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Abstract

In this paper, the role that job embeddedness plays in the relationship between workplace bullying and aggression both inside and outside the workplace is examined. In a sample of 165 working adults, individuals who report being the target of workplace bullying are more likely to act aggressively themselves, targeting their coworkers as well as their friends, family, and significant others. Furthermore, the relationship between workplace bullying and aggression is strengthened for individuals who are highly embedded in their job. These relationships are found even after controlling for two similar attachment constructs, namely job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment.

Keywords: Workplace bullying; Job embeddedness; Aggression

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Over the past 20 years, there has been an increasing interest in the causes and effects of workplace bullying. Although there are multiple definitions of workplace bullying in the literature, one commonly accepted definition is the “persistent exposure to interpersonal aggression and mistreatment from colleagues, superiors or subordinates” (Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009, p. 24). This type of interpersonal aggression or mistreatment can take many different forms. For example, workplace bullying may involve behaviors such as persistent criticism of the employee’s work, social isolation, physical or verbal attacks or threats, spreading rumors about the employee, sexual harassment, and so forth (e.g., Harvey, Heames, Richey, & Leonard, 2006; Zapf, 1999). A recent meta-analysis demonstrated that at least one out of ten employees are exposed to workplace bullying, and this number may even reach one out of five (Nielsen, Matthiesen, & Einarsen, 2010).

Although there are a variety of strategies targets of workplace bullies can undertake to counteract the bullying (e.g., avoid the bully, talk to the bully, report the bully, leave the organization, etc.), these targets may begin to behave aggressively themselves (Zapf & Gross, 2001). For example, Hauge, Skogstad and Einarsen (2009) found that one of the most important factors in becoming a bully at work is to be a target of workplace bullying. In fact, they found that approximately one-third of the targets of bullying in organizations become a bully themselves. While past research has examined aggressive responses to workplace bullying, less is known about which factors may increase or decrease aggressive reactions to bullying both inside and outside of work. One such factor that may influence an aggressive response to workplace bullying is the degree to which the employee believes he/she can or cannot escape the bullying behavior. Although one could argue that a bullied employee can simply quit their
organization to escape the bully, an interesting question is what happens when the employee cannot or does not want to leave? For example, what if the target of the bullying loves the work they do, enjoys the majority of their coworkers, and/or perceives limited job alternatives in the area and/or cannot move due to family obligations? In fact, Berthelsen, Skogstad, Lau, and Einarsen (2011) found that most victims of bullying do not leave the organization. Therefore, a person’s attachment to the organization may influence their reaction to workplace bullying.

In this paper, I examine how employee perceptions of job embeddedness (i.e., the accumulated affective and non-affective factors that bind individuals to their organizations – Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001) can impact the relationship between being bullied and the employee’s aggressive behavior both in the workplace and in the employee’s personal life. While past research traditionally focused on the positive effects of job embeddedness on outcomes such as lower absenteeism and turnover (Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004), recent research has examined the potential “dark side” of job embeddedness. For example, Sekiguchi, Burton, and Sablynski (2008) found that highly embedded employees withheld performance and organizational-citizenship behaviors when they experienced a low-quality relationship with their immediate supervisor. They argued that this is likely a result of highly embedded employees feeling trapped in the unfavorable situation since they were reluctant to leave the organization. Consistent with this view, I argue that individuals who are highly embedded in their organization may react negatively to instances of workplace bullying since they may perceive they are “bound” or “stuck” in the unfavorable bullying situation.

**Workplace Bullying and Aggression**
When faced with workplace bullying, employees may engage in a variety of behaviors. For example, employees could simply ignore the bullying, try to avoid the bully, seek out social support, or take a more assertive approach, such as confronting the bully or seeking help from higher authorities (Knapp, Faley, Ekeberg, & Dubois, 1997; MacIntosh, Wuest, Gray, & Aldous, 2010; Olafsson & Johannsdottir, 2004). Zapf and Gross (2001) found that although individuals may start with more constructive methods of dealing with bullies at work (e.g., talk to them), the escalation of the conflict can eventually lead to an aggressive response from the victim. While employees may engage in other behaviors besides aggression, the focus of this research is on the relationship between workplace bullying and aggression (i.e., aggression within and outside the organization) when employees perceive they cannot or do not want to leave the organization to escape the bullying behavior.

