullying and violence; sexual harassment; abusive supervision; racial and gender discrimination; victimization; mobbing; tyranny; social undermining; workplace ostracism; workplace deviance; counterproductive work behavior (CWB); interpersonal conflict; and incivility (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001; Hershcovis, 2011; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Jex & Bayne, 2017; Robinson & Schabram, 2017; Spector & Fox, 2005; Spector, Fox, & Domagalski, 200). To date, the topic of workplace mistreatment has been of great interest to scholars and organizations, and much research has been devoted to studying the prevalence of various forms of mistreatment in organizations as well as investigating the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of mistreatment behaviors.

In the United States (U.S.), workplace mistreatment in the form of employment discrimination and harassment is prohibited by federal laws, including Title VII of the Civil Rights Act (TVII) of 1964, the Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) of 1967, the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990, the Equal Pay Act (EPA) of 1963, and the Genetic Information Nondiscrimination Act (GINA) of 2008 (Hartman, Homer, & Reff, 2010). The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), in charge of enforcing such federal laws, which are applicable to public and private employers with at least 15 employees, defines unlawful employment discrimination as including but not limited to: (a) harassment behaviors by referring to unwelcome conduct based on 8 issues—race, color, religion, sex (including pregnancy), national origin, age (40 or older), disability or genetic information; (b) offensive conduct that may include, but is not limited to, offensive jokes, slurs, epithets or name calling, physical assaults or threats, intimidation, ridicule or mockery, insults or put-downs, offensive objects or pictures, and interference with work performance; and (c) uncivil behaviors involving petty slights, annoyances, and isolated incidents, which create an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment to reasonable people, are also considered to be unlawful under the federal laws.¹

Despite the fact that the EEOC has strongly encouraged employers to employ preventive policies and actions to prohibit unlawful employment discrimination and harassment in the workplace as well as establish an effective complaint and grievance process, employment discrimination is still prevalent in workplaces. Specifically, the total number of discrimination charges (involving multiple types of EEOC's discrimination) filed by employees in fiscal year (FY) 2017 was 84,254 charges, compared with 80,680 charges in fiscal year 1997, an increase of 4 percent over two decades (Figure 1.1). By focusing on harassment allegations, including charges

_

¹ https://www.eeoc.gov/laws/types/harassment.cfm

filed under all statues (i.e., TVII, ADEA, ADA, EPA, and GINA) as well as sexual harassment, Figure 1.2 exhibits the overall harassment charges filed by employees between fiscal year 2011 and fiscal year 2017. The harassment charge, as shown in Figure 1.2, reached a peak in fiscal year 2016 (28,216 charges) and jumped by 3 percent from fiscal year 2010 to fiscal year 2016 before declining slightly in fiscal year 2017. Also, the cost of using monetary benefits to resolve these issues has exploded to over 100 million U.S. dollars from fiscal year 2010 to fiscal year 2017 (Figure 1.3).

100,000 80,000 40,000 20,000

Total Charges of Employment Discrimination

Figure 1.1. The total number of employment discrimination charges (claiming multiple types of discrimination) filed with the EEOC from fiscal year 1997 to fiscal year 2017.

Source: https://www.eeoc.gov/eeoc/statistics/enforcement/charges.cfm

\$\$\\ \frac{\xi}{2}\\ \frac{\xi

er reg reg reg reg reg reg reg

Harassment Charges Filed with EEOC from Fiscal Year (FY) 1997 to Fiscal Year 2017

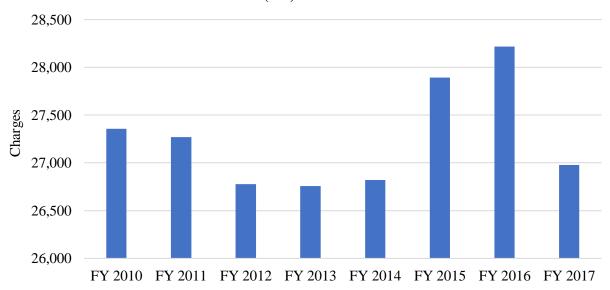


Figure 1.2. The total number of harassment allegation charges filed with the EEOC from fiscal year 2010 to fiscal year 2017.

Source: https://www.eeoc.gov/eeoc/statistics/enforcement/all_harassment.cfm

Total Amount of Monetary Benefits Spent on Harassment Resolution (Including Sexual Harassment) in U.S. Workplaces From Fiscal Year (FY) 1997 to Fiscal Year 2017 (in Million U.S. Dollars)

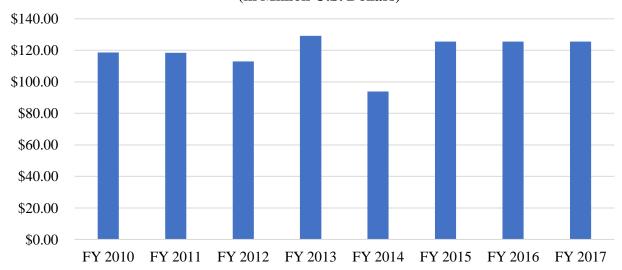


Figure 1.3. The total amount of monetary benefits spent on harassment resolution (including sexual harassment) in U.S. workplaces from fiscal year 2010 to fiscal year 2017. Source: https://www.eeoc.gov/eeoc/statistics/enforcement/all_harassment.cfm

With regard to the U.S. federal government, although much effort has been made to eliminate all forms of mistreatment in the federal workplace, especially sexual harassment and bullying, these mistreatment behaviors still occur, and sexual harassment and bullying rates over time have increased.² Although researchers have investigated incidents of sexual harassment and bullying in the federal workplace, most studies (e.g., Antecol & Cobb-clark, 2003, 2004; Jackson & Newman, 2004; Newman, Jackson, & Baker, 2003; Tangri, Burt, & Johnson, 1982) have relied on federal survey datasets prior to 2016 and thus may not reflect current trends in sexual harassment and bullying in the federal government. Accordingly, I use the latest data from the 2016 Merit Principles Survey (MPS 2016) to examine the incidents of sexual harassment and bullying in the federal workplace. In addition, I seek a better understanding of the factors associated with the occurrences of sexual harassment and bullying as well as the effects of these two mistreatment behaviors on federal employees' work attitudes, behaviors, and performance.

Moreover, the advancement of research on workplace mistreatment has extended the scope of the study to capture a wide range of negative behaviors which are less obvious but produce more psychologically detrimental harm, such as social undermining³ and ostracism.⁴ These covertly aggressive behaviors are not covered by Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, but they are potentially found in every organization and can produce similar or even greater harm than more overtly aggressive behaviors (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Frazier &

-

² See

https://www.mspb.gov/mspbsearch/viewdocs.aspx?docnumber = 759001 & version = 761840 & application = ACROBAT and

https://www.mspb.gov/MSPBSEARCH/viewdocs.aspx?docnumber = 1500639 & version = 1506232 & application = ACROBAT

³ Social undermining refers to "behavior intended to hinder, over time, a worker's ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation" (Duffy, Ganster, Shaw, Johnson, & Pagon, 2006, p. 105).

⁴ Workplace ostracism is defined as ignoring, overlooking, socially excluding, or giving the "silent treatment" to coworkers at work (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008).

Bowler, 2015; O'Reilly, Robinson, Banki, & Berdahl, 2015). However, the roles social undermining and ostracism play in federal workplaces remain poorly understood. Moreover, basic questions about whether and how social undermining and ostracism affect federal employees' work attitudes, behaviors, and productivity remain unanswered. Therefore, using data from the MPS 2016, I investigate whether social undermining and ostracism currently exist in the federal workplace. Then, assuming social undermining and ostracism exist, I examine the antecedents of these two covert mistreatment behaviors as well as test whether social undermining and ostracism affect federal employees' work attitudes, behaviors, and performance.

A primary contribution of this study is its examination of sexual harassment and all three forms of workplace aggression (bullying, undermining, and ostracism) together. In the academic literature, no single research study has examined all of these mistreatment behaviors simultaneously. Moreover, the findings of this study not only can increase our understanding of both overt and covert forms of mistreatment and the roles these mistreatment behaviors play in federal workplaces today but also will provide information for policy makers and practitioners to formulate effective policies and programs to thwart and cope with mistreatment in the federal government.

Operationalizations of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression

First, I focus on the experiences of *sexual harassment* and *workplace aggression* that were reported in the MPS2016 by victims in federal workplaces. In this study, sexual harassment experience is a dummy variable and coded as 1 if federal employees reported experiencing any of the following 12 sexual harassment behaviors over the 2 years preceding the survey: (1) unwelcome communications of a sexual nature, (2) unwelcome invasion of personal space, (3)

unwelcome sexually suggestive looks or gestures, (4) pressure for sexual favors, (5) pressure for dates, (6) unwelcome sexual teasing, jokes, comments or questions, (7) the presence of sexually oriented material, (8) sexually oriented conversations in front of others, (9) offer of preferential treatment in exchange for sexual favors, (10) the use of derogatory or unprofessional terms related to a person's sex/gender, (11) stalking, and (12) attempted or actual rape or sexual assault; it is coded as 0 if federal employees reported never experiencing these sexual harassment behaviors.

Furthermore, workplace aggression in this study consists of three forms of aggressive behaviors: (1) workplace bullying, (2) social undermining at work, and (3) workplace ostracism. The first aggressive behavior is defined as an overt form of mistreatment behavior, and the last two aggressive behaviors are defined as covert forms of mistreatment behavior. Workplace bullying is a dummy variable and coded as 1 if federal employees reported experiencing physical intimidation, verbal intimidation, or both at work over the 2 years preceding the survey, and 0 otherwise. Next, a social undermining experience dummy variable is introduced and coded as 1 if federal employees reported experiencing any of 4 social undermining behaviors over the 2 years preceding the survey: (a) the spread of rumors or negative comments, (b) persistently undeserved criticism, (c) unreasonable work or deadlines, and (d) sabotaging or undermining performance. Finally, ostracism experience is measured using one item (i.e., "In the past two years, have you experienced exclusion from work-related or social activities in the workplace?). Responses were coded 1 (Yes) and 0 (No).

Table 1.1 shows operational definitions and measures of study variables.

Table 1.1. Operational Definitions and Measures of Study Variables

Variable	Operational definition	Item	Measure
Sexual harassment experience	"Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when this conduct explicitly or implicitly affects an individual's employment, unreasonably interferes with an individual's work performance, or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment." (https://www.eeoc.gov/eeoc/publications/fssex.cfm)	In the past two years, have you experienced any of the following 12 sexual harassment behaviors in the workplace? Unwelcome communications of a sexual nature Unwelcome invasion of personal space Unwelcome sexually suggestive looks or gestures Stalking Attempted or actual rape or sexual assault Pressure for sexual favors Pressure for dates Offers of preferential treatment in exchange for sexual favors Unwelcome sexual teasing, jokes, comments or questions The presence of sexually oriented material Sexually oriented conversations in front of others Use of derogatory or unprofessional terms related to a person's sex/gender	1 = Experienced once or more than once, 0 = Never
Workplace bullying experience	"Long-term repeated negative acts by the perpetrator on co-workers, supervisors, or subordinates. Those negative acts can be constant physical or verbal abuse, offensive remarks or teasing and ridicule." (Einarsen, 2000)	■ In the past two years, have you experienced either <i>physical intimidation</i> (<i>e.g.</i> , intentionally making someone uncomfortable by getting in their way or being too close without touching them) or <i>verbal intimidation</i> (<i>e.g.</i> , shouting, swearing, disrespectful name-calling) in the workplace?	1 = Experienced once or more than once, 0 = Never
Social undermining experience	"Behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation" (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002, p. 323).	In the past two years, have you experienced any of the following acts of social undermining that were directed at you in the workplace? Spreading rumors or negative comments about you to undermine your status Undeserved criticisms Unreasonable assignments or deadlines Undermining/sabotaging performance	1 = Experienced once or more than once, 0 = Never
Workplace ostracism experience	"The extent to which an individual perceives that he or she is ignored or excluded by others in the workplace" (Ferris et al., p. 1348)	In the past two years, have you experienced exclusion from work-related or social activities in the workplace?	1 = Experienced once or more than once, 0 = Never

Research Questions and Integrated Theoretical Model

Moving to the heart of the study, I address the research gaps described above by asking six interrelated research questions. *First*, to what extent do sexual harassment and workplace aggression including bullying, social undermining, and ostracism currently exist in the federal workplace? *Second*, who are the victims of sexual harassment and workplace aggression? *Third*, what are the characteristics of those who were reported as the sources of such mistreatment, especially in terms of their gender and supervisory status? *Fourth*, what were the actions federal employees took after experiencing workplace sexual harassment and aggression? *Fifth*, what are factors associated with the occurrences of sexual harassment and each form of workplace aggression in the federal workplace? *Finally*, do sexual harassment and workplace aggression affect federal employees' work attitudes (work satisfaction and work commitment), behaviors (internal collaboration, work withdrawal, and turnover intention), and productivity (individual-level productivity and organizational performance)?

Figure 1.4 presents a theoretical model of variables included in this study.

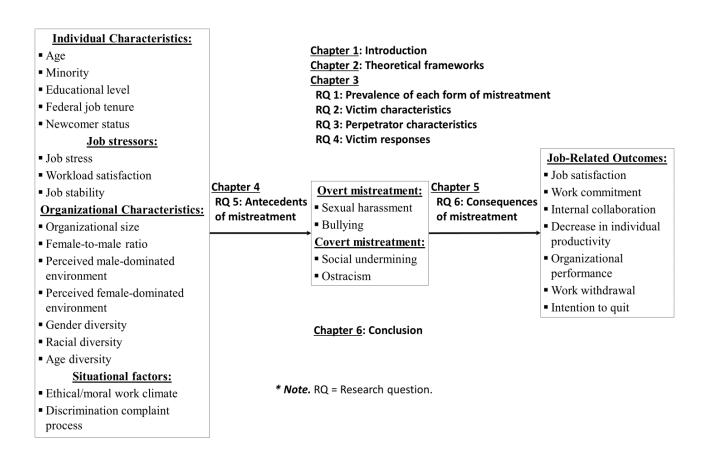


Figure 1.4. An integrated theoretical model of the study.

Sources of Data and Organization of the Study

Data Sources

The data used in this study was drawn from two sources: (1) the 2016 Merit Principles Survey (MPS 2016) Path 1 and (2) the FedScope Employment Cube – September 2016. The MPS2016 was administered by the U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board (MSPB) to gather data from U.S. federal permanent/full-time employees regarding the application of merit system principles and the broad issues associated with civil service administration in federal agencies. A stratified random sample method was utilized to select participants stratified by 24 federal agencies (except the Department of Health and Human Services) and employee status (nonsupervisory,

supervisor, and executive). The MPS 2016 was launched in July 2016 and ended in September 2016. The results of the number of invited employees compared with the number of the final responses and the percent of the response rate during each path of the MPS2016 are as follows: Path 1 (37,452/14,515 or 38.8%), Path 2 (37,397/14,473 or 38.7%), and Path 3 (32,654/13,058 or 40.0%) (U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 2016).

FedScope is a governmental database administered by the U.S. Office of Personnel Management (OPM) to provide publicly accessible statistics about federal employees and the federal workforce in five categories ("cubes"): employment, accession, separation, employment trends, and diversity (https://www.fedscope.opm.gov/). This study used data from the FedScope Employment Cube (September 2016), including (a) the number of employees working in the 24 federal agencies surveyed and (b) data for calculating the Blau's indices of gender, ethnic, and age diversity.

Table 1.2 presents a list of the 24 federal agencies that were surveyed by the MSPB, and Table 1.3 summarizes the demographic data of federal employee samples from the 24 agencies surveyed.

Table 1.2. List of 24 Federal Agencies Surveyed (MPS 2016 – Path 1)

	Number of	Percent
Federal Agency Surveyed	Employees Surveyed	(%)
Air Force (AF)	323	2.23
Agriculture (AG)	714	4.92
Army (AR)	667	4.60
Commerce (CM)	663	4.57
Defense (DD)	941	6.48
Justice (DJ)	1,170	8.06
Labor (DL)	704	4.85
Energy (DN)	411	2.83
Education (ED)	100	0.69
Environmental Protection Agency (EP)	408	2.81
Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FD)	427	2.94
General Services Administration (GS)	423	2.91
Homeland Security (HS)	1,615	11.13
Housing and Urban Development (HU)	322	2.22
Interior (IN)	778	5.36
National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NN)	410	2.82
Navy (NV)	404	2.78
Office of Personnel Management (OM)	285	1.96
Securities and Exchange Commission (SE)	354	2.44
State (ST)	397	2.74
Social Security Administration (SZ)	610	4.20
Transportation (TD)	520	3.58
Treasury (TR)	769	5.30
Veterans Affairs (VA)	1,100	7.58
Total 2016 M.G.M. in G	14,515	100.00

Source: Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

Table 1.3. Summary of Demographic Data of Federal Employees from 24 Federal Agencies Surveyed (MPS 2016 – Path 1)

Demographic Data	Number of Employees Surveyed	Percent (%)
Gender	Employees Surveyed	(70)
Male	7,060	58.31
Female	5,048	41.69
Total		100.00
	12,108	100.00
Age	1 602	12 00
39 years and under	1,683	13.88
40 years and over	10,442	86.12
Total	12,125	100.00
Ethnicity	0.074	67.2 0
Non-minority (White)	8,074	67.38
Minority (American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black or	3,908	32.62
African American, or Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander)		
Total	11,982	100.00
Supervisory status		
Non-supervisor	5,458	44.51
Team leader	1,455	11.87
Supervisor	3,025	24.67
Manager	1,561	12.73
Executive	763	6.22
Total	12,262	100.00
Salary range/year		
\$74,999 or less	2,605	21.41
\$75,000-\$99,999	2,800	23.01
\$100,000-\$149,999	4,478	36.80
\$150,000 or more	2,284	18.77
Total	12,167	100.00
Years as a Federal civil service employee (Tenure)	,	
Less than 3 years	521	4.24
More than 4 years	11,772	95.76
Total	12,293	100.00
Years with a current agency (Newcomer status)	12,250	100.00
3 years or less	1,110	9.04
4 years or more	11,164	90.96
Total	12,274	100.00
Education level	12,274	100.00
Less than an AA degree	2,209	18.13
AA or BA degree	5,168	42.41
	4,808	39.46
Graduate degree		39.46 100.00
Total Dues paving union membership	12,185	100.00
Dues-paying union membership	0.700	04.62
Non-member Manufacture	9,788	84.63
Member T-4-1	1,778	15.37
Total	11,566	100.00
Work location	- 0.50	
Field	7,828	64.15
Headquarters	4,374	35.85
Total	12,202	100.00

Source: Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

The Organization of the Study

This dissertation is organized as follows: Chapter 1 introduces the problems of sexual harassment and workplace aggression in organization studies and knowledge gaps pertaining to sexual harassment and aggression in federal workplaces. Furthermore, the research questions, theoretical model, and data sources for the study are presented in this chapter.

Chapter 2 reviews the existing literature on workplace mistreatment. I begin this chapter by elaborating on a definition and the construction of mistreatment in the workplace. Moving to the heart of the chapter, I define and explicate the core features of the study's mistreatment behaviors: sexual harassment, workplace bullying, social undermining, and workplace ostracism. Finally, I summarize empirical research on mistreatment in public organizations which were published in peer-reviewed journals from 1990 to 2017.

Chapter 3 reports the results of Research Questions 1 to 4, which examined the governmentwide incidents of sexual harassment, bullying, undermining, and ostracism as well as the prevalence of these four forms of mistreatment in each federal agency investigated (Research Question 1), the individual characteristics of victims (Research Question 2), the characteristics of sexual harassers and workplace aggressors (Research Question 3), and the victims' responses to sexual harassment and each form of workplace aggression in federal workplaces (Research Question 4).

Chapter 4 reports the results of Research Question 5, which examined whether individual characteristics (gender, age, ethnicity, educational level, federal job tenure, and newcomer status), job stressors (levels of job stress, workload, and job stability), organizational characteristics (organizational size, female-to-male ratio, male- and female-dominated environments, and gender, racial, and age diversity), and situational factors (ethical/moral work climate and the effectiveness

of the discrimination complaint process) are associated with the occurrences of sexual harassment and workplace aggression in federal workplaces.

Chapter 5 reports the results of Research Question 6, which assessed the effects of sexual harassment and each form of workplace aggression on victims' work attitudes (job satisfaction and work commitment), behaviors (internal collaboration, work withdrawal, and intentions to leave their agency), and performance (individual productivity and organizational performance).

Chapter 6 concludes the dissertation with findings for answering Research Questions 1 to 6, theoretical contributions of the study, and implications for policy and practice.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

In this chapter, I address the literature on mistreatment in organizations. I start this chapter by addressing the importance of workplace mistreatment, which is a serious problem and a common experience in the workplace. Then, the definitions and core features of each form of mistreatment investigated in this study—sexual harassment, bullying, social undermining, and ostracism—will be discussed in this chapter. Finally, I conclude the chapter with a review of empirical research studies on these four forms of mistreatment in public organizations from 1990 to 2017.

Conceptualization of Workplace Mistreatment

Definition of Workplace Mistreatment

Although research on workplace mistreatment has grown exponentially over the last several decades, scholars are still far from reaching a consensus on the definition of workplace mistreatment because there are a myriad of negative behaviors within organizations, and they have their own definitions and measures which sometimes overlap one another (Hershcovis, 2011). Furthermore, prior research has used several terms to refer to mistreatment in the workplace, including workplace mistreatment, workplace aggression, workplace violence, workplace abuse, workplace deviance, workplace incivility, interpersonal mistreatment, interpersonal aggression, interpersonal conflict, aggressive behavior, victimization, harassment, bullying, mobbing, counterproductive work behavior, and discrimination (Hershcovis & Bowling, 2017; Schat, Frone,

& Kelloway, 2006). This may cause more confusion among scholars about how to distinguish these terms and how to properly utilize them for research purposes (Hershcovis, 2011).

However, there has been an attempt by scholars to operationalize the broad construct of these related terms. For example, Berkowitz (1962) suggested the term interpersonal aggression and defined it as any behavior intended to harm another person. This definition consists of three features: (a) the perpetrator who intends to harm the target(s), (b) the target, which can be an individual or organization, and (c) the perpetrator's intention to harm, which includes intended harms that are successful and unsuccessful, except accidental harms and harms resulting from anger (Berkowitz, 1962). Later, Neuman and Baron (1998, p. 395) suggested using the term workplace aggression as a general term for all forms of employee behaviors and defined it as "efforts by individuals to harms others with whom they work, or have worked, or the organizations in which they are presently, or were previously, employed." They also suggested using the term workplace violence for serious instances of interpersonal physical attacks only (Neuman & Baron, 1998, p. 395). Finally, Schat and Kelloway (2005, p. 191) added some new features to the term workplace aggression and defined it as "behavior by an individual or individuals within or outside an organization that is intended to physically or psychologically harm a worker or workers and occurs in a work-related context." According to Schat and Kelloway, workplace aggression is not limited to individuals' behaviors that are intended to harm the target physically. It also includes behaviors that are intended to cause psychological or emotional harm to another person. Moreover, the perpetrators, according to Schat and Kelloway, not only involve employees working within the organization (e.g., coworkers and supervisor) but also include organizational outsiders, such as clients, customers, and family members.

Dimensions of Workplace Mistreatment

Besides conceptualizing and operationalizing the broad definition of mistreatment in the workplace, scholars have attempted to categorize mistreatment behaviors in several ways. First, Buss (1961) divided aggressive acts into five dichotomies: personal-social, active-passive, directindirect, physical-verbal, and overt-covert. Specifically, personal-social dichotomy refers to the intended harm done by an individual versus the intended harm by the group; active-passive dichotomy means taking initiative to harm (active) versus the intended harm by inaction (passive); direct-indirect dichotomy means a face-to-face aggression (direct) versus intended harm done in the victim's absence (indirect); physical-verbal dichotomy refers to physically aggressive actions versus verbally aggressive actions; and overt-covert dichotomy refers to confrontive acts (e.g., physical and verbal assault, threats, and insults) versus concealed acts (e.g., social outcast and ostracism). Second, Mantell and Albrecht (1994) suggested using a workplace violence spectrum that reflects the degree to which the perpetrator is likely to engage in covert (e.g., undermining or ostracizing), overt (e.g., intimidation), or dangerous behaviors (e.g., attack and assault). Third, Crick and Grotpeter (1995) categorized aggression into two groups: overt aggression, or harming targets through physical actions, and relational aggression, or harming targets through purposeful manipulation or damaging the relationship (e.g., retaliation). Fourth, Baron and Neuman (1998) distinguished workplace aggression into three categories: (1)workplace violence: aggressive behaviors that are overt and extreme in nature (e.g., attacking, shoving, hitting, and rape), (2) obstructionism: actions to impede an individual's ability to perform his or her job (e.g., delays on important works and failing to reply emails or phone calls), and (3) expressions of hostility: verbal or symbolic expressions (e.g., yelling, belittling someone, ignorance, making negative gestures, and spreading rumors). Finally, Lapierre, Spector, and Leck

(2005) divided workplace aggression into two categories: (1) sexual aggression (e.g., workplace sexual harassment) and (2) nonsexual workplace aggression (e.g., acting intimidation, whether sexual or not).

Overall, the present study divides workplace mistreatment into two categories: (1) overtly aggressive behaviors, including sexual harassment and bullying and (2) covertly aggressive behaviors, including undermining behavior and ostracizing behavior.

Conceptualization of Workplace Sexual Harassment

Definition of Sexual Harassment

It is necessary for scholars to understand federal laws and court cases related to workplace sexual harassment because those federal laws can shape federal agencies' policies and guidelines regarding sexual harassment in the federal workplace and court cases can frame the legal context of sexual harassment for federal agencies. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Title VII) is a federal law that outlaws employment discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin in the workplace. At first, Title VII was only applied to employees working in a commercial industry. Then, federal, state, and local government employees were also covered after the passage of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 (Hartman, Homer, & Reff, 2010). Finally, employees of the U.S. House of Representatives and the Senate, including elected officials and personal staff, are protected under the Government Employee Rights Act of 1991 (Hartman et al., 2010). To enforce these laws, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) is responsible for initiating anti-discrimination guidelines as well as processing charges of discrimination filed by federal employees (Hartman et al. 2010; Hoyman & McCall, 2010).

-

¹ https://www.eeoc.gov/laws/statutes/titlevii.cfm

Sexual harassment is a form of sex discrimination that violates Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The EEOC states that "unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when this conduct explicitly or implicitly affects an individual's employment, unreasonably interferes with an individual's work performance, or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment." The EEOC is also responsible for enforcing policies and guidelines related to the prohibition of sexual harassment in government agencies (Hoyman & McCall, 2010).

Additionally, U.S. Supreme Court rulings also play a critical role in framing implications of laws and procedures related to sexual harassment in the workplace. Some prominent Supreme Court cases that have shaped the legal context of sexual harassment in the federal workplace include King v. Palmer (1985), Meritor Savings Bank v. Vinson (1986), Burlington Industries v. Ellerth (1998), and Faragher v. Boca Raton (1998). In King v. Palmer (1985), the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that an employee whose boss has asked for a sexual favor in return for a promotion has been subject to sexual harassment. Meritor Savings Banks v. Vinson (1986) ruled it unlawful if an employer makes sexual demands in exchange for employment benefits (quid pro quo harassment) or if an employer creates a hostile environment that is too severe for an employee to perform his or her duties (a hostile work environment). In the cases of Burlington Industries v. Ellerth (1998) and Faragher v. Boca Raton (1998), the U.S. Supreme Court expanded the scope of workplace sexual harassment to include harassment that does not relate to employment consequences (e.g., suffering from offensive remarks or gestures), and organizations are liable for harassment performed by their supervising employees.

² https://www.eeoc.gov/eeoc/publications/fs-sex.cfm

Components of Sexual Harassment Experience

Fitzgerald, Gelfand, and Drasgow (1995) developed the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ) to measure sexual harassment experiences in the workplace. The SEQ, which has been widely used by scholars, divided sexual harassment into three groups: (a) *gender harassment* which refers to insulting, degrading, or contemptuous attitudes about women; (b) *unwanted sexual attention* which involves unwanted sexual advances, touching, comments, and sexual or romantic relationships; and (c) *sexual coercion* which refers to unwanted sexual demands related to employment consequences, such as offering a promotion in exchange for sexual favors (Fitzgerald et al., 1995).

Causes and Consequences of Sexual Harassment

There are three main factors that can trigger the occurrence of sexual harassment in the workplace (Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). First, scholars have used the numerical gender ratios in an organization to explain why organizations with a high number of men compared to women face a higher risk of sexual harassment (e.g., Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997; Mansfield et al., 1991; Willness et al., 2007). Furthermore, job-gender context theory suggests that the gendered nature of the job, especially traditionally masculine occupations such as those in the military, are associated with the prevalence of sexual harassment since women tend to represent the numerical minority in those occupations (Gruber, 2003; Wasti, Bergman, Glomb, & Drasgow, 2000). Finally, scholars (e.g., Fitzgerald et al., 1995) have suggested that a hostile work environment and poor management in the organization can play a pivotal role in triggering sexually harassing behaviors in the workplace.

Sexual harassment can produce several negative effects on victims' job-related outcomes and personal well-being. For example, sexual harassment can decrease victims' job satisfaction (e.g., Keashly, Trott, & MacLean, 1994; Lapierre et al., 2005), organizational commitment (e.g., Hogler, Frame, & Thronton, 2002), and job performance (e.g., Lengnick-Hall, 1995). Furthermore, sexual harassment is associated with an increased risk of work withdrawal behaviors (e.g., absenteeism, lateness) and turnover intentions (e.g., Lundberg-Love & Marmion, 2003). Regarding victims' well-being, sexual harassment can produce physical and psychological pain, including life satisfaction (e.g., Fitzgerald et al., 1997), anxiety, depression, and traumatic stress (e.g., Avina & O'Donohue, 2002), and physical symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (e.g., Dansky & Kilpatrick, 1997).

Conceptualization of Workplace Bullying

Definition of Workplace Bullying

Einarsen (2000) defined workplace bullying as long-term repeated negative acts by the perpetrator toward co-workers, supervisors, or subordinates. Those negative acts can be constant physical or verbal abuse, offensive remarks or teasing and ridicule. Workplace bullying occurs when there is an imbalance of power between the perpetrator and the target based on position, age, job tenure, or gender (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001).

Dimensions of Workplace Bullying

Workplace bullying includes a wide range of negative behaviors. For example, Zapf, Knorz, and Kulla (1996) suggested that bullying behaviors consist of several mistreatment behaviors, including social isolation, attacking the target's private life, physical violence, verbal

aggression, and spreading rumors. Later, Keashly and Jagatic (2003) reviewed incidents of bullying in the workplace using Zapf et al.'s framework and found that while personal attacks are most often found at work, verbal attack and social isolation are less common, and physical violence is rarely found. In addition, Rayner and Hoel (1997) suggested the use of five forms of workplace bullying: threat to professional status, threat to personal standing, isolation, overwork, and unstableness. Moreover, Dick and Rayner (2004) introduced a new dimension of workplace bullying involving four negative behaviors: task attack, personal attack, isolation, and physical attack. Finally, workplace bullying can be divided into two groups: (a) direct and overt behaviors, such as physical aggression, hitting, shoving, verbal threats, and mocking and (b) social or relational aggression, which refers to an attempt to harm another by damaging his/her reputation or relationships (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995; Lagerspetz, Bjorkqvist, & Peltonen, 1988).

Causes and Consequences of Workplace Bullying

There are several factors involved in the occurrence of bullying in workplaces. First, the individual traits of a perpetrator, such as personality, motivation, and demographics (e.g., social class, race, and sexual orientation), can lead a person to bully or join a group of bullying people to single out another person for unreasonable, embarrassing, or intimidating treatment (Einarsen, 1999). The next potential factor is a hostile environment within an organization that leads to high tension among employees (Crawford, 1999). Also, mismanagement in the organization (e.g., lack of control) can cause a bully to understand that he or she will not be reported or punished after bullying the target (Rayner, 1999). Finally, bullying at work may result from the ignorance or the lack of comprehension of bullies who do not understand the effects of their actions due to low

social skills or even education (e.g., Drejer, 2000; Rayner & Cooper, 2006; Richards & Daley, 2003).

Regarding its effects, workplace bullying can have a negative effect on both the victim and the organization. First, Rayner, Hoel, and Cooper (2002) studied victims of bullying in the U.K. and found that those experiencing workplace bullying struggled with mental health issues. Second, Leymann and Gustafsson (1996) reported that bullying experiences can result in posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Additionally, experiencing workplace bullying can decrease work motivation and job satisfaction (e.g., Quine, 1999), and influence psychological contract violation (Rousseau, 1995). Finally, some studies revealed that workplace bullying is positively related to work withdrawal and a decrease in work performance (e.g., Pfeffer, 1998).

Conceptualization of Social Undermining at Work

Definition of Social Undermining

In recent years, growing research attention has been given to covert and insidious forms of workplace mistreatment, such as social undermining and ostracism, which can produce serious costs to the organization (Duffy, Scott, Shaw, Tepper, & Aquino, 2012; Ferris, Lian, Brown, & Morrison, 2015). Social undermining at work refers to "behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation" (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002, p. 323). Social undermining behaviors comprise three key characteristics: (a) the undermining behaviors are intentional and not easily perceived by the target, (b) the undermining behaviors are insidious, and they gradually harm the target, and (c) the undermining behaviors may harm the target physically or verbally (Duffy et al., 2002). A measure of social undermining in the workplace was developed and validated by Duffy

et al. (2002) with items asking if a coworker had taken actions such as "Spread[ing] rumors about you?" "[Criticizing] the way you handled things on the job in a way that was not helpful?" "[Delaying] work to make you look bad or slow you down?" and "[Undermining] your effort to be successful on the job?"

Dimensions of Social Undermining

Undermining behaviors can be categorized in different ways. First, undermining behaviors include (a) directional actions, which refer to direct and visible actions (e.g., criticizing a coworker) and (b) withholding actions, such as withholding important information (Jex & Bayne, 2017). In addition, social undermining behaviors can be classified as verbal undermining (e.g., spreading rumors or negative comments) and physical undermining, which refers to taking an action to decrease attainment of the victim's work goals (e.g., assigning unreasonable work or deadlines).

Causes and Consequences of Social Undermining

Theories that can be used to explain the occurrence of social undermining in the workplace include social exchange relationship theory and social comparison theory. Social exchange relationship theory describes interpersonal/social connections between employers and employees and between co-workers which generate beneficial consequences (Cropanzano, Bryne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001). The strong relationships between these actors are based on fair transactions, and these transactions can lead to positive work attitudes and behaviors (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). However, if the interpersonal exchanges are problematic, such as the perceived injustice of the social exchanges, these exchanges can cause members of social networks to (1) display

negative affects (e.g., stress, anger, dislike), (2) start a negative evaluation of the target in terms of his or her attributes, actions, and efforts, and/or (3) take actions that hinder the attainment of instrumental goals (Duffy et al., 2002, p. 332; Duffy, Ganster, Shaw, Johnson, & Pagon, 2006; Vinokur, Price, & Caplan, 1996, p. 167).

Social comparison theory, another theory that has been used to explain the occurrence of social undermining at work, states that individuals are motivated to evaluate their own opinions and abilities by comparing themselves to others to obtain a more accurate assessment of themselves and reduce uncertainty in self-evaluation (Festinger, 1954). Individuals can compare themselves in three ways: (a) upward social comparison, or comparing themselves with others who are better off than they are, (b) downward social comparison, or comparing themselves with those who are worse off than they are, and (c) lateral social comparison, or comparing themselves with those who are considered to be equal in status (Festinger, 1954). Social comparison literature has suggested that upward social comparison can increase a sense of inferiority and produce negative effects on self-evaluation (Festinger, 1954). Quade, Greenbaum, and Mawritz (2018) used this theory to test their theoretical model of employees' ethical and performance comparisons and found that when individuals perceive that they were inferior to others based on some factors of interest, negative emotions and reactions occurred and, ultimately, led them to commit negative acts, such as undermining or ostracizing behaviors. Finally, some studies have suggested that employee envy and jealousy (e.g., Reh, Troster, & Van Quaquebeke, 2018) and conflict between team members (e.g., Yu & Zellmer-Bruhn, 2018) can lead to the occurrence of undermining behaviors in the workplace.

Experiencing social undermining at work can have a serious effect on the victim and the organization. For example, experiencing undermining can decrease victims' organizational

commitment (Duffy et al., 2012), victims' job satisfaction (Duffy et al., 2006), and coworker trust (Duffy et al., 2006). Moreover, being undermined by supervisors and coworkers can increase counterproductive work behaviors (Duffy et al., 2012) and the risk of depression among victims (Duffy et al., 2006).

Conceptualization of Workplace Ostracism

Definition of Workplace Ostracism

Being invisible at work is quite common in workplaces. A study of 1,300 U.S. workers by O'Reilly, Robinson, Banki, and Berdahl (2015, p. 780) revealed that "71% of the employee samples experienced ostracism at work to some degree in the past six months." Workplace ostracism is defined as "the extent to which an individual perceives that he or she is ignored or excluded by others in the workplace" (Ferris et al., p. 1348). Ostracism is a form of workplace aggression which is less obvious and tends to produce more psychological harm than other overtly aggressive behaviors (O'Reilly & Robinson, 2009; O'Reilly et al., 2015; van Beest & Williams, 2006; Williams & Zadro, 2001).

Dimensions of Workplace Ostracism

Ferris et al. (2008) developed and validated the workplace ostracism scale (WOS) to capture significant ostracizing behaviors in the workplace. This self-evaluation scale consists of the following 13 items: (1) Others ignored you at work; (2) Others left the area when you entered; (3) Your greetings have gone unanswered at work; (4) You involuntarily sat alone in a crowded lunchroom at work; (5) Others avoided you at work; (6) You noticed others would not look at you at work; (7) Others at work shut you out of the conversation; (8) Others refused to talk to you at

work; (9) Others at work treated you as if you weren't there; (10) Others at work did not invite you or ask you if you wanted anything when they went out for a coffee break; (11) You have been included in conversations at work (reverse coded); (12) Others at work stopped talking to you; and (13) You had to be the one to start a conversation in order to be social at work (Ferris et al., 2008). Later, Robinson and Schabram (2017) suggested that these ostracizing behaviors can be classified into two categories: passive ostracism and active ostracism. Passive ostracism occurs when an ostracizer fails to do something that results in absence of social engagement for the victim (e.g., "You had to be the one to start a conversation in order to be social at work"). In contrast, active ostracism occurs when an ostracizer does something to create ostracism at work (e.g., "Others left the area when you entered") (Robinson & Schabram, 2017).

Causes and Consequences of Workplace Ostracism

People have used ostracism as a tool to represent anger or disapproval to others (e.g., giving the silent treatment, avoiding eye contact) or punish their group members (e.g., threatening one's sense of belonging) (O'Reilly et al., 2015; Williams, 1997). Moreover, ostracism is used by the actor to alert the target that there is something wrong and prompt the target to remedy the situation (Williams & Zadro, 2005) or adapt his or her behaviors (Williams, 2001). In addition, the actor or the group may use ostracism to avoid interpersonal conflicts, awkward situations, or tensions (Pickett & Brewer, 2005; Wirth & Williams, 2009). Lastly, an ostracizing behavior may occur unintentionally, such as forgetting to include some coworkers in an email list (Robinson & Schabram, 2017).

Workplace ostracism has a negative impact on employees, and its severity may range from mild to severe. For example, being ostracized at work can produce acutely psychological pain

(Eisenberger, 2012; Riva, Wirth, & Williams, 2011; van Beest, & Williams, 2006), anxiety (Ferris et al., 2008), emotional exhaustion (Wu, Yim, Kwan, & Zhang, 2012), depression (Penhaligon, Louis, & Restubog, 2009), and a broken spirit (Williams, Bernieri, Faulkner, Gada-Jain, & Grahe, 2000). Furthermore, social exclusion is associated with lower levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and individual productivity (Wu, Wei, & Hui, 2011; Zadro, Williams, & Richardson, 2004). Additionally, experiencing ostracism negatively relates to employee creativity (Kwan, Zhang, Liu, & Lee, 2018). Finally, workplace ostracism is positively associated with turnover intentions (Ferris et al., 2008) and causes the victim to engage in deviant or counterproductive behaviors (Leary, Twenge, & Quinlivan, 2006; Twenge, Baumeister, DeWall, Ciarocco, & Bartels, 2007).

However, ostracism in the workplace can have a positive effect. Specifically, ostracism may represent an adaptive response signaling to the target that something is wrong and prompting him or her to gain re-inclusion. To do so, the target will remedy the situation by adapting his or her behaviors, such as being more helpful or cooperative and complying with certain norms (Willaims, Cheung, & Choi, 2000; Williams & Sommer, 1997).

Table 2.1 presents a summary of terms and measures of mistreatment behaviors in the workplace.

Table 2.1. Terms related to Workplace Mistreatment and Measures

Term	Definition	Validated Scale
Workplace mistreatment/aggression	Negative behavior perpetrated by one employee against another employee that targets are motivated to avoid (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Neuman & Baron, 1998, 2005)	
Workplace bullying, abuse, mobbing, violence	Systematic aggression and violence targeted toward one or more individuals by one individual or by a group occurring repeatedly and regularly over a period of time (Einarsen, 2000)	Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) (Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaer, 2009), for example: (a) Work-related bullying: "Being given tasks with unreasonable deadlines." "Excessive monitoring of your work." "Being exposed to an unmanageable workload." (b) Personal-related bullying: "Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work." "Persistent criticism of your errors or mistakes." (c) Physically intimidating bullying: for example: "Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger." "Intimidating behaviors such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking your way."
Employment Discrimination	Unwelcome conduct that is based on race, color, religion, sex (including pregnancy), national origin, age (40 or older), disability or genetic information (U.S. EEOC)	
Sexual Harassment	Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when this conduct explicitly or implicitly affects an individual's employment, unreasonably interferes with an individual's work performance, or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment (U.S. EEOC)	
Abusive Supervision	"Subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact" (Tepper, 2000, p. 178)	Supervisor-Directed Deviance Measure (Tepper, 2000), for examples: My boss "Ridicules me." "Tell me my thoughts or feelings are stupid." "Puts me down in front of others." "Breaks promise he/she makes."
Social Undermining	Behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002)	Social Undermining Scale (Duffy et al., 2002), for example: How often has your supervisor/coworkers intentionally "Put you down when you questioned work procedures." "Talked bad about you behind your back." "Insulted you" "Spread rumors about you." "Made you feel incompetent." "Delayed work to make you look bad or slow you down." "Belittled you and your ideas."

Term	Definition	Validated Scale
Workplace Ostracism	"The extent to which an individual perceives that he or she is ignored or excluded by others in the workplace" (Ferris et al., p. 1348)	Workplace Ostracism Scale (WOS) (Ferris et al., 2008), for example: "Others ignored you at work." "Others avoided you at work." "Others at work treated you as if you weren't there." "Others refused to talk to you at work." "You have been included in conversations at work (reverse coded)."
Workplace Incivility	Low-intensity deviant workplace behaviors with an ambiguous intent to harm (Schilpzand, Pater, & Erez, 2016) Or Low-intensity deviant acts, such as rude and discourteous verbal and nonverbal behaviors enacted towards another organizational member with ambiguous intent to harm (Andersson & Pearson, 1999)	Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS) (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001), for example: "Put you down or was condescending to you?" "Paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion?" "Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you?" "Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately?"
Interpersonal Conflicts	"A dynamic process that occurs between interdependent parties as they experience negative emotional reactions to perceived disagreements and interference with the attainment of their goals" (Barki & Hartwick, 2004, p. 234) Or An organizational stressor involving disagreements between employees (Spector & Jex, 1998)	Interpersonal Conflict at Work Scale (ICAWS) (Spector & Jex, 1998) "How often do you get into arguments with others at works?" "How often do other people yell at you at work?" "How often are people rude to you at work?" "How often do other people do nasty things to you at work?"
Workplace Discrimination	"Actions of institutions and/or individuals within them, setting unfair terms and conditions that systematically impair the ability of a member of a group to work" (Rospenda, Richman, & Shannon, 2009)	

Research on Mistreatment in Public Organizations from 1990 to 2017

Table 2.2 presents a total of 26 research articles related to mistreatment in public organizations. These research articles were published in peer-reviewed academic journals from 1990 to 2017. Of the 26 research articles, 23 were empirical studies (quantitative and qualitative research), and 3 were literature reviews (Fredericksen & McCorkle, 2013; Tummers, Brunetto, & Teo, 2016; and Vicker, 2006). Regarding research participants, 15 studies were conducted outside the U.S., 7 studies surveyed U.S. public employees, and 1 study surveyed U.S. and Australian public employees (Xerri, Farr-Wharton, Brunetto, & Lambries, 2016). In terms of mistreatment behaviors studied, 17 studies examined overt forms of workplace mistreatment (harassment, discrimination, bullying, violence, threat, and abuse), 2 studies investigated a specific covert form of workplace mistreatment—workplace incivility (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001 and Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008), and 4 studies examined both overt and covert forms of workplace aggression (Andrews & Ashworth, 2015; Baron & Neuman, 1998; Burnes & Pope, 2007; and Burnes & Pope, 2007).

As shown in Table 2.2, the most commonly researched forms of mistreatment in the public sector were workplace bullying, violence, and threats (17 studies); sexual harassment (6 studies); workplace incivility (4 studies); discrimination based on sex and race (3 studies); workplace inclusion (1 study); obstructionism (1 study); and hostile work environment (1 study). Eleven research studies investigated factors contributing to the occurrence of various forms of workplace mistreatment, and 10 research studies examined the effects of workplace mistreatment on job-related outcomes and the personal well-being of victims. Overall, accumulating evidence suggests that empirical research on mistreatment in public organizations since 1990 has devoted much attention to the incidents of overtly aggressive behaviors, such as bullying and sexual harassment,

while little attention has been paid to the prevalence of covert mistreatment in government workplaces.

In sum, this study addressed the definitions and dimensions of terms related to workplace mistreatment, specifically sexual harassment, workplace bullying, social undermining, and workplace ostracism. Moreover, the causes and consequences of these mistreatment behaviors were summarized in this chapter. Finally, this study summarized research related to the incidence of mistreatment in public organizations. The next chapter presents the results of Research Questions 1 to 4, which examine the prevalence of sexual harassment and workplace aggression in federal workplaces.

Table 2.2. Research on Mistreatment in Public Organizations from 1990 to 2017

Author/Year	Journal	Sample / Country	Type of Workplace Mistreatment	Statistic	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Mediator	Moderator
Nguyen, Teo, Grover, & Nguyen (2017)	Public Management Review	• 274 public employees in Vietnam	• Bullying	Structural equation modeling	Psychological climate Perceived organizational support	Bullying Work engagement Individual well-being		
Plimmer, Proctor- Thomson, Donnelly, & Sim (2017)	Public Money & Management	7,292 female works in the largest public-sector trade union in New Zealand	Bullying Gender discrimination	Frequency Logistic regression	Mechanisms for voice Job control Performance management practices Performance management quality Career development Workplace flexibility Organizational risk factors (e.g., Workload) Salary Occupation Tenure Health Job mobility	Bullying Discrimination		
Fischer, Reemst, & de Jong (2016)	International Journal of Public Sector Management	• 3,186 Local government employees in the Netherlands	Verbal aggression Threats Physical violence	Frequency Correlations (Pearson r and Spearman ranks) Multivariate logistic regression	Job characteristics Organizational characteristics Personal characteristics	Perceived victimization of workplace aggression (dummy variable): Verbal aggression Threats Physical violence		Enforcemen t jobs Frequency of contact with the public Self- efficacy in conflict handling
Lasthuizen & Paanakker (2016)	International Journal of Public Sector Management	47 transport offices in the Netherlands 39 detainees in five penal institutions in the Netherlands	Verbal aggression Physical aggression Sexual intimidation Threats Discrimination	• Interview • Frequency	Perceived inappropriate treatment Job stress	Verbal aggression Physical aggression Sexual intimidation Threats Discrimination		• Supportive staff orientation
Tummers, Brunetto, & Teo (2016)	International Journal of Public Sector Management		Workplace aggression	• Literature review				
Xerri, Farr- Wharton, Brunetto, & Lambries (2016)	International Journal of Public Sector Management	265 local government employees in the U.S. 250 local government employees in Australia	Work harassment (Hostile work environment)	• Structural equation modeling	Perceived organizational support Teamwork	Work harassment Psychological well-being Interpersonal citizenship behavior (OCB-I)		

Author/Year	Journal	Sample / Country	Type of Workplace Mistreatment	Statistic	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Mediator	Moderator
Venetoklis & Kettunen (2016)	Review of Public Personnel Administration	• 1,072 public employees in Finland	Workplace bullying	Frequency Multinomial logit model	Ministries Gender Education Supervisory type Tenure	Bullying experience Work task-related bullying Personal-level bullying	Wediator	Moderator
Andrews & Ashworth (2015)	Public Administration Review	•97 civil service organization in the U.K. (Organizational Level)	Workplace bullying Workplace discrimination Workplace inclusion	• Frequency • Correlations • OLS Regression	Female representativeness Minority ethnic representativeness	Workplace bullying Workplace discrimination Workplace inclusion		
Fredericksen & McCorkle (2013)	Public Personnel Management		Physical and Verbal Violence between the U.S. vs. European Approaches	• Literature review				
Niven, Sprigg, & Armitage (2013)	European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology	 •77 social employees social in the department of a regional council, U.K. •70 emergency services personnel in the department of a regional council, U.K. 	Physical and Nonphysical workplace aggression from outsiders vs. insiders	• Correlations • OLS Regression	Nonphysical aggression from outside the organization Nonphysical aggression from inside the organization Physical aggression from outside the organization Physical aggression from inside the organization	• Strain		• The emotion regulation strategy of reappraisal • The emotion regulation strategy of suppression
Gimeno, Barrientos- Gutiérrez, Burau, & Felknor, (2012)	Work	625 public hospital workers in Costa Rica	Verbal abuse	• Frequency • Odds ratios	Safety training Approaches: Management safety training Worker safety training	Verbal abuse sources: Administrative Supervisors Coworkers Patients Patients' relatives		
Woodrow & Guest (2012)	Health services management research	• 48,365 NHS nurses (2006), U.K. • 55,381 NHS nurses (2009), U.K.	Physical violence from patients Co-workers' bullying, abuse, harassment	• Frequency • OLS Regression	Physical violence from patients Co-workers' bullying, abuse, harassment	Wellbeing Stress Job satisfaction Intention to leave		• Supervisory support
Aube & Rousseau (2011)	Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology	• 97 teams in public safety organization, Canada	• Interpersonal aggression behavior (adapted from interpersonal deviance scale)	• Structural equation modeling	Interpersonal aggression	Team performance Team viability	Team goal commitment	
Santos, Leather, Dunn, & Zarola (2009)	Work & Stress	681 frontline police officers in the U.K.	Public-initiated violence Co-worker- initiated violence	Correlations OLS Regression MANOVA	Public-initiated violence Co-worker-initiated violence Age Tenure Gender	Up-tight and tense Worn-out Intrusion Avoidance		

Author/Year	Journal	Sample / Country	Type of Workplace Mistreatment	Statistic	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Mediator	Moderator
Lim, Cortina, & Magley (2008)	Journal of Applied Psychology	• 1,158 federal court	Personal incivility Workgroup incivility	• Structural equation modeling	Personal incivility Workgroup incivility	Job satisfaction Mental health Physical health Turnover intention	Wediator	Woderator
Burnes & Pope (2007)	International Journal of Public Sector Management	Employees in Two Trusts of the National Health Service (NHS), U.K. 100 people in Trust A 116 people in Trust B	Workplace incivility Bullying	Interview Frequency	Workplace incivility Bullying Psychical aggression	Stress Sick leave Avoidance Communication Job satisfaction Motivation Cooperation Commitment Retaliated Changed job		
Emmerik, Euwema, & Bakker (2007)	Group & Organization Management	• 2,782 constabulary officers in the Netherlands	Work violence (i.e., Threats of physical assault and unsafe climate)	• Multilevel analysis	Threats of physical assault Unsafe climate	Affective organizational commitment Dedication		• Peer support
Lewis & Gunn (2007)	Public Administration	247 public employees in South Wales, U.K.	Bullying Racial Harassment	• Frequency • Mann- Whitney U Test • PCA Factor Analysis	Work-related bullying Personalized bullying Social bullying Perceive Racial Harassment between White vs. Non-White			
Vickers	Administrative		Workplace	• Literature				
(2006) Lim & Cortina (2005)	Theory & Praxis Journal of Applied Psychology	• 833 female court employees in the U.S. (Study 1) • 1,425 female attorneys in the U.S. (Study 2)	Incivility • Workplace incivility • Gender harassment • Sexual harassment	review • MANCOVA • Confirmatory Factor Analysis	Workplace incivility Gender harassment Sexual harassment	Job-related function: Job stress Job withdrawal Pay and benefit satisfaction Work satisfaction Promotional opportunity satisfaction Coworker satisfaction Supervisor satisfaction Psychological & health function: Psychological distress Health satisfaction Psychological well-being		

Author/Year	Journal	Sample / Country	Type of Workplace Mistreatment	Statistic	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Mediator	Moderator
Hoobler & Swanberg (2005)	Public Personnel Management	868 full-time employees of a Midwestern municipal government in the U.S.	Violent behaviors: Verbal threats, yelling Physical intimidation, hitting/pushing/sho ving Sexual harassment and assault	• Frequency • Correlations • Chi-square				
Jackson & Newman (2004)	Public Administration Review	Approx. 6500 U.S. federal employees	Sexual harassment	Logit model	Work characteristics Demographic variables	Sexual harassment experience		• Gender (female)
Newman, Jackson, & Baker (2003)	Public Administration Review	Approx. 6500 U.S. federal employees	Sexual harassment	Binary logit modelOrdered logit model	Demographic variables	Sexual harassment experience		
Vigoda (2002)	Journal of Organizational Behavior	Israeli employees: 184 private employees 201 public employees 155 third-sector employees	Verbally and physically aggressive behaviors	Correlations OLS Multiple Regression Hierarchical regressions for mediation tests	Perceptions of organizational politics	Verbally and physically aggressive behaviors (Perpetrator's perspective)	• Job distress	
Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout (2001)	Journal of Occupational Health Psychology	• 1,180 federal court employees, U.S.	Workplace incivility	Workplace incivility scale development Frequency Factor analysis OLS regression	Workplace incivility	Work satisfaction Coworker satisfaction Supervisor satisfaction Pay/benefit satisfaction Promotional satisfaction Work withdrawal Job withdrawal Career salience Psychological well-being Psychological distress Life satisfaction Health satisfaction Extrinsic commitment		Gender Job position Ethnicity Marital status Age
Baron & Neuman (1998)	Public Administration Quarterly	• 452 employees in public hospitals, retailers, manufacturing plants, financial services companies, restaurants, state and local government agencies in the U.S.	Verbal aggression Obstructionism Workplace violence	• Correlations	Verbal aggression Obstructionism Workplace violence	Workplace change factors Cost cutting Organizational change Social change Job insecurity		

CHAPTER 3

EVIDENCE OF MISTREATMENT IN THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

This chapter presents the results of Research Questions 1 through 4. Research Question 1 examines federal employees' experiences of (a) sexual harassment, (b) workplace bullying, (c) social undermining, and (d) workplace ostracism. Research Question 2 focuses on the characteristics of federal employees who reported experiencing sexual harassment and each form of workplace aggression. Research Question 3 broadens the scope of the study by exploring the gender and supervisory status of persons who were reported as perpetrators of sexual harassment, bullying, social undermining, or ostracism in federal workplaces. Finally, Research Question 4 focuses on actions taken by the victims in response to sexual harassment and of each form of workplace aggression. Note that all the descriptive statistics presented in this chapter were derived from the unweighted (raw) data of the 2016 Merit Principles Survey (MPS 2016) Path 1.

Governmentwide Incidents of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression

Table 3.1 and Figure 3.1 present the results of Research Question 1: To what extent do sexual harassment and each form of workplace aggression, including bullying, social undermining, and ostracism, currently exist in the federal workplace? Among the four forms of mistreatment behavior, social undermining at work was the most frequently reported by federal employees, (31.64%), followed by (in descending order) workplace bullying (18.19%), workplace ostracism (12.11%), and sexual harassment (10.05%).

Table 3.1. Number of Federal Employees Experiencing Sexual Harassment and Three Forms of

Workplace Aggression

VVOIRPI		xperiencing al Harassm		E	xperiencing Bullying	g		xperiencing l Undermi			xperiencing Ostracism	ţ
Agency	Never	Yes	Total	Never	Yes	Total	Never	Yes	Total	Never	Yes	Total
AF	285	38	323	262	61	323	231	92	323	275	48	323
АГ	88.24%	11.76%	100%	81.11%	18.89%	100%	71.52%	28.48%	100%	85.14%	14.86%	100%
AG	631	83	714	563	151	714	487	227	714	604	110	714
AU	88.38%	11.62%	100%	78.85%	21.15%	100%	68.21%	31.79%	100%	84.59%	15.41%	100%
AR	615	52	667	558	109	667	477	190	667	588	79	667
7110	92.20%	7.80%	100%	83.66%	16.34%	100%	71.51%	28.49%	100%	88.16%	11.84%	100%
CM	604	59	663	566	97	663	489	174	663	604	59	663
	91.10%	8.90%	100%	85.37%	14.63%	100%	73.76%	26.24%	100%	91.10%	8.90%	100%
DD	847	94	941	767	174	941	641	300	941	830	111	941
	90.01%	9.99%	100%	81.51%	18.49%	100%	68.12%	31.88%	100%	88.20%	11.80%	100%
DJ	1079	91	1170	1010	160	1170	863	307	1170	1051	119	1170
	92.22%	7.78%	100%	86.32%	13.68%	100%	73.76%	26.24%	100%	89.83%	10.17%	100%
DL	636	68	704	576	128	704	476	228	704	629	75	704
	90.34%	9.66%	100%	81.82%	18.18%	100%	67.61%	32.39%	100%	89.35%	10.65%	100%
DN	373	38	411	343	68	411	281	130	411	364	47	411
	90.75%	9.25%	100%	83.45%	16.55%	100%	68.37%	31.63%	100%	88.56%	11.44%	100%
ED	90	10	100	76	24	100%	54	46	100	82	18	100
	90.00%	10.00%	100%	76.00%	24.00%	100%	54.00%	46.00%	100%	82.00%	18.00%	100%
EP	363	45	408	334	74	408	275	133	408	351	57	408
	88.97%	11.03%	100%	81.86%	18.14%	100%	67.40%	32.60%	100%	86.03%	13.97%	100%
FD	395	32	427	389	38	427	322	105	427	391	36	427
	92.51%	7.49%	100%	91.10%	8.90%	100%	75.41%	24.59%	100%	91.57%	8.43%	100%
GS	392	31	423	363	60	423	308	115	423	383	40	423
	92.67%	7.33%	100%	85.82%	14.18%	100%	72.81%	27.19%	100%	90.54%	9.46%	100%
HS	1438	177	1615	1317	298	1615	1072	543	1615	1395	220	1615
TITI	89.04%	10.96%	100%	81.55% 254	18.45%	100% 322	66.38%	33.62%	100%	86.38%	13.62%	100%
HU	286	36 11.18%	322 100%	78.88%	68 21.12%	_	212	110	322 100%	268 83.23%	16.77%	322 100%
IN	88.82% 689	89	778	622	156	100% 778	65.84% 489	34.16% 289	778	665	113	778
11N	88.56%	11.44%	100%	79.95%	20.05%	100%	62.85%	37.15%	100%	85.48%	14.52%	100%
NN	379	31	410	358	52	410	311	99	410	380	30	410
	92.44%	7.56%	100%	87.32%	12.68%	100%	75.85%	24.15%	100%	92.68%	7.32%	100%
NV	365	39	404	325	79	404	278	126	404	355	49	404
	90.35%	9.65%	100%	80.45%	19.55%	100%	68.81%	31.19%	100%	87.87%	12.13%	100%
OM	252	33	285	241	44	285	197	88	285	261	24	285
	88.42%	11.58%	100%	84.56%	15.44%	100%	69.12%	30.88%	100%	91.58%	8.42%	100%
SE	331	23	354	304	50	354	242	112	354	311	43	354
	93.50%	6.50%	100%	85.88%	14.12%	100%	68.36%	31.64%	100%	87.85%	12.15%	100%
ST	354	43	397	312	85	397	254	143	397	341	56	397
	89.17%	10.83%	100%	78.59%	21.41%	100%	63.98%	36.02%	100%	85.89%	14.11%	100%
SZ	550	60	610	475	135	610	403	207	610	537	73	610
	90.16%	9.84%	100%	77.87%	22.13%	100%	66.07%	33.93%	100%	88.03%	11.97%	100%
TD	475	45	520	432	88	520	352	168	520	462	58	520
TDP.	91.35%	8.65%	100%	83.08%	16.92%	100%	67.69%	32.31%	100%	88.85%	11.15%	100%
TR	686	83	769	623	146	769	522	247	769	680	89	769
X7.4	89.21%	10.79%	100%	81.01%	18.99%	100%	67.88%	32.12%	100%	88.43%	11.57%	100%
VA	941	159	1100	804	296	1100	687	413	1100	950	150	1100
Total	85.55%	14.45%	100%	73.09%	26.91%	100%	62.45%	37.55%	100%	86.36%	13.64%	100%
Total	13056	1459	14515	11874	2641 18 10%	14515	9923	4592 31.64%	14515	12757	1758	14515
	89.95%	10.05%	100%	81.81%	18.19%	100%	68.36%	31.64%	100%	87.89%	12.11%	100%

Source: Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

Note. Unweighted frequencies and percentages reported. Yes = Experienced once or more than once.

 $AF = Air\ Force;\ AG = Agriculture;\ AR = Army;\ CM = Commerce;\ DD = Defense;\ DJ = Justice;\ DL = Labor;\ DN = Energy;\ ED = Education;\ EP = Environmental Protection Agency;\ FD = Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation;\ GS = General Services Administration;\ HS = Homeland Security;\ HU = Housing and Urban Development;\ IN = Interior;\ NN = National Aeronautics and Space Administration;\ NV = Navy;\ OM = Office of Personnel Management;\ SE = Securities and Exchange Commission;\ ST = State;\ SZ = Social Security Administration;\ TD = Transportation;\ TR = Treasury;\ and\ VA = Veterans\ Affairs.$

Governmentwide Experiences of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression (N = 14,515)

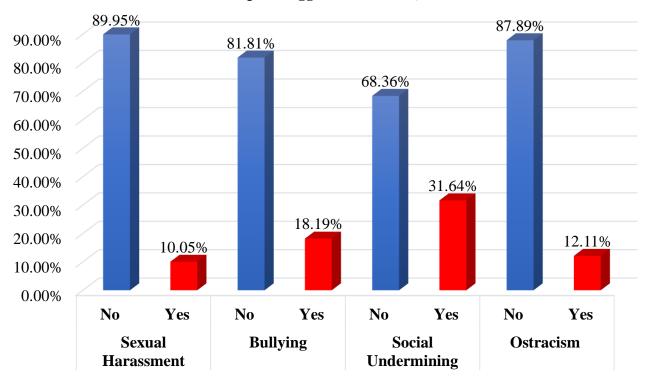


Figure 3.1. Percentage of federal employees experiencing sexual harassment and workplace aggression.

Source: Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

Note. Yes = Experienced once or more than once, No = Never experienced.

Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression Incidents by Federal Agency

Figure 3.2 shows that the five federal agencies that constitute the highest rates of sexual harassment were (in descending order) Veteran Affairs (VA) (14.45%), Air Force (AF) (11.76%), Agriculture (AG) (11.64%), Office of Personnel Management (OM) (11.58%), and Interior (IN) (11.44%).

Figure 3.3 indicates that Veteran Affairs (VA) (26.91%) ranked first in terms of reported incidents of bullying, followed by (in descending order) Education (ED) (24.00%), Social Security Administration (SZ) (22.13%), State (ST) (21.41%), and Agriculture (AG) (21.15%).

Figure 3.4 shows that Education (ED) (46.00%) was the highest ranked with regard to reported social undermining, followed by (in descending order) Veterans Affairs (VA) (37.55%), Interior (IN) (37.15%), State (ST) (36.02%), and Housing and Urban Development (HU) (34.16%).

Finally, the reported incidence of workplace ostracism was highest in Education (ED) (18.00%), followed by (in descending order) Housing and Urban Development (HU) (16.77%), Agricultural (AG) (15.41%), Air Force (AF) (14.86), and Interior (IN) (14.52%) (Figure 3.5).

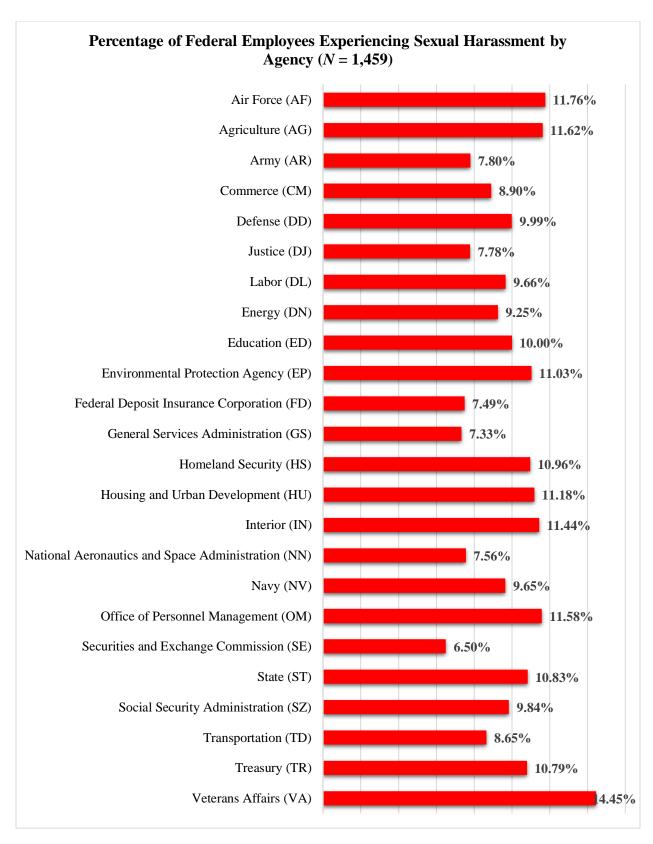


Figure 3.2. Percentage of federal employees experiencing sexual harassment by agency. Source: Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

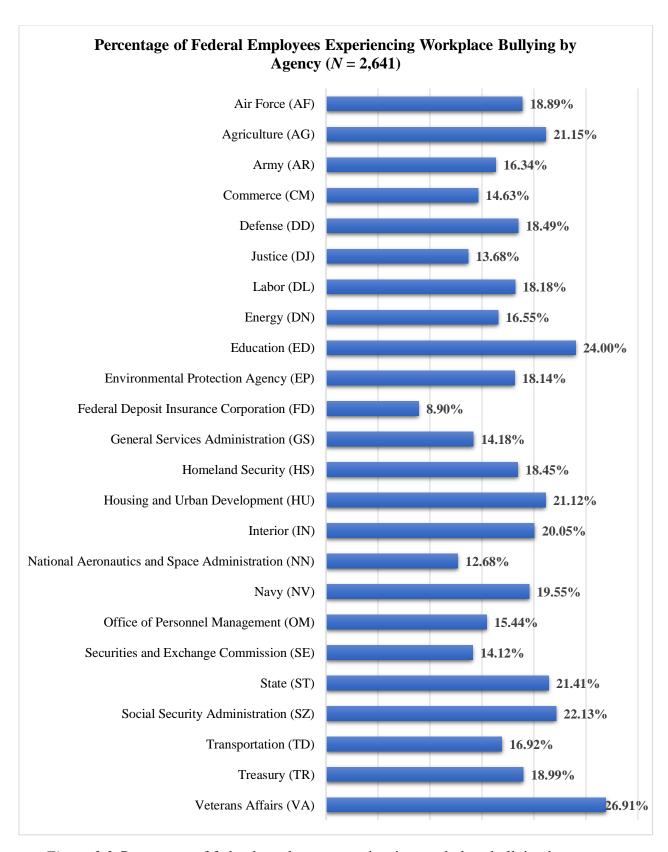


Figure 3.3. Percentage of federal employees experiencing workplace bullying by agency. Source: Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

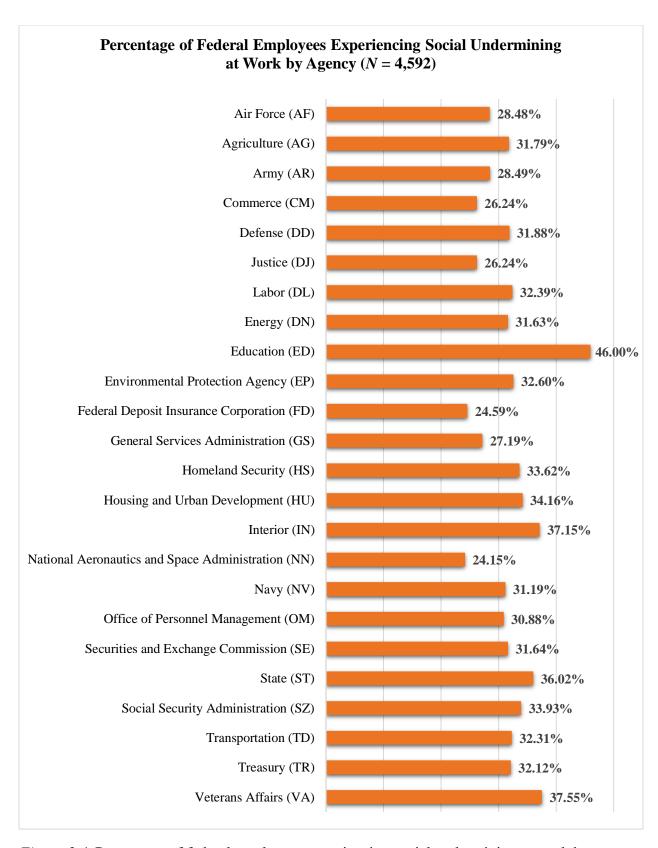


Figure 3.4. Percentage of federal employees experiencing social undermining at work by agency. Source: Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

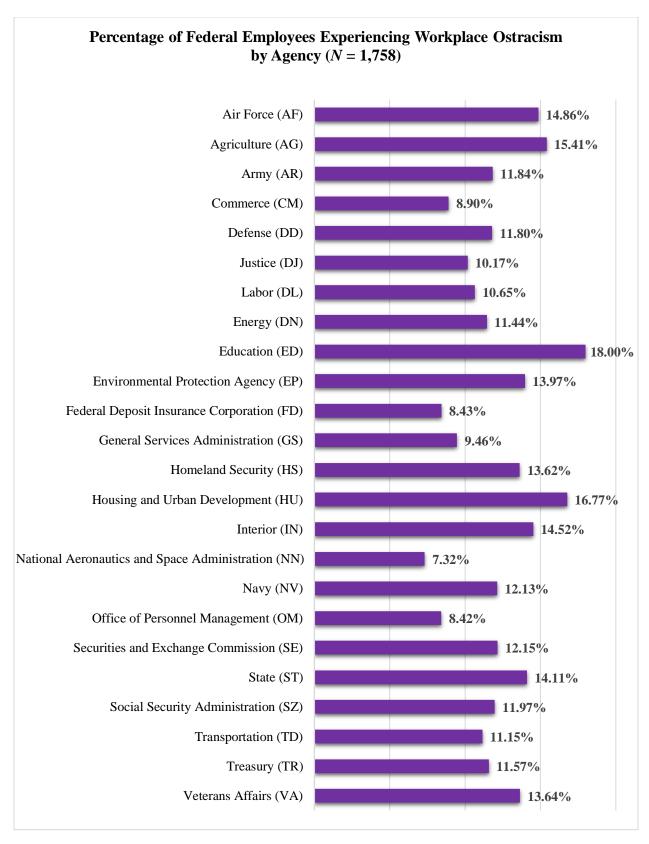


Figure 3.5. Percentage of federal employees experiencing workplace ostracism by agency. Source: Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

Who are the Victims?

Research Question 2 breaks down sexual harassment and workplace aggression by victims' gender. Table 3.2 shows that more female employees than male employees generally reported experiencing workplace sexual harassment (61.65% vs. 38.35%), bullying (53.12% vs. 46.88%), and ostracism (55.49% vs. 44.51%). However, male employees experienced social undermining at work at a higher rate than female employees (50.25% vs. 49.75%).

By focusing on each federal agency surveyed, this study found that while women in most agencies were at greater risk than men of experiencing sexual harassment and workplace aggression, men in some agencies reported being the targets of sexual assault, bullying, undermining, and ostracism more often than women. Specifically, Figure 3.6 shows that more men than women working in Air Force (AF) (55.56% vs. 44.44%) and Homeland Security (HS) (54.02% vs. 45.98%) were victims of sexual assaults.

In terms of workplace bullying, Figure 3.7 shows that men working in Air Force (AF), Commerce (CM), Labor (DL), Energy (DN), Homeland Security (HS), and Transportation (TD) reported experiencing workplace bullying at a higher rate than women.

Figure 3.8 also shows that in Air Force (AF), Army (AR), Justice (DJ), Energy (DN), Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FD), Homeland Security (HS), Interior (IN), Navy (NV), and Transportation (TD), the incidence of social undermining involving male victims was higher than for females.

Finally, men working in Justice (DJ), Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FD), Homeland Security (HS), National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NN), Navy (NV), and Transportation (TD) reported being ostracized more often than women (Figure 3.9).

Table 3.2. Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression Experiences Categorized by the Victims' Gender

14610 012		Victims of al Harassme	•		Victims of Bullying		,	Victims of Il Undermin		Victims of Ostracism			
Agency	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
AF	20	16	36	34	25	59	54	30	84	22	22	44	
	55.56%	44.44%	100%	57.63%	42.37%	100%	64.29%	35.71%	100%	50%	50%	100%	
AG	24	59	83	69	77	146	96	122	218	38	67	105	
	28.92%	71.08%	100%	47.26%	52.74%	100%	44.04%	55.96%	100%	36.19%	63.81%	100%	
AR	19	32	51	57	45	102	97	84	181	32	42	74	
	37.25%	62.75%	100%	55.88%	44.12%	100%	53.59%	46.41%	100%	43.24%	56.76%	100%	
CM	20	38	58	47	45	92	79	84	163	26	30	56	
	34.48%	65.52%	100%	51.09%	48.91%	100%	48.47%	51.53%	100%	46.43%	53.57%	100%	
DD	35	58	93	80	87	167	138	148	286	50	57	107	
	37.63%	62.37%	100%	47.90%	52.10%	100%	48.25%	51.75%	100%	46.73%	53.27%	100%	
DJ	37	47	84	77	67	144	155	127	282	60	50	110	
	44.05%	55.95%	100%	53.47%	46.53%	100%	54.96%	45.04%	100%	54.55%	45.45%	100%	
DL	23	40	63	51	61	112	96	110	206	25	41	66	
	36.51%	63.49%	100%	45.54%	54.46%	100%	46.60%	53.40%	100%	37.88%	62.12%	100%	
DN	19	19	38	32	31	63	69	53	122	18	25	43	
	50%	50%	100%	50.79%	49.21%	100%	56.56%	43.44%	100%	41.86%	58.14%	100%	
ED	4	5	9	6	14	20	16	26	42	5	11	16	
	44.44%	55.56%	100%	30%	70%	100%	38.10%	61.90%	100%	31.25%	68.75%	100%	
EP	14	29	43	22	46	68	47	78	125	15	37	52	
	32.56%	67.44%	100%	32.35%	67.65%	100%	37.60%	62.40%	100%	28.85%	71.15%	100%	
FD	11	20	31	16	20	36	53	46	99	17	16	33	
	35.48%	64.52%	100%	44.44%	55.56%	100%	53.54%	46.46%	100%	51.51%	48.49%	100%	
GS	9	21	30	25	30	55	52	53	105	14	24	38	
	30%	70%	100%	45.45%	54.55%	100%	49.52%	50.48%	100%	36.84%	63.16%	100%	
HS	94	80	174	178	106	284	347	164	511	123	85	208	
	54.02%	45.98%	100%	62.68%	37.32%	100%	67.90%	32.10%	100%	59.13%	40.87%	100%	

		Victims of al Harassme	ent *	,	Victims of Bullying			Victims of al Undermin	ning		Victims of Ostracism	
Agency	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
HU	15	20	35	26	36	62	39	61	100	18	30	48
	42.86%	57.14%	100%	41.94%	58.06%	100%	39%	61%	100%	37.50%	62.50%	100%
IN	37	48	85	75	76	151	153	117	270	50	55	105
	43.53%	56.47%	100%	49.67%	50.33%	100%	56.67%	43.33%	100%	47.62%	52.38%	100%
NN	12	16	28	20	26	46	46	47	93	15	14	29
	42.86%	57.14%	100%	43.48%	56.52%	100%	49.46%	50.54%	100%	51.72%	48.28%	100%
NV	11	25	36	46	32	78	69	49	118	25	21	46
	30.56%	69.44%	100%	58.97%	41.03%	100%	58.47%	41.53%	100%	54.35%	45.65%	100%
OM	5	27	32	9	33	42	28	51	79	7	14	21
	15.62%	84.38%	100%	21.43%	78.57%	100%	35.44%	64.56%	100%	33.33%	66.67%	100%
SE	9	12	21	22	23	45	49	56	105	19	21	40
	42.86%	57.14%	100%	48.89%	51.11%	100%	46.67%	53.33%	100%	47.50%	52.50%	100%
ST	12	28	40	25	54	79	54	81	135	18	35	53
	30%	70%	100%	31.65%	68.35%	100%	40%	60%	100%	33.96%	66.03%	100%
SZ	17	39	56	31	89	120	66	118	184	22	46	68
	30.36%	69.64%	100%	25.83%	74.17%	100%	35.87%	64.13%	100%	32.35%	67.65%	100%
TD	20	24	44	42	35	77	88	62	150	30	24	54
	45.46%	54.54%	100%	54.55%	45.45%	100%	58.67%	41.33%	100%	55.56%	44.44%	100%
TR	26	56	82	48	90	138	85	147	232	24	59	83
	31.70%	68.30%	100%	34.78%	65.22%	100%	36.64%	63.36%	100%	28.92%	7.84%	37%
VA	45	106	151	113	156	269	171	212	383	56	83	139
	29.80%	70.19%	100%	42%	58%	100%	44.65%	55.35%	100%	40.29%	59.71%	100%
Total	538	865	1403	1151	1304	2455	2147	2126	4273	729	909	1638
	38.35%	61.65%	100%	46.88%	53.12%	100%	50.25%	49.75%	100%	44.51%	55.49%	100%

Note. * Because the present study used a different approach in measuring the incidents of sexual harassment and did not apply a survey weight in reporting the frequencies and percentages related to sexual harassment, the results above differ from the sexual harassment report of the U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board (MSPB) published in 2018 (cf. https://www.mspb.gov/MSPBSEARCH/viewdocs.aspx?docnumber=1500639&version=1506232&application=ACROBAT).

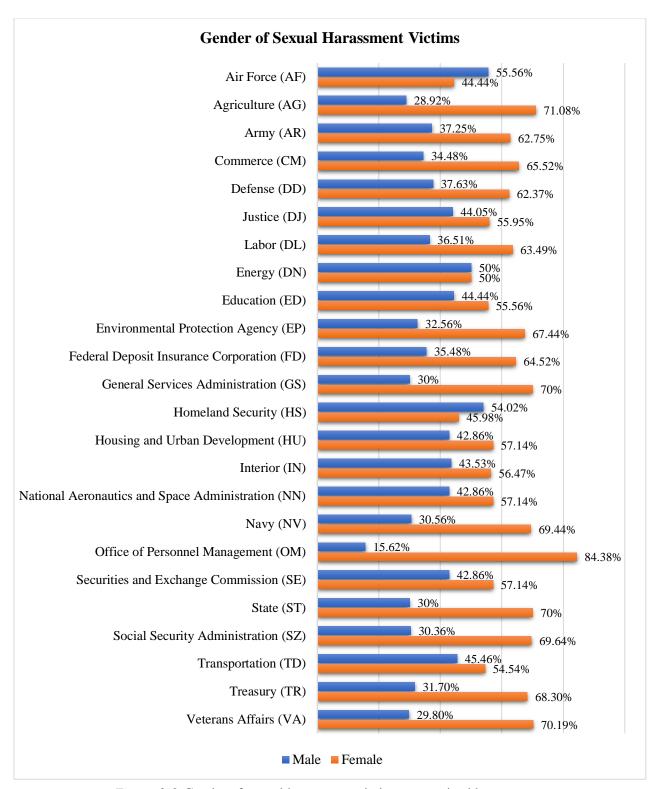


Figure 3.6. Gender of sexual harassment victims categorized by agency.

Note. Because the present study used a different approach in measuring the incidents of sexual harassment and did not apply a survey weight in reporting the frequencies and percentages related to sexual harassment, the results above differ from the sexual harassment report of the U.S. MSPB published in 2018.

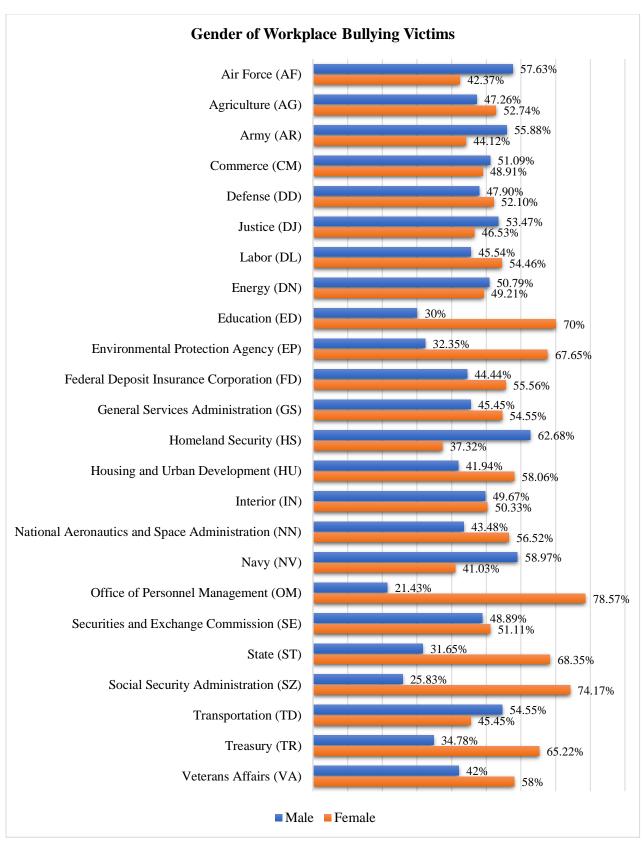


Figure 3.7. Gender of workplace bullying victims categorized by agency. *Source:* Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

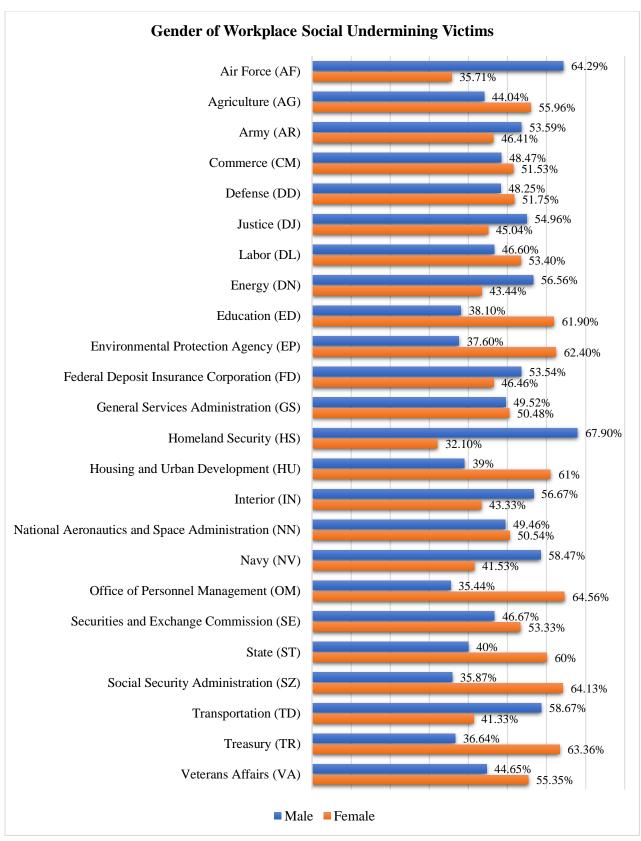


Figure 3.8. Gender of social undermining victims categorized by agency. *Source:* Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

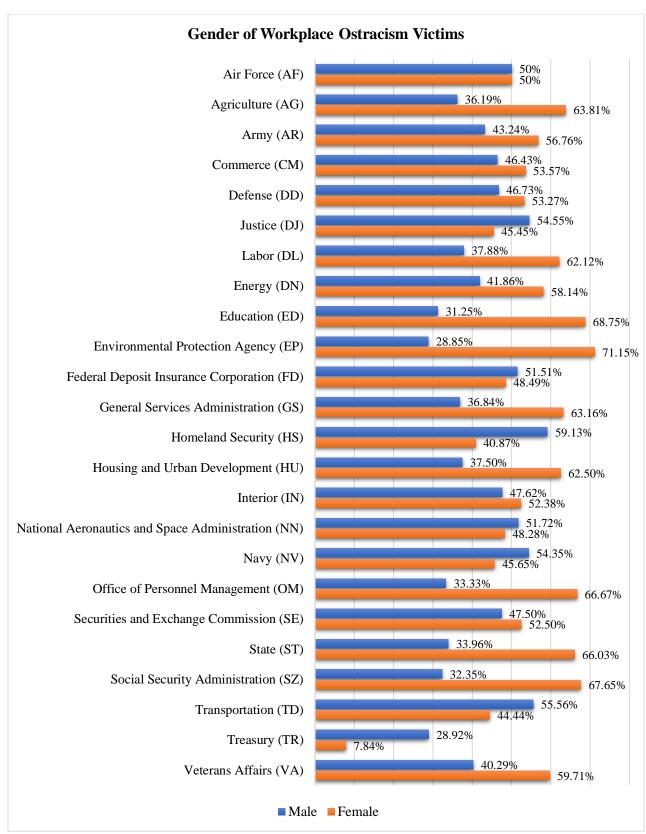


Figure 3.9. Gender of ostracism victims categorized by agency. Source: Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

Who are the Perpetrators?

Research Question 3 focuses on the gender and supervisory status of those who were reported as sexual harassers and workplace aggressors in the federal workplace.