Anderson and Bushman (2002) define aggression as any behavior directed toward another person with the intent to do harm. In addition, they argue that instances of interpersonal provocation, such as the behavior associated with workplace bullying, is the most common cause of workplace aggression. Tedeschi and Felson’s (1994) Social Interaction Theory suggests that aggressive behavior has a specific purpose. Specifically, someone may become aggressive to bring about change in their situation or remedy a perceived wrong (Anderson & Bushman, 2002). In this view, an aggressive response to workplace bullying could be seen as a form of problem-focused coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). By standing up for themselves, the targets of bullying may be trying to change the behavior of the bully by demonstrating that they are willing to defend themselves (Aquino & Thau, 2009). Research to date has supported the idea that behavior associated with workplace bullying can lead to an aggressive response within the workplace (e.g., Bowling & Behr, 2006; Burton & Hoobler, 2011; Lee & Brotheridge, 2006;
However, what if the employee cannot retaliate or fears the consequences of acting aggressively in response to a bully? Workplace bullying often involves a perceived power differential between the two parties, where the targets of the bullying fear or believe they are incapable of retaliating or defending themselves against the bully (Einarsen, 2000; Niedl, 1996). Employees who are abused at work may not target their aggression directly at the perpetrators due to a fear of additional retaliation from the bully (Bjorkqvist, Osterman, & Lagerspetz, 1994). In this case, employees may displace their aggression onto others inside or outside of the workplace. Marcus-Newhall, Pederson, Carlson, and Miller (2000) found in a meta-analysis that displaced aggression is likely when an individual fears retaliation from the original perpetrator of the aggressive behavior. Tedeschi and Norman (1985) argued that displaced aggression is the “redirection of a [person’s] harm-doing behavior from a primary to a secondary target” (p. 30). Research has consistently demonstrated this “redirection” or “trickle-down” effect. For example, Masterson (2001) found that employee perceptions of fairness influenced their behavior toward customers. Tepper and Taylor (2003) found that supervisor perceptions of procedural justice influenced their mentoring behavior which then influenced their subordinates’ perception of fairness and subsequent citizenship behavior. Aryee, Chen, Sun, and Debrah (2007) reported that supervisor perceptions of justice resulted in subordinate perceptions of abusive supervision and subsequent citizenship behavior. Recently, Mawritz et al. (2012) found that supervisors who were abused by their managers often engaged in abuse toward their own subordinates who then engaged in workplace deviance.
Furthermore, crossover theory (Westman, 2006) proposes that the stressful experiences of an individual in one situation (e.g., work) can affect the experience of another individual within a relationship dyad (e.g., significant other at home). Although past studies have argued that aggressive responses to workplace bullying directed at targets other than the bully remains understudied (e.g., Dupré, Inness, Connelly, Barling, & Hoption, 2006; Lutgen-Sandvik & Tracy, 2012), what research has been conducted has generally demonstrated the negative effects of workplace bullying crossing over into relationships outside of work. For example, Lewis and Orford (2005) found that bullying in the workplace among women negatively impacted their relationships outside of work. In addition, research in similar areas has demonstrated the effect negative events at work have on employees’ relationships outside of the workplace. Bowling and Beehr (2006) reported that conflict at work is associated with conflict with one’s spouse. Haines, Marchand, and Harvey (2006) found that when an employee experiences aggression in the workplace, their partner at home reports psychological distress. Carlson, Ferguson, Perrewe, and Whitten (2011) demonstrated abuse from one’s supervisor was positively related to relationship tension at home. Restubog et al. (2011) found that abusive supervision resulted in employee distress which was then associated with spousal undermining. Finally, Hoobler and Brass (2006) reported that employees who had an abusive supervisor were more likely to have partners reporting that the employee acted negatively at home. Therefore one possible outcome of bullying at work is the employee engaging in aggression inside and outside of the organization.