The Gender of the Perpetrators

The results presented in Tables 3.3 to 3.6 demonstrate that overall most perpetrators of sexual harassment, bullying, social undermining, and ostracism were men. However, when the genders of both victims and perpetrators are considered, Table 3.3 shows that more women (83.26%) than men (16.74%) were victims of sexual harassment committed by a male harasser. Moreover, more men (77.84%) than women (22.16%) were harassed by a female harasser. Finally, 43.75% of men and 56.25% of women reported being harassed by a mixed group of harassers (i.e., two or more females, two or more males, or both males and females).

In terms of workplace bullying, Table 3.4 shows that more men (53.65%) than women (46.35%) were targets of bullying by a male perpetrator only, while more women (63.02%) than men (36.98%) were victims of bullying by a female perpetrator only. Finally, more women than men reported being bullied by a mixed group of harassers (i.e., two or more females, two or more males, or both males and females) (60.08% vs. 39.92%).

Regarding social undermining, Table 3.5 shows that while 55.74% of men and 44.26% of women were undermined by a male perpetrator, 38.85% of men and 61.15% of women were undermined by a female perpetrator. Additionally, 46.40% of men and 53.60% of women reported being undermined by a mixed group of harassers (i.e., two or more females, two or more males, or both males and females).

Finally, Table 3.6 shows that 50.47% of men and 49.53% of women were ostracized by a

male perpetrator. More women (67.64%) than men (32.36%) were ostracized by a female perpetrator. Finally, 41.33% of men and 58.67% of women reported being ostracized by a mixed group of harassers (i.e., two or more females, two or more males, or both males and females).

In sum, the findings suggest that in the cases of workplace bullying, social undermining, and ostracism, the victims and perpetrators were typically the same gender. With the exception of sexual harassment, women were typically harassed by a male harasser, while men were mostly harassed by a female harasser. Figures 3.10 to 3.13 illustrate the gender of victims and perpetrators of each form of mistreatment behavior.

Table 3.3. Sexual Harassment Statistics by Gender of Victims and Perpetrators

		Male			Female		Mi	xed Group	
		Perpetrator			Perpetrator			erpetrators	*
Agonov	Male Victims	Female Victims	Total	Male Victims	Female Victims	Total	Male Victims	Female Victims	Total
Agency	3			3	VICUIIIS	3			
AF		13	16	_	-	· ·	1	1	2
	18.75%	81.25%	100%	100%	-	100%	50%	50%	100%
AG	4	41	45	6	1	7	2	4	6
	8.89%	91.11%	100%	85.71%	14.29%	100%	33.33%	66.67%	100%
AR	3	24	27	3	2	5	2	2	4
	11.11%	88.89%	100%%	60%	40%	100%	50%	50%	100%
CM	7	23	30	2	3	5	1	1	2
	23.33%	76.67%	100%	40%	60%	100%	50%	50%	100%
DD	11	42	53	5	-	5	8	4	12
	20.75%	79.25%	100%	100%	-	100%	66.67%	33.33%	100%
DJ	8	27	35	6	4	10	4	6	10
	22.86%	77.14%	100%	60%	40%	100%	40%	60%	100%
DL	8	30	38	6	2	8	1	2	3
	21.05%	78.95%	100%	75%	25%	100%	33.33%	66.67%	100%
DN	5	15	20	7	-	7	1	3	4
	25%	75%	100%	100%	-	100%	25%	75%	100%
ED	1	5	6	3	-	3	-	-	-
	16.67%	83.33%	100%	100%	-	100%	-	-	-
EP	4	22	26	3	3	6	2	-	2
	15.38%	84.62%	100%	50%	50%	100%	100%	-	100%
FD	5	15	20	2	-	2	1	-	1
	25%	75%	100%	100%	-	100%	100%	-	100%

	1	Male Perpetrator		1	Female Perpetrator			xed Group erpetrators	
	Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female	
Agency	Victim	Victim	Total	Victim	Victim	Total	Victim	Victim	Total
GS	1	15	16	2	1	3	1	2	3
	6.25%	93.75%	100%	66.67%	33.33%	100%	33.33%	66.67%	100%
HS	22	59	81	29	2	31	12	10	22
	27.16%	72.84%	100%	93.55%	6.45%	100%	54.55%	45.45%	100%
HU	1	11	12	6	2	8	4	2	6
	8.33%	91.67%	100%	75%	25%	100%	66.67%	33.33%	100%
IN	8	34	42	12	2	14	2	3	5
	19.05%	80.95%	100%	85.71%	14.29%	100%	40%	60%	100%
NN	1	9	10	5	1	6	1	2	3
	10%	90%	100%	83.33%	16.67%	100%	33.33%	66.67%	100%
NV	2	18	20	1	-	1	3	4	7
	10%	90%	100%	100%	-	100%	42.86%	57.14%	100%
OM	-	20	20	4	1	5	1	2	3
	=	100%	100%	80%	20%	100%	33.33%	66.67%	100%
SE	5	9	14	2	-	2	-	-	-
	35.71%	64.29%	100%	100%	-	100%	-	-	-
ST	3	21	24	3	1	4	1	3	4
	12.5%	87.5%	100%	75%	25%	100%	25%	75%	100%
SZ	3	24	27	10	6	16	1	4	5
	11.11%	88.89%	100%	62.5%	37.5%	100%	20%	80%	100%
TD	5	18	23	4	1	5	1	2	3
TTD.	21.74%	78.26%	100%	80%	20%	100%	33.33%	66.67%	100%
TR	2 5.88%	32 94.12%	34 100%	9 60%	6 40%	15 100%	3 42.86%	4 57.14%	7 100%
37 A									
VA	10 11.11%	80 88.89%	90 100%	18 78.26%	5 21.74%	23 100%	3 21.43%	11 78.57%	14 100%
Total	122	607	729	151	43	194	56	78.37%	128
1 Otal	16.74%	83.26%	100%	77.84%	22.16%	100%	43.75%		100%
		83.20%					43./5%	30.45%	100%

Note. * Two or more females, two or more males, or both males and females.

AF = Air Force; AG = Agriculture; AR = Army; CM = Commerce; DD = Defense; DJ = Justice; DL = Labor;

DN = Energy; ED = Education; EP = Environmental Protection Agency; FD = Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation;

GS = General Services Administration; HS = Homeland Security; HU = Housing and Urban Development;

 $IN = Interior; \ NN = National \ Aeronautics \ and \ Space \ Administration; \ NV = Navy; \ OM = Office \ of \ Personnel \ Management; \ SE = Securities \ and \ Exchange \ Commission; \ ST = State; \ SZ = Social \ Security \ Administration;$

TD = Transportation; TR = Treasury; and VA = Veterans Affairs.

Gender of Sexual Harassment Victims and Perpetrators

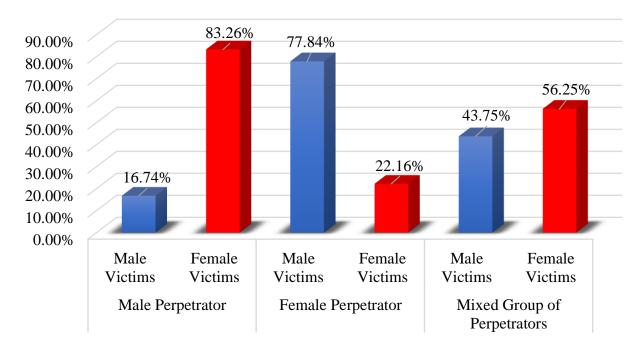


Figure 3.10. Gender of sexual harassment victims and perpetrators. Source: Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

Table 3.4. Bullying Statistics by Gender of Victims and Perpetrators

		Male			Female			ixed Group	
	363	Perpetrator			Perpetrator	•		<u>erpetrators</u>	*
Agency	Male Victims	Female Victims	Total	Male Victims	Female Victims	Total	Male Victims	Female Victims	Total
AF	23	11	34	2	10	12	7	4	11
	67.65%	32.35%	100%	16.67%	83.33%	100%	63.64%	36.36%	100%
AG	32	46	78	19	16	35	11	15	26
	41.03%	58.97%	100%	54.29%	45.71%	100%	42.31%	57.69%	100%
AR	39	25	64	10	7	17	3	10	13
	60.94%	39.06%	100%	58.82%	41.18%	100%	23.08%	76.92%	100%
CM	24	16	40	9	17	26	9	9	18
	60%	40%	100%	34.62%	65.38%	100%	50%	50%	100%
DD	47	41	88	19	25	44	9	18	27
	53.41%	46.59%	100%	43.18%	56.82%	100%	33.33%	66.67%	100%
DJ	49	25	74	10	22	32	9	15	24
	66.22%	33.78%	100%	31.25%	68.75%	100%	37.5%	62.5%	100%
DL	24	29	53	13	17	30	12	14	26
	45.28%	54.72%	100%	43.33%	56.67%	100%	46.15%	53.85%	100%
DN	19	16	35	5	9	14	8	6	14
	54.29%	45.71%	100%	35.71%	64.29%	100%	57.14%	42.86%	100%

	Male Perpetrator			Female Perpetrator			Mixed Group of Perpetrators *		
Agency	Male Victims	Female Victims	Total	Male Victims	Female Victims	Total	Male Victims	Female Victims	Total
ED	2	3	5	3	5	8	-	5	5
	40%	60%	100%	37.5%	62.5%	100%	-	100%	100%
EP	8	21	29	5	14	19	7	9	16
	27.59%	72.41%	100%	26.32%	73.68%	100%	43.75%	56.25%	100%
FD	14	8	22	1	7	8	-	5	5
	63.64%	36.36%	100%	12.5%	87.5%	100%	-	100%	100%
GS	15	14	29	3	8	11	3	7	10
	51.72%	48.28%	100%	27.27%	72.73%	100%	30%	70%	100%
HS	105	43	148	22	27	49	40	31	71
	70.95%	29.05%	100%	44.9%	55.1%	100%	56.34%	43.66%	100%
HU	6	11	17	11	14	25	9	47.06%	17
D.	35.29%	64.71%	100%	44%	56%	100%	52.94%	47.06%	100%
IN	39 54.17%	33 45.83%	72 100%	19 44.19%	24 55.81%	43 100%	14 43.75%	18 56.25%	32 100%
NINI		43.83%		44.19%				9	
NN	6 40%	60%	15 100%	41.67%	7 58.33%	12 100%	5 35.71%	64.29%	14 100%
NV	32	14	46	6	8	14	33.7170	10	14
14 4	69.57%	30.43%	100%	42.86%	57.14%	100%	28.57%	71.43%	100%
OM	2	12	14	5	15	20	2	5	7
01.1	14.29%	85.71%	100%	25%	75%	100%	28.57%	71.43%	100%
SE	13	9	22	4	7	11	3	6	9
	59.09%	40.91%	100%	36.36%	63.64%	100%	33.33%	66.67%	100%
ST	11	14	25	7	24	31	7	14	21
	44%	56%	100%	22.58%	77.42%	100%	33.33%	66.67%	100%
SZ	8	27	35	12	33	45	9	27	36
	22.86%	77.14%	100%	26.67%	73.33%	100%	25%	75%	100%
TD	30	20	50	2	8	10	9	7	16
	60%	40%	100%	20%	80%	100%	56.25%	43.75%	100%
TR	17	24	41	20	36	56	4	23	27
	41.46%	58.54%	100%	35.71%	64.29%	100%	14.81%	85.19%	100%
VA	60	69	129	21	37	58	26	41	67
	46.51%	53.49%	100%	36.21%	63.79%	100%	38.81%	61.19%	100%
Total	625	540	1165	233	397	630	210	316	526
	53.65%	46.35%	100%	36.98%	63.02%	100%	39.92%	60.08%	100%

Note. * Two or more females, two or more males, or both males and females.

AF = Air Force; AG = Agriculture; AR = Army; CM = Commerce; DD = Defense; DJ = Justice; DL = Labor;

DN = Energy; ED = Education; EP = Environmental Protection Agency; FD = Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation;

GS = General Services Administration; HS = Homeland Security; HU = Housing and Urban Development;

IN = Interior; NN = National Aeronautics and Space Administration; NV = Navy; OM = Office of Personnel Management; SE = Securities and Exchange Commission; ST = State; SZ = Social Security Administration;

TD = Transportation; TR = Treasury; and VA = Veterans Affairs.

Gender of Bullying Victims and Perpetrators

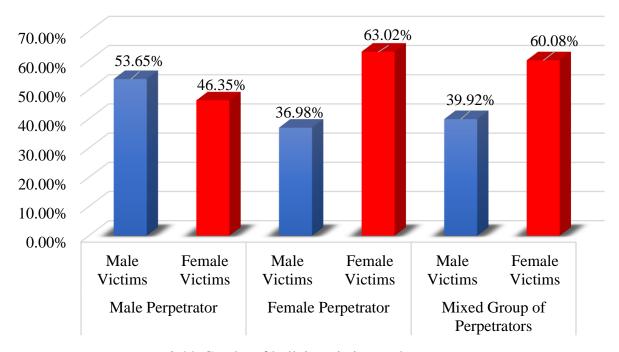


Figure 3.11. Gender of bullying victims and perpetrators. Source: Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

Table 3.5. Social Undermining Statistics by Gender of Victims and Perpetrators

	Male			Female			Mixed Group of		
	Perpetrator			Perpetrator			Perpetrators *		
	Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female	
Agency	Victims	Victims	Total	Victims	Victims	Total	Victims	Victims	Total
AF	30	12	42	6	10	16	11	5	16
	71.43%	28.57%	100%	37.5%	62.5%	100%	68.75%	31.25%	100%
AG	37	57	94	26	30	56	14	25	39
	39.36%	60.64%	100%	46.43%	53.57%	100%	35.9%	64.1%	100%
AR	53	33	86	19	17	36	10	22	32
	61.63%	38.37%	100%	52.78%	47.22%	100%	31.25%	68.75%	100%
CM	31	24	55	14	32	46	18	20	38
	56.36%	43.64%	100%	30.43%	69.57%	100%	47.37%	52.63%	100%
DD	64	55	119	27	43	70	19	32	51
	53.78%	46.22%	100%	38.57%	61.43%	100%	37.25%	62.75%	100%
DJ	72	39	111	27	45	72	18	25	43
	64.86%	35.14%	100%	37.5%	62.5%	100%	41.86%	58.14%	100%
DL	35	42	77	22	34	56	19	21	40
	45.45%	54.55%	100%	39.29%	60.71%	100%	47.5%	52.5%	100%
DN	29	24	53	13	11	24	15	11	26
	54.72%	45.28%	100%	54.17%	45.83%	100%	57.69%	42.31%	100%

	Male Perpetrator			Female Perpetrator			Mixed Group of Perpetrators *		
	Male	Female	T 4 1	Male	Female		Male	Female	
Agency	Victims	Victims	Total	Victims	Victims	Total	Victims	Victims	Total
ED	4 44.44%	5 55 560/	9 100%	6 35.29%	11 64.71%	17	30%	7	1000/
ED		55.56%				100%		70%	100%
EP	15 34.09%	29 65.91%	44 100%	8 25%	24 75%	32 100%	14 53.85%	12 46.15%	26 100%
FD	20	16	36	13	10	23	6	8	14
	55.56%	44.44%	100%	56.52%	43.48%	100%	42.86%	57.14%	100%
GS	22	23	45	8	15	23	7	9	16
	48.89%	51.11%	100%	34.78%	65.22%	100%	43.75%	56.25%	100%
HS	179	62	241	47	43	90	71	43	114
	74.27%	25.73%	100%	52.22%	47.78%	100%	62.28%	37.72%	100%
HU	10	17	27	12	24	36	16	14	30
	37.04%	62.96%	100%	33.33%	66.67%	100%	53.33%	46.67%	100%
IN	71	51	122	30	35	65	27	24	51
	58.2%	41.8%	100%	46.15%	53.85%	100%	52.94%	47.06%	100%
NN	16	16	32	8	12	20	9	12	21
	50%	50%	100%	40%	60%	100%	42.86%	57.14%	100%
NV	35	18	53	7	11	18	9	12	21
	66.04%	33.96%	100%	38.89%	61.11%	100%	42.86%	57.14%	100%
OM	5	12	17	10	21	31	4	8	12
	29.41%	70.59%	100%	32.26%	67.74%	100%	33.33%	66.67%	100%
SE	16	19	35	10	19	29	12	10	22
	45.71%	54.29%	100%	34.48%	65.52%	100%	54.55%	45.45%	100%
ST	16	22	38	13	37	50	16	18	34
	42.11%	57.89%	100%	26%	74%	100%	47.06%	52.94%	100%
SZ	18	27	45	30	50	80	10	28	38
	40%	60%	100%	37.5%	62.5%	100%	26.32%	73.68%	100%
TD	51	29	80	11	17	28	17	10	27
	63.75%	36.25%	100%	39.29%		100%	62.96%	37.04%	100%
TR	20	28	48	29	67	96	14	30	44
	41.67%	58.33%	100%	30.21%	69.79%	100%	31.82%	68.18%	100%
VA	69	69	138	38	65	103	41	56	97
	50%	50%	100%	36.89%	63.11%	100%	42.27%	57.73%	100%
Total	918	729	1647	434	683	1117	400	462	862
	55.74%	44.26%	100%	38.85%	61.15%	100%	46.40%	53.60%	100%

Note. * Two or more females, two or more males, or both males and females.

AF = Air Force; AG = Agriculture; AR = Army; CM = Commerce; DD = Defense; DJ = Justice; DL = Labor;

DN = Energy; ED = Education; EP = Environmental Protection Agency; FD = Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation;

GS = General Services Administration; HS = Homeland Security; HU = Housing and Urban Development;

IN = Interior; NN = National Aeronautics and Space Administration; NV = Navy; OM = Office of Personnel Management; SE = Securities and Exchange Commission; ST = State; SZ = Social Security Administration;

TD = Transportation; TR = Treasury; and VA = Veterans Affairs.

Gender of Social Undermining Victims and Perpetrators

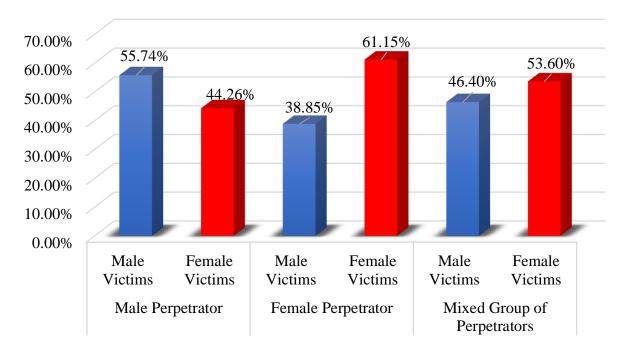


Figure 3.12. Gender of social undermining victims and perpetrators. Source: Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

Table 3.6. Ostracism Statistics by Gender of Victims and Perpetrators

	Male			Female			Mixed Group of		
	Perpetrator			Perpetrator			Perpetrators *		
	Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female	
Agency	Victims	Victims	Total	Victims	Victims	Total	Victims	Victims	Total
AF	13	10	23	1	6	7	5	5	10
	56.52%	43.48%	100%	14.29%	85.71%	100%	50%	50%	100%
AG	17	35	52	11	15	26	8	14	22
	32.69%	67.31%	100%	42.31%	57.69%	100%	36.36%	63.64%	100%
AR	22	17	39	5	9	14	1	10	11
	56.41%	43.59%	100%	35.71%	64.29%	100%	9.09%	90.91%	100%
CM	11	10	21	4	10	14	8	9	17
	52.38%	47.62%	100%	28.57%	71.43%	100%	47.06%	52.94%	100%
DD	23	19	42	6	16	22	10	17	27
	54.76%	45.24%	100%	27.27%	72.73%	100%	37.04%	62.96%	100%
DJ	27	15	42	11	15	26	10	14	24
	64.29%	35.71%	100%	42.31%	57.69%	100%	41.67%	58.33%	100%
DL	8	13	21	7	14	21	8	13	21
	38.1%	61.9%	100%	33.33%	66.67%	100%	38.1%	61.9%	100%
DN	8	12	20	3	5	8	6	7	13
	40%	60%	100%	37.5%	62.5%	100%	46.15%	53.85%	100%

	Male Perpetrator			Female Perpetrator			Mixed Group of Perpetrators *		
	Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female	
Agency	Victims	Victims	Total		Victims	Total	Victims		Total
ED	1	2	3	3	6	9	-	2	2
775	33.33%	66.67%	100%	33.33%	66.67%	100%		100%	100%
EP	5 26.32%	14 73.68%	19 100%	2 18.18%	9 81.82%	11 100%	5 33.33%	10 66.67%	15 100%
ED	20.32%	73.08%	100%	3	5	100%	33.33%	5	6
FD	68.75%	31.25%	100%	37.5%	62.5%	100%	16.67%	83.33%	100%
GS	4	11	15	2	6	8	3	5	8
	26.67%	73.33%	100%	25%	75%	100%	37.5%	62.5%	100%
HS	64	32	96	12	18	30	33	28	61
	66.67%	33.33%	100%	40%	60%	100%	54.1%	45.9%	100%
HU	4	7	11	6	13	19	8	9	17
	36.36%	63.64%	100%	31.58%	68.42%	100%	47.06%	52.94%	100%
IN	21	26	47	9	14	23	14	14	28
	44.68%	55.32%	100%	39.13%	60.87%	100%	50%	50%	100%
NN	6	4	10	2	3	5	4	6	10
	60%	40%	100%	40%	60%	100%	40%	60%	100%
NV	15 68.18%	7 31.82%	22 100%	2 28.57%	5 71.43%	7 100%	30%	7 70%	10 100%
OM		31.8270			8		2		3
OM	1 25%	3 75%	4 100%	4 33.33%	8 66.67%	12 100%	66.67%	1 33.33%	100%
SE	7	7570	14	2	6	8	5	5	10
SL	50%	50%	100%	25%	75%	100%	50%	50%	100%
ST	4	9	13	5	18	23	6	8	14
	30.77%	69.23%	100%	21.74%	78.26%	100%	42.86%	57.14%	100%
SZ	6	10	16	8	18	26	6	14	20
	37.5%	62.5%	100%	30.77%	69.23%	100%	30%	70%	100%
TD	18	12	30	2	6	8	8	6	14
	60%	40%	100%	25%	75%	100%	57.14%	42.86%	100%
TR	4	10	14	9	25	34	7	16	23
	28.57%	71.43%	100%	26.47%	73.53%	100%	30.43%	69.57%	100%
VA	25	29 52.70/	54	14	28	42	13	22	35
	46.3%	53.7%	100%	33.33%	66.67%	100%	37.14%	62.86%	100%
Total	325	319	644	133	278	411	174	247	421
50.47% 49.53% 100% 32.36% 67.64% 100% 41.33% 58.67% 100% Source Marit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Marit Systems Protection Roard									

Note. * Two or more females, two or more males, or both males and females.

AF = Air Force; AG = Agriculture; AR = Army; CM = Commerce; DD = Defense; DJ = Justice; DL = Labor;

DN = Energy; ED = Education; EP = Environmental Protection Agency; FD = Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation;

GS = General Services Administration; HS = Homeland Security; HU = Housing and Urban Development;

 $IN = Interior; \ NN = National \ Aeronautics \ and \ Space \ Administration; \ NV = Navy; \ OM = Office \ of \ Personnel \ Management; \ SE = Securities \ and \ Exchange \ Commission; \ ST = State; \ SZ = Social \ Security \ Administration;$

 $TD = Transportation; \ TR = Treasury; \ and \ VA = Veterans \ Affairs.$

Gender of Ostracism Victims and Perpetrators

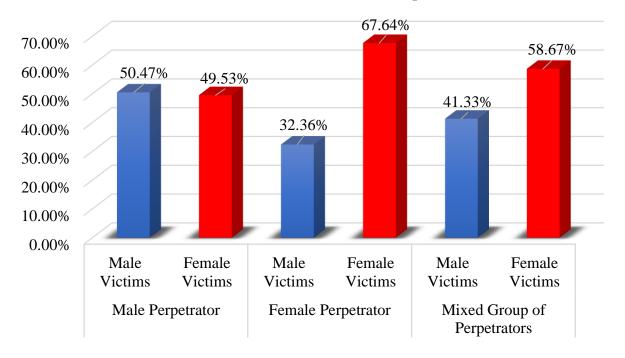


Figure 3.13. Gender of ostracism victims and perpetrators. Source: Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

The Status of the Perpetrators

Tables 3.7 presents ten potential actors committing acts of sexual harassment, bullying, social undermining, and ostracism in the federal workplace: (1) immediate supervisor, (2) higher level supervisor, (3) coworker, (4) subordinate, (5) other employee, (6) customer/member of the public, (7) contractor, (8) partner/significant other/spouse, (9) criminal, and (10) other. To present the findings, the present study followed the U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board [MSPB] (2017, 2018) in categorizing these potential actors into three groups: (a) agency official (immediate supervisor and higher level supervisor), (b) agency employee (coworker, subordinate, and other employee), and (c) other (customer/member of the public, contractor, partner/significant other/spouse, criminal, and other).

The results presented in Table 3.7 indicate that most sexual harassers were coworkers (31.33%), followed by (in descending order) other employees (21.27%), others (10.06%), higher-level supervisors (9.80%), and customer/member of the public (7.94%).

Table 3.7 shows that federal employees who experienced bullying at work were most frequently victimized by coworkers (24.05%), followed by (in descending order) higher-level supervisors (16.21%), other employees (15.21%), subordinates (14.87%), and immediate supervisor (9.86%).

Regarding social undermining, Table 3.7 indicates that most perpetrators of this form of workplace aggression were coworkers (23.982%), followed by (in descending order) other employees (17.49%) as well as higher-level supervisors (17.49%), subordinates (12.69%), and immediate supervisor (9.42%).

Finally, Table 3.7 reports that coworkers (25.89%) were the most frequently reported ostracizers, followed by (in descending order) other employees (18.56%), higher-level supervisors (17.22%), subordinates (10.13%), and immediate supervisor (8.79%).

Figures 3.14 to 3.17 display the status of the persons who committed the acts of sexual harassment and workplace aggression in the federal workplace.

Table 3.7. Status of Sexual Harassers and Workplace Aggressors

Status of	Sexual		Social	
Harasser and Aggressor	Harassment *	Bullying	Undermining	Ostracism
Agency official:				
Immediate supervisor	65	250	380	145
	5.74%	9.86%	9.42%	8.79%
Higher level supervisor	111	411	706	284
	9.80%	16.21%	17.49%	17.22%
Agency employee:				
Coworker	355	610	968	427
	31.33%	24.05%	23.98%	25.89%
Subordinate	74	377	512	167
	6.53%	14.87%	12.69%	10.13%
Another employee	241	387	706	306
	21.27%	15.26%	17.49%	18.56%
Other:				
Customer/member of the	90	193	242	85
public	7.94%	7.61%	6.00%	5.15%
Contractor	56	88	142	73
	4.94%	3.47%	3.52%	4.43%
Partner/significant	20	57	84	45
other/spouse	1.77%	2.25%	2.08%	2.73%
Criminal	7	18	26	12
	0.62%	0.71%	0.64%	0.73%
Other	114	145	270	105
	10.06%	5.72%	6.69%	6.37%
Total	1133	2536	4036	1649
	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

Note. * Because the present study used a different approach in measuring the incidents of sexual harassment and did not apply a survey weight in reporting the frequencies and percentages related to sexual harassment, the results above differ from the sexual harassment report of the U.S. MSPB published in 2018.

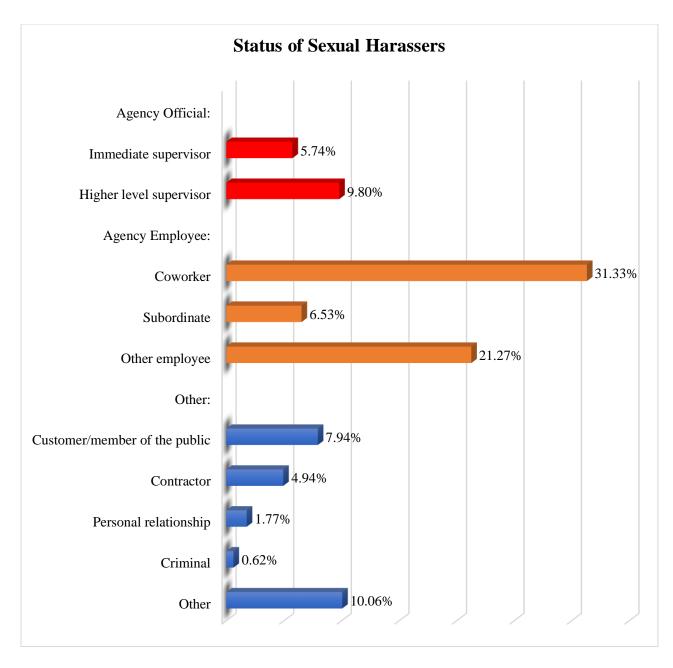


Figure 3.14. Status of sexual harassers.

Note. Because the present study used a different approach in measuring the incidents of sexual harassment and did not apply a survey weight in reporting the frequencies and percentages related to sexual harassment, the results above differ from the sexual harassment report of the U.S. MSPB published in 2018.

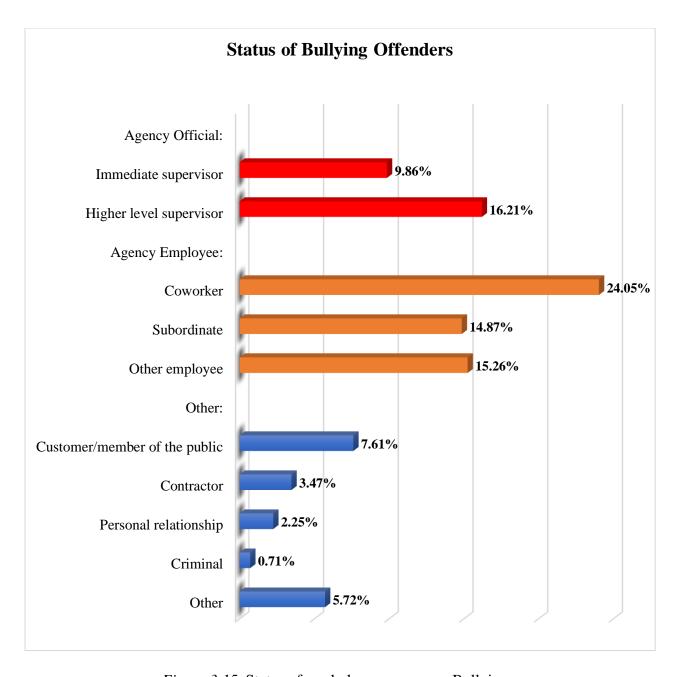


Figure 3.15. Status of workplace aggressors: Bullying.

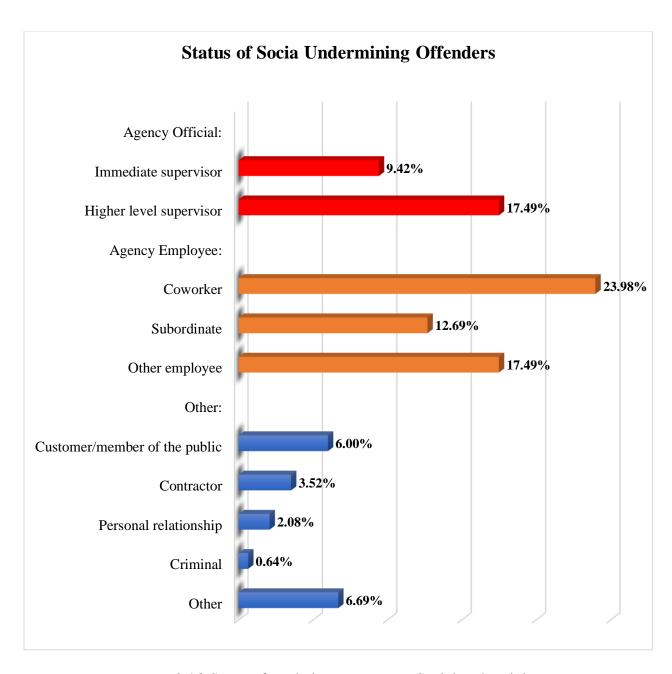


Figure 3.16. Status of workplace aggressors: Social undermining. Source: Merit Principles Survey 2016: U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board.

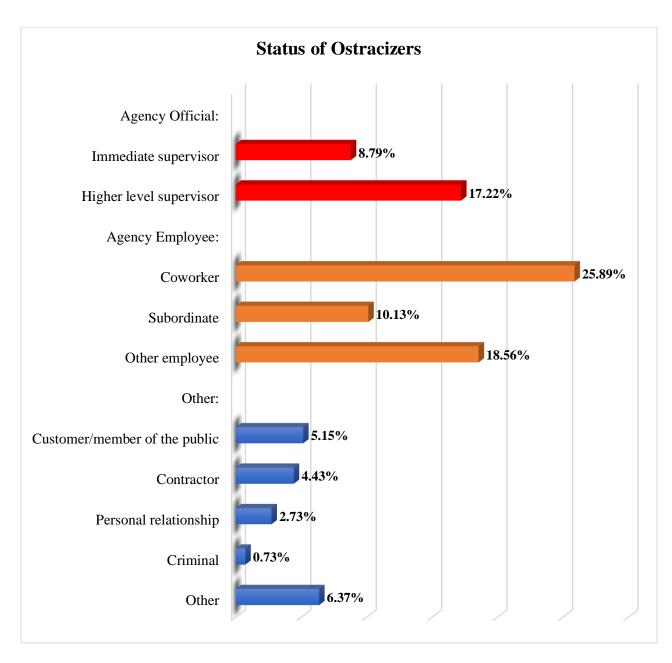


Figure 3.17. Status of workplace aggressors: Ostracism.

How did the Victims Respond?

Research Question 4 concerns the actions taken by federal employees after experiencing sexual harassment or any form of workplace aggression. Table 3.8 reports nine possible responses to sexual harassment and any form of workplace aggression from which the respondents could choose: (1) avoided the harassers; (2) ignored the behavior or did nothing; (3) asked the harasser[s] to stop; (4) made a joke of the behavior; (5) went along with the behavior; (6) threatened to tell or told others; (7) reported to the supervisor; (8) filed a formal complaint; and (9) changed jobs or locations.

For victims who experienced workplace sexual harassment, the three most frequent actions taken were (in descending order) avoiding the harassers (60.53%), asking the harassers to stop (52.79%), and ignoring the behavior or doing nothing (37.07%) (Table 3.8).

Regarding workplace bullying, Table 3.8 indicates that the three most frequent actions victims took after being bullied were (in descending order) reporting the behavior to the supervisor (62.16%), asking the perpetrators to stop (55.18%), and avoiding the perpetrators (54.00%).

In terms of social undermining, Table 3.8 illustrates that the three most frequent actions which victims who were undermined at work took were (in descending order) reporting the behavior to the supervisor (55.37%), avoiding the perpetrators (52.87%), and asking the perpetrators to stop (42.77%).

Finally, the three most frequent actions which victims of ostracism took were (in descending order) reporting the behavior to the supervisor (58.06%), avoiding the harassers (57.36%), and asking the ostracizers to stop (49.94%) (Table 3.8).

Table 3.8. Victims' Responses to Sexual Harassment and Each Form of Workplace Aggression

	Sexual	Workplace	ice Social	
Responses	Harassment *	Bullying	Undermining	Ostracism
Asked the harasser(s) to stop		· · ·		
No	600	1125	2115	821
	47.21%	44.82%	52.78%	50.06%
Yes	671	1385	1892	819
	52.79%	55.18%	47.22%	49.94%
Total	1271	2510	4007	1640
	100%	100%	100%	100%
Reported the behavior to the supervisor				
No	828	952	1788	689
140	65.45%	37.84%	44.63%	41.94%
Yes	437	1564	2218	954
103	34.55%	62.16%	55.37%	58.06%
Total	1265	2516	4006	1643
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
Threatened to tell or told others	10070	10070	10070	10070
No	857	1423	2446	934
110	67.75%	56.83%	61.21%	57.02%
Yes	408	1081	1550	704
	32.25%	43.17%	38.79%	42.98%
Total	1265	2504	3996	1638
	100%	100%	100%	100%
Filed a formal complaint				
No	1135	2102	3415	1336
	89.65%	83.98%	85.50%	81.66%
Yes	131	401	579	300
	10.35%	16.02%	14.50%	18.34%
Total	1266	2503	3994	1636
	100%	100%	100%	100%
Avoided the harasser(s)				
No	504	1157	1895	701
	39.47%	46.00%	47.13%	42.64%
Yes	773	1358	2126	943
	60.53%	54.00%	52.87%	57.36%
Total	1277	2515	4021	1644
	100%	100%	100%	100%
I changed jobs or locations				
No	1110	2145	3453	1349
	87.61%	85.87%	86.72%	82.61%
Yes	157	353	529	284
m 1	12.39%	14.13%	13.28%	17.39%
Total	1267	2498	3982	1633
	100%	100%	100%	100%

	Sexual	Workplace	Social	
Responses	Harassment *	Bullying	Undermining	Ostracism
Ignored the behavior or did nothing				
No	798	1929	2968	1194
	62.93%	76.98%	74.27%	72.89%
Yes	470	577	1028	444
	37.07%	23.02%	25.73%	27.11%
Total	1268	2506	3996	1638
	100%	100%	100%	100%
Made a joke of the behavior				_
No	1114	2346	3731	1525
	87.99%	93.76%	93.49%	93.33%
Yes	152	156	260	109
	12.01%	6.24%	6.51%	6.67%
Total	1266	2502	3991	1634
	100%	100%	100%	100%
Went along with the behavior				
No	1126	2314	3694	1506
	89.37%	92.52%	92.56%	92.05%
Yes	134	187	297	130
	10.63%	7.48%	7.44%	7.95%
Total	1260	2501	3991	1636
	100%	100%	100%	100%

Note. * Because the present study used a different approach in measuring the incidents of sexual harassment and did not apply a survey weight in reporting the frequencies and percentages related to sexual harassment, the results above differ from the sexual harassment report of the U.S. MSPB published in 2018.

Conclusion

In sum, this chapter answered Research Question 1 regarding the incidents of sexual harassment and each form of workplace aggression (bullying, social undermining, and ostracism) as well as the prevalence of these mistreatment behaviors across the 24 federal agencies surveyed. Next, victim characteristics (Research Questions 2) and perpetrator characteristics (Research Question 3) were investigated. Finally, this study analyzed actions which the victims chose to take in response to sexual harassment and workplace aggression, as per Research Question 4. The next chapter presents the results of Research Questions 5, which examine factors that are linked to the occurrences of sexual harassment and each form of workplace aggression in federal workplaces.

CHAPTER 4

PREDICTING SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND WORKPLACE AGGRESSION

Background and Hypotheses

Many studies indicate that workplace mistreatment is common and takes a serious toll on employees and organizations. Researchers have sought to identify factors contributing to the occurrence of workplace mistreatment with the aim of attenuating its impacts or even preventing it. Mistreatment literature, to date, has suggested multiple possible antecedents that can lead to mistreatment in organizations, and these antecedents can be broadly divided into three categories: (a) victim and perpetrator characteristics (e.g., gender, age, and race), (b) job stressors (e.g., work stress, role conflict, and job security and stability), and (c) work environment (e.g., numerical gender ratios, work climate/culture, and organizational human resource systems) (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gefland, & Magley, 1997; Penny, Martir, & Bok, 2017).

Although numerous research studies have investigated the role that these antecedents play in mistreatment in organizations, little is known about how individual characteristics, job stressors, and work environment can trigger or impede the occurrences of various forms of mistreatment in the federal government. Hence, the objective of this study is two-fold. First, this study seeks a better understanding of the link between individual characteristics (i.e., age, minority, education, job tenure, and newcomer status), job stressors (i.e., work stress, job stability, and workload), and organizational factors (i.e., size, male- and female-dominated environments, gender ratio, workforce diversity) with regard to the incidence of sexual harassment and three forms of

workplace aggression (bullying, social undermining, and ostracism) in the federal workplace. Second, prior research (e.g., Lewis et al., 2017; Berry, Ones, and Sackett, 2007; Neumann & Baron, 1997) found that a positive work environment and human resource systems can reduce the occurrence of workplace mistreatment. Therefore, this study tests whether situational factors, including ethical/moral work climate and the discrimination complaint process in federal workplaces, help reduce incidents of workplace sexual harassment, bullying, social undermining, and ostracism. This study suggests that when a federal agency has higher levels of ethical/moral work climate and a more effective DCP, the rates of sexual harassment and any form of aggression in the workplace are more likely to decrease.

A theoretical model of this study is presented in Figure 4.1.

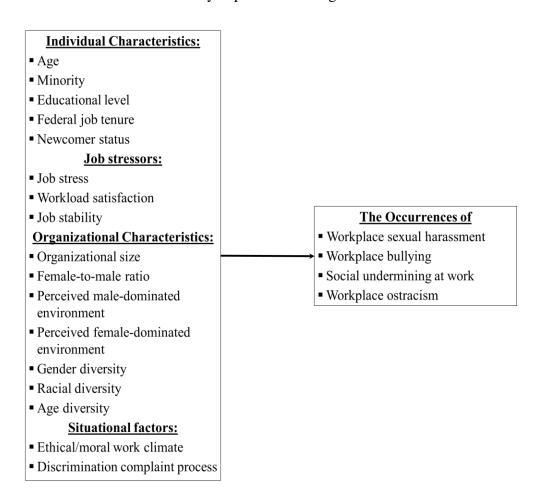


Figure 4.1. A theoretical model.

Victims' Age

Prior studies which collected data from mistreatment victims reported that younger adult employees are at greater risk of experiencing harassment and aggression in the workplace. For example, Mayhew and Quinlan (2002) surveyed workers in the fast-food industry and found that younger adult workers are more likely to experience mistreatment at work. In the public sector, Tangri, Burt, and Johnson (1982) analyzed data from the Merit Principles Survey of 1980 (MPS 1980) and found that incidents of sexual harassment in the U.S. federal workplace are more frequently reported by younger federal employees. This finding is consistent with Jackson and Newman (2004) who analyzed data from the Merit Principles Survey of 1998 (MPS 1998) and found an association between younger federal employees and their experiences with sexual harassment at work. A similar phenomenon occurs among state government employees. That is, younger adult state employees have high rates of workplace aggression experiences (Hurrell et al., 1996). Nevertheless, others suggested that there were no effects of age on the frequency of being the victim of workplace mistreatment (e.g., Baron et al., 1999; Guterman, Jayaratne, & Bargal, 1996). Building on these previous studies, this study hypothesizes that young federal employees are at a greater risk than their elders to experience workplace sexual harassment and aggression. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis (H) 1: Younger federal employees (ages 39 and under) are more likely than the older ones (ages 40 and over) to experience (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

Minority victims

Scholars are far from a consensus on the role race and ethnicity play in workplace mistreatment. For instance, while McFarlin et al. (2001) found that Whites were more likely to aggress than other races, Glomb (2002) argued that the aggression actors and their targets were usually of the same race. Still, previous research studies suggest that minorities are more likely than non-minorities to experience mistreatment in the workplace. For example, some studies found that more women of color report being the targets of workplace sexual harassment than white women (Buchanan & Ormerod, 2002; McLaughlin, Uggen, & Blackstone, 2012; Texeira, 2002). With respect to workplace bullying, Fox and Stallworth (2005) collected data from 261 full-time employees of various ethnicities in the U.S. and found that, regarding general bullying, Hispanic/Latino employees reported being the targets of general bullying more often than other races. Concerning racial/ethnic bullying, Fox and Stallworth (2005) found minorities, especially Asian or Pacific Islander employees, reported significantly higher levels of racial/ethnic bullying experience than African Americans, Hispanics/Latinos, and Whites, respectively.

Therefore, in line with previous research, this study hypothesizes that a group of minorities in federal workplaces are more likely than non-minorities to experience sexual harassment and other forms of mistreatment at work. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: Minority federal employees are more likely than non-minority federal employees to experience (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

Victims' Educational Level

Research on the relationship between victims' level of education and experiences of mistreatment reports conflicting results. For instance, De Coster et al. (1999, p. 29) found that more educated women who challenged the "economic and status resources traditionally monopolized by males," were more likely to be the targets of mistreatment in the workplace. In the public sector, Tangri et al. (1982) analyzed data from the MPS 1980 and found that federal employees with some graduate degree experienced more sexual harassment than federal employees with less than a high school diploma. Moreover, Jackson and Newman (2004) analyzed data from the MPS 1998 and found similar results to Tangri et al.'s. Namely, highly educated federal employees reported experiencing sexual harassment more than less educated employees. Yet, some studies demonstrated that education level could not predict the exposure to workplace mistreatment both in psychological and physical forms (e.g., McLaughlin et al., 2012; Schat, Frone, & Kelloway, 2006). Consistent with this understanding, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3: More educated federal employees are more likely than less educated ones to experience (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

Victims' Job Tenure

A meta-analysis of 350 empirical studies conducted by Ng and Feldman (2010, p. 1239) found that those who have a long job tenure length are more likely to engage in deviant and aggressive behaviors, and they argued that this may be true because long-tenured employees may have more power and authority in the organization and perceive more freedom to express their

voices and opinions. Additionally, long-tenured employees tend to neglect to keep their negative emotions under control. Consequently, they are more inclined to harass and aggress other employees. Consistent with this understanding, this study hypothesizes that longer-tenured employees are more prone than shorter-tenured employees to be victims of mistreatment. Because the longer they stay with an agency, the more likely they are to have had mistreatment experiences at work. Accordingly, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H4: Longer-tenured federal employees are more likely than shorter-tenured employees to experience (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

Victims' Newcomer Status

Regarding newcomer status, this study defines those federal employees who have worked at a current agency for less than 3 years as newcomers. Newcomers are more likely to be victims of harassment and aggression because they have low workplace power and support. Although little evidence is available to explain the link between newcomer status and the experiences of sexual harassment and aggression in the federal workplace, Tangri et al. (1982) analyzed data from the MPS 1982 and found that men and women pioneers reported more frequent sexual harassment than their counterparts. Overall, there is a need for a clearer understanding of the relationship between newcomer status and mistreatment in the federal workplace based on the most recent data from the MPS 2016. Therefore, this study proposes the following:

H5: Newcomers (i.e., federal employees who have worked at a current agency less than 3 years) are more likely to experience (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

Job Stressors: Job stress, Job Stability, and Workload

Research in many domains illustrates powerful effects of job stressors on the occurrence of mistreatment behaviors. For example, some studies (e.g., Baillien, Neyens, & De Witte, 2011; Zapf, Knorz, & Kulla, 1996) found that organizational constraints, such as job instability, downsizing organizations, and organizational changes, cause employees to engage in harassment and aggression because these work conditions tend to create higher levels of role ambiguity and interpersonal conflict. Moreover, accumulating empirical research indicates that role stressors, including role conflict, role ambiguity, and work overload, are associated with an increased risk of workplace aggression (e.g., Balducci, Cecchin, & Fraccaroli, 2012; Chen & Spector, 1992; Lewis, Megicks, & Jones, 2017; Miles, Borman, Spector, & Fox, 2002; Notelaers, Witte, & Einarsen, 2010; Reknes, Einarsen, Knardahl, & Lau, 2014).

Building on these previous studies, this study theorized that workplace sexual harassment and aggression are prevalent in high-stress jobs and unstable organizations. In contrast, low-stress jobs and job stability should help reduce stress and anxiety in the workplace, and subsequently decrease the prevalence of mistreatment in the organization. Moreover, higher levels of work overload and role ambiguity within an organization put employees at a greater risk of being victims of sexual harassment and aggression in the workplace. In contrast, a well-balanced workload and high role clarity may help reduce workplace stress and conflict, resulting in a decrease the prevalence of mistreatment within the organization. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H6: Job stress in the federal workplace is associated with an increased risk of (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

H7: Job stability in the federal workplace is associated with a decreased risk of (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

H8: Workload satisfaction is associated with a decreased risk of (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

Organizational Size

Numerous research studies (e.g., Duffy, Ganster, Shaw, Johnson, & Pagon, 2006; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Lewis, Megicks, & Jones, 2017) have indicated that number of employees is associated with an increased risk of mistreatment in workplaces. Einarsen and Skogstad (1996), for example, studied 7,986 employees working in Norwegian public and private organizations and found that the rates of bullying were higher in organizations with greater numbers of employees than in organizations with smaller numbers. Similarly, Lewis, Megicks, and Jones (2017) studied the prevalence of workplace bullying and harassment in British small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and found a positive relationship between the size of an organization and the rates of bullying and harassment. A study of 1,737 police officers in Slovenia by Duffy et al. (2006) found that the size of a police unit was positively related to the occurrence of undermining behaviors enacted by supervisors. This study further suggested that as the size of a work unit increases, employees within the unit are more likely to face interpersonal conflicts and

communication problems. These factors can lead to the occurrence of workplace mistreatment and a higher rate of victimization by mistreatment.

Regarding the U.S. federal government, little research has examined the link between the size of a federal agency and the incidents of sexual harassment and workplace aggression. This study, therefore, predicts that federal agencies with a large number of employees will be at higher risk of any form of mistreatment because these agencies tend to have high levels of task and interpersonal conflicts, thus making harassment and aggression more likely. Taken together, these arguments suggest the following:

H9: The size of a federal agency is associated with an increased risk of (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

Job-Gender Context: Female-to-Male Ratio and Female/Male- Dominated Environments

Job-gender context has been defined as the workplace gender ratio, gender of supervisor, and a gender occupation which is defined by gendered behavior and culture (Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). It can also be divided into two categories: numerical and normative (Gruber & Morgan, 2005). Regarding numerically job-gender aspect, prior research (e.g., Arkin & Dobrofsky, 1978; Glick, 1991; Stockdale, 1993) has suggested that workplace mistreatment, especially overtly aggressive behaviors (e.g., sexual harassment and bullying), tends to emerge in an organization where the proportion of men is greater than the proportion of women. That is because organizations with a greater number of men (e.g., the military) are more likely to have higher occupational status than female employees. Consequently, some types of overt mistreatment, such as sexual harassment, which is an example of aggression directed toward targets of lower status and female,

are most likely to occur in this type of organization (Eagly, 1983; Keasley et al. 1994, Thacker & Ferris, 1991). Additionally, a survey of 507 tenure track faculty at a private Midwestern university in the U.S. by Maranto and Griffin (2011) found that female faculty members perceived more exclusion (a.k.a., ostracism) from their departments, which had low representations of female faculty and staff. Building on these previous studies, this study predicts that lower rates of sexual harassment and all the three forms of workplace aggression should be found in federal agencies with a greater proportion of women to men. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H10: A greater proportion of females in the federal workplace is associated with a decreased risk of (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

In terms of normatively job-gendered context, organizations that employ more men than women are referred to as male-dominated environments where traditional masculine values are prominent (e.g., the military) (Gruber & Morgan, 2005). Previous research studies have indicated that women working in male-dominated environments (e.g., the military or law offices) had higher experiences of workplace sexual harassment and aggression (e.g., Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Gruber, 2003, Gutek & Morasch, 1982; Leskinen, Cortina, & Kabat, 2011; Mansfield et al., 1991; Wasti, Bergman, Glomb, & Drasgow, 2000). Furthermore, a meta-analysis conducted by Willness et al. (2007) found that having few women working in a male-dominated context increases the chances of experiencing sexual harassment and aggression. This meta-analysis also revealed that contrary to popular belief, the relationship between a male-dominated context and the incidence of sexual harassment and aggression was greater for nonmilitary organizations than for military organizations.

Overall, although numerous research studies have investigated the role that job-gendered context plays in mistreatment in organizations, the link between job-gendered context, especially in terms of male- and female-dominated environments, and the occurrences of any form of mistreatment in federal workplaces still remains unknown. This study aims to extend the literature by predicting that women working in male-dominated environments will be at greater risk of experiencing both overt and covert forms of mistreatment. Likewise, men working in female-dominated environments would be more likely to experience such mistreatment as well. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H11: Female federal employees working in male-dominated environments are more likely to experience (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

H12: Male employees working in female-dominated environments are more likely to experience (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

Workforce Diversity

Evidence from available research indicates that some aspect of workforce diversity is positively associated with an increased risk of sexual harassment and workplace aggression. For example, King et al. (2011) studied the relationship between the ethnic diversity of healthcare providers and civil treatment of patients in 142 hospitals in the U.K. and found that greater ethnic diversity of providers was associated with lower levels of civility of patient treatment. Two studies, including Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly (1994) and Baron and Neuman (1998) found similar results, that is, when the organization increases workforce diversity (e.g., introducing new affirmative

action policies), it provokes employees' negative emotions and reactions, such as anger, anxiety, frustration, and conflict. High levels of negative emotions and reactions can lead those employees to commit aggressive acts (Baron & Neuman, 1998; Tsui et al., 1994).

Overall, although empirical studies have supported the assertion that workforce diversity can lead to the occurrence of mistreatment in the workplace, little research has investigated the role that workforce diversity, especially the diversity of gender, race/ethnicity, and age, plays in mistreatment in the federal workplace. This study predicts that having a diverse workforce without proper inclusion programs may put federal employees at higher risk of experiencing any form of mistreatment in the workplace. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H13: Federal agencies with greater levels of gender diversity have an increased risk of (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

H14: Federal agencies with greater levels of ethnic diversity have an increased risk of (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

H15: Federal agencies with greater levels of age diversity have an increased risk of (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

Ethical/Moral Work Climate

The role an organization's ethical climate plays in decreasing workplace mistreatment can be found in the study of Lee et al. (2016), which examined the relationships between perceived interpersonal injustice, moral disengagement, and undermining behaviors of employees. This study reported that employees who perceive interpersonal injustice in their workplace are more inclined to morally disengage and, subsequently, tend to engage in undermining behaviors. However, Lee and associates found that moral identity can moderate the relationship between moral disengagement and undermining behaviors such that the positive relationship between moral disengagement and the engagement of undermining behavior will be weaker when individuals have a high level of moral identity. This suggests that having a moral/ethical work climate should help reduce the prevalence of mistreatment in the workplace. Thus, this study predicts the following:

H16: An ethical/moral work climate in a federal agency is associated with a decreased risk of (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

Effectiveness of the Discrimination Complaint Process

Scholars have suggested that the organization's human resource (HR) systems can influence the occurrence and the prevalence of mistreatment in the workplace because the HR systems help organizations select, train, reward, and punish mistreatment perpetrators (Bowling & Beehr, 2006). For example, Williams, Fitzgerald, and Drasgow (1999) examined the association between the HR practices and the prevalence of sexual harassment in the U.S. armed services and found that the implementation practices related to the prevention of harassment could decrease incidents of sexual harassment in the armed services.

The U.S. Office of Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) has introduced the discrimination complaint process to resolve disputes alleging acts of employment discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, national origin, age, disability or sexual

orientation that are prohibited by EEO laws and regulations. According to the discrimination complaint process, if a federal employee is sexually harassed at work, he or she must consult with the EEO Counselor at the agency where he or she works within 45 days of an alleged discriminatory act and then decide whether or not to pursue pre-complaint counseling. If the issue is not resolved within 30 days, the employee has the right to file a formal complaint to initiate an investigation by the agency. When the investigation is completed, the employee will be informed of two choices: either to request a hearing before an EEOC Administrative Judge or ask the agency to issue a decision. Although the discrimination complaint process has been used by the EEOC to prevent and alleviate unlawful discrimination, especially sexual harassment, in federal workplaces, few studies have examined the process's effectiveness. Further, no study has shown a relationship between the discrimination complaint process and decreases in the incidence of sexual harassment and aggression in the federal government. Therefore, this study hypothesized the following:

H17: The perceived effectiveness of the discrimination complaint process (DCP) is associated with a decreased risk of (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (c) ostracism.

Data and Methods

Data

The data used in this study were drawn from the 2016 Merit Principles Survey (MPS 2016) administered by the U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board (MSPB).¹ A stratified random sample was used by the MSPB to select federal employees representing three supervisory statuses—

¹ https://catalog.data.gov/dataset/merit-principles-survey-2016-data

nonsupervisory, supervisor, and executive—from the 24 federal agencies surveyed. The selected federal employees were invited via email to complete three distinct online surveys, called "paths," between June and September 2016. This study relied on data from the MPS 2016's Path 1, which included questions concerning federal employees' demographics and their experiences with workplace sexual harassment and various forms of aggression over the 2 years preceding the survey. The total number of survey invitations for Path 1 was 37,452, and the final and complete responses were 14,515 or 38.8% (U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 2016).

Furthermore, data pertaining to the total number of federal employees and the total number of female and male employees in the 24 federal agencies surveyed were derived from the FedScope Employment Cube (September 2016).²

Measures

Sexual harassment experience. Sexual harassment experience was assessed using 12 items related to sexual harassment behaviors in the MPS 2016's Path 1 (e.g., "Unwelcome invasion of personal space" "Use of derogatory or unprofessional terms related to a person's sex/gender" "Pressure for dates"). Responses were coded 1 if respondents reported experiencing any of the following 12 sexual harassment behaviors over the 2 years preceding the survey, and 0 otherwise.

Workplace bullying experience. Two items from the MPS 2016 were used to measure workplace bullying experience (i.e., "In the past two years, have you experienced *physical intimidation*, such as intentionally making someone uncomfortable by getting in their way or too close without touching them, in the workplace?" and "In the past two years, have you experienced *verbal intimidation*, such as shouting, swearing, disrespectful name-calling, in the workplace?).

² https://www.fedscope.opm.gov/employment.asp

Responses were coded 1 if respondents reported experiencing physical intimidation, verbal intimidation, or both at work over the 2 years preceding the survey, and 0 otherwise.

Social undermining experience. Social undermining experience was assessed with 4 items from the MPS 2016's Path 1. The items were adapted from Duffy, Ganster, and Pagon (2002) (i.e., "In the past two years, have you experienced any of the following acts of workplace aggression/harassment that were directed at you in the workplace? (a) spreading rumors or negative comments about you to undermine your status; (b) undeserved criticisms; (c) unreasonable assignments or deadlines, and (d) undermining/sabotaging performance.") Responses were coded 1 if respondents reported experiencing any of the following 4 social undermining behaviors over the 2 years preceding the survey, and 0 otherwise.

Ostracism experience. Workplace ostracism was measured with one item from the MPS 2016's Path 1. This item was adapted from Ferris, Brown, Berry, and Lian (2008) and included respondents' experience with social exclusion at work (i.e., "In the past two years, have you experienced excluding from work-related or social activities in the workplace?). Responses were coded 1(Experienced) and 0 (Never).

Gender. This study measured gender with a self-reported dichotomous item (female is coded as 1 and 0 otherwise).

Age. Age was assessed with a self-reported dichotomous item. If the participants reported their ages below 39 years old, they were coded as 1 and 0 otherwise.

Minority. The participants reported their ethnicity in the survey and were coded as 1 if they were a minority (i.e., American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, or Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander), and 0 if they were White.

Education. The survey asked the participants to self-report their higher education level in

three categories: (a) less than an AA degree (coded as 1), (b) an AA or BA degree (coded as 2), and (c) a graduate degree (coded as 3).

Federal job tenure. This study measured federal job tenure with a self-reported dichotomous item. If the participants had worked for the federal government for more than 4 years, they will be coded as 1 and 0 otherwise.

Newcomer. The participants were asked to report their working years with a current agency. If they have worked with a current agency for less than 3 years, they will be considered as a newcomer and coded as 1 and 0 otherwise.

Job stress. Job stress was assessed using a single item from the MPS 2016: "Your level of job stress is ..." Participants responded on a 5-point scale (1 = Very low stress level; 5 = Very high stress level).

Job stability. A single item from the MPS 2016 was used to assess the extent to which the participant is satisfied with organization's stability. Participants responded on a 5-point scale (1 = Very dissatisfied; 5 = Very satisfied).

Workload satisfaction. A single item from the MPS 2016 was used to assess the extent to which the participant is satisfied with work demands in his/her unit. Participants responded on a 5-point scale ($1 = Very \ dissatisfied$; $5 = Very \ satisfied$).

Organizational size. The organizational size was measured using data from the FedScope Employment Cube of September 2016. Because the distribution of the number of employees in 24 federal agencies surveyed was asymmetric, this study took the natural log of this variable to normalize the distribution of the data and minimize the impact of outliers (Keene, 1995).

Female-to-male employee ratio. This variable was from FedScope and calculated from the ratio of female to male in each study agency.

Perceived female-dominated environment. This variable was assessed using a single item from the MPS 2016: "Gender composition of workgroup..." If the participants answered, "Substantially more females than males," this study considered their agency to be a female-dominated environment and was coded as 1 and 0 otherwise.

Perceived male-dominated environment. The perceived male-dominated environment was measured using a single item from the MPS 2016: "Gender composition of workgroup..." If the participants answered, "Substantially more males than females," this study considered their agency to be a male-dominated environment and was coded as 1 and 0 otherwise.

Gender diversity. This study used data from FedScope to calculate the Blau's index of gender heterogeneity using the following equation: $(1-\sum p_K^2)$, where p is the proportion of group members in each of the K categories (Blau, 1977). Values of Blau's index can range from zero to (K-1)/K (Harrison & Klein, 2007). In this study, gender can be divided into two categories: female and male.

Ethnic diversity. The Blau's index of ethnic heterogeneity was calculated using data from FedScope. In this study, ethnicity can be divided into two groups: minority and non-minority.³

Age diversity. The Blau's index of age diversity was calculated using data from the FedScope. This study divided employee ages into four categories: Generation Z (born 1977-2012 or ages 20-24); Generation Y or Millennials (aged 25-34 years old or born 1981-1996 or ages 25-34); Generation X (born 1965-1980 or ages 35-54); and Baby boomers (born 1946-1964 or ages 55-73).⁴

³ *Minority group* refers to federal employees who were American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, or Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander. *Non-minority group* refers to federal employees who were White

 $^{^4\} https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2019/01/17/where-millennials-end-and-generation-z-begins/ft_19-01-17_generations_2019/$

Ethical/moral work climate. The ethical/moral work climate was assessed by 4 items from the MPS 2016: "I am treated with respect at work," "Feeling respected by colleagues/supervisors/managers," "Being included in important discussions/decisions," and "I feel comfortable being myself at work." Participants responded on a 5-point scale (1 = Very unimportant; 5 = Very important) (Cronbach's alpha is .87).

Effectiveness of the discrimination complaint process (DCP). This variable derived from the MPS 2016 and was assessed using a five-item measure. An example item is "I am familiar with the formal complaint channels that are available to people who have experienced discrimination." The participants responded on a 5-point scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly agree) (Cronbach's alpha = .91).

Control variables. To account for the viability of variables that could provide alternative explanations for the hypothesized relationships among the studied variables, this study controlled for employees' related variables, including annual salary, supervisory status, and union membership because previous studies reported that socioeconomic factors, job position, and union membership are associated with experiencing sexual harassment and aggression (e.g., Bjorkqvist, Österman, & Lagerspetz, 1994; Bowling and Beehr, 2006, Hodge, 2006). Furthermore, this study accounted for work location using the dummy variable Headquarters, based on previous research suggesting that employees working at headquarters offices are more likely than those employees working in field offices to experience workplace mistreatment (e.g., Baron, et al., 1999; Folger, Robinson, Dietz, Parks, & Baron, 1998).

Table 4.1 summarizes variables and measures used in this study.

Dependent Variables

Sexual harassment experience

In the past two years, have any of the following behaviors been directed to you at work?

- Unwelcome communications of a sexual nature
- Unwelcome invasion of personal space
- Unwelcome sexually suggestive looks or gestures
- Stalking
- Attempted or actual rape or sexual assault
- Pressure for sexual favors
- Pressure for dates
- Offer of preferential treatment in exchange for sexual favors
- Unwelcome sexual teasing, jokes, comments or questions
- The presence of sexually oriented material
- Sexually oriented conversations in front of others
- Use of derogatory or unprofessional terms related to a person's sex/gender
 (1 = Experienced any of 12 sexual harassment behaviors, 0 = Never)

Workplace bullying experience

- In the past two years, have you experienced *physical intimidation* (e.g., intentionally making someone uncomfortable by getting in their way or too close without touching them) in the workplace?
- In the past two years, have you experienced *verbal intimidation* (*e.g.*, *shouting*, *swearing*, *disrespectful name-calling*) in the workplace?
 - (1 = Experienced physical intimidation, verbal intimidation, or both, 0 = Never)

Social undermining experience (adapted from Duffy et al., 2002)

In the past two years, have you experienced any of the following acts of workplace aggression/harassment that were directed at you in the workplace?

- Spreading rumors or negative comments about you to undermine your status
- Persistent, undeserved criticism of your work or effort directed to you
- Assignment of tasks with unreasonable deadlines or demands with the intent of setting you up to fail
- Undermining performance by sabotaging work or withholding cooperation
 (1 = Experienced any of 4 undermining behaviors, 0 = Never)

Ostracism experience (adapted from Ferris et al., 2008)

In the past two years, have you experienced any of the following acts of workplace aggression/harassment that were directed at you in the workplace?

Excluding from work-related or social activities
 (1= Experienced, 0 = Never)

Independent Variable: Individual Characteristics

Age

Respondent's age

(Younger employees [39 years old and under] = 1, Older employee [Over 40 years old] = 0)

Minority

Respondent's race/ethnicity

(Minority = 1, Non-minority [White] = 0)

Level of education

• Respondent's level of education

(Less than an AA degree = 1, AA or BA degree = 2, Graduate degree = 3)

Federal job tenure

Respondent's tenure of federal employment
 (long-tenure or more than 4 years = 1, short-tenure or less than 3 years = 0

Newcomer status

 Respondent's years with their current agency (newcomer or working for a current agency for less than 3 years = 1, working for a current agency for more than 4 years = 0)

Independent Variable: Job Stressors

Job stress

Your level of job stress...

(1 = Very low stress level, 5 = Very high stress level)

Job stability

The extent to which the participant is satisfied with organization's stability

(1 = Very dissatisfied, 5 = Very Satisfied)

Workload satisfaction

• The extent to which the participant is satisfied with work demands in his/her unit

(1 = Very dissatisfied, 5 = Very Satisfied).

Independent Variable: Organizational Characteristics

Organizational size

• FedScope data: The number of employees in an agency

The female-to-male employee ratio

• FedScope data: The ratio of female to male in each agency

Perceived female-dominated environment

Gender composition of the workgroup

(1 = Substantially more females than males, 0 = Other)

Perceived male-dominated environment

Gender composition of the workgroup

(1 = Substantially more males than females, 0 = Other)

Gender diversity

• FedScope data: The Blau's index calculation

Racial diversity

• FedScope data: The Blau's index calculation

Age diversity

• FedScope data: The Blau's index calculation

Independent Variable: Situational Factors

Ethical/moral work climate (Cronbach's Alpha = .87)

- I am treated with respect at work
- Feeling respected by colleagues/supervisors/managers
- Being included in important discussions/decisions
- I feel comfortable being myself at work
 - (1 = Very unimportant, 5 = Very important)

The perceived effectiveness of the discrimination complaint process (DCP) (Cronbach's Alpha = .91)

- I am familiar with the formal complaint channels that are available to people who have experienced discrimination
- If I filed an action charging discrimination, I am confident that it would be resolved in a fair and just manner by my organization
- If a supervisor or manager in my organization was found to have discriminated based on prohibited factors (e.g., race or sex), management would take appropriate action against that person.
- If I filed an action charging sexual harassment, I am confident that it would be resolved in a fair and just manner by my organization.
- If a supervisor or manager in my organization was found to have committed sexual harassment, management would take appropriate action against that person.
 - (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree)

Control Variables

Salary range/year

Respondent's salary range per year
 (less than \$74,999 = 1, \$75,000-\$\$99,999 = 2, \$100,000-\$149,999 = 3, more than \$150,000 = 4)

Supervisory status

Respondent's supervisory status
(Non-Supervisor = 1, Team Leader = 2, Supervisor = 3, Manager = 4, Executive = 5)

Federal union membership

Respondent's union membership status(Union member = 1, Non-union member = 0)

Work location

■ MPS 2016's Path 1: Respondent's work location (Headquarters = 1, Fields = 0)

Model Specifications

Logistic regressions were used to test the hypotheses since the dependent variables are binary (0 = never, 1 experienced). Therefore, the logit models took the following forms:

logit P (sexual harassment victimization) = $ln\left(\frac{P (sexual harassment victimization)}{1-P (sexual harassment victimization)}\right) = \alpha + B_1 (Age - 39)$ yrs. and under) + B_2 * (Minority) + B_3 * (Educational Level) + B_4 * (Job Tenure) + B_5 * (Newcomer) + B_6 * (Job Stress) + B_7 * (Workload Satisfaction) + B_8 * (Job Stability) + B_9 * (Organizational Size) + B_{10} * (Female-to-Male Ratio) + B_{11} * (Perceived Female-Dominated Environment) + B_{12} * (Perceived Male-Dominated Environment) + B_{13} * (Gender Diversity) + B_{14} * (Racial Diversity) + B_{15} * (Age Diversity) + B_{16} * (Ethical/Moral Work Climate) + B_{17} * (Discrimination Compliant Process Effectiveness),

logit P (workplace bullying victimization) = $ln\left(\frac{P (workplace bullying victimization)}{1-P (workplace bullying victimization)}\right) = \alpha + B_1 \text{ (Age } - 39 \text{ yrs. and under)} + B_2 * \text{ (Minority)} + B_3 * \text{ (Educational Level)} + B_4 * \text{ (Job Tenure)} + B_5 * \text{ (Newcomer)} + B_6 * \text{ (Job Stress)} + B_7 * \text{ (Workload Satisfaction)} + B_8 * \text{ (Job Stability)} + B_9 * \text{ (Organizational Size)} + B_{10} * \text{ (Female-to-Male Ratio)} + B_{11} * \text{ (Perceived Female-Dominated Environment)} + B_{12} * \text{ (Perceived Male-Dominated Environment)} + B_{13} * \text{ (Gender Diversity)} + B_{14} * \text{ (Racial Diversity)} + B_{15} * \text{ (Age Diversity)} + B_{16} * \text{ (Ethical/Moral Work Climate)} + B_{17} * \text{ (Discrimination Compliant Process Effectiveness)},}$

logit P (social undermining victimization) = $ln\left(\frac{P \text{ (social undermining victimization)}}{1-P \text{ (social undermining victimization)}}\right) = \alpha + B_1 \text{ (Age} - 39)$ yrs. and under) + B_2 * (Minority) + B_3 * (Educational Level) + B_4 * (Job Tenure) + B_5 * (Newcomer) + B_6 * (Job Stress) + B_7 * (Workload Satisfaction) + B_8 * (Job Stability) + B_9 * (Organizational Size) + B_{10} * (Female-to-Male Ratio) + B_{11} * (Perceived Female-Dominated Environment) + B_{12} * (Perceived Male-Dominated Environment) + B_{13} * (Gender Diversity) + B_{14} * (Racial Diversity) + B_{15} * (Age Diversity) + B_{16} * (Ethical/Moral Work Climate) + B_{17} * (Discrimination Compliant Process Effectiveness),

logit P (workplace ostracism victimization) = $ln\left(\frac{P\text{ (workplace ostracism victimization)}}{1-P\text{ (workplace ostracism victimization)}}\right) = \alpha + B_1 \text{ (Age } - 39 \text{ yrs. and under)} + B_2 * \text{ (Minority)} + B_3 * \text{ (Educational Level)} + B_4 * \text{ (Job Tenure)} + B_5 * \text{ (Newcomer)} + B_6 * \text{ (Job Stress)} + B_7 * \text{ (Workload Satisfaction)} + B_8 * \text{ (Job Stability)} + B_9 * \text{ (Organizational Size)} + B_{10} * \text{ (Female-to-Male Ratio)} + B_{11} * \text{ (Perceived Female-Dominated Environment)} + B_{12} * \text{ (Perceived Male-Dominated Environment)} + B_{13} * \text{ (Gender Diversity)} + B_{14} * \text{ (Racial Diversity)} + B_{15} * \text{ (Age Diversity)} + B_{16} * \text{ (Ethical/Moral Work Climate)} + B_{17} * \text{ (Discrimination Compliant Process Effectiveness)},}$

where P is the probability that respondents experience any form of mistreatment in the workplace, α is the constant, and B is the unstandardized logit slope.

Finally, the MPS 2016's Path 1 calculated the weighting variable (STRAT_WEIGHT) to produce results that are representative of governmentwide employee opinions. Failure to include the sampling weights in analyzing complex survey data can result in inaccurate standard errors, the bias of point estimators, and the potential to commit a Type 1 error (Hahs-Vaughn, 2005; Pfeffermann, 1993). Therefore, this study applies the weighting variable for data analysis using the survey data commands [SVY] in Stata/IC 15.1 (StataCorp, 2017).

Findings

Table 4.2 summarizes descriptive statistics for the study variables and Table 4.3 presents bivariate correlations of the study variables.

Table 4.2. Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables

Variables	N	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
Independent variables:					
Female	5048	0	1	1	0
Male	7060	0	1	1	0
Age $(1 = 39 \text{ yrs. and under})$	12125	0	1	.14	.35
Minority	11982	0	1	.33	.47
Educational level	12185	1	3	2.21	.73
Federal job tenure $(1 = more than 4 yrs.)$	12293	0	1	.96	.20
Newcomer	12274	0	1	.09	.29
Level of job stress	14091	1	5	2.81	1.31
Workload satisfaction	14119	1	5	2.52	1.25
Job stability	13912	1	5	3.53	1.22
Log (Organizational size)	14515	8.38	12.83	11.03	1.26
Female-to-male ratio	14515	.36	1.85	.88	.41
Perceived female-dominated environment	12181	0	1	.14	.35
Perceived male-dominated environment	12181	0	1	.26	.44
Gender diversity (Blau's index)	14515	.39	.50	.47	.03
Ethnic diversity (Blau's index)	14515	.38	.50	.45	.04
Age diversity (Blau's index)	14515	.48	.66	.60	.04
Ethical/moral work climate	13317	1	5	3.82	1
Effectiveness of the Discrimination	10920	1	5	3.69	.96
Complaint Process					
Dependent variables:					
Sexual harassment experience $(1 = Yes)$	14515	0	1	.10	.30
Workplace bullying experience $(1 = Yes)$	14515	0	1	.18	.39
Social undermining experience $(1 = Yes)$	14515	0	1	.32	.47
Ostracism experience $(1 = Yes)$	14515	0	1	.12	.33
Control variables:					
Salary range/year	12167	1	4	2.53	1.03
Supervisory status	12262	1	5	2.24	1.30
Union membership $(1 = Yes)$	11566	0	1	.15	.36
Work location $(1 = \text{Headquarters})$	12202	0	1	.36	.48

Table 4.3. Inter-Correlations of the Study Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Gender (1 = Female)	-												
2. Age	.02*	-											
3. Ethnicity	.11*	.01	-										
4. Education	05*	.07*	09*	-									
5. Job tenure	.01	17*	01	05*	-								
6. Newcomer	.02*	.17*	.03*	.06*	61*	-							
7. Level of job stress	.05*	.02	02*	02*	.05*	05*	-						
8. Level of workload	.05*	.04*	04*	.01	.03*	02	.75*	-					
9. Job stability	.02*	02	.05*	00	05*	.04*	43*	41*	-				
10. Log (Organizational size)	07*	01	.01	13*	02*	.03*	.03*	.00	09*	-			
11. Perceived female-dominated	.22*	.01	.06*	03*	01	.02	.05*	.04*	01	02*	-		
environment													
12. Perceived male-dominated	19*	.00	04*	05*	.03*	04*	.01	.01	05*	.11*	24*	-	
environment													
13. Female-to-male ratio	.19*	.03*	.06*	01	03*	.01	.07*	.04*	03*	13*	.20*	26*	-
14. Gender diversity	.12*	.02*	.01	.09*	02*	.01	.01	01	.04*	39*	.07*	19*	.43*
15. Ethnic diversity	.07*	.04*	.11*	09*	02	.00	.07*	.04*	11*	.12*	.09*	11*	.58*
16. Age diversity	01	02*	03*	02*	.02*	.01	.05*	.06*	05*	.12*	02*	.03*	05*
17. Ethical/moral work climate	06*	.01	02*	.02*	05*	.02*	54*	49*	.49*	03*	05*	03*	03*
18. Effectiveness of the Discrimination	12*	02*	06*	.00	04*	.02*	37*	36*	.44*	.02*	05*	04*	05*
Complaint Process													
19. Sexual harassment experience	.15*	.07*	.02*	.01	.00	.00	.11*	.10*	13*	.03*	.02*	.02*	.03*
20. Workplace bullying experience	.12*	.00	.05*	01	.03*	00	.22*	.17*	17*	.05*	.05*	00	.05*
21. Social undermining experience	.12*	01	.06*	.02*	.04*	.01	.26*	.21*	23*	.02*	.05*	02	.03*
22. Ostracism experience	.11*	02*	.06*	.02*	.02*	.01	.21*	.18*	18*	.02*	.04*	.01	.01
23. Salary range/year	14*	19*	11*	.38*	.12*	14*	05*	04*	.03*	27*	10*	.03*	10*
24. Supervisory status	12*	17*	09*	.16*	.09*	10*	00	04*	.04*	.01	07*	.02*	07*
25. Union membership	.06*	.04*	.12*	11*	04*	.02*	.06*	.05*	03*	06*	.06*	02	.15*
26. Work location	.06*	02*	.04*	.14*	04*	.08*	03*	01	.06*	09*	.03*	09*	00

Note. * shows significance at the .05 level.

Table 4.3. Cont'd.

Variables	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
1. Gender (1 = Female)													
2. Age													
3. Ethnicity													
4. Education													
5. Job tenure													
6. Newcomer													
7. Level of job stress													
8. Level of workload													
9. Job stability													
10. Log (Organizational size)													
11. Perceived female-dominated													
environment													
12. Perceived male-dominated													
environment													
13. Female-to-male ratio													
14. Gender diversity	-												
15. Ethnic diversity	.19*	-											
16. Age diversity	07*	18*	-										
17. Ethical/moral work climate	00	06*	01	-									
18. Effectiveness of the Discrimination	05*	06*	02	.60*	-								
Complaint Process													
19. Sexual harassment experience	.00	.02*	.03*	20*	27*	-							
20. Workplace bullying experience	00	.04*	.04*	32*	29*	.28*	-						
21. Social undermining experience	.00	.03*	.03*	41*	37*	.29*	.52*	-					
22. Ostracism experience	01	.01	.02*	37*	34*	.25*	.39*	.48*	-				
23. Salary range/year	.03*	07*	14*	.11*	.12*	06*	06*	03*	02*	-			
24. Supervisory status	06*	04*	.02*	.17*	.25*	05*	.00	.00	03*	.50*	-		
25. Union membership	.06*	.13*	08*	12*	17*	.06*	.06*	.06*	.05*	22*	31*	-	
26. Work location	.06*	02*	00	.02	.01	.01	01	.02*	.02*	.23*	.07*	07*	-

Note. * shows significance at the .05 level.

Predicting Sexual Harassment Victimization

Table 4.4 shows the results of the survey-weighted logistic regression predicting sexual harassment victimization among female and male employees. This study found that in the Overall Model, women are more likely than men to be sexually harassed at work (B = 1.125, p < .001).

In the Female Model, women ages 39 and under are more likely than their elders to be victims of sexual harassment (B = .559, p < .001). Furthermore, minority status was negatively related to sexual harassment victimization (B = -.283, p < .05), suggesting that non-minority women are more likely than their female counterparts to be victims of sexual harassment. Table 4.4 also shows that while variables related to job stressors cannot predict sexual harassment victimization, women working in large organizations (B = .74, p < .001) and with greater numbers of female employees (B = .222, p < .10) are at greater risk of experiencing sexual harassment. Additionally, women working in male-dominated environments face a higher risk of experiencing sexual harassment (B = .516, p < .05). Finally, while working in gender-diverse agencies decreases women's likelihood of being sexually harassed (B = -3.429, p < .10), the probability of being sexually harassed increases if women work in age-diverse agencies (B = 4.085, p < .05).

In the Male Model, while men's individual characteristics are not statistically related to sexual harassment victimization, working in ethnically diverse agencies puts men at higher risk of experiencing sexual harassment (B = 4.752, p < .10). Table 4.4 also demonstrates that higher levels of job stability (B = -.181, p < .10) and working in large organizations (B = -.120, p < .05) are associated with a decreased risk of sexual harassment victimization among male employees.

Finally, this study found that in both Female and Male Models, the ethical/moral work climate (B = -.242, p < .01 vs. B = -.275, p < .05) and the effectiveness of the discrimination complaint process in agencies (B = -.676, p < .001 vs. B = -.354, p < .05) are associated with a

decreased risk of sexual harassment victimization.

Table 4.4. Survey-Weighted Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Sexual Harassment

Tuote IIII Sarvey III eighted Logist.	Dependent Variable: Sexual Harassment								
	Over	all	Female N	Model	Male I	Model			
Predictor	В	(SE)	В	(SE)	В	(SE)			
Individual characteristics:									
Gender $(1 = Female)$	1.125***	(.177)							
Age $(1 = 39 \text{ yrs. and under})$.437*	(.181)	.559***	(.154)	.184	(.271)			
Minority	228*	(.091)	283*	(.135)	114	(.134)			
Educational level	.147*	(.062)	.141	(.118)	.109	(.094)			
Federal job tenure	226	(.339)	480	(.374)	.350	(.492)			
Newcomer status	175	(.247)	183	(.306)	163	(.408)			
Job stressors:									
Level of job stress	025	(.074)	088	(.105)	.074	(.108)			
Level of workload satisfaction	141	(.088)	122	(.150)	183	(.120)			
Job stability	073	(.049)	005	(.054)	181+	(.092)			
Organizational factors:									
Log (Organizational size)	.138***	(.036)	.274***	(.053)	120*	(.050)			
Female-to-male ratio	.053	(.113)	.222+	(.130)	.023	(.244)			
Perceived female-dominated environment	191	(.222)	272	(.298)	.170	(.404)			
Perceived male-dominated environment	.138	(.158)	.516*	(.211)	116	(.226)			
Gender diversity (Blau's index)	-1.917+	(1.130)	-3.429+	(1.970)	-1.907	(2.310)			
Ethnic diversity (Blau's index)	2.748*	(1.150)	1.223	(2.226)	4.752+	(2.389)			
Age diversity (Blau's index)	2.200*	(.920)	4.085*	(1.577)	753	(1.197)			
Situational factors:									
Ethical/moral work climate	256***	(.048)	242**	(.083)	275*	(.132)			
Effectiveness of the Discrimination Complaint Process	550***	(.079)	676***	(.068)	354*	(.148)			
Control variables:									
Salary range/year	.005	(.048)	.069	(.117)	155	(.143)			
Supervisory status	.129	(.080)	.131	(.087)	.115	(.095)			
Union membership	.388+	(.219)	.401	(.296)	.275	(.181)			
Work location (1 = Headquarters)	.015	(.073)	106	(.192)	.187	(.199)			
Constant	-2.739*	(1.104)	-2.794+	(1.486)	.762	(1.911)			
N	9,400		3,748		5,652				

Note. Unstandardized logit coefficients (*B*) reported and standard errors (*SE*) in parentheses. Note. + p < .10. * p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Predicting Workplace Bullying Victimization

Table 4.5 shows the results of the survey-weighted logistic regression predicting bullying victimization among female and male employees. This study found that in the Overall Model, women are more likely than men to be bullied at work (B = .547, p < .001).

In the Female Model, long-tenured female employees (B = .641, p < .01) and those who are new to an agency (B = .433, p < .05) are at higher risk of being victims of workplace bullying. Additionally, women working in large organizations (B = .237, p < .001) and with greater numbers of female employees (B = .602, p < .01) are at greater risk of experiencing workplace bullying. Finally, while having a gender-diverse workforce is negatively related to bullying victimization among female employees (B = -6.696, p < .01), working in age-diverse agencies puts women at a greater risk of being victims of workplace bullying (B = 7.335, p < .001). Note, however, that this study found no statistical association between variables related to job stressors and bullying victimization among women.

In the Male Model, male minorities are more likely than their counterparts to experience workplace bullying (B = .448, p < .05). Furthermore, while a well-balanced workload is associated with a decreased risk of bullying victimization (B = -.252, p < .01), working in organizations with higher levels of job stress puts men at higher risk of being victims of workplace bullying (B = .216, p < .01).

Finally, in both Female and Male Models, the probabilities of being victims of workplace bullying decrease when organizations have higher levels of ethical/moral work climate (B = -.449, p < .001 vs. B = -.766, p < .001) and a more effective discrimination complaint process (B = -.563, p < .001 vs. B = -.200, p < .05).

Table 4.5. Survey-Weighted Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Workplace Bullying

	Dependent Variable: Workplace Bullying							
	Over	all	Female	Model	Male	Model		
Predictor	В	(SE)	В	(SE)	В	(SE)		
Individual characteristics:								
Gender $(1 = Female)$.547***	(.122)						
Age $(1 = 39 \text{ yrs. and under})$.157+	(.080)	.037	(.215)	.267	(.224)		
Minority	.190*	(.088)	057	(.187)	.448*	(.187)		
Educational level	.034	(.061)	.054	(.107)	004	(.052)		
Federal job tenure	.334+	(.180)	.641**	(.229)	.174	(.265)		
Newcomer status	.322+	(.169)	.433*	(.169)	.249	(.283)		
Job stressors:								
Level of job stress	.137*	(.066)	.043	(.097)	.216**	(.078)		
Level of workload satisfaction	124*	(.050)	001	(.100)	252**	(.082)		
Job stability	003	(.026)	.009	(.048)	014	(.066)		
Organizational factors:								
Log (Organizational size)	.241***	(.053)	.237***	(.055)	.204**	(.075)		
Female-to-male ratio	.420*	(.161)	.602**	(.206)	.298	(.237)		
Perceived female-dominated environment	032	(.141)	085	(.170)	.086	(.267)		
Perceived male-dominated environment	057	(.148)	183	(.177)	.014	(.199)		
Gender diversity (Blau's index)	-2.714	(2.014)	-6.696**	(2.354)	241	(2.404)		
Ethnic diversity (Blau's index)	-1.576	(1.985)	-2.912	(2.732)	556	(1.915)		
Age diversity (Blau's index)	3.634***	(1.032)	7.335***	(1.606)	.898	(1.135)		
Situational factors:								
Ethical/moral work climate	587***	(.056)	449***	(.083)	766***	(.079)		
Effectiveness of the Discrimination Complaint Process	389***	(.042)	563***	(.086)	200*	(.096)		
Control variables:								
Salary range/year	.005	(.031)	009	(.055)	002	(.078)		
Supervisory status	.265***	(.035)	.336***	(.065)	.208***	(.045)		
Union membership	.416+	(.209)	.710*	(.293)	.070	(.187)		
Work location $(1 = \text{Headquarters})$	058	(.094)	027	(.115)	110	(.141)		
Constant	-2.566	(1.919)	-2.337	(2.326)	-1.525	(2.063)		
N	9,400		3,748		5,652			

Note. Unstandardized logit coefficients (*B*) reported and standard errors (*SE*) in parentheses. + p < .10. * p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Predicting Social Undermining Victimization

Table 4.6 presents the results of the survey-weighted logistic regression predicting social undermining among female and male employees. This study found that in the Overall Model, women are more likely than men to be undermined at work (B = .494, p < .001).