Hypothesis 1a: Higher frequencies of self-reported bullying in the workplace are associated with higher frequencies of self-reported aggression toward co-workers.
**Hypothesis 1b:** Higher frequencies of self-reported bullying in the workplace are associated with higher frequencies of self-reported aggression toward family, friends, and significant others outside of the workplace.

**Job Embeddedness and Responses to Bullying**

While past research has demonstrated that when faced with bullying at work, employees are likely to indicate their intentions to leave the organization (Housmand, O’Reilly, Robinson, & Wolff, 2012), what is less clear in the literature is what happens to the employees’ work and personal life when they cannot or do not want to leave the organization. In fact, the majority of victims of bullying do not leave their organization (Berthelsen et al., 2011). Therefore, linking the workplace bullying and workplace attachment literature could inform both theory and practice. Two of the most studied attachment constructs have been job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Job satisfaction refers to the degree individuals like their jobs (Spector, 1997). Organizational commitment has been defined as the strength of an employee’s identification with and involvement in an organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). The three components of an employee’s commitment to an organization have been referred to as affective (i.e., emotional attachment to organization), continuance (i.e., costs of leaving organization), and normative commitment (i.e., feelings of obligation to remain with organization) (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Most conceptualizations of organizational commitment focus on how it binds an employee to an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The degree to which individuals are satisfied or committed to their organization is strongly emphasized in theories and research on employee attachment, retention, and turnover (e.g., Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; Mowday et al., 1982). However, while research has demonstrated that organizational commitment and job satisfaction can influence individuals leaving or not leaving
their organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Spector, 1997), the focus of this research is on an attachment construct (i.e., job embeddedness) that has significantly advanced our understanding of employee retention over the past 10 years (Harman, Lee, Mitchell, Felps, & Owens, 2007; Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012).

Job embeddedness represents the variety of factors that influence a person’s decision to stay in an organization (i.e., retention). Mitchell and his colleagues (2001) argue that fit, links, and sacrifice, both on the job and in the community, are the key components that comprise job embeddedness. Fit represents the employees’ perception that their values, skills and beliefs match those of the organization or community. For example, if employees value the organization’s culture and love the place they live, this is likely to result in higher levels of fit in the organization and community. Links represent the number of connections an employee has in the organization or community. If employees are members of a large number of teams or committees in their organization, have many family members who live in the community, or actively volunteer in the community, the employees are likely to report higher levels of links both in the organization and community. Finally, sacrifice represents the tangible resources or psychological benefits the employees believe they will give up if they left the organization or community (e.g., salary, benefits, safe community, good day care, etc.). It is the combined forces of fit, links, and sacrifice, both on- and off-the-job, that keep individuals from leaving or bind them to their organizations (Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton, & Sablynski, 2004).

Embeddedness is similar to other attachment constructs (e.g., organizational commitment and job satisfaction) since they all deal with an employee’s connection to an organization. However, there are significant differences (for a complete discussion, please see Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007 or Yao et al., 2004). For example, job embeddedness represents
a person’s overall attachment to an organization by incorporating the work and non-work factors that connect someone to an organization. Organizational commitment and job satisfaction, on the other hand, only deal with on-the-job factors. In addition, while organizational commitment and job satisfaction often incorporate affective reasons for employees being attached to an organization, job embeddedness represents the overall attachment to an organization regardless of the affection for the organization. In fact, the employees may not even want to be embedded in the particular organization, but believe they cannot leave. Even with their conceptual similarities, recent meta-analytical evidence demonstrates that job embeddedness predicts intention to leave and actual turnover over and above commitment and satisfaction (Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012).

Job embeddedness was originally developed to explain why people stay in an organization and it has been consistently demonstrated to be associated with lower levels of turnover (e.g., Crossley et al., 2007; Mitchell et al., 2001). More recently, the concept of job embeddedness has been used to explain why people participate within organizations (Sekiguchi et al., 2008). For example, Lee et al. (2004) demonstrated that job embeddedness was associated with lower absenteeism and higher organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) and performance. Although the majority of the research in job embeddedness has focused on its positive aspects, there has been an interest in the possible “dark side” of job embeddedness (Sekiguchi et al., 2008). The idea that having highly embedded employees is not always beneficial for organizations focuses on the idea that employees who experience negative events, but are reluctant to leave the organization (as in the case when someone is highly embedded), begin to feel frustrated and trapped in their current unfavorable situation. These feelings of being stuck in an unpleasant situation can cause the employee to engage in a variety of
undesirable behaviors (e.g., lower performance, increase absenteeism, increase aggression, etc.).

For this study, I argue that when someone perceives themselves as a target of workplace bullying, but are highly embedded in the organization, this can lead the employee to become aggressive inside and outside the organization.

Hanisch and Hulin’s (1990; 1991) work on withdrawal can serve as a theoretical basis for the argument that the degree to which an employee is embedded in the organization can moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and aggression at work. In their research, they argue that employees can engage in two types of withdrawal in the face of dissatisfaction, namely work and job withdrawal. *Work* withdrawal focuses on dysfunctional behavior (e.g., lateness, absenteeism, etc.) that allows the employee to maintain their employment relationship. Supporting this idea, Sekiguchi et al. (2008) demonstrated that highly embedded employees (those who are reluctant to leave the employment relationship) who have a poor quality relationship with their immediate supervisor, responded by withdrawing from their organization by reducing their level of performance. *Job* withdrawal differs in that it focuses on the employee leaving the organization. Hulin (1991) argues that individuals are likely to progress from behaviors associated with work withdrawal to job withdrawal. This is consistent with Zapf and Gross’s (2001) study showing that individuals progress through various forms of responses to workplace bullying. Individuals may start with more proactive, positive attempts to deal with the bully, but over time, these attempts deteriorate and the targets of the bullying may become aggressive themselves and may eventually leave the organization.

However, what if the employees believe they cannot leave or do not want to leave the organization, such as the case when someone is highly embedded? For example, Berthelsen et al. (2011) found that although victims of bullying were likely to indicate their intentions to leave
the organization, in reality, most victims were still employed in the same organization and in the same position two years later. Berthelsen et al. (2011) postulated (but did not measure) that one reason these victims of bullying did not change positions or jobs could be the degree to which they were embedded in their organization. Individuals who feel “stuck” in an unpleasant situation may engage in forms of work withdrawal, including aggression, rather than job withdrawal (i.e., quitting).

Embeddedness is also likely to influence the degree to which employees engage in aggression outside of work in response to workplace bullying. Individuals may target individuals outside of work rather than the perpetrators of the bullying for a variety of reasons (i.e., fear of retaliation, fear of job loss, etc.). Research by Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu, & Hua (2009) demonstrated that individuals were likely to respond directly to their abusive supervisor only when they planned to leave the organization in the near future. In this case, the employees appeared not to fear retaliation from the bully because they planned to leave the organization. While an employee may act aggressively toward strangers outside of work when experiencing workplace bullying, the focus of this research is on the relationship between workplace bullying and aggressive behavior targeting those individuals closest to the employee. Individuals who perceive they are tightly bound to the negative situation of workplace bullying (i.e., in the case of being highly embedded) may be more likely to take their frustration out on persons they know outside of work, compared to individuals who perceive they can leave the organization (and hence the bullying situation) any time they choose (i.e., in the case of low embeddedness). While past research has found some evidence of abuse at work negatively impacting relationships outside of work (e.g., Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Carlson et al., 2011;
Restubog et al., 2011), these studies did not measure the degree to which the employees perceived they were embedded in a bullying situation.