In the Female Model, female minorities (B = .185, p < .10), more educated women (B = .173, p < .001), long-tenured female employees (B = .985, p < .001), and female newcomers (B = .643, p < .001) are more likely than their counterparts to be undermined at work. Additionally, social undermining is more likely to occur in organizations with greater numbers of employees (B = .103, p < .05). Finally, this study found that in the Female Model, a well-balanced workload (B = -.205, p < .10), higher levels of ethical/moral work climate (B = -.707, p < .001), and the effectiveness of the discrimination complaint process (B = -.718, D < .001) decrease the prevalence of social undermining in the workplace.

In the Male Model, being undermined at work is more likely to occur in male employees who are minorities (B = .536, p < .001), new to an agency (B = .866, p < .001), and have a long tenure length (B = 1.095, p < .001). Moreover, men working in high stress jobs (B = .301, p < .001) and female-dominated environments (B = .622, p < .01) are at greater risk of being undermined at work. Finally, this study found that a well-balanced workload (B = -.239, p < .001), higher levels of ethical/moral work climate (B = -.757, p < .001), and the effectiveness of the discrimination complaint process (B = -.354, p < .001) are associated with a decreased risk of being undermined at work among male employees.

Table 4.6. Survey-Weighted Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Social Undermining

Tuble 1.0. Bulvey Weighted English	Dependent Variable: Social Undermining										
	Over	all	Female I	Model	Male Model						
Predictor	В	(SE)	В	(SE)	В	(SE)					
Individual characteristics:											
Gender $(1 = Female)$.494***	(.078)									
Age $(1 = 39 \text{ yrs. and under})$.171	(.174)	056	(.118)	.340	(.291)					
Minority	.360***	(.082)	.185+	(.104)	.536***	(.111)					
Educational level	.124**	(.044)	.173***	(.039)	.040	(.071)					
Federal job tenure	1.000***	(.197)	.985***	(.284)	1.095***	(.240)					
Newcomer status	.746***	(.115)	.643***	(.103)	.866***	(.140)					
Job stressors:											
Level of job stress	.220***	(.053)	.120	(.091)	.301***	(.073)					
Level of workload satisfaction	217***	(.037)	205+	(.112)	239***	(.058)					
Job stability	051+	(.029)	048	(.060)	063	(.087)					
Organizational factors:											
Log (Organizational size)	.062	(.061)	.103*	(.050)	.003	(.098)					
Female-to-male ratio	.177	(.125)	.192	(.152)	.239	(.184)					
Perceived female-dominated environment	.164	(.134)	009	(.116)	.622**	(.190)					
Perceived male-dominated environment	040	(.090)	.173	(.141)	103	(.130)					
Gender diversity (Blau's index)	-2.144	(1.814)	-1.918	(2.317)	-3.135	(2.247)					
Ethnic diversity (Blau's index)	1.410	(1.061)	.435	(1.736)	1.912	(1.531)					
Age diversity (Blau's index)	.944	(1.011)	1.395	(1.237)	.216	(1.550)					
Situational factors:											
Ethical/moral work climate	722***	(.058)	707***	(.107)	757***	(.108)					
Effectiveness of the Discrimination Complaint Process	525***	(.047)	718***	(.094)	354***	(.075)					
Control variables:											
Salary range/year	069	(.086)	115	(.094)	055	(.139)					
Supervisory status	.330***	(.048)	.404***	(.066)	.283***	(.061)					
Union membership	.317**	(.110)	.463**	(.150)	.162	(.142)					
Work location $(1 = \text{Headquarters})$	071	(.125)	079	(.127)	101	(.153)					
Constant	.852	(1.715)	1.750	(2.032)	1.624	(2.188)					
N	9,400		3,748		5,652						

Note. Unstandardized logit coefficients (*B*) reported and standard errors (*SE*) in parentheses. + p < .10. * p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Predicting Workplace Ostracism Victimization

Table 4.7 shows the results of the survey-weighted logistic regression predicting workplace ostracism among female and male employees. This study found that in the Overall Model, women are more likely than men to be ostracized at work (B = .668, p < .001).

In the Female Model, the likelihood of being ostracized at work increases when female employees are minorities (B = .331, p < .10) and new to an agency (B = .756, p < .01). Furthermore, women are at greater risk of being excluded from work activities when they work in organizations with a large number of employees (B = .157, p < .01) and with more age diversity (B = 2.972, p < .05). However, the prevalence of workplace ostracism decreases when female employees are working in organizations where employees are more ethnically diverse (B = -7.329, p < .001). Finally, having higher levels of ethical/moral work climate and the effectiveness of the discrimination complaint process are negatively related to the occurrence of workplace ostracism among female employees (B = -.590, p < .001).

In the Male Model, male minorities (B = .405, p < .10) and newcomers (B = .845, p < .001) are more likely than their counterparts to be ostracized at work. Furthermore, Table 4.7 demonstrates that men working in large organizations (B = .186, p < .01), female-dominated environments (B = .626, p < .05), and high stress jobs (B = .282, p < .05) are at greater risk of being excluded from work activities. Finally, this study found that higher levels of ethical/moral work climate (B = -.786, p < .001) and the effectiveness of the discrimination complaint process (B = -.572, P < .001) decrease the likelihood of experiencing workplace ostracism in male employees.

Table 4.7. Survey-Weighted Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Workplace Ostracism

Tuote III Survey Weighted Bogiste	Dependent Variable: Workplace Ostracism										
	Over	all	Female 1	Model	Male M	Iodel					
Predictor	В	(SE)	В	(SE)	В	(SE)					
Individual characteristics:											
Gender $(1 = Female)$.668***	(.140)									
Age $(1 = 39 \text{ yrs. and under})$.069	(.086)	205	(.279)	.252	(.299)					
Minority	.351*	(.143)	.331+	(.176)	.405+	(.207)					
Educational level	.069	(.073)	.037	(.140)	.111	(.145)					
Federal job tenure	.712***	(.188)	.240	(.246)	1.373	(.845)					
Newcomer status	.823***	(.163)	.756**	(.255)	.845***	(.128)					
Job stressors:											
Level of job stress	.095	(.072)	083	(.088)	.282*	(.138)					
Level of workload satisfaction	058	(.076)	023	(.123)	083	(.128)					
Job stability	.070	(.075)	.066	(.106)	.065	(.061)					
Organizational factors:											
Log (Organizational size)	.170***	(.042)	.157**	(.052)	.186**	(.069)					
Female-to-male ratio	.049	(.102)	.297	(.195)	017	(.166)					
Perceived female-dominated environment	079	(.154)	298	(.191)	.626*	(.253)					
Perceived male-dominated environment	.057	(.178)	.316	(.219)	004	(.225)					
Gender diversity (Blau's index)	048	(1.334)	-1.300	(1.720)	.207	(2.176)					
Ethnic diversity (Blau's index)	-4.012**	(1.279)	-7.329***	(2.049)	-2.454	(1.824)					
Age diversity (Blau's index)	1.520+	(.846)	2.972*	(1.383)	687	(1.939)					
Situational factors:											
Ethical/moral work climate	778***	(.099)	776***	(.112)	786***	(.138)					
Effectiveness of the Discrimination Complaint Process	584***	(.080.)	590***	(.105)	572***	(.110)					
Control variables:											
Salary range/year	.120	(.076)	004	(.117)	.240+	(.140)					
Supervisory status	.196***	(.032)	.269***	(.059)	.139*	(.064)					
Union membership	.457+	(.260)	.559	(.340)	.357	(.269)					
Work location (1 = Headquarters)	180+	(.095)	012	(.198)	456**	(.170)					
Constant	701	(1.638)	2.174	(2.071)	-1.728	(2.827)					
N	9,400		3,748		5,652						

Note. Unstandardized logit coefficients (*B*) reported and standard errors (*SE*) in parentheses. + p < .10. * p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Discussion

This research extends our understanding of the role that individual characteristics, job stressors, and organizational factors play in predicting occurrences of sexual harassment and each form of workplace aggression, namely bullying, social undermining, and ostracism. Moreover, this study examines whether situational factors, including an ethical/moral work climate and the effectiveness of the discrimination complaint process trigger or impede the occurrences of the study mistreatment behaviors in federal workplaces. Using data from the 2016 Merit Principles Survey, which includes 14,515 randomly selected U.S. federal employees from 24 agencies, and data from FedScope Employment Cube (September 2016), the results of this study provide new insight into workplace mistreatment literature as follows.

The Role that Individual Characteristics Play in Workplace Mistreatment

The results of the present study indicate that the gender of the victims is still a prominent factor in determining the victimization of workplace sexual harassment, bullying, social undermining, and ostracism. These findings are consistent with prior studies (e.g., Baron et al., 1999; Jackson & Newman, 2004; Newman et al., 2003; Pollak & Gilligan, 1982; Tangri, 1982) which found that women are often the target of workplace mistreatment.

This study found that age can only predict sexual harassment victimization among female employees. Namely, younger female employees (aged 39 and younger) would be primary victims of sexual harassment, consistent with prior works (e.g., Tangri et al., 1982; Jackson & Newman, 2004).

Regarding ethnicity (minority vs. non-minority [White]), the model demonstrates that the White females are at higher risk than female minorities of being victims of sexual harassment.

However, the association between ethnicity and sexual harassment victimization in men is not found. This result contradicts previous works (e.g., Buchanan & Ormerod, 2002; McLaughlin, Uggen, & Blackstone, 2012; Texeira, 2002) which indicate that minorities (e.g., women of color) are primary targets of sexual harassment at work. This study also found that while the ethnicity of women did not significantly relate to bullying victimization, the risk of being victims of workplace bullying increases among male minorities. Moreover, the models indicate that both female and male minorities are at higher risk of being victims of social undermining and ostracism at work. These results confirm previous works (e.g., Fox & Stallworth, 2005; McLaughlin et al., 2012) which found that minorities are at higher risk for experiencing mistreatment at work.

In terms of employees' education, while previous studies (e.g., Jackson & Newman, 2004, Tangri et al., 1982) found that higher educated women were more likely to experience sexual harassment, this study found that in both female and male employees, educational levels are not predictive of the victimization of sexual harassment, bullying, and ostracism. With the exception of social undermining, the model indicates that more educated women are at greater risk of being undermined at work, consistent with previous works which indicate that women are more likely to engage in social undermining and other covert forms of aggression (e.g., Baron et al., 1999; Bettencourt & Miller, 1996; Kaukiainen et al., 2001; Mizrahi, 2004; Rutter & Hine 2005).

Concerning the length of employment (a.k.a. job tenure), the model indicates that longer-tenured female employees (more than 4 years) are more likely to experience bullying at work. This finding is consistent with prior research demonstrating that women are most often victims of violence and aggressive behaviors (e.g., Pollak & Gilligan, 1982). Furthermore, both female and male employees who have a long job tenure length are more likely to experience undermining at work. These results are consistent with Ng and Feldman's (2010) meta-analytic study indicating

that employees who stay longer at an organization are more likely to engage in unethical behaviors. Likewise, those who stay longer tend to experience (or observe) more bullying at work.

Finally, the models indicate that the newcomer status (working for a current agency for less than 3 years) did not statistically relate to sexual harassment victimization among female and male employees. However, the present study found that female newcomers are at higher risk of experiencing workplace bullying, and both female and male newcomers are more likely to experience social undermining and ostracism at work. These results suggest that for newcomers, the first three years in a new agency may be a period of learning and matching a person's characteristics and those of the job or tasks that are performed (Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert, & Shipp, 2006). During this period, these newcomers may be more aware of the prevalence of aggressive behaviors at work and thus report greater rates of experiencing (or observing) these mistreatment behaviors.

The Influence of Job Stressors on the Occurrences of Workplace Mistreatment

This study found that the occurrence of sexual harassment in federal workplaces is not statistically associated with job stress, which is consistent with Fitzgerald et al. (1997) who examined a structural equation model of antecedents and consequences of sexual harassment and found that job stress is not statistically associated with the prevalence of sexual harassment. However, the models indicate that an increased level of job stress puts male employees at a higher risk of experiencing workplace bullying, social undermining, and ostracism. These results are consistent with prior studies (e.g., Coyne et al., 2003) which found that a stressful job can promote workplace violence and mistreatment in an organization.

Furthermore, the models depict that a well-balanced workload is associated with a

decreased risk of being victims of bullying (males only) and social undermining (both females and males). These results are consistent with previous research (e.g., Baillien, De Cuyper, & De Witte, 2011; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; De Cuyper, Baillien, & De Witte, 2009; Einarsen et al., 1994; Lewis et al., 2017; Penney & Spector, 2005; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012) which suggested that when work becomes more demanding, it causes stress in the workplace, and higher levels of work stress can lead employees to engage in mistreatment behaviors. As a result, having proper workload levels may help organizations mitigate the probability that aggressive behaviors will occur.

Finally, this study found that job stability is negatively associated with sexual harassment victimization among male employees. This result is consistent with prior literature (e.g., Baron and Neuman, 1998) that found an association between the stability of an organization and the prevalence of workplace aggression.

The Relationship Between Organizational Characteristics and Workplace Mistreatment

This study found that in organizations with greater numbers of employees, women are more prone to be victims of sexual harassment, bullying, social undermining, and ostracism at work, while men are more likely to experience bullying and ostracism. These results are consistent with previous studies (e.g., Duffy et al., 2006; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Lewis et al., 2017) in such a way that organizations increase in size, they tend to have more employees with diverse backgrounds and higher levels of interpersonal conflict. These factors can provoke the occurrence of mistreatment behaviors among organizational members.

Regarding the proportion of women in federal agencies, this study found that having a greater number of women is associated with an increased risk of sexual harassment and bullying victimization among female employees. These results are consistent with the work of McDonald

and Charlesworth (2016) which studied formal sexual harassment complaints filed with the Australian Equal Opportunity Commission and found that, numerically, gender proportions, both horizontally (number of women/men in occupational groupings) and vertically (number of women/men at different hierarchical levels) are more predictive of incidents of sexual harassment than the performance of masculinity or femininity in organizations. Moreover, these results are consistent with the findings from Choi, Hong, and Lee (2018) who found that women working in Korean public organizations with greater numbers of women were more likely to report their sexual and non-sexual mistreatment experiences.

Regarding the association between workforce diversity and the incidence of workplace mistreatment, this study found that while having a gender diverse workforce can help reduce the occurrence of workplace sexual harassment among female employees, women working in age-diverse organizations and men working in ethnically diverse organizations are at higher risk of becoming victims of sexual harassment. Additionally, this study found that working in age-diverse organizations can lead to higher rates of bullying and ostracism among female employees, whereas having greater ethnic diversity can help reduce the occurrence of ostracism in female employees. These findings provide new insights into the literature in such a way that having a diverse workforce can help reduce the occurrence of some forms of workplace mistreatment, but it also brings about a greater chance of becoming victims of other forms of mistreatment.

Concerning the role of job-gendered context, this study found that women working in male-dominated environments are at a greater risk of experiencing sexual harassment. This result is consistent with previous studies (e.g., Willness et al., 2007) which found that women working in male-dominated environments are more likely to be victims of sexual harassment by male perpetrators. Interestingly, the model demonstrates that men working in female-dominated

environments are more likely to be victims of undermining and ostracism. These findings provide new insights into the existing literature in such a way that working in female-dominated environments puts men at higher risk of becoming the victimization of covertly aggressive behaviors.

The Roles of Ethical/Moral Work Culture and the Discrimination Complaint Process

The models indicate that ethical/moral work climate is negatively associated with the prevalence of sexual harassment and each form of workplace aggression. These findings are consistent with previous studies (e.g., Cortina et al., 2001 & Dunn & Schweitzer, 2006) that suggested an ethical work climate can decrease incidences of harassment and aggression at work.

Moreover, this study found that the effectiveness of the discrimination complaint process in federal agencies can play an important role in decreasing not only the incidences of overt forms of workplace mistreatment—sexual harassment and bullying—but also the prevalence of covertly aggressive behaviors, namely social undermining and workplace ostracism. In other words, if federal employees trust in and feel confident about the discrimination complaint process within their agencies, this may alleviate the prevalence of mistreatment in the workplace.

Limitations and Future Directions

Several limitations of this research should be recognized. First, this study suffers from common limitations of cross-sectional field research, including the inability to make causal inferences. Future research may employ a longitudinal study to strengthen researchers' ability to make causal inferences.

Second, while the MPS2016 asked respondents to self-report data about various forms of

mistreatment in federal agencies based on their observations and real experience, this study relied only on data from respondents' real experiences with mistreatment. This approach introduces potential problems with the common-method bias, because variable measures were collected from the same source. Future research may minimize the effect of common method bias by investigating incidents of sexual harassment and other forms of workplace mistreatment which were reported from respondents' observations. Moreover, future researchers may compare results from respondents' observations and actual experiences.

Third, this study measured sexual harassment experience if respondents experienced any of the 12 items representing sexual harassment behaviors, future studies using the MPS2016 should narrow the scope of the study to investigate three sub-dimensions of sexual harassment experience (i.e., gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion), according to U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board [MSPB], 2018.

Fourth, this study examined several characteristics of victims but excluded their sexual orientation. Future research should focus on the mistreatment experiences of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, transsexual, and queer (LGBTQ) federal employees. This will advance our knowledge about LGBTQ employees' mistreatment experiences in the federal workplace and help federal agencies develop anti-mistreatment policies and practices to support the rights of LGBTQ employees.

Finally, this study analyzed governmentwide data with the application of survey weights to ensure that the results of this study are representative of governmentwide employee opinions. However, future research may choose to study incidents of mistreatment in some agencies, such as military or civilian federal agencies, and compare the results between these federal agencies.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I investigated factors associated with the occurrences of sexual harassment and each form of workplace aggression in the federal workplace. I introduced a set of predictors involving individual characteristics (age, minority, education, job tenure, newcomer status), job stressors (job stress, workload, and job stability), and organizational factors (organizational size, female-to-male ratio, male- and female-dominated environments, and gender, racial, and age diversity), and found that there are differences between factors related to predicting the occurrences of the study's mistreatment among male and female victims. Moreover, I found that having higher levels of ethical/moral work climate and a more effective discrimination complaint process can help reduce the occurrences of all four forms of mistreatment in the federal workplace. In the next chapter, I will examine the effects of each form of mistreatment behavior on victims' work attitudes (job satisfaction and work commitment), behaviors (internal collaboration, work withdrawal, and intentions to leave their agency), and performance (individual productivity and organizational performance).

CHAPTER 5

EXAMINING THE EFFECTS OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND WORKPLACE AGGRESSION

Background and Hypotheses

Workplace mistreatment is a serious problem for an organization and its employees. It also yields negative effects for those employees who are victims of mistreatment behaviors in terms of mental health (e.g., low levels of life satisfaction, anxiety and depression, sadness, negative mood) (Dansky & Kilpatrick, 1997; Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997) and physical well-being (e.g., physical wounds, musculoskeletal issues, physical symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder, nausea, headaches, shortness of breath, insomnia) (Einarsen, Raknes, Matthiesen, & Hellesoy, 1996; Hogh & Viitasara; Magley, Hulin, Fitzgerald, & DeNardo, 1999; Rogers & Kelloway, 1997; Schat & Kelloway, 2000). Furthermore, mistreatment in workplaces negatively affects employees' work attitudes and behaviors, including job satisfaction (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Lapierre, Spector, & Leck, 2005), organizational commitment (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002; Tepper 2000; Williams, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 1999), organizational citizenship behaviors (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Johns & Saks, 2002), burnout (Dijkstra, De Dreu, Evers, & van Dierendonck, 2009; Giebels & Janssen, 2005; Harvey, Blouin, & Stout, 2006), work withdrawal (Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997), and a desire to leave the organization (Antecol & Cobb-Clark, 2003; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012). Finally, workplace mistreatment can decrease individual-level productivity (e.g., decrease in work quality and quantity and lowering of attitudes about doing a good job), team

performance (e.g., Aubé & Rousseau, 2011; Jehn, 1995; Raver and Gelfand, 2005; Van Vainen & De Dreu, 2001), and the overall performance of the organization (Bergman & Drasgow, 2003; Bowling and Beehr, 2006; Chan, Lam, Chow, & Cheung, 2008; Fitzgerald, Drasgow, & Magley, 1999).

Although studies on workplace mistreatment and its outcomes have been widely conducted, less research attention has been given to examining the consequences of both overt (e.g., workplace violence and sexual harassment) and covert (e.g., obstructionism, undermining, and ostracism) mistreatment in public organizations.

In particular, research in public administration to date has done little to determine whether both overt and covert forms of workplace mistreatment are linked to public employees' work attitudes, behaviors, and productivity. To further address this issue, this study examines the extent to which overt mistreatment, including workplace sexual harassment and bullying, affect federal employees' job satisfaction, work commitment, internal collaboration, work withdrawal, intentions to quit the job, individual productivity, and organizational performance.

Furthermore, accumulating empirical research indicates that covert mistreatment, while less noticeable, can produce similar or even greater harm than overtly aggressive behaviors (Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999). Accordingly, this study addresses a second research gap by examining whether covertly aggressive behaviors, including social undermining and workplace ostracism, produce negative effects on federal employees' job-related outcomes mentioned earlier.

In sum, the findings of this study not only advance our understanding of the interplay between both overt and covert mistreatment behaviors and federal employees' work-related

Lagerspetz, 1994).

-

¹ While overtly aggressive behaviors refer to interpersonal mistreatment behaviors that are more obvious and evident, covertly aggressive behaviors are insidious and are the least perceived by the target because the perpetrator tries to hide his/her aggressive intentions in order to avoid retaliation and condemnation (Bjorkqvist, Osterman, &

outcomes but also provides information for the federal government and public administration scholars to develop effective policies and programs to combat any form of mistreatment in the federal workplace.

Figure 5.1 illustrates a theoretical model of this study.

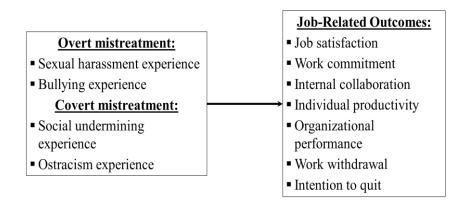


Figure 5.1. A theoretical model.

Effects of Workplace Sexual Harassment and Aggression on Job Satisfaction

Workplace mistreatment can have negative consequences for employees. For example, Fitzgerald et al. (1997) and Schneider et al. (1997) examined the experiences of sexual harassment on female employees in the U.S. and found that sexual harassment decreased their job satisfaction. Regarding workplace bullying, Keashly, Trott, and MacLean (1994) surveyed 92 students who had paid work experience within a 12-month period prior to the survey and found that being the target of abusive behavior at work was negatively related to their co-worker satisfaction, supervision satisfaction, and overall job satisfaction. Furthermore, Budd, Arvey, and Lawless (1996) surveyed 598 U.S. workers and found that experiencing physical attacks and threats at work was associated with low levels of job satisfaction. In terms of covert mistreatment, Cortina, Magley, Williams, and Langhout (2001) collected data from 1,180 public employees working in

the U.S. Eighth Circuit federal court system and found that perceiving workplace incivility was negatively associated with employees' work satisfaction, co-worker satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, and pay/benefit satisfaction. In addition, O'Reilly, Robinson, Berdahl, and Banki (2015) surveyed over 800 employees at a Canadian university and found that being ostracized at work decreased levels of employee job satisfaction statistically. Finally, a meta-analysis of outcomes of workplace harassment conducted by Bowling and Beehr (2006) reported that experiencing various forms of workplace aggression can reduce victims' job satisfaction. In addition, a meta-analysis conducted by Hershcovis and Barling (2010) added new insights to Bowling and Beehr's findings. Specifically, the authors found that the most reported sources of aggression that can create victims' job dissatisfaction were supervisors, followed by (in descending order) co-workers and outsiders. Based on these reasons, this study predicts that experiencing both overt and covert forms of mistreatment in federal workplaces may cause federal employees to experience more stress, and thus can be harmful to employees' job satisfaction and commitment. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis (H) 1: Experiencing (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (d) ostracism is associated with lower levels of job satisfaction among victims.

Effects of Workplace Sexual Harassment and Aggression on Work Commitment

Previous studies (e.g., Barling, Rogers, & Kelloway, 2001; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002; Rogers & Kelloway, 1997) have reported that various forms of mistreatment, including co-worker aggression, public violence, and sexual harassment, can negatively affect victims' affective commitment, job satisfaction, job performance, and turnover intentions. For instance, Fitzgerald

et al. (1997) investigated the impacts of workplace sexual harassment on U.S. female employees and found a negative association between sexual harassment experience and victims' organizational commitment. Regarding workplace bullying, a survey of 134 healthcare professionals in Australia by Demir, Rodwell, and Flower (2014) reported that experiencing physical bullying and external and internal emotional abuse could lead to lower levels of organizational commitment.

In terms of covert mistreatment, Duffy, Ganster, and Pagon (2002) studied the experience of social undermining of Slovakian police officers and found that being undermined by supervisors could reduce victims' organizational commitment levels. Moreover, O'Reilly et al. (2015) surveyed over 1,300 adult employees in the U.S. and found that employees who experienced ostracism at work had lower levels of affective organizational commitment.

A meta-analysis conducted by Bowling and Beehr (2006) also indicated that experiencing various forms of workplace aggression was negatively associated with victims' organizational commitment, and the comprehensive effect size of the relationship was moderate. Additionally, a meta-analysis conducted by Hershcovis and Barling (2010) reported that the most reported sources of aggression that can decrease victims' affective organizational commitment were supervisor aggression, followed by (in descending order) co-worker aggression and outsider aggression. Building on these previous studies, this study predicts that experiencing both overt and covert mistreatment will create strain, and this strain may impact employees' perceptions of safety, security, and belongingness in an organization. High levels of strain will contribute to lower levels of employee commitment to work and the organization. Accordingly, this study hypothesizes the following:

H2: Experiencing (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (d) ostracism is associated with lower levels of work commitment among victims.

Effects of Workplace Sexual Harassment and Aggression on Internal Collaboration

Little research has investigated the effect of workplace mistreatment on employee collaboration. However, prior workplace mistreatment literature has suggested that experiencing workplace mistreatment can produce negative emotions and responses in victims (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Schat & Kelloway, 2003). High levels of negative emotions can cause victims to commit unethical acts, such as counterproductive work behavior, retaliatory behavior, and aggressive behavior, that can destroy interpersonal relationship and collaboration between employees (Hershcovis et al., 2007; Penny & Spector, 2005). A study of the relationship between sexual harassment and team outcomes by Raver and Gelfand (2005) reported that higher levels of ambient sexual harassment led to high levels of team conflict, and thus decreased team cohesion levels and team citizenship behaviors.

Regarding covert mistreatment, few studies have investigated the link between covertly aggressive behaviors and employee collaboration. However, prior literature has suggested that ostracism can be used as a tool to punish organizational members who refuse to abide by organizational norms, alert them to be more cooperative, and increase their helping behavior (e.g., Robinson, O'Reilly, & Wang, 2013; Williams, Cheung, & Choi, 2000; Williams & Sommer, 1997; Xu, Huang, & Robinson, 2017).

Overall, this study hypothesizes that experiencing all of these forms of mistreatment in the federal workplace is more likely to weaken levels of collaboration among victims. The reason is that as levels of tolerance for mistreatment in the workplace increase, victims' negative affectivity

and emotions also increase, thus damaging the relationship between mistreated victims and their co-workers. For these reasons, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3: Experiencing (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (d) ostracism is associated with lower levels of internal collaboration with other employees.

Effects of Workplace Sexual Harassment and Aggression on Individual and Organizational Performance

The experience of workplace mistreatment can lead to a vast array of possible negative outcomes that harm both individual productivity and organizational performance (Spector & Jex, 1998). For example, Motowidlo, Packard, and Manning (1986) studied the effects of mistreatment on nurses and found that experiencing hostility at work was negatively correlated to the quality of patient care; warmth toward other nurses; tolerance of patients, nurses, and doctors; and interpersonal effectiveness. Furthermore, Barling et al. (2001) surveyed 399 Canadian nurses, social workers, child management specialists, and behavior management specialists about their experiences with sexual harassment and violence at work and found that being victims of workplace aggression not only decreased affective commitment and interpersonal job performance but also increased turnover intentions. In addition, Raver and Gelfand (2005) studied 273 employees in a food services organization in the U.S. and found that sexual harassment not only negatively affected individual job performance but also decreased team outcomes, especially team cohesion and team financial performance. Finally, a meta-analysis conducted by Hershcovis and Barling (2010) demonstrated that mistreatment from supervisors had a greater negative impact on victims' job performance than mistreatment from coworker did. Building on these previous studies, this study argues that experiencing both overt and covert forms of mistreatment in federal

workplaces can decrease victims' job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Bowling & Beehr (2006). These outcomes are particularly relevant for organizational effectiveness, as low job satisfaction and commitment can lead to decreases in individual productivity (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001) and the performance of the organization (Raver & Gelfand, 2005). Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H4: Experiencing (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (d) ostracism is associated with a decrease in individual productivity in victims.

H5: The incidence of (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (d) ostracism in the federal workplace is associated with a decrease in organizational performance.

Effects of Workplace Sexual Harassment and Aggression on Work and Job Withdrawal

Exposure to workplace mistreatment is associated with work withdrawal behaviors and intentions to leave an organization (Deery, Walsh, & Guest, 2011; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; LeBlance & Kelloway, 2002; Rogers & Kelloway, 1997). Work withdrawal is defined as individuals' avoidance or disengagement from work environment and task situations, such as absenteeism, lateness, and tardiness, while job withdrawal refers to an internal cognitive process in which an individual actively considers leaving an organization for alternate employment (Hanisch & Hulin 1990, 1991; Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978). Some studies have reported that sexual harassment and other forms of mistreatment can increase work withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism (e.g., Bowling & Beehr, 2006, Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Nielsen &

Einarsen, 2012; Vartia, 2001). Furthermore, Cortina et al. (2001) found that perceived incivility in the workplace led to intentions to quit among victims. In addition, a study by O'Reilly et al. (2015) reported that being ostracized at work was positively associated with victims' turnover intentions. Finally, a meta-analysis conducted by Bowling and Beehr (2006) indicated that various forms of workplace aggression had a positive correlation with intentions to quit, and the magnitude of the relationship was moderate to high. A later meta-analysis conducted by Hershcovis and Barling (2010) also reported that the most reported sources of aggression that can cause victims' turnover intentions were supervisors, followed by (in descending order) co-workers and outsiders. All things considered, this study predicts that experiencing both overt and covert forms of mistreatment in federal workplaces can result in decreased job satisfaction and organizational engagement in victims. High levels of job dissatisfaction can also lead them to withdraw from their currently assigned jobs or, more drastically, consider leaving their government careers. Accordingly, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H6: Experiencing (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (d) ostracism is positively associated with work withdrawal by victims.

H7: Experiencing (a) sexual harassment, (b) bullying, (c) social undermining, and (d) ostracism is positively associated with victims' intention to quit.

Data and Methods

Data

The data used in this study were drawn from two sources. First, this study relied on data from the 2016 Merit Principles Survey (MPS) administered by the U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board (MSPB).² A stratified random sample was used by the MSPB to select federal employees representing three supervisory statuses (nonsupervisory, supervisor, and executive) from the 24 federal agencies surveyed. The selected employees then received an invitation email to voluntarily participate and complete three distinct surveys, called "paths," over the Internet between June 2016 and July 2016. Overall, this study used data from the MPS 2016's Path 1, which included questions pertaining to federal employee experiences with sexual harassment and workplace aggression in their agencies. The total number of invited employees and accepted responses for Path 1 was 37,452 and 14,515 (38.8%), respectively (U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 2016).

Moreover, basic information concerning the number of employees in the 24 federal agencies surveyed were obtained from the FedScope Employment Cube published in September 2016.³

Measures

Job satisfaction. Three items from the MPS 2016 were used to assessed employee satisfaction (e.g., "In general I am satisfied with my job"). These items were adapted from Rubin and Perez-Chiques (2007) and responses ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree) (Cronbach's alpha = .77).

² https://catalog.data.gov/dataset/merit-principles-survey-2016-data

³ https://www.fedscope.opm.gov/employment.asp

Work commitment. Work commitment was assessed using four items from the MPS 2016 (e.g., "At my job, I am inspired to do my best work."). These items were adapted from Ugaddan and Park (2018) and responses ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree) (Cronbach's alpha = .87).

Internal collaboration. Two items from the MPS 2016 were used to assess whether respondents thought that their agency has effective cooperation and teamwork within and between work units. (e.g., A spirit of cooperation and teamwork exists between my work unit and other work units"). These items were adapted from Jung (2014) and responses ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree) (Cronbach's alpha = .58).

A reduction in individual productivity after experiencing sexual harassment. One item from the MPS 2016 was used to measure employees' perception of their work productivity after experiencing any form of sexual harassment (i.e., "Did any of the following happen as a result of the sexual harassment or your response to it? My productivity was reduced"). Responses were coded 0 (No) and 1 (Yes).

A reduction in individual productivity after experiencing workplace aggression. One item from the MPS 2016 was used to measure employees' perception of their work productivity after experiencing any form of workplace aggression (i.e., "Did any of the following happen as a result of the workplace aggression or your response to it? My productivity was reduced"). Responses were coded 0 (No) and 1 (Yes).

Organizational performance. The perception of the productivity of the organization was measured using 2 items (i.e., "My agency is successful at accomplishing its mission" and "My work unit produces high-quality products and services"). Response options for each item ranged from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*) (Cronbach's alpha = .67)

Work withdrawal. One item from the MPS 2016 was used to measure a set of behaviors dissatisfied individuals enact to avoid the work situation (i.e., "During your career, would you like to reduce your work hours or work responsibilities?"). Response options ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

Intention to quit after experiencing sexual harassment. An intention to leave an agency or work unit after experiencing sexual harassment was measured with one item from the MPS 2016. (i.e., "Did any of the following happen as a result of the sexual harassment or your response to it? I transferred or quit to take another job." Responses were coded 0 (No) and 1 (Yes).

Intention to quit after experiencing workplace aggression. An intention to leave an agency or work unit after experiencing any form of workplace aggression was measured with one item from the MPS 2016. (i.e., "Did any of the following happen as a result of the workplace aggression or your response to it? I transferred or quit to take another job." Responses were coded 0 (No) and 1 (Yes).

Sexual harassment experience. Sexual harassment experience was assessed using 12 items related to sexual harassment behaviors in the MPS 2016's Path 1 (e.g., "Unwelcome invasion of personal space," "Use of derogatory or unprofessional terms related to a person's sex/gender," "Pressure for dates"). Responses were coded 1 if respondents reported experiencing any one of the 12 sexual harassment behaviors over the 2 years preceding the survey, and 0 otherwise.

Workplace bullying experience. Two items from the MPS 2016 were used to measure workplace bullying experience (i.e., "In the past two years, have you experienced *physical intimidation*, such as intentionally making someone uncomfortable by getting in their way or too close without touching them, in the workplace?" and "In the past two years, have you experienced *verbal intimidation*, such as shouting, swearing, disrespectful name-calling, in the workplace?).

Responses were coded 1 if respondents reported experiencing physical intimidation, verbal intimidation, or both at work over the 2 years preceding the survey, and 0 otherwise.

Social undermining experience. Social undermining experience was assessed with 4 items from the MPS 2016's Path 1. The items were adapted from Duffy, Ganster, and Pagon (2002) (i.e., "In the past two years, have you experienced any of the following acts of workplace aggression/harassment that were directed at you in the workplace? (a) spreading rumors or negative comments about you to undermine your status; (b) undeserved criticisms; (c) unreasonable assignments or deadlines, and (d) undermining/sabotaging performance.") Responses were coded 1 if respondents reported experiencing any of the following 4 social undermining behaviors over the 2 years preceding the survey, and 0 otherwise.

Ostracism experience. Workplace ostracism was measured with one item from the MPS 2016's Path 1. This item was adapted from Ferris, Brown, Berry, and Lian (2008) and included respondents' experience with social exclusion at work (i.e., "In the past two years, have you experienced excluding from work-related or social activities in the workplace?). Responses were coded 1 (Experienced) and 0 (Never).

Control variables. Individual differences and organizational characteristics served as control variables in this study. Individual differences were controlled for because they could influence the prevalence of sexual harassment and workplace aggression (e.g., Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994) as well as work attitudes, behaviors, and productivity (e.g., Clark, Oswald, & Warr, 1996; Judge & Livingston, 2008). Consequently, this study used nine dummy variables to control for the following individual differences: (1) female, (2) age, (3) minority, (4) education level, (5) supervisor status, (6) salary level/year, (7) federal job tenure, (8) newcomer status, and (9) union membership.

In addition, organizational characteristics may influence the study variables. Prior studies found a positive relationship between organizational sizes and the prevalence of workplace sexual harassment and aggression (e.g., Duffy, Ganster, Shaw, Johnson, & Pagon, 2006; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Lewis, Megicks, & Jones, 2017). Thus, this study controlled for organizational size by the total number of an agency's employees (log transformed). Furthermore, this study controlled for work location (1 = Headquarters and 0 = Field) because prior research found an association between work location and the incidence of workplace harassment and aggression (Baron et al., 1999; Folger, Robinson, Dietz, Parks, & Baron, 1998).

Table 5.1 presents the variables and measures of this study.

Table 5.1. Variables and Measures

Dependent Variables

Job satisfaction⁴ ($\alpha = .77$)

- In general, I am satisfied with my job.
- Overall I am satisfied with my supervisor.
- Overall I am satisfied with managers above my immediate supervisor.
 (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree)

Work commitment⁵ ($\alpha = .87$)

- At my job, I am inspired to do my best work.
- I feel highly motivated to do my work.
- The work that I do is meaningful to me.
- I know what is expected of me on the job.
 - (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree)

-

⁴ Rubin, E., & Perez-Chiques, E. (2015). Where you sit is where you stand: Evaluating manager and employee differences in procedural justice perceptions in the U.S. Federal government. *Administration and Society*, 47(5), 549-573.

⁵ Ugaddan, R. G., & Park, S. M. (2018). Do trustful leadership, organizational justice, and motivation influence whistle-blowing intention? Evidence from Federal employees. *Public Personnel Management*. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026018783009

Dependent Variables

Internal collaboration⁶ ($\alpha = .58$)

- A spirit of cooperation and teamwork exists in my work unit.
- A spirit of cooperation and teamwork exists between my work unit and other work units (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree)

Organizational performance ($\alpha = .67$)

- My agency is successful at accomplishing its mission
- My work unit produces high-quality products and services
 (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree)

A reduction in individual productivity (for sexual harassment)

Did any of the following happen as a result of the sexual harassment or your response to it?

My productivity was reduced.(1 = Yes, 0 = No)

A reduction in individual productivity (for workplace aggression)

Did any of the following happen as a result of the workplace aggression or your response to it?

My productivity was reduced.
 (1 = Yes, 0 = No)

Work withdrawal

During your career, would you like to reduce your work hours or work responsibilities?
 (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree)

Intention to quit the federal job (for sexual harassment)

Did any of the following happen as a result of the sexual harassment or your response to it?

■ I transferred or quit to take another job. (1 = Yes, 0 = No)

Intention to quit the federal job (for workplace aggression)

Did any of the following happen as a result of the workplace aggression or your response to it?

I transferred or quit to take another job.
 (1 = Yes, 0 = No)

⁶ Jung, C. S. (2014). Why Are goals important in the public sector? Exploring the benefits of goal clarity for reducing turnover intention. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 24(1), 209–234.

Independent Variables

Sexual harassment experience

In the past two years in your workplace, have any of the following behaviors been directed to you?

- Unwelcome communications of a sexual nature
- Unwelcome invasion of personal space
- Unwelcome sexually suggestive looks or gestures
- Stalking
- Attempted or actual rape or sexual assault
- Pressure for sexual favors
- Pressure for dates
- Offer of preferential treatment in exchange for sexual favors
- Unwelcome sexual teasing, jokes, comments or questions
- The presence of sexually oriented material
- Sexually oriented conversations in front of others
- Use of derogatory or unprofessional terms related to a person's sex/gender
 (1 = Experienced any of 12 sexual harassment behaviors, 0 = Never)

Workplace bullying experience

- In the past two years, have you experienced *physical intimidation* (e.g., intentionally making someone uncomfortable by getting in their way or too close without touching them) in the workplace?
- In the past two years, have you experienced *verbal intimidation* (*e.g.*, *shouting*, *swearing*, *disrespectful name-calling*) in the workplace?
 - (1 = Experienced physical intimidation, verbal intimidation, or both at work, 0 = Never)

Social undermining experience (adapted from Duffy et al., 2002)

In the past two years, have you experienced any of the following acts of workplace aggression/harassment that were directed at you in the workplace?

- Spreading rumors or negative comments about you to undermine your status
- Persistent, undeserved criticism of your work or effort directed to you
- Assignment of tasks with unreasonable deadlines or demands with the intent of setting you up to fail
- Undermining performance by sabotaging work or withholding cooperation
 (1 = Experienced any of 4 undermining behaviors, 0 = Never)

Ostracism experience (adapted from Ferris et al., 2008)

In the past two years, have you experienced any of the following acts of workplace aggression/harassment that were directed at you in the workplace?

Excluding from work-related or social activities
 (1= Experienced, 0 = Never)

Control Variables

Gender

Respondent's gender(1 = Female, 0 = Male)

Age

Respondent's age

(1 = 39 years old and under, 0 = 40 years old and over)

Minority

Respondent's race/ethnicity

(1 = American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, or Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander], 0 = Non-minority [White])

Level of education

Respondent's level of education

(1 = Less than an AA degree, 2 = AA or BA degree, 3 = Graduate degree)

Supervisory status

• Respondent's supervisory status

(1 = Non-Supervisor, 0 = Otherwise)

Salary level/year

Respondent's salary range per year

(less than \$74,999 = 1, \$75,000-\$\$99,999 = 2, \$100,000-\$149,999 = 3, more than \$150,000 = 4)

Federal job tenure

Respondent's tenure of federal employment

(long-tenure or more than 4 years = 1, short-tenure or less than 3 years = 0)

Newcomer status

Respondent's years with their current agency

(newcomer or working for a current agency for less than 3 years = 1, working for a current agency for more than 4 years = 0)

Federal union membership

Respondent's union membership status

(1 = Union member, 0 = Non-union member)

Organizational size

FedScope data

Work location

MPS 2016 data: Respondent's work location

(1 = Headquarters, 0 = Fields)

Note. The FedScope Employment Cube data sets were processed in September 2016.

Model Specifications

This study used ordinary least squares (OLS) models to predict five dependent variables—job satisfaction, work commitment, internal collaboration, work withdrawal, and organizational performance, which were measured using a 5-point Likert scale. The OLS models are as follows:

 $\label{eq:Job_satisfaction} \begin{subarray}{l} Job\ satisfaction = α + b_1 * (sexual harassment experience) + b_2 * (bullying experience) + b_3 * (social undermining experience) + b_4 * (ostracism experience) + ϵ (social undermining experience)$

Work commitment = $\alpha + b_1$ * (sexual harassment experience) + b_2 * (bullying experience) + b_3 * (social undermining experience) + b_4 * (ostracism experience) + ϵ

 $Internal\ collaboration = \alpha + b_1 * (sexual\ harassment\ experience) + b_2 *$ $(bullying\ experience) + b_3 * (social\ undermining\ experience) + b_4 * (ostracism\ experience) + \epsilon$

Work withdrawal = α + b_1 (sexual harassment experience) + b_2 * (bullying experience) + b_3 * (social undermining experience) + b_4 * (ostracism experience) + ϵ

Organizational performance = α + b_1 * (sexual harassment experience) + b_2 * (bullying experience) + b_3 * (social undermining experience) + b_4 * (ostracism experience) + ϵ

where α is the constant, b is the unstandardized OLS slope, and ϵ is the error term.