Although the role of job embeddedness has not been studied in the relationship between workplace bullying and aggression, research on similar constructs may provide some indication as to how job embeddedness may operate. In the abusive supervision literature, Tepper (2000) demonstrated that when employees perceive they are stuck in their position (due to limited job mobility), the relationship between abuse and job satisfaction and depression was stronger. In addition, Dupré et al. (2006) found that when employees reported that they had financial reasons to stay in the organization, the relationship between abusive supervision and aggression toward the supervisor was stronger. Therefore, I predict that when someone is highly embedded in the organization, the relationship between workplace bullying and aggressive responses at work and outside of work will be stronger.

Hypothesis 2a: Job embeddedness will moderate the relationship between the frequency of workplace bullying and aggression such that when someone perceives themselves to be more embedded in the organization, they are more likely to become aggressive at coworkers.

Hypothesis 2b: Job embeddedness will moderate the relationship between the frequency of workplace bullying and aggression such that when someone perceives themselves to be more embedded in the organization, they are more likely to become aggressive to family, friends, and significant others outside of the workplace.

Methods
Participants for this study were working professionals registered with Amazon’s Mechanical Turk (MTurk) which has been shown to be a viable method of collecting data from a diverse sample of employees (Behrend, Sharek, Meade, & Wiebe, 2011; Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010). Participants were told the research was interested in understanding employee perceptions of bullying in the workplace and that they would be asked to complete on-line surveys at two different points in time, separated by approximately two weeks. The measurement of workplace bullying and aggression was separated to lessen concerns about common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). At time 1, participants answered questions regarding their experience of being bullied in the workplace, their perceived level of job embeddedness, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and various demographic variables. Employees were paid a small fee (e.g., $.10) for their completion of survey one and given the option of providing their email to receive the second survey in approximately two weeks. At time 2, participants reported how often they had acted aggressively toward coworkers or family, friends, and significant others. Those participants who completed the second survey were paid $.50 via MTurk.

This sampling procedure resulted in 397 individuals agreeing to complete the first survey. Since completion of the second survey was voluntary, not all of these individuals provided their email for the follow-up survey. In addition, not all of the individuals who provided their email completed the second survey. This resulted in a final sample size of 165 full-time employed individuals who completed both the time 1 and time 2 surveys. Utilizing Goodman and Blum’s (1996) tests for attrition bias indicated that attrition does not affect the relationships between the variables in the study. Twenty-nine percent of the respondents worked in business or engineering, with the remaining respondents working full time in other professions (e.g., health
care, sales, etc.). Fifty-one percent of the subjects were male and they averaged 31.00 years of age ($SD = 11.58$). In addition, they averaged 12.14 years of work experience ($SD = 11.24$) and had an average of 4.36 years of tenure with their current organization ($SD = 6.24$).

**Measures**

**Workplace bullying.** Employees in this study answered 11 items from the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ-R) designed to measure “person-related bullying” (Einarsen et al., 2009). Although most measures of workplace bullying (including the NAQ-R) include items dealing with both personal and work-directed behaviors (Zapf, Escartín, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2011), the focus of this study was on the personal forms of bullying since the items measuring work-related bullying may not be considered bullying by employees in this sample (e.g., “excessive monitoring of your work” may be attributed to the employee’s lack of experience, tight deadlines, etc.). Participants used a 7-point scale (1 = Never, 7 = Once a week or more) to indicate the frequency they had experienced episodes of workplace bullying during the last six months. Sample items include “being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work” and “being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm.” The 11 items were averaged to create the measure of workplace bullying ($M = 1.92, SD = 1.15, \alpha = .94$).