Furthermore, to predict a reduction in individual productivity and a desire to leave the federal government, which are both binary variables, a logistic regression analysis was utilized. Logit models predicting a decrease in individual productivity and an intention to quit the job are as follows:

logit P (Reduction in individual productivity) = $ln\left(\frac{P \text{ (Reduction in individual productivity)}}{1-P \text{ (Reduction in individual productivity)}}\right) = \alpha + B_1 \text{ (sexual harassment experience)} + B_2 * \text{ (bullying experience)} + B_3 * \text{ (social undermining experience)} + B_4 * \text{ (ostracism experience)},$

where P (Reduction in individual productivity) is the probability that the individual productivity decreases, α is the constant, and b is the unstandardized logistic slope.

logit P (Intention to quit) = $ln\left(\frac{P \text{ (Intention to quit)}}{1-P \text{ (Intention to quit)}}\right) = \alpha + B_1 \text{ (sexual harassment experience)} + B_2 *$ (bullying experience) + B_3 * (social undermining experience) + B_4 * (ostracism experience),

where P (Intention to quit) is the probability that respondents desire to leave the federal agency after experiencing any form of sexual harassment and aggressive behaviors in the workplace, α is the constant, and B is the unstandardized logit slope.

Note that MSPB calculated response weights to ensure that the survey results are representative of governmentwide employee opinions. Therefore, MSPB included the weighting variable (STRAT_WEIGHT) in the survey datasets and encouraged a researcher to utilize it for analysis (U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 2016). Failure to include the sampling weights in analyzing complex survey data can result in inaccurate standard errors, the bias of point estimators,

and the potential to commit a Type 1 error (Hahs-Vaughn, 2005; Pfeffermann, 1993). Therefore, this study applied the weighting variable for data analysis using the survey data commands [SVY] in Stata 15.1 (StataCorp, 2017).

Findings

Descriptive statistics are shown in Table 5.2, and bivariate correlations and reliabilities among study variables are presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.2. Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

Variables	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	S.D.
Independent variables:					
Sexual harassment experience	14515	0	1	.10	.30
Workplace bullying experience	14515	0	1	.18	.39
Social undermining experience	14515	0	1	.32	.47
Ostracism experience	14515	0	1	.12	.33
Dependent variables:					
Job satisfaction	14186	1	5	3.53	1.02
Work commitment	14337	1	5	3.83	.88
Internal collaboration	13581	1	5	3.73	.93
Decrease in individual productivity (SH)	1344	0	1	.25	.43
Decrease in individual productivity (WA)	6091	0	1	.26	.44
Organizational performance	14342	1	5	4.13	.75
Work withdrawal	12898	1	5	2.48	1.16
Intention to quit (SH)	1355	0	1	.07	.26
Intention to quit (WA)	6152	0	1	.07	.26
Control variables:					
Female	12108	0	1	.42	.49
Age $(1 = 39 \text{ yrs. and under})$	12125	0	1	.14	.35
Minority	11982	0	1	.33	.47
Educational level	12185	1	3	2.21	.73
Supervisory status	12262	1	5	2.24	1.30
Salary range/year	12167	1	4	2.53	1.03
Federal job tenure	12293	0	1	.96	.20
Newcomer status	12274	0	1	.09	.29
Union membership	11566	0	1	.15	.36
Log (Organizational size)	14515	8.38	12.83	11.03	1.26
Work location (1 = Headquarters)	12202	0	1	.36	.48

Note. SH = Sexual harassment. WA = Workplace aggression

Table 5.3. Bivariate Correlations and Reliabilities Among Studied Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Sexual harassment experience	-											
2. Bullying experience	.28*	-										
3. Social undermining experience	.29*	.52*	-									
4. Ostracism experience	.25*	.39*	.48*	-								
5. Job satisfaction	17*	26*	35*	30*	(.77)							
6. Work commitment	16*	23*	31*	28*	.77*	(.87)						
7. Internal collaboration	17*	23*	31*	27*	.64*	.69*	(.58)					
8. Decrease in individual performance (SH)	11*	.21*	.22*	.26*	26*	25*	19*	-				
9. Decrease in individual performance (WA)	.14*	.18*	.27*	.24*	25*	27*	21*	.60*	-			
10. Organizational performance	13*	16*	21*	19*	.54*	.67*	.60*	17*	17*	(.67)		
11. Work withdrawal	.02*	.03*	.02*	.01	04*	05*	05*	.03	.07*	05*	-	
12. Intention to quit (SH)	03	.15*	.12*	.18*	06*	10*	08*	.24*	.19*	08*	03	-
13. Intention to quit (WA)	.07*	.09*	.11*	.13*	03*	07*	05*	.14*	.19*	04*	01	.57*
14. Female	.15*	.12*	.12*	.11*	05*	05*	03*	03	.03*	.00	01	.04
15. Age	.07*	.00	01	02*	.00	01	04*	02	.03*	05*	04*	00
16. Ethnicity	.02*	.05*	.06*	.06*	03*	02*	02*	05	03*	02*	04*	.02
17. Education	.01	01	.02*	.02*	.01	.04*	.03*	.10*	.07*	.05*	.01	.06*
18. Supervisory status	05*	.00	.00	03*	.14*	.22*	.18*	.04	08*	.18*	.07*	.03
19. Annual salary	06*	06*	03*	02*	.09*	.16*	.12*	.05	.02	.14*	.06*	.02
20. Job tenure	.00	.03*	.04*	.02*	06*	04*	02*	.05*	.02	02*	.04*	.04
21. Newcomer status	.00	00	.01	.01	.04*	.02*	01	01	.01	00	05*	.03
22. Union member	.06*	.06*	.06*	.05*	12*	12*	13*	00	.03*	12*	01	01
23. Log organizational size	.03*	.05*	.02*	.02*	03*	04*	04*	.02	03*	07*	.02*	.00
24. Work location	.01	01	.02*	.02*	.02*	.03*	.02*	02	.02	.06*	01	.05

Note. * shows significance at the .05 level. Cronbach's Alphas are presented in parenthesis. SH = Sexual harassment. WA = Workplace aggression

Table 5.3. Cont'd.

Variables	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
1. Sexual harassment experience												
2. Bullying experience												
3. Social undermining experience												
4. Ostracism experience												
5. Job satisfaction												
6. Work commitment												
7. Internal collaboration												
8. Decrease in individual performance (SH)												
9. Decrease in individual performance (WA)												
10. Organizational performance												
11. Work withdrawal												
12. Intention to quit (SH)												
13. Intention to quit (WA)	-											
14. Female	.05*	-										
15. Age	.02	.02*	-									
16. Ethnicity	.02	.11*	.01	-								
17. Education	.04*	05*	.07*	09*	-							
18. Supervisory status	06*	12*	17*	09*	.16*	-						
19. Annual salary	00	14*	19*	11*	.38*	.50*	-					
20. Job tenure	.00	.01	17*	01	05*	.09*	.12*	-				
21. Newcomer status	.08*	.02*	.17*	.03*	.06*	10*	14*	61*	-			
22. Union member	.01	.06*	.04*	.12*	11*	31*	22*	04*	.02*	-		
23. Log organizational size	.01	07*	01	.01	13*	.01	27*	02*	.03*	06*	-	
24. Work location	.06*	.06*	02*	.04*	.14*	.07*	.23*	04*	.08*	07*	09*	-

Note. * shows significance at the .05 level. Cronbach's Alphas are presented in parenthesis. SH = Sexual harassment. WA = Workplace aggression

Effects of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression on Job Satisfaction

Table 5.4 presents the survey-weighted OLS regression predicting federal employees' job satisfaction from experiencing workplace sexual harassment (H1a), bullying (H1b), social undermining (H1c), and ostracism (H1d) after controlling for individual and organizational characteristics.

In Model 1 in Table 5.4, workplace sexual harassment experience was negatively related to victims' job satisfaction (b = -.405, p < .001), thus supporting H1a. In Model 2, experiencing workplace bullying was negatively related to victims' job satisfaction (b = -.640, p < .001), thus supporting H1b. In model 3, experiencing social undermining at work was negatively related to victims' job satisfaction (b = -.798, p < .001), thus supporting H1c. Finally, in model 4, experiencing workplace ostracism was negatively related to victims' job satisfaction (b = -.897, p < .001), thus supporting H1d.

Effects of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression on Work Commitment

Table 5.5 presents the survey-weighted OLS regression predicting federal employees' work commitment from experiencing workplace sexual harassment (H2a), bullying (H2b), social undermining (H2c), and ostracism (H2d) after controlling for individual and organizational characteristics.

Model 1 in Table 5.5 shows that experiencing workplace sexual harassment experience was negatively associated with victims' work commitment (b = -.342, p < .001), thus supporting H2a. In Model 2, experiencing workplace bullying was negatively associated with victims' work commitment (b = -.519, p < .001), thus supporting H2b. In model 3, experiencing social undermining at work was negatively associated with victims' work commitment (b = -.405,

p < .001), thus supporting H2c. Finally, in Model 4, experiencing workplace ostracism was negatively associated with victims' work commitment (b = -.775, p < .001), thus supporting H2d.

Effects of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression on Internal Collaboration

Table 5.6 illustrates the results of the survey-weighted OLS regression predicting federal employees' internal collaboration from experiencing workplace sexual harassment (H3a), bullying (H3b), social undermining (H3c), and ostracism (H3d) after controlling for individual and organizational characteristics.

In Model 1 in Table 5.6, experiencing workplace sexual harassment experience was negatively associated with internal collaboration (b = -.465, p < .01), thus supporting H3a. In Model 2, experiencing workplace bullying was negatively associated with internal collaboration (b = -.574, p < .001), thus supporting H3b. In Model 3, experiencing social undermining at work was negatively associated with internal collaboration (b = -.709, p < .001), thus supporting H3c. Finally, in Model 4, experiencing workplace ostracism was negatively associated with internal collaboration (b = -.864, p < .001), thus supporting H3d.

Effects of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression on Individual Productivity

Table 5.7 shows results from the logistic regression predicting the decrease in individual productivity from experiencing workplace sexual harassment (H4a), bullying (H4b), social undermining (H4c), and ostracism (H4d) after controlling for individual and organizational characteristics.

Model 1 in Table 5.7 shows that experiencing workplace sexual harassment experience was negatively associated with a decrease in individual productivity (B = -.993, p < .05), thus H4a

was not supported.* In Model 2, experiencing workplace bullying was positively associated with a decrease in individual productivity (B = .972, p < .001), thus supporting H4b. In model 3, experiencing social undermining at work was positively associated with a decrease in individual productivity (B = 1.784, p < .001), thus supporting H4c. Finally, in Model 5, being ostracized at work was positively associated with a decrease in individual productivity (B = 1.238, p < .001), thus supporting H4d.

Effects of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression on Organizational Performance

Table 5.8 shows the results of the survey-weighted OLS regression predicting organizational performance from the incidents of workplace sexual harassment (H5a), bullying (H5b), social undermining (H5c), and ostracism (H5d) after controlling for individual and organizational characteristics.

In Model 1 of Table 5.8, workplace sexual harassment was negatively related to organizational performance (b = -.256, p < .001), thus supporting for H5a. In Model 2, workplace bullying was negatively related to organizational performance (b = -.338, p < .001), thus supporting H5b. In model 3, social undermining at work was negatively related to organizational performance (b = -.410, p < .001), thus supporting H5c. Finally, in model 4, workplace ostracism was negatively related to organizational performance (b = -.506, p < .001), thus supporting H5d.

[.]

^{*} The failure to achieve an expected outcome (i.e., a positive association between sexual harassment and a decrease in individual productivity) is likely due to the fact that the measure of sexual harassment was broad and involved all 12 forms of sexual harassment behaviors listed in the survey. When I looked only at a more serious form of sexual harassment (i.e., the use of derogatory or unprofessional terms), a positive association was found.

Effects of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression on Work Withdrawal

Tables 5.9 presents the results of the survey-weighted OLS regression predicting work withdrawal (e.g., role or task avoidance, lateness, and absenteeism) after experiencing workplace sexual harassment (H6a), bullying (H6b), social undermining (H6c), and ostracism (H6d). This study found that after controlling for individual and organizational characteristics, workplace sexual harassment (Model 1), bullying (Model 2), social undermining (Model 3), and ostracism (Model 4) were not statistically associated with work withdrawal, thus H6a, H6b, H6c, and H6d were not supported.

Effects of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression on Intention to Quit the Job

Table 5.10 presents the results of the survey-weighted logistic regression predicting federal employees' intentions to leave the federal government from experiencing workplace sexual harassment (H7a), bullying (H7b), social undermining (H7c), and ostracism (H7d) after controlling for individual and organizational characteristics.

In Model 1 of Table 5.10, experiencing sexual harassment at work was not statistically associated with victims' intention to quit (B = -1.353, p = n.s.), hence H7a was not supported. In Model 2, experiencing workplace bullying was positively associated with victims' intention to quit (B = .665, p < .001), thus supporting H7b. In Model 3, experiencing social undermining at work was positively associated with victims' intention to quit (B = 1.237, p < .001), thus supporting H7d. Finally, being ostracized at work was positively associated with victims' intention to quit (B = .701, p < .001), thus supporting H7d.

Table 5.4. Survey-Weighted OLS Regression Predicting Job Satisfaction from Workplace Sexual

Harassment and Aggression Experiences

Transment and Aggression Experiences	Dependent variable: Job satisfaction					
Predictor	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4		
Independent variables:						
Sexual harassment experience	405***					
	(.071)					
Bullying experience		640***				
		(.078)				
Social undermining experience			798***			
			(.036)			
Ostracism experience				897***		
				(.064)		
Control variables:						
Female	.013	.030	.063	.040		
	(.049)	(.037)	(.040)	(.035)		
Age (39 yrs. and under)	.059	.048	.044	.032		
	(.053)	(.049)	(.048)	(.048)		
Minority	.034	.053*	.076**	.069**		
	(.022)	(.024)	(.024)	(.023)		
Educational level	025	021	006	019		
	(.024)	(.027)	(.024)	(.021)		
Supervisory status	.087**	.099***	.111***	.087**		
	(.029)	(.027)	(.024)	(.026)		
Salary range/year	.051**	.041**	.028*	.052**		
	(.016)	(.015)	(.013)	(.015)		
Job tenure	168*	113	019	073		
	(.076)	(.075)	(.083)	(.097)		
Newcomer	.176*	.204*	.249***	.247**		
	(.076)	(.079)	(.064)	` ′		
Union membership	244***		168***			
	(.042)	(.042)	(.039)	(.045)		
Log (Organizational size)	033+	018	030+	027		
	(.018)	(.017)	(.016)	(.019)		
Work location (Headquarters)	029	030	026	027		
	(.035)	(.033)	(.035)	(.031)		
Constant	3.874***	3.705***	3.847***	3.739***		
_ 2	(.207)	(.206)	(.210)	(.193)		
R^2	.050	.100	.167	.127		
N	10,955	10,955	10,955	10,955		

^{*} p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Table 5.5. Survey-Weighted OLS Regression Predicting Work Commitment from Workplace Sexual Harassment and Aggression Experiences

Sexual Harassilient and Aggression Ex	Dependent variable: Work commitment						
Predictor	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4			
Independent variables:							
Sexual harassment experience	342***						
	(.083)						
Bullying experience		519***					
		(.055)					
Social undermining experience			623***				
			(.042)				
Ostracism experience				775***			
				(.059)			
Control variables:							
Female	.037	.048	.070*	.061*			
	(.042)	(.034)	(.033)	(.030)			
Age (39 yrs. and under)	.075*	.062	.062	.049			
26	(.036)	(.035)	(.037)	(.032)			
Minority	.078**	.095***		.111***			
P.1 & 11 1	(.024)	(.025)		(.021)			
Educational level	022	019	010	016			
Communication and advantage	(.024)	(.026)	(.023)	(.019)			
Supervisory status	.120***	.130***	.139***	.120***			
Calama nanga/raan	(.023) .053***	(.023) .046**	(.022) .037*	(.022) .055***			
Salary range/year							
Job tenure	(.015) 177***	, ,	(.015) 058	(.016) 088*			
Job tenure	(.035)	(.035)	(.029)	(.038)			
Newcomer	.147*	.175**	.202***	.213***			
Newcomer	(.059)	(.058)					
Union membership	166***	127**	108***	124**			
Chion memoership	(.036)	(.037)	(.030)	(.041)			
Log (Organizational size)	000	.012	.002	.005			
Log (Organizational Size)	(.024)	(.027)	(.027)	(.022)			
Work location (Headquarters)	034	036	030	034			
work focution (freudquarters)	(.052)	(.052)	(.053)	(.050)			
Constant	3.680***	3.534***	3.656***	3.550***			
	(.275)	(.315)	(.330)	(.263)			
R^2	.059	.101	.151	.136			
N	11,068	11,068	11,068	11,068			

^{*} p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Table 5.6. Survey-Weighted OLS Regression Predicting Internal Collaboration from Workplace Sexual Harassment and Aggression Experiences

Sexual Harassilient and Aggression I	Dependent variable: Internal collaboration					
Predictor	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4		
Independent variables:						
Sexual harassment experience	465***					
	(.039)					
Bullying experience		574***				
		(.052)				
Social undermining experience			709***			
			(.043)			
Ostracism experience				864***		
				(.067)		
Control variables:						
Female	.072	.073*	.099**	.087**		
	(.042)	(.033)	(.031)	(.029)		
Age (39 yrs. and under)	043	062	068	079*		
26	(.042)	(.039)	(.035)	(.035)		
Minority	.081**	.101***	.122***	.116***		
7.	(.024)	(.027)	(.024)	(.026)		
Educational level	.001	.005	.016	.007		
a	(.028)	(.030)	(.026)	(.026)		
Supervisory status	.073**	.084***	.094***	.073**		
	(.024)	(.024)	(.022)	(.022)		
Salary range/year	.038*	.029	.018	.040*		
T 1 .	(.018)	(.019)	(.014)	(.018)		
Job tenure	222***	178**	084	125**		
N	(.056)	(.056)	(.043)	(.046)		
Newcomer	.000	.023	.066	.076		
Union mambarshin	(.086) 263***	(.080) 221***	(.067) 197***	(.063) 215***		
Union membership		(.040)				
Log (Organizational siza)	(.029) 035*	(.040) 022	(.036) 033	(.040) 029		
Log (Organizational size)	(.017)	(.017)	(.017)	(.016)		
Work location (Headquarters)	012	(.017) 017	005	(.010) 011		
work location (Headquarters)	(.059)	(.056)	(.053)	(.054)		
Constant	4.128***	3.985***	4.098***	3.988***		
Constant	(.200)	(.200)	(.211)	(.194)		
R^2	.059	.094	.154	.134		
N N	10,736	10,736	10,736	10,736		
11	10,730	10,730	10,730	10,730		

^{*} *p* < .05. ** *p* < .01. *** *p* < .001.

Table 5.7. Survey-Weighted Logistic Regression Predicting the Decrease in Individual Productivity from Workplace Sexual Harassment and Aggression Experiences

	Dependent variable: Decrease in individual productivity					
Predictor	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4		
Independent variables:						
Sexual harassment experience	993*					
	(.454)					
Bullying experience		.972***				
		(.145)				
Social undermining experience			1.784***			
			(.150)			
Ostracism experience				1.238***		
				(.113)		
Control variables:						
Female	.144	.016	.001	024		
	(.270)	(.115)	(.119)	(.124)		
Age (39 yrs. and under)	.502	.353*	.432***			
	(.260)	` /	` /	` '		
Minority	284			309***		
	(.246)					
Educational level	.326*	.162*	.179*	.157**		
~ .	(.125)	` ′		` ,		
Supervisory status	.028	158*	195**	136*		
	(.120)	(.061)	(.064)			
Salary range/year	.095		.221***			
* 1	(.181)	` /	(.050)	` '		
Job tenure	.940	.477*	.243	.369*		
N	(.598)	` ′	(.210)	(.163)		
Newcomer	404	024	099	151		
IInian mambanshin	(.474)	` ′	(.222)	(.196)		
Union membership	.329 (.230)	.228 (.152)	.219 (.156)	.241 (.150)		
Log (Organizational size)	.040	(.132) 108*	063	(.130) 090**		
Log (Organizational size)	(.078)	(.042)	(.050)	(.033)		
Work location (Headquarters)	.128	(.042) 067	090	080		
work location (Headquarters)	(.220)					
Constant	-2.782*	` ′				
Constant			(.656)			
N	1,242	5,524	5,524			
N	1,444	J,J4 +	3,34	3,34+		

Note. Unstandardized logit coefficients (*B*) reported and standard errors in parentheses. * p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Table 5.8. Survey-Weighted OLS Regression Predicting Organizational Performance from Workplace Sexual Harassment and Aggression Experiences

	Dependent variable: Organizational performance					
Predictor	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4		
Independent variables:				_		
Sexual harassment experience	256***					
	(.061)					
Bullying experience		338***				
		(.046)				
Social undermining experience			410***			
			(.049)			
Ostracism experience				506***		
				(.077)		
Control variables:						
Female		.079***				
	(.027)	(.021)	(.021)	(.022)		
Age (39 yrs. and under)	013	024	025	034		
3.6	(.039)			(.036)		
Minority	.060**	.071**	.084***	.082**		
D 1 2 11 1	(.022)	` ′		, ,		
Educational level	003		.004	.000		
	(.018)	(.017)	(.016)	(.018)		
Supervisory status	.065***	.072***	.078***	.066***		
C-1	(.019)			, ,		
Salary range/year	.040*	.035	.029	.040*		
Job tenure	(.019) 163***		(.017) 089*	(.018) 109**		
Job tenure	(.047)		(.040)	(.041)		
Newcomer	.047)	.047)	.0 4 0) .067	.075		
Newcomer	(.057)			(.053)		
Union membership	191***	` '		168**		
Official membership	(.051)	(.053)	(.046)	(.053)		
Log (Organizational size)	019	012	019	017		
Log (Organizational Size)	(.017)			(.016)		
Work location (Headquarters)	.017	.015	.019	.017		
work rocation (freadquarters)	(.038)	(.038)	(.034)	(.037)		
Constant	4.271***	4.193***	4.273***	4.206***		
	(.196)	(.206)	(.206)	(.183)		
R^2	.043	.064	.092	.083		
N	11,074	11,074	11,074	11,074		

^{*} p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

Table 5.9. Survey-Weighted OLS Regression Predicting Work Withdrawal from Workplace Sexual Harassment and Aggression Experiences

Sexual Harassment and Aggression E	Dependent variable: Work withdrawal						
Predictor	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4			
Independent variables:							
Sexual harassment experience	.002 (.058)						
Bullying experience		.068 (.068)					
Social undermining experience			.056 (.037)				
Ostracism experience				.095 (.090)			
Control variables:							
Female	003	010	010	011			
	(.035)	(.033)	(.034)	(.034)			
Age (39 yrs. and under)	094	094	094	093			
	(.087)	(.088)	(.088)	(.088)			
Minority	103	104	105	106			
	(.059)	(.059)	(.058)	(.060)			
Educational level	010	011	012	012			
	(.039)	(.036)	(.037)	(.037)			
Supervisory status	.042	.040	.040	.042			
- ·	(.025)	(.026)	(.025)	(.025)			
Salary range/year	.081***	.082***	.083***	.081***			
, , ,	(.020)	(.020)	(.020)	(.020)			
Job tenure	.050	.045	.041	.041			
	(.073)	(.073)	(.076)	(.077)			
Newcomer	165**	166**	168**	171**			
	(.058)	(.059)	(.059)	(.063)			
Union membership	.139**	.130**	.132**	.131**			
	(.050)	(.044)	(.045)	(.042)			
Log (Organizational size)	.058	.055	.057	.056			
	(.050)	(.048)	(.049)	(.049)			
Work location (Headquarters)	109***	108**	109**	109***			
, ,	(.031)	(.032)	(.032)	(.031)			
Constant	1.577**	1.604**	1.583**	1.600**			
	(.575)	(.543)	(.560)	(.550)			
R^2	.018	.019	.019	.019			
N	10,913	10,913	10,913	10,913			

^{*} *p* < .05. ** *p* < .01. *** *p* < .001.

Table 5.10. Survey-Weighted Logistic Regression Predicting the Intention to Quit the Job from Workplace Sexual Harassment and Aggression Experiences

THE STREET STREET	Dependent variable: Intention to quit					
Predictor	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4		
Independent variables:						
Sexual harassment experience	-1.353					
	(.681)					
Bullying experience		.665***				
		(.104)				
Social undermining experience			1.237***			
			(.295)			
Ostracism experience				.701***		
				(.152)		
Control variables:						
Female	.832*		.480**	.463**		
	(.338)	(.162)	(.157)	(.145)		
Age (39 yrs. and under)	.780	065	017	035		
	(.423)	(.137)	(.174)	(.139)		
Minority	.447	.185	.127	.150		
	(.421)	(.130)	(.138)	(.131)		
Educational level	154	.101	.093	.096		
	(.294)	(.104)	(.092)	(.080)		
Supervisory status	139	222	255*	208		
	(.216)	(.121)	, ,	(.122)		
Salary range/year	.388	.157	.182	.149		
* 1	(.330)					
Job tenure	.862		.915***			
N	(.448)		(.214)	(.202)		
Newcomer	.386	.884**	.857**	.818**		
TT ' 1 1'	(.438)		, ,	, ,		
Union membership	547	028	038	002		
Las (Oussainstianal sins)	(.298)	, ,	(.187) .249*	(.174)		
Log (Organizational size)	.201	.211*		.235*		
W 1- 1 1: (II 1	(.162)	(.104) .315*	(.103) .290*	(.117) .313**		
Work location (Headquarters)	.331					
Constant	(.434)	` /	(.129)			
Constant	-5.838** (2.200)		-7.734***			
M		(1.073)				
N	1,231	5,573	3,373	3,373		

^{*} *p* < .05. ** *p* < .01. *** *p* < .001.

Discussion

This study investigated the premise that both overt and covert forms of workplace mistreatment, including sexual harassment, bullying, social undermining, and ostracism, influence employees' job satisfaction, work commitment, internal collaboration, individual productivity, organizational performance, work withdrawal, and intentions to quit the job. The findings of this study have contributed to the existing literature in several ways.

The Impact of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression on Job Satisfaction

The model indicates that experiencing sexual harassment can decrease the satisfaction of victims with their jobs. This finding is consistent with previous studies (e.g., Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Schneider et al., 1997) which found a negative association between experiencing sexual harassment and job satisfaction. Experiencing workplace bullying can also lead to low levels of job satisfaction, as suggested by Keashly et al. (1994) and Budd et al. (1996). Concerning undermining experience, this mistreatment can decrease victims' job satisfaction, as suggested by Duffy et al. (2006) who studied the effect of social undermining on the national police force in the Republic of Slovenia. Finally, as expected, experiencing the silent treatment in the workplace decreases the victims' job satisfaction levels, as suggested by O'Reilly et al. (2015). Note that, of the four mistreatment behaviors, covert mistreatment (social undermining and ostracism) has a greater effect on victims' job satisfaction than overt mistreatment (sexual harassment and bullying). Sexual harassment and bullying rarely occur in the workplace when compared with social undermining and ostracism which may occur fairly frequently in everyday interactions at work, causing a greater number of victims to be dissatisfied with their situations.

The Impact of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression on Work Commitment

The models indicate that work commitment levels decrease when federal employees experience all overt and covert mistreatment at work. This finding supports the existing literature (e.g., Fitzgerald et al., 1997) by demonstrating that sexual harassment not only is prevalent in the federal workplace but also produces aversive effects on federal employees. Regarding workplace bullying, the model shows that experiencing bullying at work can reduce victims' work commitment, as suggested by previous works (e.g., Barling et al., 2001; Demir et al., 2014; LeBlance & Kelloway, 2002; Rogers & Kelloway, 1997). Being undermined at work can also decrease victims' levels of commitment to work and an organization as well. This finding is consistent with Duffy et al.'s (2002) research. However, while Duffy et al.'s study examined the effects of undermining behaviors from two sources (i.e., supervisor's undermining and coworker's undermining) and found that supervisors' undermining was the only factor that can decrease victim's work commitment, this study failed to investigate the source of undermining behaviors in federal workplaces. Finally, this study found that being excluded from work or social activities can lead to lower levels of employee work commitment, as suggested by O'Reilly et al. (2015). However, future research should extend the literature by investigating sources of ostracism, such as supervisor, coworker, and client, as well as comparing the impact of each source of ostracism on the victims' work commitment levels.

The Impact of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression on Internal Collaboration

This study found that all four forms of workplace mistreatment can reduce collaboration within an organization. These results are consistent with prior studies (e.g., Raver & Gelfand, 2005) that suggested workplace mistreatment results in low levels of team cohesion. In other

words, the findings of this study contribute to the existing literature because exposure to workplace mistreatment in both overt and covert forms will limit a victim's perceptions that the agency and their co-workers are there to support his or her efforts on the job (Einarsen et al., 1996). Moreover, a victim may perceive injustice within an agency and unfair interpersonal interactions in the workplace (Cortina et al., 2001). Therefore, these factors can damage employees' level of collaboration and yield other adverse consequences, such as work withdrawal and job withdrawal.

The Impact of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression on Individual and Organizational Performance

The models indicate that workplace bullying, social undermining, and ostracism, with the exception of sexual harassment, can lead to a decrease in victims' productivity, as suggested by previous studies (e.g., Motowidlo et al., 1986; Barling et al., 2001; Raven & Gelfand, 2005). Moreover, the models indicate that both overt and covert forms of workplace mistreatment can reduce an organization's performance. These findings suggest that exposure to both overt and covert forms of workplace mistreatment can instigate victims' negative emotions (e.g., emotional exhaustion, stress, anger, frustration, burnout) and lead to reduced satisfaction and commitment. Low job satisfaction and commitment can also result in several negative job outcomes, such as reduced collaboration, reduced individual and organizational performance, work withdrawal, and turnover intentions.

The Impact of Sexual Harassment and Workplace Aggression on Work Withdrawal and Intention to Quit

This study found that while experiencing sexual harassment, bullying, social undermining, and ostracism cannot predict the likelihood of withdrawing from work or tasks, the models demonstrate that experiencing these mistreatment behaviors can predict the likelihood of leaving the federal government. The results of this study are consistent with previous research suggesting that both overt and covert forms of mistreatment can lead to reductions in performance at work. Moreover, the results, especially the role of workplace ostracism in predicting turnover intentions, are consistent with O'Reilly et al. (2015) and van Beest and Williams (2006), who found that although ostracism is a form of workplace aggression that is less obvious and more emotionally, it tends to produce similar or more harm than other overtly aggressive behaviors.

Strength, Limitations, and Directions for Future Research

The present study has two major strengths. First, by investigating two forms of workplace mistreatment—overtly aggressive behaviors (i.e., sexual harassment and bullying) and covertly aggressive behaviors (i.e., social undermining and ostracism)—this study extends our understanding of the interplay between these mistreatment behaviors and work-related outcomes in federal workplaces. Second, by utilizing the sampling weights in fitting models to complex survey data, the results of this study account for sample representation and are representative of government-wide employees' opinions.

Despite these strengths, the study also has at least four limitations that should be addressed. First, this study has captured a cross-sectional snapshot of the relationships among study variables.

Although the findings of this study are quite strong and consistent with the literature, future research should employ a longitudinal study to strengthen the ability to make causal inferences.

Second, this study relied on a single source of data (self-report measures), which may lead to potential problems with common method bias. Future research should investigate the impact of common-method bias on the findings of this present study using available statistical techniques (see Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Third, the job-related outcome variables in this study were measured through self-report techniques making these variables more subjective and at risk of cognitive bias and measurement error (March & Sutton, 1997). Future research should assess variables using objective measures, such as the objective measures of performance—accounting and financial market measures, a record number of customer complaints or harassment reports, or a numerical number of work-related outputs (e.g., grants, patents, research publications).

Finally, this study conducted a comprehensive empirical investigation of relationships between study variables using data from the government-wide samples. Future research should utilize a subgroup analysis by breaking down federal employee samples into subsets, such as sex, occupational status, supervisory status, military departments, and civilian departments, and contrast the results from each subset. This would further extend researchers' knowledge of workplace mistreatment effects on federal employees' work attitudes, behaviors, and productivity.

Conclusion

This chapter examined the effects of sexual harassment, bullying, undermining, and ostracism on victims' work attitudes, behaviors, and productivity. Overall, this study found that each mistreatment behavior was negatively related to job satisfaction, work commitment, internal

collaboration, individual productivity, organizational performance, and intention to leave the federal government. However, work withdrawal did not statistically relate to any form of mistreatment. Interestingly, this study found that some covert forms of workplace mistreatment, such as social undermining and ostracism, which are less obvious and not covered by Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, can produce similar or even greater harm than more overtly aggressive behaviors such as sexual harassment and bullying. In the next chapter, I will discuss how the results of this study contribute to the existing literature as well as provide managerial implications with an emphasis on combating both overt and covert forms of mistreatment in the federal workplace.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

Summary of Findings

In this study, I have sought to respond to a number of research questions related to how sexual harassment and workplace aggression are understood, performed, and enacted in the everyday working practices of federal employees. In particular, I have investigated the following questions: To what extent do sexual harassment and each form of workplace aggression, including bullying, social undermining, and ostracism, currently exist in the federal workplace (Chapter 3)? What are the characteristics of the victims and the perpetrators of these mistreatment behaviors (Chapter 3)? How did the victims respond to these mistreatment behaviors (Chapter 3)? What are factors linked to the occurrences of these mistreatment behaviors in the federal workplace (Chapter 4)? Finally, how do these mistreatment behaviors affect federal employees' work attitudes (job satisfaction and work commitment), behaviors (internal collaboration, work withdrawal, and intention to quit), and productivity (individual productivity and organizational performance) (Chapter 5)? Using data from the 2016 Merit Principles Survey (MPS 2016) and the FedScope Employment Cube (September 2016), the results of the present study can be summarized as follows.

<u>Research Question 1</u>: To what extent do sexual harassment and three forms of workplace aggression, including bullying, social undermining, and ostracism, currently exist in the federal workplace?

Regarding the governmentwide incidents of sexual harassment, bullying, undermining, and

ostracism, this study found that all study mistreatment behaviors still exist in federal workplaces. Specifically, of the four forms of workplace mistreatment, social undermining was most frequently reported by federal employees, followed by (in order of descending rank) bullying, ostracism, and sexual harassment.

Considered by agency, the Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) ranked first in frequency of sexual harassment and bullying, while social undermining and ostracism were highest in the Department of Education (ED).

<u>Research Question 2</u>: What are the characteristics of the victims of sexual harassment and each form of workplace aggression?

Overall, this study found that more female employees than male employees reported experiencing workplace sexual harassment (61.65% vs. 38.35%), bullying (53.12% vs. 46.88%), and ostracism (55.49% vs. 44.51%) (Table 3.2). However, Table 3.2 showed that male employees reported being undermined at work at a higher rate than female employees (50.25% vs. 49.75%).

By focusing on each federal agency surveyed, this study found that in some agencies, men reported being the targets of sexual assault, bullying, undermining, and ostracism more often than women:

- Sexual harassment victimization. More men than women working in Air Force (AF)
 (55.56% vs. 44.44%) and Homeland Security (HS) (54.02% vs. 45.98%) were victims of sexual assaults.
- *Bullying victimization*. Men working in Air Force (AF), Commerce (CM), Labor (DL), Energy (DN), Homeland Security (HS), and Transportation (TD) reported experiencing workplace bullying at a higher rate than women.

- Undermining victimization. In Air Force (AF), Army (AR), Justice (DJ), Energy (DN), Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FD), Homeland Security (HS), Interior (IN), Navy (NV), and Transportation (TD), the incidence of social undermining involving male victims was higher than for females.
- Ostracism victimization. Men working in Justice (DJ), Federal Deposit Insurance
 Corporation (FD), Homeland Security (HS), National Aeronautics and Space
 Administration (NN), Navy (NV), and Transportation (TD) reported being ostracized more often than women.

<u>Research Question 3</u>: What are the characteristics of the perpetrators of sexual harassment and each form of workplace aggression?

Concerning the characteristics of those who were reported as the sources of such mistreatment, especially in terms of their gender and status, this study found that most perpetrators of sexual harassment, bullying, social undermining, and ostracism in federal workplaces are men.

However, when the genders of both victims and perpetrators are considered, this study found that in the cases of workplace bullying, social undermining, and ostracism, the victims and perpetrators were typically the same gender. With the exception of sexual harassment, more men than women were targets of sexual harassment by males only, while more women than men were victims of sexual harassment by females only.

Regarding the status of the perpetrators, <u>coworkers</u> of the victims were the most frequently reported perpetrators of all four forms of mistreatment.

Research Question 4: What were the actions federal employees took after experiencing sexual harassment and workplace aggression?

There were nine actions from which respondents could choose to describe their responses to mistreatment in federal workplaces: (1) asked the harasser[s] to stop; (2) reported incidents to the supervisor; (3) threatened to tell or told others; (4) filed a formal complaint; (5) avoided the harassers; (6) changed jobs or locations; (7) ignored the behavior or did nothing; (8) made a joke of the behavior; and (9) went along with the behavior. This study found that of these nine responses, avoiding the harassers was the most commonly used method of victims to respond to sexual harassment and social undermining, while reporting the perpetrators to the supervisor was most frequently used by bullying victims and ostracism.

<u>Research Questions 5</u>: What are the factors contributing to the occurrences of sexual harassment and each form of workplace aggression?

Workplace aggression theories have suggested that individual differences, job stressors, and organizational characteristics cannot be ignored when it comes to explaining and predicting mistreatment in the workplace (Aquino & Lamertz, 2004; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Jex & Beehr, 1991; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Penney, Martir, & Bok, 2017). Still, it remains unclear how these factors amplify or attenuate the occurrences of mistreatment behaviors in the federal workplace. Thus, the author proposed a model and tested whether individual characteristics (gender, age, ethnicity, educational level, job tenure, and newcomer status), job stressors (job stress, workload, and job stability), and organizational characteristics (organizational size, female-to-male ratio, male- and female-dominated environments, and gender, racial, and age diversity) individual characteristics (gender, age, ethnicity, educational level, job tenure, and newcomer

status), job stressors (job stress, workload, and job stability), and organizational characteristics (organizational size, female-to-male ratio, male- and female-dominated environments, and gender, racial, and age diversity) increase or decrease the risk of mistreatment victimization among federal employees.

Using data from the 2016 Merit Principles Survey involving a random sample of 14,515 U.S. federal employees working in 24 agencies, the results demonstrated that factors contributing to the occurrences of the investigated mistreatment varied according to victims' gender. Regarding sexual harassment, while age, organizational size, female-to-male ratio, working in male-dominated environments, and working in age-diverse organizations were positively related to sexual harassment victimization among women, only working in ethnically diverse organizations could predict sexual harassment victimization among men.

With regard to workplace bullying, while job tenure, newcomer status, organizational size, female-to-male ratio, and age diversity were positively associated with an increased risk of bullying victimization among women, men who are minorities, working in high stress jobs, and working in large organizations were at greater risk of being bullied at work.

In terms of social undermining, this study found that women who are minorities, highly educated, new to agencies, working in large organizations, and having a long job tenure length were at higher risk of being undermined at work. However, men's likelihood of being undermined at work increased when they are minorities, new to agencies, work in high-stress jobs, have a long job tenure length, are employed in large organizations, and work in female-dominated environments.

Concerning the incidence of workplace ostracism, while women who are minorities, newcomers, working in large organizations, and working in age-diverse organizations were at

higher risk of being ostracized at work, male employees were more likely to be ostracized when they are minorities, newcomers, in high stress jobs, working in organizations with a large number of employees, and working in female-dominated environments.

Finally, this study found that having higher levels of ethical/moral work climate and a more effective discrimination complaint process can decrease the prevalence of sexual harassment, bullying, undermining, and ostracism in federal workplaces.

<u>Research Question 6</u>: Do sexual harassment and workplace aggression affect federal employees' work attitudes (work satisfaction, work commitment), behaviors (internal collaboration, work withdrawal, a desire to quit), and productivity (individual-level productivity and organizational performance)?

Accumulating empirical research indicates that workplace mistreatment is common and that it takes a serious toll on employees' lives. However, public administration research to date has largely focused on the impact of mistreatment behaviors that are more obvious and physically harmful (e.g., sexual harassment, bullying, and threats). Meanwhile, it has yet to be examined whether covertly aggressive behaviors, which are insidious and intentionally hidden, affect public employees' job-related outcomes. Hence, this study extends the literature by investigating the impact of both overt (i.e., sexual harassment and bullying) and covert (i.e., social undermining and ostracism) mistreatment on federal employees' work attitudes (job satisfaction and work commitment), behaviors (internal collaboration, work withdrawal, and intention to quit), and performance (individual productivity and organizational performance).

Using data from the 2016 Merit Principles Survey – Path 1 which included 14,515 randomly selected federal employees in 24 agencies who have experienced some form of

workplace mistreatment, and controlling for individual differences and organization characteristics, results demonstrated that experiencing sexual harassment, bullying, undermining and ostracism decreased victims' job satisfaction, work commitment, internal collaboration, and organizational performance. Moreover, this study found that only experiencing bullying, undermining, and ostracism can predict a decrease in victims' productivity; sexual harassment does not predict this variable. Finally, while being victims of sexual harassment, bullying, social undermining and ostracism did not statistically relate to work withdrawal (e.g., absenteeism, lateness, task avoidance), experiencing these four mistreatment behaviors was positively related to victims' intention to leave the federal government.

Theoretical Contributions

This study offers nine important contributions to the existing workplace mistreatment literature and public administration scholarship.

First, research investigating the prevalence, the causes, and the consequences of mistreatment behavior in public organizations has increased considerably in recent years, though this research has largely focused on overt forms of workplace mistreatment, such as sexual harassment and bullying. Public administration researchers have devoted less attention to the existence of covertly aggressive behaviors in public organizations, such as social undermining and ostracism, which are more frequent in occurrence than incidents of overt mistreatment (Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999). These covertly aggressive behaviors are less obvious and not covered by Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, but they can produce similar or even greater harm than more overtly aggressive behaviors (see Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Frazier & Bowler, 2015; O'Reilly, Robinson, Banki, & Berdahl, 2015).

This study extended the literature by examining the existence and the prevalence of both overt (sexual harassment and bullying) and covert (undermining and ostracism) mistreatment in the federal workplace. The most striking aspect of these research findings is that while overtly and covertly aggressive behaviors were prevalent in federal workplaces (Chapter 3), two covertly aggressive behaviors, namely undermining and ostracism, produced similar or greater harm to victims than overtly aggressive behaviors like sexual harassment and bullying (Chapter 5). These results are consistent with previous studies (e.g., Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Frazier & Bowler, 2015; O'Reilly, Robinson, Banki, & Berdahl, 2015; van Beest & Williams, 2006) which found a serious effect of undermining and ostracism on the victim and the organization.

Second, scholars (e.g., Aquino & Bradfield, 2000; Barling, Dupre, & Kelloway, 2009; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Spector & O'Connell, 1994) suggest that there are three main factors that cause mistreatment in workplaces: the victim characteristics, the perpetrator characteristics, and the work environment. Regarding victim characteristics that might lead to mistreatment in federal workplaces, this study found that while the vast majority of victims of sexual harassment, bullying, and ostracism were women, men reported being undermined more often than women (Chapter 3). Furthermore, when narrowing the investigation of victims' experiences of each form of the study mistreatment behaviors across the 24 federal agencies surveyed, this study found that in some agencies, more men than women were victims of sexual assault, bullying, undermining, and ostracism. These results suggest that a growing number of male federal employees are becoming targets of sexual harassment and various forms of workplace aggression. These findings also contradict previous research studies (e.g., Jackson & Newman, 2004 and Tangri, Burt, & Johnson, 1982) that surveyed U.S. federal employees and found that women were the most likely victims of sexual harassment and any form of workplace aggression.

Concerning the perpetrators' characteristics, the results presented in Chapter 3 reveal that most perpetrators of sexual harassment, bullying, undermining, and ostracism in federal workplaces were men. These findings are consistent with workplace aggression theories suggesting that men are more aggressive than women and tend to engage in aggressive behaviors (Eagly & Steffan, 1986; Geen, 2001). Interestingly, whereas scholars (Eagly, 1987; Nezlek, Wesselmann, Wheeler, & Williams, 2015) have suggested that covertly aggressive behaviors, like social undermining and ostracism, are performed more frequently by women than men, because women tend to be more person-oriented than males, this study found that men were most frequently reported by victims as perpetrators of undermining and ostracism in federal workplaces (Chapter 3). These findings can be explained by the study of Björkqvist, Osterman, and Lagerspetz (1994) which found that that men have started to employ indirect/covert forms of aggression (e.g., undermining and ostracism) to the same extent as women at work.

Third, as suggested by previous studies (e.g., Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Hoel, Rayner, & Cooper, 1999), the results presented in Chapter 4 confirm that individual characteristics can help determine the occurrences of sexual harassment, bullying, undermining, and ostracism in federal workplaces. However, the effects of individual characteristics on the occurrences of each from of mistreatment vary according to victims' gender (female vs. male). For instance, while young female employees (39 years or younger) are at greater risk than older ones of experiencing sexual harassment, age did not statistically relate to sexual harassment victimization among male employees. Furthermore, while male minorities are at higher risk of being bullied at work, minority status is not predictive of bullying victimization among female employees. These results suggest that factors contributing to the occurrences of each form of workplace mistreatment can vary between female and male victims.

Fourth, drawing on theories of workplace aggression (e.g., Bowling & Beehr, 2006), I proposed a model suggesting that job stressors, including job stress, workload, and job stability, were associated with the occurrences of sexual harassment, bullying, undermining, and ostracism in the federal workplace. As hypothesized, these job stressors are predictive of all four forms of mistreatment behaviors. However, as in the case of predicting the study mistreatment behaviors from individual characteristics, the effects of these job stressors on the occurrences of the study mistreatment vary between female and male victims. These results are consistent with Baron and Neuman (1998), who studied the incidents of aggressive behaviors in public organizations and found that organizational constraints, including organizational change, organizational instability, and job insecurity, can provoke workplace violence and aggression among employees. Additionally, this study found that having higher levels of job stability and a well-balanced workload can help reduce the occurrences of the study mistreatment behaviors. Overall, these findings suggest that in order to avoid creating an aggressive work environment which would stimulate aggressive behaviors among employees, practitioners should pay special attention to managing workplace stress, leveraging workplace stability, and making sure that workload is wellbalanced.

Fifth, organizational characteristics are another factor that can trigger workplace mistreatment (Bowling & Beehr, 2006). This study examined the influences of organizational size, the female-to-male ratio, job-gendered context (female-dominated vs. male-dominated environments), and workforce diversity (gender, race, and age) on the prevalence of sexual harassment, bullying, undermining, and ostracism in federal workplaces (Chapter 4). Overall, the effects of each organizational characteristic on the prevalence of the study mistreatment behaviors vary between female and male victims. For example, organizational size (a.k.a., the numerical

number of employees) was positively associated with the occurrences of sexual harassment, bullying, undermining, and ostracism. These results suggest that the more federal employees there are in an agency, the more likely conflict will occur among employees and become violent. This can make harassment and aggression more likely (Baron & Neuman, 1998; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Jex & Beehr, 1991).

Sixth, in Chapter 4, I tested the associations between job-gendered context (i.e., male- and female-dominated environments) and the prevalence of all four forms of mistreatment in federal workplaces. A job-gendered context was assessed with the gender composition of the workgroup reported by respondents. Specifically, if respondents reported that their workgroup consisted of substantially more males than females, this indicated that they were working in a male-dominated environment. In contrast, if respondents reported that their work group had substantially more females than males, this meant that they were working in a female-dominated environment.

This study found that women who were working in male-dominated environments are at higher risk of experiencing sexual harassment. This result is consistent with prior studies (e.g., Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007), which found an association between job-gendered context (i.e., working in male-dominated environments) and the victimization of sexual harassment among female workers. Moreover, this study found that men are more likely to be undermined and ostracized when they are working in female-dominated environments. These results help us to gain a better understanding of the relationship between job-gendered context and the incidence of each form of mistreatment in the federal workplace.

Seventh, this study also examined the relationships between three types of workforce diversity (gender, ethnic, and age diversity) and the incidents of sexual harassment, bullying, undermining, and ostracism in Chapter 4. The most striking thing about these findings is not the

associations between each type of workforce diversity and the prevalence of the study mistreatment behaviors but, rather, that some types of workforce diversity can trigger some forms of mistreatment in the federal workplace. Specifically, this study found that while gender diversity was associated with decreased risks of being victims of sexual harassment and workplace bullying among female employees, working in age-diverse organizations puts women at greater risk of experiencing sexual harassment, bullying, and ostracism at work. In terms of male employees, this study found that men's likelihood of being sexually harassed increases when they are working in ethnically diverse organizations. These findings are consistent with Baron and Neuman (1998), who found that increasing workforce diversity was linked to the occurrences of aggressive behaviors in both public and private organizations. However, it is noteworthy to mention that while workforce diversity in Baron and Neuman's study was assessed through respondents' perceptions of an organization's affirmative action program, but not from objective measures of workforce diversity, workforce diversity in this study (i.e., gender, age, and race) was measured using an objective technique, that is, the calculation of the Blau's heterogeneity index. In sum, the findings of this study not only add new insights to the existing literature but also enhance our understanding of the interplay between different types of workforce diversity and the prevalence of mistreatment behaviors in the federal workplace.

Eighth, this study investigated the impact of ethical/moral work climate and the discrimination complaint process on the incidents of sexual harassment, bullying, undermining, and ostracism in the federal workplace in Chapter 4. As hypothesized, having higher levels of ethical/moral work climate will result in lower rates of sexual harassment, bullying, undermining, and ostracism in federal agencies. These results are consistent with previous research (e.g., Bulutlar & Oz, 2009; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Park & Rainey, 2007) which

found that having an ethical work climate and organizational justice can decrease the incidents of workplace bullying as well as increase employees' organizational commitment. Additionally, this research found that having a more effective discrimination complaint process can decrease the prevalence of all four forms of mistreatment behavior. These results suggest practitioners should pay special attention to promoting an ethical/moral work climate within agencies as well as to developing the discrimination complaint process in agencies to be a more reliable, responsive, and effective system.

Finally, the results presented in Chapter 5 indicate that covertly aggressive behaviors, namely undermining and ostracism, cause deleterious effects on victims' job satisfaction, work commitment, internal collaboration, individual and organization performance, and intention to quit, similar to those observed with overt mistreatment behaviors, namely sexual harassment and bullying. These findings supported the notion that covertly mistreatment behaviors, though less obvious and not covered by Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and other federal laws, can produce the same (or even more serious) effects on victims as overt aggression (see Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Frazier & Bowler, 2015; O'Reilly, Robinson, Banki, & Berdahl, 2015).

I suggest that future research: (a) test the effect of each form of workplace mistreatment on other potential outcomes for victims of mistreatment, such as physiological health (e.g., stress hormones and musculoskeletal issues), personal well-being (e.g., life satisfaction, depression, and self-esteem), job burnout, alcohol or drug use, and likelihood of future violence; (b) analyze other potential antecedents of workplace mistreatment, such as prior mistreatment experiences and the roles of retaliation and revenge (see Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Aquino & Douglas, 2003); (c) examine the mediating or moderating role of some variables, such as public service motivation and federal whistle blower (see Brewer & Selden, 1998), moral identity, leadership style,

organizational justice, management practices, and human resource systems, on the association between mistreatment experiences and outcomes; and (d) use objective techniques to measure certain study variables, such as assessing organizational performance through financial performance measures or measuring the incidents of sexual harassment through the number of sexual harassment complaints filed with the agency.

Managerial Implications

I developed six managerial approaches to help federal agencies combat mistreatment in the workplace. These managerial approaches involve mistreatment policy, legal perspective, training, the role of workgroups, workforce diversity, and mistreatment of LGBTQ employees.

Workplace Mistreatment Policies in the Federal Government: Worth it or Worthless?

Leiter, Peck, and Baccardax (2017) suggested that effective mistreatment initiatives in the workplace should be able to: (a) increase the *awareness* of problems among employees, (b) ensure *accountability* for employees to address the problems, and (c) allow to be taken appropriate *actions* to combat mistreatment. The U.S. Office of Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) is responsible for initiating federal policies and actions related to the violation of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and related laws. In essence, the EEOC pays special attention to incidents of unlawful employment discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, national origin, age, disability, and sexual orientation. The EEOC and the courts have extended the scope of discrimination based on sex to any inappropriate sexual behaviors related to employment (see Chapter 2).

So, does the EEOC succeed in raising awareness of sexual harassment in the federal

workplace? The answer is yes. The EEOC has utilized several strategies to increase awareness of sexual harassment problems in federal workplaces, including conducting a government-wide survey, the "Merit Principle Survey (MPS)," to examine federal employees' perceptions of merit system principles and employment conditions. Since the 1980s, the EEOC has included questions regarding sexual harassment experiences and observations and published research summaries and guidelines for the press, federal agencies, and stakeholders. Importantly, data from the MPS are available for researchers to continue studying and advancing knowledge about sexual harassment and other related employment issues in federal workplaces.

Accountability and actions. Besides raising awareness of sexual harassment in the federal workplace, the EEOC introduced the complaint and grievance process, called "the discrimination complaint process," within federal agencies, and federal employees who experience employment discrimination at work can file complaints, according to DCP procedures.

Recommendations. Based on the findings of this study, there are several recommendations to assist the EEOC and federal agencies to combat mistreatment in federal workplaces. First, the federal government should redefine the definition of workplace discrimination/aggression/mistreatment to cover a wide range of covertly aggressive behaviors, such as social undermining, ostracism, obstructionism, and incivility. Despite the fact that these negative workplace behaviors are less obvious and overt, evidence from this study, along with accumulating empirical evidence from previous research, indicates that these covert aggressive behaviors produce similar or even greater harm than overtly aggressive behaviors like sexual harassment and workplace bullying.

Second, the EEOC and federal agencies should promote federal employees' awareness of the discrimination complaint process (DCP), build their trust and confidence in the DCP, and make the DCP more user-friendly. Scholars (e.g., Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hoel

& Cooper, 2000) emphasize the importance of human resource and management systems in preventing (or provoking) mistreatment in the workplace. The findings of this study indicate that federal employees' trust and confidence in the DCP can reduce the incidence of mistreatment, both overt and covert forms, in federal workplaces. For example, although federal agencies provide several channels for their employees to file complaints, such as using the agency's website and filing a complaint online, by email, or by mail or facsimile, federal agencies may consider offering help to their employees (e.g., employees with disabilities and the hearing impaired) in different languages and formats. Federal agencies may start reaping the benefits of social media by launching their own DCP mobile application to make it more accessible to employees. Finally, federal agencies may create a Q&A section on their DCP website and add more information about workplace mistreatment, such as examples of what an unlawful mistreatment action is—and what it isn't.

Finally, although an ethical/moral work environment is thought to reduce the rates of any form of mistreatment in the workplace, rhetoric alone may not be sufficient. Therefore, this study tested the influence of an ethical/moral work climate on the incidences of both overt and covert mistreatment in federal workplaces. The results presented in Chapter 4 confirm that the ethical/moral climate and other job-related factors, such as balancing workload, a low level of job stress, and job stability, are associated with a decreased risk of the prevalence of both overt and covert mistreatment in federal workplaces. It is not surprising that many federal agencies create their own policies related to a protective work environment to deal with unlawful mistreatment behaviors. Still, there are three additional recommendations for federal agencies to improve the implementation of their protective work environment policies. First, a protective work environment should cover physical conditions in the workplace. Studies found that higher ambient temperatures (e.g., Anderson, 2001; Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Bell, 2005), loud noises

(Donnerstein & Wilson, 1976), and crowding (Baum & Koman, 1976) can cause higher rates of aggressive behaviors. Second, previous studies found that exposure to local neighborhood violence is associated with increased rates of aggression and hostility within an organization (e.g., Baron et al., 1999; Folger, Robinson, Dietz, Parks, & Baron, 1998). Consequently, a protective work environment should cover community-level risk factors and employees' families. Finally, a protective work environment should address risks from covert forms of mistreatment behaviors, such as incidents of workplace envy, high competition, injustice, and ostracism.

Legal Protections Against Mistreatment in the Federal Workplace: Protective or Counter-Productive?

Although it is unlawful in a federal workplace to engage in any action related to race, color, religion, sex, national origin, age, disability, and sexual orientation discrimination, along with decisions bolstered by the U.S. Supreme Court, there are some caveats concerning legal hurdles for reducing rates of mistreatment and compensating victims of mistreatment. For instance, some mistreatment actions, such as workplace bullying, social undermining, or even ostracism, are not directly addressed in Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and other related laws and courts' decisions. For example, Richardson, Joiner, and Hall (2016) analyzed U.S. federal court cases in which the term "workplace bullying" was cited between January 2009 and October 2014 and found that "the primary causes of action included discrimination, hostile work environment, retaliation, harassment, Americans with Disabilities Act, infliction of emotional distress, U.S. Constitution claims, disparate treatment, impact and/or discipline, wrongful discharge or termination, and the Family Medical Leave Act" (p. 124). In other words, federal employees who find themselves victims of bullying in the workplace are disadvantaged, because the federal law does not recognize

this type of mistreatment, and there is no specific law that allows them to create an independent cause of action against workplace bullying (Bible, 2012; Martin, Lopez & LaVan, 2009). If those victims want to establish their claims through the federal court system, they need to seek recognized causes of action, such as unlawful discrimination and harassment in Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, the Whistleblower Protection Act, or the Occupational Safety and Health Act, while utilizing evidence of workplace bullying as a contributing factor (Lopez, Lavan, & Martin, 2010; Richardson et al., 2016).

Recommendations. Lawsuits not only require a great deal of compelling evidence, but they become expensive and time-consuming. This study suggests adopting some protective strategies, such as adopting and enforcing a code of conduct, investing in effective ethical training, utilizing social norms, or relying on internal and/or external whistleblowers. If a lawsuit cannot be avoided, federal agencies and the immediate employers are responsible for facilitating the exchange of facts and evidence.

Anti-Mistreatment Training Programs: Up-to-Date or Out-of-Date?

The EEOC encourages federal agencies to create a positive work environment as well as develop their own anti-harassment training program to cope with unlawful discrimination. In 2017, the EEOC launched two new harassment prevention and respectful workplaces training modules: Leading for Respect (for supervisors) and Respect in the Workplace (for all employees).* These two training modules differ from traditional harassment prevention training because they emphasize acceptable and respectful behaviors that federal employees should and should not behave in the workplace (e.g., respectful, uncivil, abusive, and illegal behaviors).

 $^*\ https://www.eeoc.gov/eeoc/newsroom/release/10-4-17.cfm$

Recommendations. An anti-mistreatment training program not only educates federal employees about what mistreatment is, its antecedents, its consequences, as well as laws and procedures for responding to allegations, but also helps raise the awareness of potential perpetrators and targets. There are three recommendations regarding federal anti-mistreatment training programs. First, federal agencies should assist federal employees by providing easy access to anti-mistreatment training programs, such as developing an online-training module or training applications for mobile devices. This approach will help federal employees be up-to-date on statistics, facts, and news regarding incidences of mistreatment in their workplaces. Second, federal employees should be offered incentives to promote them to engage in anti-mistreatment training programs. Finally, anti-mistreatment training programs in the federal workplace should go beyond traditional mistreatment behaviors, which are unlawful, such as sexual harassment, discrimination, or incivility behaviors. Specifically, anti-mistreatment training programs should include the importance of covert mistreatment behaviors, such as undermining and ostracism, in federal workplaces and educate federal employees about cyberbullying, retaliation, and third-party harassment (being harassed by outsiders like clients or contractors).

Workgroup Roles: Conflict or Cooperation?

Coping with mistreatment in federal workplaces will not be successful without the help of employees and their social relationships. In essence, this strategy involves the use of social norm theory. Social norm theory, according to Turner (1991), involves the use of implicit and informal rules to govern behavior in groups or societies. Social norms can be categorized into three groups:

(a) descriptive norms—the norms of what is, (b) informational norms—how a group behaves, and (c) injunctive norms—the perception of what most approve or disapprove (Cialdini, Kallgren, &

Reno, 1991, p. 203). Descriptive norms and informational norms can influence behavior through education and conversion, while injunctive norms involve pressure to conform to things that a group considers most acceptable (Cialdini et al., 1991). Parson (1951) suggested that once a norm is internalized, members of the group are motivated to conform to that norm by an internal sanctioning system. The association between group or social norms and the likelihood to engage or not engage in mistreatment behaviors can be found in the study of Duffy et al. (2012), which found that individuals who work in a team that has high undermining norms are more likely to engage in undermining behaviors.

Recommendations. The first step is establishing social norms that do not permit any form of mistreatment in the federal workplace. Next, utilizing injunctive norms or a process enforces the norms members have to comply with through a system of internalization and sanctions. Specifically, after the norms are established, federal employees should learn and internalize common values embodied in the norms, namely the belief that any form of mistreatment in the federal workplace is prohibited and that should not engage in mistreatment behaviors. If those federal employees fail to comply with the norms, negative or positive sanctions should be invoked to force them to follow the norms. Finally, if those employees still disobey the norms, social punishment should be used.

Workforce Diversity in the Federal Government: Help or Hurt?

Although workforce diversity is thought to provide many benefits for federal agencies, including balances between women and men, minorities and non-minorities, juniors and seniors, preventing discrimination in the workplace, complying with federal laws, and promoting a reputable and healthy organization, this study found the prevalence of the dark side of workforce

diversity when it comes to mistreatment in federal workplaces. For instance, although this study found that having an equal representation of men and women in the workplace, known as "gender diversity," can reduce incidences of some types of sexual harassment and social undermining, the results discussed in Chapter 4 revealed that while having more-gender diverse workforces can decrease the incidence of sexual harassment victimization among female federal employees, increasing the age diversity in federal workplaces can lead to higher rates of sexual harassment, bullying, and ostracism among females. Additionally, the results of the study indicate that working in ethnically diverse agencies puts male federal employees at higher risk of being sexual harassed. So, why do age and ethnic diversity generate these negative effects?

Recommendations. As is known, the proliferation and use of an affirmative action program in U.S. federal agencies increases the employment of minorities, women, and persons with disabilities, along with managing diversity programs to promote inclusion in federal workplaces (Kellough & Naff, 2004; Kellough & Nigro, 2014). However, failing to harmonize those diverse employees may lead to a negative rippling effect, such as increasing conflicts in organizations that can lead to mistreatment at work (Aquino, 2000; Hershcovis et al., 2007). A field study of diversity, conflict, and performance in workgroups by Jehn, Northcraft, and Neale (1999) reported that social category diversity was associated with increased risks of interrelationship conflict, task conflict, and process conflict. In this study, social category diversity refers to "explicit differences among group members in social category membership, such as race, gender, and ethnicity" (Jehn et al., 1999, p. 745). In other words, members will develop a positive social identity, comply with norms, and build a relationship with members of their own social category, according to social identity theory (Billig & Tajfel, 1973). However, when these members have to work in different social categories, it can trigger tension and hostility within the workgroup and result in work and

non-work conflicts (Jehn, 1955, 1997). A meta-analysis predicting workplace aggression conducted by Hershcovis et al. (2007) also found that interpersonal conflict was the strongest predictor of interpersonal aggression (coworker- and supervisor-targeted aggression).

One possible strategy for reducing the negative ripple effects of non-inclusive diversity is developing well-functioning diversity and inclusion programs that focus on an appreciation for differences among social groups. For example, due to the sheer number of older employees in organizations, federal agencies should invest in diversity managing and training programs that aim to bridge the generation gap and promote a respectful work environment. Furthermore, federal agencies should encourage groups of employees to act as diversity teams or collaborators. Members of a team should represent all diverse workforces and understand individual and cultural differences. These members would be responsible for diversity training programs and also serve as workplace whistleblowers for detecting and investigating mistreatment in the workplace.

Mistreatment of LGBTQ Federal Employees: Rhetoric or Reality?

Although this study investigated the characteristics of victims and perpetrators of sexual harassment, bullying, undermining, and ostracism (Chapter 3) as well as examined the role that individual differences, job stressors, and organizational characteristics play in predicting the occurrences of the study mistreatment behaviors among female and male employees in Chapter 4, incidences of the mistreatment of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, transsexual, and queer (LGBTQ) federal employees remain unknown.

Recommendations. The Merit Systems Protection Board (MSPB) should collect data from LGBTQ federal employees in order to advance our knowledge of the mistreatment experiences of LGBTQ employees in federal workplaces. However, deriving data from LGBTQ employees, in

practice, may not be easy, as it is difficult to ask employees belonging to this group to disclose their sexual identities on the Merit Principle Survey. To encourage LGBTQ employees to bring their mistreatment experiences to light, the MSPB should inform them about their rights to confidentiality and any potential benefits they will derive from the survey. Moreover, the MSPB should design a survey which can comprehensively gather data about incidents of mistreatment of LGBTQ federal employees. For example, future Merit Principle Surveys should offer an option for respondents to indicate their perpetrators' gender, which may not be limited to straight people, but also include those who have same-sex attractions. Moreover, the MSPB should allow federal employees to report their experiences of discrimination with regard to their sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression.

Conclusion

The present study found that sexual harassment and three forms of workplace aggression—bullying, social undermining, and ostracism—were prominent in the federal workplace. While female federal employees were generally reported as victims of these four forms of mistreatment behavior, interestingly, male employees in some federal agencies were reported as the main targets of these mistreatment behaviors. Regarding the gender of mistreatment victims and perpetrators, while sexual harassment of female employees was mostly committed by men, and sexual harassment of male employees was mostly committed by women, the victims and perpetrators of bullying, undermining, and ostracism were typically of the same gender. Victims' coworkers were the most frequently reported to be perpetrators of all four forms of mistreatment. The victims also took different approaches in response to each form of mistreatment. Specifically, avoiding the harassers was the most commonly used method of the victims to respond to sexual harassment and

undermining, while reporting the perpetrators to the supervisor was most frequently used by the victims of bullying and ostracism.

The occurrences of these mistreatment behaviors can be predicted by certain individual characteristics (age, ethnicity, education level, job tenure, and newcomer status), job-related variables (job stress, workload, and job stability), and organizational factors (organizational size, female-to-male ratio, male- and female-dominated environments, and gender, ethnic, and age diversity), though the predictive effects of these factors varied according to the victim's gender and forms of mistreatment. Interestingly, this study found that having higher levels of ethical/moral work climate and a more effective discrimination complaint process within agencies can decrease the occurrences of all four forms of mistreatment.

Concerning the consequences of the study mistreatment behaviors, sexual harassment, bullying, undermining, and ostracism can have a negative effect on employees' work attitudes (job satisfaction and work commitment), behaviors (internal collaboration and turnover intention), and productivity (individual productivity and organizational performance). These findings also add insight into the existing literature, especially in terms of the causes and the consequences of both overt and covert mistreatment behaviors directed toward federal employees.

Finally, this study offered six managerial approaches for policy makers and practitioners to combat sexual harassment and workplace aggression in the federal government. These approaches are (a) refining policies related to workplace mistreatment, (b) applying preventive laws and providing legal services to mistreatment victims, (c) advancing anti-mistreatment training programs, (d) utilizing the roles of workgroup and social norms, (e) understanding the varying effects of gender, ethnic, and age diversity on the occurrences of mistreatment behaviors, and managing a diverse workforce effectively, and (f) exploring the incidents of mistreatment of LGBTQ federal employees.

REFERENCES

- Agervold, M., & Mikkelsen, E. G. (2004). Relationships between bullying, psychosocial work environment and individual stress reactions. *Work & Stress*, *18*(4), 336–351. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370412331319794
- Anderson, C. A. (2001). Heat and violence. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 10(1), 33–38. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.00109
- Anderson, C. A., & Bushman, B. J. (2002). Human aggression. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 53(1), 27–51. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.53.100901.135231
- Andersson, L. M., & Pearson, C. M. (1999). Tit for tat? The spiraling effect of incivility in the workplace. *Academy of Management Review*, 24(3), 452–471. https://doi.org/10.2307/259136
- Andrews, R., & Ashworth, R. (2015). Representation and inclusion in public organizations: Evidence from the U.K. civil service. *Public Administration Review*, 75(2), 279–288. https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12308
- Antecol, H., & Cobb-Clark, D. (2003). Does sexual harassment training change attitudes? A view from the federal level. *Social Science Quarterly*, 84(4), 826–842. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.0038-4941.2003.08404001.x
- Antecol, H., & Cobb-Clark, D. (2004). The changing nature of employment-related sexual harassment: Evidence from the U.S. federal government, 1978–1994. *ILR Review*, *57*(3), 443–461. https://doi.org/10.1177/001979390405700307
- Aquino, K. (2000). Structural and individual determinants of workplace victimization: The effects of hierarchical status and conflict management style. *Journal of Management*, 26(2), 171–193. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920630002600201
- Aquino, K., & Bradfield, M. (2000). Perceived victimization in the workplace: The role of situational factors and victim characteristics. *Organization Science*, 11(5), 525–537. https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.11.5.525.15205

- Aquino, K., & Douglas, S. (2003). Identity threat and antisocial behavior in organizations: The moderating effects of individual differences, aggressive modeling, and hierarchical status. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 90(1), 195–208. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0749-5978(02)00517-4
- Aquino, K., & Lamertz, K. (2004). A relational model of workplace victimization: Social roles and patterns of victimization in dyadic relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(6), 1023–1034. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.6.1023
- Aquino, K., Lewis, M. U., & Bradfield, M. (1999). Justice constructs, negative affectivity, and employee deviance: A proposed model and empirical test. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20(7), 1073–1091. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(199912)20:7<1073::AID-JOB943>3.0.CO;2-7
- Arkin, W., & Dobrofsky, L. R. (1978). Military socialization and masculinity. *Journal of Social Issues*, *34*(1), 151–168. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4560.1978.tb02546.x
- Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(1), 20–39. https://doi.org/10.2307/258189
- Ashforth, B. E., Sluss, D. M., & Saks, A. M. (2007). Socialization tactics, proactive behavior, and newcomer learning: Integrating socialization models. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 70(3), 447–462. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2007.02.001
- Aubé, C., & Rousseau, V. (2011). Interpersonal aggression and team effectiveness: The mediating role of team goal commitment. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 84(3), 565–580. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317910X492568
- Avina, C., & O'Donohue, W. (2002). Sexual harassment and PTSD: Is sexual harassment diagnosable trauma? *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, *15*(1), 69–75. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1014387429057
- Baillien, E., De Cuyper, N., & De Witte, H. (2011). Job autonomy and workload as antecedents of workplace bullying: A two-wave test of Karasek's job demand control model for targets and perpetrators. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 84(1), 191–208. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317910X508371
- Baillien, E., & De Witte, H. (2009). Why is organizational change related to workplace bullying? Role conflict and job insecurity as mediators. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 30(3), 348–371. https://doi.org/10.1177/0143831X09336557

- Baillien, E., Neyens, I., & De Witte, H. (2011). Organizational correlates of workplace bullying in small- and medium-sized enterprises. *International Small Business Journal*, 29(6), 610–625. https://doi.org/10.1177/0266242610375774
- Balducci, C., Cecchin, M., Fraccaroli, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2012). Exploring the relationship between workaholism and workplace aggressive behavior: The role of job-related emotion. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *53*(5), 629–634. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2012.05.004
- Barki, H., & Hartwick, J. (2004). Conceptualizing the construct of interpersonal conflict. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 15(3), 216–244. https://doi.org/10.1108/eb022913
- Barling, J., Dupré, K. E., & Kelloway, E. K. (2009). Predicting workplace aggression and violence. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60(1), 671–692. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.60.110707.163629
- Barling, J., Rogers, A. G., & Kelloway, E. K. (2001). Behind closed doors: In-home workers' experience of sexual harassment and workplace violence. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 6(3), 255–269. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.6.3.255
- Baron, R. A., & Neuman, J. H. (1996). Workplace violence and workplace aggression: Evidence on their relative frequency and potential causes. *Aggressive Behavior*, 22(3), 161–173. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1098-2337(1996)22:3<161::AID-AB1>3.0.CO;2-Q
- Baron, R. A., & Neuman, J. H. (1998). Workplace aggression-The iceberg beneath the tip of workplace violence: Evidence on its forms, frequency, and targets. *Public Administration Quarterly*, 21(4), 446–464.
- Baron, R. A., Neuman, J. H., & Geddes, D. (1999). Social and personal determinants of workplace aggression: Evidence for the impact of perceived injustice and the Type A behavior pattern. *Aggressive Behavior*, 25(4), 281–296. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1098-2337(1999)25:4<281::AID-AB4>3.0.CO;2-J
- Baum, A., & Koman, S. (1976). Differential response to anticipated crowding: Psychological effects of social and spatial density. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *34*(3), 526–536. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.34.3.526

- Begley, T., & Lee, C. (2005). The role of negative affectivity in pay-at-risk reactions: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(2), 382–388. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.2.382
- Bell, P. A. (2005). Reanalysis and perspective in the heat-aggression debate. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 89(1), 71–73. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.89.1.71
- Bergman, M. E., & Drasgow, F. (2003). Race as a moderator in a model of sexual harassment: An empirical test. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 8(2), 131–145. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.8.2.131
- Berkowitz, L. (1962). Aggression: A social psychological analysis. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Bettencourt, B. A., & Miller, N. (1996). Gender differences in aggression as a function of provocation: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *119*(3), 422–447. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.119.3.422
- Bible, J. D. (2012). The jerk at work: Workplace bullying and the law's inability to combat it. *Employee Relations Law Journal*, *38*, 32–51.
- Billig, M., & Tajfel, H. (1973). Social categorization and similarity in intergroup behavior. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *3*(1), 27–52. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.2420030103
- Björkqvist, K., Österman, K., & Lagerspetz, K. M. J. (1994). Sex differences in covert aggression among adults. *Aggressive Behavior*, *20*(1), 27–33. https://doi.org/10.1002/1098-2337(1994)20:1<27::AID-AB2480200105>3.0.CO;2-Q
- Blau, P. M. (1977). *Inequality and heterogeneity: A primitive theory of social structure*. New York: Free Press.
- Bowling, N. A., & Beehr, T. A. (2006). Workplace harassment from the victim's perspective: A theoretical model and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(5), 998–1012. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.5.998
- Brewer, G. A., & Selden, S. C. (1998). Whistle blowers in the federal civil service: New evidence of the public service ethic. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 8(3), 413–440. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.jpart.a024390

- Bruk-Lee, V., & Spector, P. E. (2006). The social stressors-counterproductive work behaviors link: Are conflicts with supervisors and coworkers the same? *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 11(2), 145–156. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.11.2.145
- Buchanan, N. T., & Ormerod, A. J. (2002). Racialized sexual harassment in the lives of African American women. *Women & Therapy*, 25(3–4), 107–124. https://doi.org/10.1300/J015v25n03_08
- Budd, J. W., Arvey, R. D., & Lawless, P. (1996). Correlates and consequences of workplace violence. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *1*(2), 197–210.
- Bulutlar, F., & Öz, E. Ü. (2009). The effects of ethical climates on bullying behavior in the workplace. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 86(3), 273–295. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-008-9847-4
- Burlington Industries, Inc. v. Ellerth, 524 US 742 (1998).
- Burnes, B., & Pope, R. (2007). Negative behaviors in the workplace: A study of two primary care trusts in the NHS. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 20(4), 285–303.
- Buss, A. H. (1961). *The psychology of aggression*. https://doi.org/10.1037/11160-000
- Byrne, C. A., Resnick, H. S., Kilpatrick, D. G., Best, C. L., & Saunders, B. E. (1999). The socioeconomic impact of interpersonal violence on women. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 67(3), 362–366. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.67.3.362
- Cavanaugh, M. A., Boswell, W. R., Roehling, M. V., & Boudreau, J. W. (2000). An empirical examination of self-reported work stress among U.S. managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(1), 65–74. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.1.65
- Chamberlain, L. J., Crowley, M., Tope, D., & Hodson, R. (2008). Sexual harassment in organizational context. *Work and Occupations*, *35*(3), 262–295. https://doi.org/10.1177/0730888408322008
- Chan, D. K.-S., Lam, C. B., Chow, S. Y., & Cheung, S. F. (2008). Examining the job-related, psychological, and physical outcomes of workplace sexual harassment: A meta-analytic review. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *32*(4), 362–376. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.2008.00451.x

- Chen, P. Y., & Spector, P. E. (1992). Relationships of work stressors with aggression, withdrawal, theft and substance use: An exploratory study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 65(3), 177–184. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1992.tb00495.x
- Choi, H., Hong, S., & Lee, J. W. (2018). Does increasing gender representativeness and diversity improve organizational integrity? *Public Personnel Management*, 47(1), 73–92. https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026017738539
- Cialdini, R. B., Kallgren, C. A., & Reno, R. R. (1991). A focus theory of normative conduct: A theoretical refinement and reevaluation of the role of norms in human behavior. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (Vol. 24, pp. 201–234). https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60330-5
- Clark, A., Oswald, A., & Warr, P. (1996). Is job satisfaction U-shaped in age? *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 69(1), 57–81. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1996.tb00600.x
- Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 86(2), 278–321. https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.2001.2958
- Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O. L. H., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3), 425–445. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.425
- Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *6*(1), 64–80. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.6.1.64
- Coyne, I., Chong, P. S.-L., Seigne, E., & Randall, P. (2003). Self and peer nominations of bullying: An analysis of incident rates, individual differences, and perceptions of the working environment. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *12*(3), 209–228. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320344000101
- Crawford, N. (1999). Conundrums and confusion in organizations: The etymology of the word "bully." *International Journal of Manpower*, 20(1/2), 86–94. https://doi.org/10.1108/01437729910268678

- Crick, N. R., & Grotpeter, J. K. (1995). Relational aggression, gender, and social-psychological adjustment. *Child Development*, 66(3), 710–722. https://doi.org/10.2307/1131945
- Cropanzano, R., Byrne, Z. S., Bobocel, D. R., & Rupp, D. E. (2001). Moral virtues, fairness heuristics, social entities, and other denizens of organizational justice. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58(2), 164–209. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2001.1791
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), 874–900. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206305279602
- Dansky, B. S., & Kilpatrick, D. G. (1997). Effects of sexual harassment. In W. O'Donohue (Ed.), Sexual harassment: Theory, research, and treatment (pp. 152–174). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- De Coster, S., Estes, S. B., & Mueller, C. W. (1999). Routine activities and sexual harassment in the workplace. *Work and Occupations*, 26(1), 21–49. https://doi.org/10.1177/0730888499026001003
- De Jong, J., Van Reemst, L., & Fischer, T. (2015). Workplace aggression toward local government employees: Target characteristics. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 29(1), 30–53. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPSM-05-2015-0100
- de Wit, F. R. C., Jehn, K. A., & Scheepers, D. (2013). Task conflict, information processing, and decision-making: The damaging effect of relationship conflict. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 122(2), 177–189. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2013.07.002
- Deery, S., Walsh, J., & Guest, D. (2011). Workplace aggression: The effects of harassment on job burnout and turnover intentions. *Work, Employment and Society*, 25(4), 742–759. https://doi.org/10.1177/0950017011419707
- Deguire, K. J., Lay, M., & Appelbaum, S. H. (2005). The relationship of ethical climate to deviant workplace behavior. *Corporate Governance*, *5*(4), 43–55. https://doi.org/10.1108/14720700510616587
- Demir, D., Rodwell, J., & Flower, R. (2013). Workplace bullying among allied health professionals: Prevalence, causes and consequences. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, *51*(4), 392–405. https://doi.org/10.1111/1744-7941.12002
- Dick, G., & Rayner, C. (2004). Exploring the workplace bullying construct: An evidence-based approach (Vol. 51). Canterbury Business School: University of Kent.

- Dietz, J., Robinson, S. L., Folger, R., Baron, R. A., & Schulz, M. (2003). The impact of community violence and an organization's procedural justice climate on workplace aggression. *Academy of Management Journal*, 46(3), 317–326. https://doi.org/10.2307/30040625
- Dijkstra, M. T. M., Dreu, C. K. W. D., Evers, A., & Dierendonck, D. van. (2009). Passive responses to interpersonal conflict at work amplify employee strain. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *18*(4), 405–423. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320802510880
- Donnerstein, E., & Wilson, D. W. (1976). Effects of noise and perceived control on ongoing and subsequent aggressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *34*(5), 774–781. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.34.5.774
- Drejer, A. (2000). Organizational learning and competence development. *The Learning Organization*, 7(4), 206–220. https://doi.org/10.1108/09696470010342306
- Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D. C., Shaw, J. D., Johnson, J. L., & Pagon, M. (2006). The social context of undermining behavior at work. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *101*(1), 105–126. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2006.04.005
- Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D., & Pagon, M. (2002). Social undermining in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(2), 331–351. https://doi.org/10.2307/3069350
- Duffy, M. K., Scott, K. L., Shaw, J. D., Tepper, B. J., & Aquino, K. (2012). A social context model of envy and social undermining. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(3), 643–666. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2009.0804
- Duhart, D. T. (2001). *Violence in the workplace, 1993-99*. Retrieved from https://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/vw99.pdf
- Eagly, A. H. (1983). Gender and social influence: A social psychological analysis. *American Psychologist*, *38*(9), 971–981. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.38.9.971
- Eagly, A. H. (1987). Sex differences in social behavior: A social-role interpretation. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Eagly, A. H., & Steffen, V. J. (1986). Gender and aggressive behavior: A meta-analytic review of the social psychological literature. *Psychological Bulletin*, *100*(3), 309–330. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.100.3.309

- Eder, D. (1993). "Go get ya a French!": Romantic and sexual teasing among adolescent girls. In D. Tannen (Ed.), *Oxford studies in sociolinguistics. Gender and conversational interaction* (pp. 17–31). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Edwards, J. R., Cable, D. M., Williamson, I. O., Lambert, L. S., & Shipp, A. J. (2006). The phenomenology of fit: Linking the person and environment to the subjective experience of person-environment fit. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(4), 802–827. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.4.802
- Einarsen, S. (1999). The nature and causes of bullying at work. *International Journal of Manpower*, 20(1/2), 16–27. https://doi.org/10.1108/01437729910268588
- Einarsen, S. (2000). Harassment and bullying at work: A review of the Scandinavian approach. Aggression and Violent Behavior, 5(4), 379–401. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1359-1789(98)00043-3
- Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., & Notelaers, G. (2009). Measuring exposure to bullying and harassment at work: Validity, factor structure and psychometric properties of the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised. *Work & Stress*, 23(1), 24–44. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370902815673
- Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., Zapf, D., & Cooper, C. (Eds.). (2003). Bullying policy: Development, implementation and monitoring. In J. Richards & H. Daley, *Bullying and emotional abuse in the workplace: International perspectives in research and practice* (pp. 237–269). Retrieved from https://www.taylorfrancis.com/books/9780203164662
- Einarsen, S., Raknes, B. I., & Matthiesen, S. B. (1994). Bullying and harassment at work and their relationships to work environment quality: An exploratory study. *European Work and Organizational Psychologist*, *4*(4), 381–401. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594329408410497
- Einarsen, S., Raknes, B. I., Matthiesen, S. B., & Hellesøy, O. H. (1996). Bullying at work and its relationships with health complaints—Moderating effects of social support and personality. *Nordisk Psykologi*, 48(2), 116–137. https://doi.org/10.1080/00291463.1996.11863874
- Einarsen, S., & Skogstad, A. (1996). Bullying at work: Epidemiological findings in public and private organizations. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *5*(2), 185–201. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594329608414854

- Eisenberger, N. I. (2012). The neural bases of social pain: Evidence for shared representations with physical pain. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, *74*(2), 126–135. https://doi.org/10.1097/PSY.0b013e3182464dd1
- Faragher v. Boca Raton, 524 US 775 (1998).
- Farr-Wharton, R., Brunetto, Y., Xerri, M., & Lambries, D. (2015). Work harassment and local government employees: Australia and USA. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 29(1), 54–71. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPSM-05-2015-0094
- Ferris, D. L., Brown, D. J., Berry, J. W., & Lian, H. (2008). The development and validation of the Workplace Ostracism Scale. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(6), 1348–1366. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0012743
- Ferris, D. L., Lian, H., Brown, D. J., & Morrison, R. (2014). Ostracism, self-esteem, and job performance: When do we self-verify and when do we self-enhance? *Academy of Management Journal*, *58*(1), 279–297. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.0347
- Ferris, D. L., Spence, J. R., Brown, D. J., & Heller, D. (2012). Interpersonal injustice and workplace deviance: The role of esteem threat. *Journal of Management*, *38*(6), 1788–1811. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310372259
- Festinger, L. (1954). A theory of social comparison processes. *Human Relations*, 7(2), 117–140. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872675400700202
- Fischer, T., Van Reemst, L., & De Jong, J. (2016). Workplace aggression toward local government employees: Target characteristics. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 29(1), 30–53. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPSM-05-2015-0100
- Fitzgerald, L. F., Drasgow, F., Hulin, C. L., Gelfand, M. J., & Magley, V. J. (1997). Antecedents and consequences of sexual harassment in organizations: A test of an integrated model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(4), 578–589. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.82.4.578
- Fitzgerald, L. F., Drasgow, F., & Magley, V. J. (1999). Sexual harassment in the armed forces: A test of an integrated model. *Military Psychology*, 11(3), 329–343. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327876mp1103_7
- Fitzgerald, L. F., Gelfand, M. J., & Drasgow, F. (1995). Measuring sexual harassment: Theoretical and psychometric advances. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, *17*(4), 425–445. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15324834basp1704_2

- Fitzgerald, L. F., Magley, V. J., Drasgow, F., & Waldo, C. R. (1999). Measuring sexual harassment in the military: The Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ—DoD). *Military Psychology*, 11(3), 243–263. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327876mp1103_3
- Folger, R., Robinson, S. L., Dietz, J., Parks, J. M., & Baron, R. A. (1998). When colleagues become violent: Employee threats and assaults as a function of societal violence and organizational injustice. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 1998(1), A1–A7. https://doi.org/10.5465/apbpp.1998.27643431
- Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (1999). A model of work frustration-aggression. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20(6), 915–931. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(199911)20:6<915::AID-JOB918>3.0.CO;2-6
- Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (Eds.). (2005). *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets* (1st ed). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Fox, S., Spector, P. E., & Miles, D. (2001). Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) in response to job stressors and organizational justice: Some mediator and moderator tests for autonomy and emotions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *59*(3), 291–309. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2001.1803
- Fox, S., & Stallworth, L. E. (2005). Racial/ethnic bullying: Exploring links between bullying and racism in the US workplace. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66(3), 438–456. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2004.01.002
- Frazier, M. L., & Bowler, Wm. M. (2015). Voice climate, supervisor undermining, and work outcomes: A group-level examination. *Journal of Management*, 41(3), 841–863. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206311434533
- Fredericksen, E. D., & McCorkle, S. (2013). Explaining organizational responses to workplace aggression. *Public Personnel Management*, 42(2), 223–238. https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026013487050
- Frodi, A., Macaulay, J., & Thome, P. R. (1977). Are women always less aggressive than men? A review of the experimental literature. *Psychological Bulletin*, 84(4), 634–660. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.84.4.634
- Geen, R. G. (2001). *Human aggression* (2nd ed). Philadelphia, PA: Open University Press.

- Giebels, E., & Janssen, O. (2005). Conflict stress and reduced well-being at work: The buffering effect of third-party help. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 14(2), 137–155. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320444000236
- Gimeno, D., Barrientos-Gutiérrez, T., Burau, K. D., & Felknor, S. A. (2012). Safety climate and verbal abuse among public hospital-based workers in Costa Rica. *Work*, *42*(1), 29–38. https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-2012-1324
- Glick, P. (1991). Trait-based and sex-based discrimination in occupational prestige, occupational salary, and hiring. *Sex Roles*, 25(5), 351–378. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00289761
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1996). The ambivalent sexism inventory: Differentiating hostile and benevolent sexism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70(3), 491–512. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.70.3.491
- Glomb, T. M. (2002). Workplace anger and aggression: Informing conceptual models with data from specific encounters. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 7(1), 20–36. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.7.1.20
- Greenberg, L., & Barling, J. (1999). Predicting employee aggression against coworkers, subordinates and supervisors: The roles of person behaviors and perceived workplace factors. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20(6), 897–913. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(199911)20:6<897::AID-JOB975>3.0.CO;2-Z
- Greene, W. H. (2003). Econometric analysis (5th ed). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Griffin, R. W., & Lopez, Y. P. (2005). "Bad behavior" in organizations: A review and typology for future research. *Journal of Management*, *31*(6), 988–1005. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206305279942
- Gruber, J. (2003). Sexual harassment in the public sector. In M. Paludi & C. A. Paludi, Jr. (Eds.), Academic and workplace sexual harassment: A handbook of cultural, social science, management, and legal perspectives (pp. 49–75). Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Gruber, J. E. (1998). The impact of male work environments and organizational policies on women's experiences of sexual harassment. *Gender & Society*, *12*(3), 301–320. https://doi.org/10.1177/0891243298012003004
- Gutek, B. A. (1985). Sex and the workplace: The impact of sexual behavior and harassment on women, men, and organizations. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

- Gutek, B. A., & Morasch, B. (1982). Sex-ratios, sex-role spillover, and sexual harassment of women at work. *Journal of Social Issues*, *38*(4), 55–74. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4560.1982.tb01910.x
- Gutek, B. A., Nakamura, C. Y., Gahart, M., Handschumacher, I., & Russell, D. (1980). Sexuality and the workplace. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, *1*(3), 255–265. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15324834basp0103_5
- Guterman, N. B., Jayaratne, S., & Bargal, D. (1996). Workplace violence and victimization experienced by social workers: A cross-national study of Americans and Israelis. In *Violence on the job: Identifying risks and developing solutions* (pp. 175–188). https://doi.org/10.1037/10215-007
- Hahs-Vaughn, D. L. (2005). A primer for using and understanding weights with national datasets. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 73(3), 221–248. https://doi.org/10.3200/JEXE.73.3.221-248
- Hamilton, J. A., Alagna, S. W., King, L. S., & Lloyd, C. (1987). The emotional consequences of gender-based abuse in the workplace: New counseling programs for sex discrimination. *Women & Therapy*, 6(1–2), 155–182. https://doi.org/10.1300/J015V06N01_13
- Hanisch, K. A., & Hulin, C. L. (1990). Job attitudes and organizational withdrawal: An examination of retirement and other voluntary withdrawal behaviors. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *37*(1), 60–78. https://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791(90)90007-O
- Hanisch, K. A., & Hulin, C. L. (1991). General attitudes and organizational withdrawal: An evaluation of a causal model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *39*(1), 110–128. https://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791(91)90006-8
- Harrison, D. A., & Klein, K. J. (2007). What's the difference? Diversity constructs as separation, variety, or disparity in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*(4), 1199–1228. https://doi.org/10.2307/20159363
- Hartman, J., Homer, G. W., & Reff, A. H. (2010). The legal issues in human resource management. In S. E. Condrey (Ed.), *Handbook of human resource management in government* (3rd ed, pp. 423–454). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Harvey, S., Blouin, C., & Stout, D. (2006). Proactive personality as a moderator of outcomes for young workers experiencing conflict at work. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 40(5), 1063–1074. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2005.09.021

- Hershcovis, S. M. (2011). "Incivility, social undermining, bullying...oh my!": A call to reconcile constructs within workplace aggression research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32(3), 499–519. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.689
- Hershcovis, S. M., & Barling, J. (2006). Preventing insider-initiated workplace violence. In E. K. Kelloway, J. Barling, & J. J. Hurrell Jr. (Eds.), *Handbook of workplace violence* (pp. 607–632). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Hershcovis, S. M., & Barling, J. (2010). Towards a multi-foci approach to workplace aggression:

 A meta-analytic review of outcomes from different perpetrators. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(1), 24–44. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.621
- Hershcovis, S. M., Turner, N., Barling, J., Arnold, K. A., Dupré, K. E., Inness, M., ...

 Sivanathan, N. (2007). Predicting workplace aggression: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(1), 228–238. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.228
- Hewitt, J. B., & Levin, P. F. (1997). Violence in the workplace. *Annual Review of Nursing Research*, 15, 81–99. https://doi.org/10.1891/0739-6686.15.1.81
- Hodge, A. C. (2006). Strategies for combating sexual harassment: The role of labor unions. *Texas Journal of Women and the Law*, 15(2), 184–227.
- Hoel, H., & Cooper, C. L. (2000). Destructive conflict & bullying at work. Manchester: Manchester School of Management, University of Manchester, Institute of Science and Technology.
- Hoel, H., Rayner, C., & Cooper, C. L. (1999). Workplace bullying. In C. L. Cooper & I. T.Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 14, pp. 195–230). New York: Wiley.
- Hogh, A., & Viitasara, E. (2005). A systematic review of longitudinal studies of nonfatal workplace violence. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 14(3), 291–313. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320500162059
- Hogler, R. L., Frame, J. H., & Thornton, G. (2002). Workplace sexual harassment law: An empirical analysis of organizational justice and legal policy. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, *14*(2), 234–250. Retrieved from https://www.jstor.org/stable/40604386
- Hoobler, J. M., & Swanberg, J. (2006). The enemy is not us: Unexpected workplace violence trends. *Public Personnel Management*, *35*(3), 229–246. https://doi.org/10.1177/009102600603500306

- Hoyman, M., M., & McCall, J., R. (2010). Sexual harassment. In S. E. Condrey (Ed.), *Handbook of human resource management in government* (3rd ed, pp. 475–489). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Hurrell Jr., J. J., Worthington, K. A., & Driscoll, R. J. (1996). Job stress, gender, and workplace violence: Analysis of assault experiences of state employees. In G. R. VandenBos & E.
 Q. Bulatao (Eds.), Violence on the job: Identifying risks and developing solutions (pp. 163–170). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Inness, M., Barling, J., & Turner, N. (2005). Understanding supervisor-targeted aggression: A within-person, between-jobs design. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(4), 731–739. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.4.731
- Jackson, R. A., & Newman, M. A. (2004). Sexual harassment in the federal Workplace revisited: Influences on sexual harassment by gender. *Public Administration Review*, 64(6), 705–717. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2004.00417.x
- Janz, T., & Tjosvold, D. (1985). Costing effective versus ineffective work relationships: A method and a first look. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 2(1), 43–51. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1936-4490.1985.tb00392.x
- Jehn, K. A. (1995). A multimethod examination of the benefits and detriments of intragroup conflict. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 40(2), 256–282. https://doi.org/10.2307/2393638
- Jehn, K. A. (1997). A qualitative analysis of conflict types and dimensions in organizational groups. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 42(3), 530–557. https://doi.org/10.2307/2393737
- Jehn, K. A., Northcraft, G. B., & Neale, M. A. (1999). Why differences make a difference: A field study of diversity, conflict and performance in workgroups. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 44(4), 741–763. https://doi.org/10.2307/2667054
- Jex, S. M., & Bayne, A. M. (2017). Measurement of workplace aggression. In N.A. Bowling & M. S. Hershcovis (Eds.), *Research and theory on workplace aggression* (pp. 9–33). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Jex, S. M., & Beehr, T. A. (1991). Emerging theoretical and methodological issues in the study of work-related stress. In G. R. Ferris & K. M. Rowland (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. 9, pp. 311–364). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

- Johns, G., & Saks, A. M. (2002). *Organizational behavior: Understanding and managing life at work* (5th ed.). Toronto: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Judge, T. A. (2009). Core self-evaluations and work success. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *18*(1), 58–62. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8721.2009.01606.x
- Judge, T. A., & Livingston, B. A. (2008). Is the gap more than gender? A longitudinal analysis of gender, gender role orientation, and earnings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(5), 994–1012. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.5.994
- Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Bono, J. E., & Patton, G. K. (2001). The job satisfaction—job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 127(3), 376–407. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.127.3.376
- Jung, C. S. (2014). Extending the theory of goal ambiguity to programs: Examining the relationship between goal ambiguity and performance. *Public Administration Review*, 74(2), 205–219. https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12176
- Jung, C. S. (2014). Why are goals important in the public sector? Exploring the benefits of goal clarity for reducing turnover intention. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 24(1), 209–234. https://doi.org/10.1093/jopart/mus058
- Kammeyer-Mueller, J., Wanberg, C., Rubenstein, A., & Song, Z. (2013). Support, undermining, and newcomer socialization: Fitting in during the first 90 days. *Academy of Management Journal*, *56*(4), 1104–1124. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.0791
- Kaukiainen, A., Salmivalli, C., Björkqvist, K., Österman, K., Lahtinen, A., Kostamo, A., & Lagerspetz, K. (2001). Overt and covert aggression in work settings in relation to the subjective well-being of employees. *Aggressive Behavior*, 27(5), 360–371. https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.1021
- Keashly, L., Trott, V., & MacLean, L. M. (1994). Abusive behavior in the workplace: A preliminary investigation. *Violence and Victims*, *9*(4), 341–357.
- Keene, O. N. (1995). The log transformation is special. *Statistics in Medicine*, *14*(8), 811–819. https://doi.org/10.1002/sim.4780140810
- Kellough, J. E., & Naff, K. C. (2004). Responding to a wake-up call: An examination of federal agency diversity management programs. *Administration & Society*, *36*(1), 62–90. https://doi.org/10.1177/0095399703257269

- Kellough, J. E., & Nigro, L. G. (2014). *The new public personnel administration* (7th ed). Boston, MA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Kelloway, E. K., Barling, J., & Hurrell Jr., J. J. (Eds.). (2006). *Handbook of workplace violence*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- King, E. B., Dawson, J. F., West, M. A., Gilrane, V. L., Peddie, C. I., & Bastin, L. (2011). Why organizational and community diversity matter: Representativeness and the emergence of incivility and organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *54*(6), 1103–1118. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.0016
- King v. Palmer, 778 F. 2d 878 (D.C. Cir. 1985).
- Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., & Johnson, E. C. (2005). Consequences of individual's fit at work: A meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-group, and person-supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(2), 281–342. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2005.00672.x
- Kwan, H. K., Zhang, X., Liu, J., & Lee, C. (2018). Workplace ostracism and employee creativity: An integrative approach incorporating pragmatic and engagement roles.

 *Journal of Applied Psychology, 103(12), 1358–1366. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000320
- Lagerspetz, K. M. J., Björkqvist, K., & Peltonen, T. (1988). Is indirect aggression typical of females? Gender differences in aggressiveness in 11- to 12-year-old children. *Aggressive Behavior*, 14(6), 403–414. https://doi.org/10.1002/1098-2337(1988)14:6<403::AID-AB2480140602>3.0.CO;2-D
- Lapierre, L. M., Spector, P. E., & Leck, J. D. (2005). Sexual versus nonsexual workplace aggression and victims' overall job satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 10(2), 155–169. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.10.2.155
- Lau, G., Moulds, M. L., & Richardson, R. (2009). Ostracism: How much it hurts depends on how you remember it. *Emotion*, 9(3), 430–434. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0015350
- Leary, M. R., Twenge, J. M., & Quinlivan, E. (2006). Interpersonal rejection as a determinant of anger and aggression. *Personality and Social Psychology Review: An Official Journal of the Society for Personality and Social Psychology, Inc*, 10(2), 111–132. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr1002_2

- LeBlanc, M. M., & Kelloway, E. K. (2002). Predictors and outcomes of workplace violence and aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(3), 444–453. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.3.444
- Lee, K., Kim, E., Bhave, D. P., & Duffy, M. K. (2016). Why victims of undermining at work become perpetrators of undermining: An integrative model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *101*(6), 915–924. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000092
- Leiter, M. P., Peck, E., & Baccardax, A. (2017). Combating workplace aggression via organizational interventions. In N. A. Bowling & M. S. Hershcovis (Eds.), *Research and Theory on Workplace Aggression* (pp. 322–349). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lengnick-Hall, M. L. (1995). Sexual harassment research: A methodological critique. *Personnel Psychology*, 48(4), 841–864. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1995.tb01783.x
- Leskinen, E. A., Cortina, L. M., & Kabat, D. B. (2011). Gender harassment: Broadening our understanding of sex-based harassment at work. *Law and Human Behavior*, *35*(1), 25–39. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10979-010-9241-5
- Lewis, D., & Gunn, R. (2007). Workplace bullying in the public sector: Understanding the racial dimension. *Public Administration*, 85(3), 641–665. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9299.2007.00665.x
- Lewis, D., Megicks, P., & Jones, P. (2017). Bullying and harassment and work-related stressors: Evidence from British small and medium enterprises. *International Small Business Journal*, *35*(1), 116–137. https://doi.org/10.1177/0266242615624039
- Leymann, H. (1996). The content and development of mobbing at work. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *5*(2), 165–184. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594329608414853
- Leymann, H., & Gustafsson, A. (1996). Mobbing at work and the development of post-traumatic stress disorders. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *5*(2), 251–275. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594329608414858
- Liao, T. (1994). *Interpreting probability models*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Lim, S., & Cortina, L. M. (2005). Interpersonal mistreatment in the workplace: The interface and impact of general incivility and sexual harassment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(3), 483–496.

- Lim, S., & Cortina, L. M. (2005). Interpersonal mistreatment in the workplace: The interface and impact of general incivility and sexual harassment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(3), 483–496. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.3.483
- Lim, S., Cortina, L. M., & Magley, V. J. (2008). Personal and workgroup incivility: Impact on work and health outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(1), 95–107. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.1.95
- Lopez, Y. P., Lavan, H., & Martin, W. M. (2010). Specific characteristics distinguishing winning from losing: Litigated workplace bullying cases. *Journal of Workplace Rights*, *15*(2), 135–149. https://doi.org/10.2190/WR.15.2.b
- Lundberg-Love, P., & Marmion, S. (2003). Sexual harassment in the private sector. In M. Paludi & C. A. Paludi, Jr. (Eds.), *Academic and workplace sexual harassment: A handbook of cultural, social science, management, and legal perspectives* (pp. 77–101). Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Maccoby, E. E., & Jacklin, C. N. (1974). *The psychology of sex differences*. Stanford University Press.
- Magley, V. J., Hulin, C. L., Fitzgerald, L. F., & DeNardo, M. (1999). Outcomes of self-labeling sexual harassment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(3), 390–402. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.84.3.390
- Mansfield, P. K., Koch, P. B., Henderson, J., Vicary, J. R., Cohn, M., & Young, E. W. (1991). The job climate for women in traditionally male blue-collar occupations. *Sex Roles*, 25(1), 63–79. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00289317
- Mantell, M. R., & Albrecht, S. (1994). *Ticking bombs: Defusing violence in the workplace*. Burr Ridge, IL: Irwin.
- Maranto, C. L., & Griffin, A. E. (2011). The antecedents of a 'chilly climate' for women faculty in higher education. *Human Relations*, 64(2), 139–159. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726710377932
- March, J. G., & Sutton, R. I. (1997). Organizational performance as a dependent variable. *Organization Science*, 8(6), 698–706.
- Martin, W. M., Lopez, Y., & LaVan, H. (2009). What legal protections do victims of bullies in the workplace have? *Journal of Workplace Rights*, *14*(2), 143–156. Retrieved from https://papers.ssrn.com/abstract=2611823

- Mayhew, C., & Quinlan, M. (2002). Fordism in the fast food industry: Pervasive management control and occupational health and safety risks for young temporary workers. *Sociology of Health & Illness*, 24(3), 261–284. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9566.00294
- Maypole, D. E., & Skaine, R. (1982). Sexual harassment of blue-collar workers. *Journal of Sociology and Social Welfare*, *9*(4), 682–695.
- McDonald, P., & Charlesworth, S. (2016). Workplace sexual harassment at the margins. *Work, Employment, and Society*, 30(1), 118–134. https://doi.org/10.1177/0950017014564615
- McFarlin, S. K., Fals-Stewart, W., Major, D. A., & Justice, E. M. (2001). Alcohol use and workplace aggression: An examination of perpetration and victimization. *Journal of Substance Abuse*, *13*(3), 303–321. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0899-3289(01)00080-3
- McLaughlin, H., Uggen, C., & Blackstone, A. (2012). Sexual harassment, workplace authority, and the paradox of power. *American Sociological Review*, 77(4), 625–647. https://doi.org/10.1177/0003122412451728
- Meritor Savings Bank, FSB v. Vinson, 477 US 57 (1986).
- Mikkelsen, E. G., & Einarsen, S. (2001). Bullying in Danish work-life: Prevalence and health correlates. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *10*(4), 393–413. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320143000816
- Miles, D. E., Borman, W. E., Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2002). Building an integrative model of extra role work behaviors: A comparison of counterproductive work behavior with organizational citizenship behavior. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 10(1–2), 51–57. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2389.00193
- Mizrahi, R. (2004). "Hostility to the presence of women": Why women undermine each other in the workplace and the consequences for Title VII. *Yale Law Journal*, 113(7), 1579–1621. Retrieved from https://www.yalelawjournal.org/note/qhostility-to-the-presence-of-womenq-why-women-undermine-each-other-in-the-workplace-and-the-consequences-for-title-vii
- Mobley, W. H., Horner, S. O., & Hollingsworth, A. T. (1978). An evaluation of precursors of hospital employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *63*(4), 408–414. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.63.4.408

- Motowidlo, S. J., Packard, J. S., & Manning, M. R. (1986). Occupational stress: Its causes and consequences for job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(4), 618–629. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.71.4.618
- Mroczek, B., Mormul, J., Kotwas, A., Szkup, M., & Kurpas, D. (2014). Patient aggression towards health care professionals. *Progress in Health Sciences*, *4*(2), 67–74. Retrieved from http://cejsh.icm.edu.pl/cejsh/element/bwmeta1.element.ceon.element-6c971243-eca2-34d9-b7d6-843bce4aa975
- Muller, C. J., & MacLehose, R. F. (2014). Estimating predicted probabilities from logistic regression: Different methods correspond to different target populations. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 43(3), 962–970. https://doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyu029
- Namie, G., & Namie, R. (2009). U.S. workplace bullying: Some basic considerations and consultation interventions. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 61(3), 202–219. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0016670
- Neuman, J. H., & Baron, R. A. (1998). Workplace violence and workplace aggression: Evidence concerning specific forms, potential causes, and preferred targets. *Journal of Management*, 24(3), 391–419. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639802400305
- Neuman, J. H., & Baron, R. A. (2005). Aggression in the workplace: A social psychological perspective. In S. Fox & P. E. Spector (Eds.), *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets* (pp. 13–40). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Neuman, J. H., Baron, R. A., Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (2005). Aggression in the workplace: A social-psychological perspective. In *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets* (pp. 13–40). https://doi.org/10.1037/10893-001
- Newman, M. A., Jackson, R. A., & Baker, D. D. (2003). Sexual harassment in the federal workplace. *Public Administration Review*, 63(4), 472–483. https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-6210.00309
- Nezlek, J. B., Wesselmann, E. D., Wheeler, L., & Williams, K. D. (2015). Ostracism in everyday life: The effects of ostracism on those who ostracize. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 155(5), 432–451. https://doi.org/10.1080/00224545.2015.1062351

- Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2009). How broadly does education contribute to job performance? *Personnel Psychology*, 62(1), 89–134. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2008.01130.x
- Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2010). The relationships of age with job attitudes: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 63(3), 677–718. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01184.x
- Nguyen, D. T. N., Teo, S. T. T., Grover, S. L., & Nguyen, N. P. (2017). Psychological safety climate and workplace bullying in Vietnam's public sector. *Public Management Review*, 19(10), 1415–1436. https://doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2016.1272712
- Nielsen, M. B., & Einarsen, S. (2012). Outcomes of exposure to workplace bullying: A meta-analytic review. *Work & Stress*, 26(4), 309–332. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2012.734709
- Nielsen, M. B., Hetland, J., Matthiesen, S. B., & Einarsen, S. (2012). Longitudinal relationships between workplace bullying and psychological distress. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment & Health*, *38*(1), 38–46. Retrieved from JSTOR.
- Niven, K., Sprigg, C. A., & Armitage, C. J. (2013). Does emotion regulation protect employees from the negative effects of workplace aggression? *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 22, 88–106. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2011.626200
- Northwestern National Life Insurance Company. (1993). Fear and violence in the workplace: A survey documenting the experience of American workers. Minneapolis, MN: Author.
- Notelaers, G., Vermunt, J. K., Baillien, E., Einarsen, S., & De Witte, H. (2011). Exploring risk groups workplace bullying with categorical data. *Industrial Health*, 49(1), 73–88. https://doi.org/10.2486/indhealth.ms1155
- Notelaers, G., Witte, H. D., & Einarsen, S. (2010). A job characteristics approach to explain workplace bullying. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *19*(4), 487–504. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320903007620
- O'Hara, C. (2014). Who's being left out on your team? *Harvard Business Review Digital**Articles, 2–5. Retrieved from
 http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bth&AN=118647651&site=eds-live

- O'Reilly, J., & Robinson, S. L. (2009). The negative impact of ostracism on thwarted belongingness and workplace contributions. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 2009(1), 1–7. https://doi.org/10.5465/ambpp.2009.44243707
- O'Reilly, J., Robinson, S. L., Berdahl, J. L., & Banki, S. (2015). Is negative attention better than no attention? The comparative effects of ostracism and harassment at work. *Organization Science*, 26, 774–793.
- Ortiz, S. Y., & Roscigno, V. J. (2009). Discrimination women, and work: Processes and variations by race and class. *The Sociological Quarterly*, *50*(2), 336–359. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1533-8525.2009.01143.x
- Paanakker, H., & Lasthuizen, K. (2015). Combatting workplace aggression in detainee transport: The Dutch case. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 29(1), 11–29. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPSM-06-2015-0113
- Parsons, T. (1991). The social system. New York: Psychology Press.
- Peng, A. C., & Wei, Z. (2016). Workplace ostracism and deviant and helping behaviors: The moderating role of 360 degree feedback. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 38(6), 833–855.
- Penhaligon, N. L., Louis, W. R., & Restubog, S. L. D. (2009). Emotional anguish at work: The mediating role of perceived rejection on workgroup mistreatment and affective outcomes. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 14(1), 34–45. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0013288
- Penney, L. M., Martir, A., & Bok, C. (2017). Environmental antecedents of workplace aggression: A review and examination of psychological process. In N. A. Bowling & M. S. Hershcovis (Eds.), *Research and Theory on Workplace Aggression* (pp. 34–61). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. E. (2005). Job stress, incivility, and counterproductive work behavior (CWB): The moderating role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(7), 777–796. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.336
- Pfeffer, J. (1998). *The human equation: Building profits by putting people first*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Pfeffermann, D. (1993). The role of sampling weights when modeling survey data. *International Statistical Review*, *61*(2), 317–337. https://doi.org/10.2307/1403631

- Pickett, C. L., & Brewer, M. B. (2005). The role of exclusion in maintaining ingroup inclusion. In D. Abrams, M. A. Hogg, & J. M. Marques (Eds.), *The social psychology of inclusion and exclusion* (pp. 89–111). New York: Psychology Press.
- Piggot-Irvine, E. (2015). Leader bullying through a different lens. *SAGE Open*, *5*(2), 2158244015589786. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244015589786
- Plimmer, G., Proctor-Thomson, S., Donnelly, N., & Sim, D. (2017). The mistreatment of public service workers: Identifying key risk and protective factors. *Public Money & Management*, *37*(5), 333–340. https://doi.org/10.1080/09540962.2017.1328186
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879–903. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879
- Pollak, S., & Gilligan, C. (1982). Images of violence in Thematic Apperception Test stories. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 42(1), 159–167.

 https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.42.1.159
- Pope, R., & Burnes, B. (2007). Negative behaviors in the workplace: A study of two primary care trusts in the NHS. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 20(4), 285–303. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513550710750011
- Quade, M. J., Greenbaum, R. L., & Mawritz, M. B. (2018). "If only my coworker was more ethical": When ethical and performance comparisons lead to negative emotions, social undermining, and ostracism. *Journal of Business Ethics*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-3841-2
- Quade, M. J., Greenbaum, R. L., & Petrenko, O. V. (2017). "I don't want to be near you, unless...": The interactive effect of unethical behavior and performance onto relationship conflict and workplace ostracism. *Personnel Psychology*, 70(3), 675–709.
- Quine, L. (1999). Workplace bullying in NHS community trust: Staff questionnaire survey. BMJ: British Medical Journal, 318(7178), 228–232. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC27703/
- Rainey, H. G., & Jung, C. S. (2015). A conceptual framework for analysis of goal ambiguity in public organizations. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 25(1), 71–99. https://doi.org/10.1093/jopart/muu040

- Raver, J. L., & Gelfand, M. J. (2005). Beyond the individual victim: Linking sexual harassment, team processes, and team performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(3), 387–400. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2005.17407904
- Rayner, C. (1999). From research to implementation: Finding leverage for prevention. *International Journal of Manpower*, 20(1/2), 28–38. https://doi.org/10.1108/01437729910268614
- Rayner, C., & Hoel, H. (1997). A summary review of literature relating to workplace bullying.

 *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology, 7(3), 181–191.

 https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1298(199706)7:3<181::AID-CASP416>3.0.CO;2-Y
- Rayner, C., Hoel, H., & Cooper, C. L. (2002). Workplace bullying: What we know, who is to blame, and what can we do? New York: Taylor & Francis.
- Reh, S., Tröster, C., & Van Quaquebeke, N. (2018). Keeping (future) rivals down: Temporal social comparison predicts coworker social undermining via future status threat and envy. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 103(4), 399–415. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000281
- Reknes, I., Einarsen, S., Knardahl, S., & Lau, B. (2014). The prospective relationship between role stressors and new cases of self-reported workplace bullying. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, *55*(1), 45–52. https://doi.org/10.1111/sjop.12092
- Richard, O. C., Barnett, T., Dwyer, S., & Chadwick, K. (2004). Cultural diversity in management, firm performance, and the moderating role of entrepreneurial orientation dimensions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(2), 255–266. https://doi.org/10.2307/20159576
- Richardson, R., Joiner, S., & Hall, R. (2016). The status of workplace bullying in federal court cases. *Academy of Business Research Journal*, *1*, 117–131. Retrieved from https://search.proquest.com/docview/1863560419/abstract/826D39876843A5PQ/1
- Riva, P., Wirth, J. H., & Williams, K. D. (2011). The consequences of pain: The social and physical pain overlap on psychological responses. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *41*(6), 681–687. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.837
- Robinson, S. L., O'Reilly, J., & Wang, W. (2013). Invisible at work: An integrated model of workplace ostracism. *Journal of Management*, *39*(1), 203–231. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206312466141

- Robinson, S. L., & Schabram, K. (2017). Invisible at work: Workplace ostracism as aggression. In N. A. Bowling & S. M. Hershcovis (Eds.), *Research and theory on workplace aggression* (pp. 221–244). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Rogers, K.-A., & Kelloway, E. K. (1997). Violence at work: Personal and organizational outcomes. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 2(1), 63–71. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.2.1.63
- Rook, K. S. (1984). The negative side of social interaction: Impact on psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 46(5), 1097–1108. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.46.5.1097
- Rospenda, K. M., Richman, J. A., & Nawyn, S. J. (1998). Doing power: The confluence of gender, race, and class in contrapower sexual harassment. *Gender & Society*, *12*(1), 40–60. https://doi.org/10.1177/089124398012001003
- Rospenda, K. M., Richman, J. A., & Shannon, C. A. (2009). Prevalence and mental health correlates of harassment and discrimination in the workplace: Results from a national study. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 24(5), 819–843. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260508317182
- Rotundo, M., Nguyen, D.-H., & Sackett, P. R. (2001). A meta-analytic review of gender differences in perceptions of sexual harassment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(5), 914–922. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.5.914
- Rousseau, D. M. (1995). *Psychological contracts in organizations: Understanding written and unwritten agreements*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Rubin, E. V., & Pérez Chiqués, E. (2015). Where you sit is where you stand: Evaluating manager and employee differences in procedural justice perceptions in the U.S. federal government. *Administration & Society*, 47(5), 549–573. https://doi.org/10.1177/0095399714555755
- Rutter, A., & Hine, D. W. (2005). Sex differences in workplace aggression: An investigation of moderation and mediation effects. *Aggressive Behavior*, 31(3), 254–270. https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.20051
- Sabeen, Z., & Arshad, F. (2019). Social undermining in academia: Experiences and effects. *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education*. https://doi.org/10.1108/JARHE-05-2018-0089

- Sakurai, K., & Jex, S. M. (2012). Coworker incivility and incivility targets' work effort and counterproductive work behaviors: The moderating role of supervisor social support. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 17(2), 150–161. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0027350
- Santos, A., Leather, P., Dunn, J., & Zarola, A. (2009). Gender differences in exposure to coworker and public-initiated violence: Assessing the impact of work-related violence and aggression in police work. *Work & Stress*, *23*(2), 137–154. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370903087934
- Schat, A. C. H., Frone, M. R., & Kelloway, E. K. (2006). Prevalence of workplace aggression in the U.S. workforce: Findings from a national study. In E. K. Kelloway, J. Barling, & J. J. Hurrell Jr. (Eds.), *Handbook of workplace violence* (pp. 47–89). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Schat, A. C. H., & Kelloway, E. K. (2000). Effects of perceived control on the outcomes of workplace aggression and violence. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *5*(3), 386–402. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.5.3.386
- Schat, A. C. H., & Kelloway, E. K. (2003). Reducing the adverse consequences of workplace aggression and violence: The buffering effects of organizational support. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 8(2), 110–122. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.8.2.110
- Schat, A. C. H., & Kelloway, E. K. (2005). Workplace violence. In J. Barling, E. K. Kelloway, & M. R. Frone (Eds.), *Handbook of work stress* (p. 189-218). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Schilpzand, P., Pater, I. E. D., & Erez, A. (2016). Workplace incivility: A review of the literature and agenda for future research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *37*(S1), S57–S88. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1976
- Schneider, K. T., Swan, S., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1997). Job-related and psychological effects of sexual harassment in the workplace: Empirical evidence from two organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(3), 401–415. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.82.3.401
- Sears, R. R., Rau, L., & Alpert, R. (1966). *Identification and child rearing*. Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.

- Sepler, F. (2015). *Industry specific harassment issues, meeting of the select task force on the study of harassment in the workplace. Written testimony.* Retrieved from https://www.eeoc.gov/eeoc/task_force/harassment/9-18-15/sepler.cfm#sdfootnote1sym
- Simons, T. L., & Peterson, R. S. (2000). Task conflict and relationship conflict in top management teams: The pivotal role of intragroup trust. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(1), 102–111. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.1.102
- Skarlicki, D. P., & Folger, R. (1997). Retaliation in the workplace: The roles of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(3), 434–443. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.82.3.434
- Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2005). The stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behavior. In Suzy Fox & P. E. Spector (Eds.), *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets* (pp. 151–174). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Spector, P. E., Fox, S., & Domagalski, T. (2006). Emotions, violence, and counterproductive work behavior. In E. Kevin Kelloway, J. Barling, & J. J. Hurrell Jr. (Eds.), *Handbook of workplace violence* (pp. 29–46). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Spector, P. E., & Jex, S. M. (1998). Development of four self-report measures of job stressors and strain: Interpersonal Conflict at Work Scale, Organizational Constraints Scale, Quantitative Workload Inventory, and Physical Symptoms Inventory. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *3*(4), 356–367. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.3.4.356
- Spector, P. E., & O'Connell, B. J. (1994). The contribution of personality traits, negative affectivity, locus of control and Type A to the subsequent reports of job stressors and job strains. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 67(1), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1994.tb00545.x
- StataCorp. (2017). Stata statistical software: Release 15. College Station, TX: StataCorp LLC.
- Stockdale, M. S. (1993). The role of sexual misperceptions of women's friendliness in an emerging theory of sexual harassment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 42(1), 84–101. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1993.1006

- Tangri, S. S., Burt, M. R., & Johnson, L. B. (1982). Sexual harassment at work: Three explanatory models. *Journal of Social Issues*, *38*(4), 33–54. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4560.1982.tb01909.x
- Taylor, S. G., & Kluemper, D. H. (2012). Linking perceptions of role stress and incivility to workplace aggression: The moderating role of personality. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 17(3), 316–329. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0028211
- Tenbrunsel, A. E. (Ed.). (2006). Green and mean: Envy and social undermining in organizations. In J. R. Dunn & M. E. Schweitzer, *Ethics in groups* (1st ed., pp. 177–197). Amsterdam: Emerald.
- Teo, S. T. T., Tummers, L., & Brunetto, Y. (2015). Workplace aggression: Introduction to the special issue and future research directions for scholars. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 29(1), 2–10. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPSM-11-2015-0200
- Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(2), 178–190. https://doi.org/10.2307/1556375
- Tepper, B. J. (2007). Abusive supervision in work organizations: Review, synthesis, and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, *33*(3), 261–289. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307300812
- Tepper, B. J., Moss, S. E., & Duffy, M. K. (2011). Predictors of abusive supervision: Supervisor perceptions of deep-level dissimilarity, relationship conflict, and subordinate performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *54*(2), 279–294. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2011.60263085
- Texeira, M. T. (2002). "Who protects and serves me?" A case study of sexual harassment of African American women in one U.S. law enforcement agency. *Gender & Society*, *16*(4), 524–545. https://doi.org/10.1177/0891243202016004007
- Thacker, R. A., & Ferris, G. R. (1991). Understanding sexual harassment in the workplace: The influence of power and politics within the dyadic interaction of harasser and target.

 Human Resource Management Review, 1(1), 23–37. https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-4822(91)90009-2
- Tsui, A., Egan, T., & O'Reilly, C. (1992). Being different: Relational demography and organizational attachment. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *37*, 549–579. https://doi.org/10.2307/2393472

- Turner, J. C. (1991). Social influence. Belmont, CA: Thomson Brooks/Cole Publishing Co.
- Twenge, J. M., Baumeister, R. F., DeWall, C. N., Ciarocco, N. J., & Bartels, J. M. (2007). Social exclusion decreases prosocial behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 92(1), 56–66. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.92.1.56
- Twenge, J. M., Catanese, K. R., & Baumeister, R. F. (2003). Social exclusion and the deconstructed state: Time perception, meaninglessness, lethargy, lack of emotion, and self-awareness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(3), 409–423. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.85.3.409
- Ugaddan, R. G., & Park, S. M. (2019). Do trustful leadership, organizational justice, and motivation influence whistle-blowing intention? Evidence from federal employees.

 *Public Personnel Management, 48(1), 56–81. https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026018783009
- U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC). (2006). Select task force on the study of harassment in the workplace report of co-chairs Chai R. Feldblum & Victoria A. Lipnic. Retrieved from https://www.eeoc.gov/eeoc/task_force/harassment/report.cfm
- U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board. (2016). *Merit Principles Survey 2016 methodology and materials*. Retrieved from https://www.mspb.gov/foia/Data/MSPB_MPS2016_MethodologyMaterials.pdf
- U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board. (2017). Sexual Harassment Trends in the Federal Workplace. Retrieved from https://www.mspb.gov/MSPBSEARCH/viewdocs.aspx?docnumber=1442317&version=1447804&application=ACROBAT
- U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board. (2018). *Update on Sexual Harassment in the Federal Workplace*. Retrieved from https://www.mspb.gov/MSPBSEARCH/viewdocs.aspx?docnumber=1500639&version=1 506232&application=ACROBAT
- van Beest, I., & Williams, K. D. (2006). When inclusion costs and ostracism pays, ostracism still hurts. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *91*(5), 918–928. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.91.5.918
- van Emmerik, I. J. H., Euwema, M. C., & Bakker, A. B. (2007). Threats of workplace violence and the buffering effect of social support. *Group & Organization Management*, *32*(2), 152–175. https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601106286784

- Vartia, M. (1996). The sources of bullying–Psychological work environment and organizational climate. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *5*(2), 203–214. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594329608414855
- Vartia, M. (2001). Consequences of workplace bullying with respect to the well-being of its targets and the observers of bullying. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment & Health*, 27(1), 63–69. https://doi.org/10.5271/sjweh.588
- Vartia, M., & Hyyti, J. (2002). Gender differences in workplace bullying among prison officers. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 11(1), 113–126. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320143000870
- Venetoklis, T., & Kettunen, P. (2016). Workplace bullying in the Finnish public sector: Who, me? *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *36*(4), 370–395. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X15587982
- Vianen, A. E. M. van, & Dreu, C. K. W. D. (2001). Personality in teams: Its relationship to social cohesion, task cohesion, and team performance. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 10(2), 97–120. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320143000573
- Vickers, M. H. (2006). Writing what's relevant: Workplace incivility in public administration-A wolf in sheep's clothing. *Administrative Theory & Praxis*, 28(1), 69–88. https://doi.org/10.1080/10841806.2006.11029525
- Vigoda, E. (2002). Stress-related aftermaths to workplace politics: The relationships among politics, job distress, and aggressive behavior in organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(5), 571–591. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.160
- Vinokur, A. D., Price, R. H., & Caplan, R. D. (1996). Hard times and hurtful partners: How financial strain affects depression and relationship satisfaction of unemployed persons and their spouses. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 71(1), 166–179. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.71.1.166
- Waldo, C. R., Berdahl, J. L., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1998). Are men sexually harassed? If so, by whom? *Law and Human Behavior*, 22(1), 59–79. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1025776705629
- Wan, E. W., Chan, K. W., & Chen, R. P. (2016). Hurting or helping? The effect of service agents' workplace ostracism on customer service perceptions. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 44, 746–769.

- Wang, M., Liao, H., Zhan, Y., & Shi, J. (2011). Daily customer mistreatment and employee sabotage against customers: Examining emotion and resource perspectives. *Academy of Management Journal*, *54*(2), 312–334. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2011.60263093
- Warchol, G. (1998). *National crime victimization survey: Workplace violence 1992-1996*. Retrieved from https://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/wv96.pdf
- Wasti, S. A., Bergman, M. E., Glomb, T. M., & Drasgow, F. (2000). Test of the cross-cultural generalizability of a model of sexual harassment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(5), 766–778. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.5.766
- Welsh, S. (1999). Gender and sexual harassment. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 25(1), 169–190. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.soc.25.1.169
- Whiting, B., & Edwards, C. P. (1973). A cross-cultural analysis of sex differences in the behavior of children aged three through 11. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 91(2), 171–188. https://doi.org/10.1080/00224545.1973.9923040
- Williams, J. H., Fitzgerald, L. F., & Drasgow, F. (1999). The effects of organizational practices on sexual harassment and individual outcomes in the military. *Military Psychology*, 11(3), 303–328. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327876mp1103_6
- Williams, K. D. (1997). Social ostracism. In R. M. Kowalski (Ed.), *Aversive interpersonal behaviors* (pp. 133–170). New York: Plenum Press.
- Williams, K. D. (2001). Ostracism: The power of silence. New York: Guilford Press.
- Williams, K. D. (2007). Ostracism: The kiss of social death. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, *I*(1), 236–247. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2007.00004.x
- Williams, K. D., Bernieri, F. J., Faulkner, S. L., Gada-Jain, N., & Grahe, J. E. (2000). The scarlet letter study: Five days of social ostracism. *Journal of Personal and Interpersonal Loss*, 5(1), 19–63. https://doi.org/10.1080/10811440008407846
- Williams, K. D., Cheung, C. K. T., & Choi, W. (2000). Cyberostracism: Effects of being ignored over the Internet. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79(5), 748–762. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.79.5.748
- Williams, K. D., & Sommer, K. L. (1997). Social ostracism by coworkers: Does rejection lead to loafing or compensation? *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *23*(7), 693–706. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167297237003

- Williams, K. D., & Zadro, L. (2001). Ostracism: On being ignored, excluded, and rejected. In M. R. Leary (Ed.), *Interpersonal rejection* (pp. 21–53). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Willness, C. R., Steel, P., & Lee, K. (2007). A meta-analysis of the antecedents and consequences of workplace sexual harassment. *Personnel Psychology*, 60(1), 127–162. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2007.00067.x
- Wirth, J. H., & Williams, K. D. (2009). 'They don't like our kind': Consequences of being ostracized while possessing a group membership. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 12(1), 111–127. https://doi.org/10.1177/1368430208098780
- Woodrow, C., & Guest, D. E. (2012). Public violence, staff harassment and the wellbeing of nursing staff: An analysis of national survey data. *Health Services Management Research*, 25(1), 24–30. https://doi.org/10.1258/hsmr.2011.011019
- Wu, C.-H., Liu, J., Kwan, H. K., & Lee, C. (2016). Why and when workplace ostracism inhibits organizational citizenship behaviors: An organizational identification perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 101(3), 362–378. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000063
- Wu, L., Wei, L., & Hui, C. (2011). Dispositional antecedents and consequences of workplace ostracism: An empirical examination. *Frontiers of Business Research in China*, 5(1), 23–44. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11782-011-0119-2
- Wu, L.-Z., Yim, F. H., Kwan, H. K., & Zhang, X. (2012). Coping with workplace ostracism: The roles of ingratiation and political skill in employee psychological distress. *Journal of Management Studies*, 49(1), 178–199. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2011.01017.x
- Xerri, M., Farr-Wharton, R., Brunetto, Y., & Lambries, D. (2016). Work harassment and local government employees: Australia and USA. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 29(1), 54–71.
- Yu, K., Liu, C., & Li, Y. (2019). Beyond social exchange: Career adaptability linking work stressors and counterproductive work behavior. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *10*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01079
- Yu, L., & Zellmer-Bruhn, M. (2017). Introducing team mindfulness and considering its safeguard role against conflict transformation and social undermining. *Academy of Management Journal*, 61(1), 324–347. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2016.0094

- Zadro, L., Williams, K. D., & Richardson, R. (2004). How low can you go? Ostracism by a computer is sufficient to lower self-reported levels of belonging, control, self-esteem, and meaningful existence. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 40(4), 560–567. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2003.11.006
- Zapf, D., Knorz, C., & Kulla, M. (1996). On the relationship between mobbing factors, and job content, social work environment, and health outcomes. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 5(2), 215–237. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594329608414856
- Zimmerman, C. A., Carter-Sowell, A. R., & Xu, X. (2016). Examining workplace ostracism experiences in academia: Understanding how differences in the faculty ranks influence inclusive climates on campus. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 7. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00753