**Aggression at coworkers.** The frequency to which employees acted aggressively toward their coworkers over the past six months was measured with four items (1 = Never; 7 = Quite Frequently) adapted from a scale developed by Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, and Kessler (2006). All four items (“blamed co-workers for errors that you made”, “verbally insulted a coworker”, “withheld information from a coworker”, and “started an argument with a coworker”) were modified to focus on aggression directed at coworkers ($M = 1.44, SD = .81, \alpha = .83$).
THE ROLE OF JOB EMBEDDEDNESS…

**Aggression outside of work.** The frequency to which employees acted aggressively outside of work toward their family, friends, and significant others over the past six months was measured with four items (1 = Not at All; 7 = Quite Often) adapted from Denson, Pedersen, and Miller (2006). The four items (“became so upset at work that I became hostile toward family, friends, or significant other”, “when things at work didn’t go as I planned, I took my frustration out on family, friends, or significant other”, “someone or something at work made me angry and I took it out on my family, friends, or significant other”, and “I got upset with friends, family, or my significant other even though they were not the cause of my anger or frustration”) were averaged to form the measure of aggression outside of work targeting the employee’s family, friends, and significant others ($M = 2.14$, $SD = 1.36$, $\alpha = .96$).

**Job embeddedness.** The degree to which employees perceived themselves to be embedded in their organizations was assessed using Crossley et al.’s (2007) seven item scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 7 = Strongly Agree). Sample items include, “I am tightly connected to my organization” and “I feel tied to my organization.” Crossley et al.’s (2007) measure of job embeddedness examines the overall subjective impressions of attachment to an organization after asking subjects to consider both work (relationships, fit with job, and benefits) and non-work factors (neighbors, hobbies, and community perks). This approach to measuring job embeddedness has been shown to be highly correlated with the approach used by Mitchell et al. (2001) where they equally weight items measuring fit, links, and sacrifice (Crossley et al., 2007). In addition, Crossley et al. (2007) found that their measure of job embeddedness was a better predictor of outcomes, such as voluntary turnover, than other approaches to measuring job embeddedness. Consistent with past research, the seven items were averaged to create a composite measure of job embeddedness ($M = 3.95$, $SD = 1.50$, $\alpha = .91$).
Control variables. Employees’ level of negative affectivity and gender were controlled for to help rule out alternative explanations for perceptions of bullying and engaging in workplace aggression. It is likely that employees’ negative affectivity can influence their perceptions of bullying (e.g., Aquino & Thau, 2009; Bowling & Beehr, 2006). In addition, negative affectivity has been shown to be related to aggressive behavior in the workplace (Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999). Employees were asked ten items (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) designed to measure their general level of negative affectivity (1 = not at all; 7 = very much). The composite measure of negative affectivity was created by averaging the items ($M = 2.18$, $SD = 1.13$, $a = .93$). In addition, gender was controlled for because past research has demonstrated that men and women have different propensities for aggression (Bettencourt & Miller, 1996), have different preferences for the type of aggression they engage in at work (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994), and react differently to bullying (Brotheridge & Lee, 2010). Finally, I controlled for job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment since these attachment constructs are conceptually similar to the construct of job embeddedness (Mitchell et al., 2001). Job satisfaction was measured with three items (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Sample items include, “I am satisfied with my job” and “In general, I like my job.” The three items were averaged to form the measure of job satisfaction ($M = 4.72$, $SD = 1.74$, $a = .98$). Meyer and Allen’s (1997) measure of affective organizational commitment was measured with six items (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Sample items include, “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization” and “This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.” The six items were averaged to form the measure of affective organizational commitment ($M = 3.82$, $SD = 1.40$, $a = .86$).
Results

All means, standard deviations, and correlations for this study are reported in Table 1. In order to demonstrate adequate model fit for the variables of interest, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. Given the high number of items for some of the scales, parcels were created by balancing the best and worst items across the parcels (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002). The analysis demonstrates that the model fits the data and all loadings are above the .50 level (CFI = .97; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .05). Next, a single-factor model and a factor model where the items for all three attachment constructs load together were compared to the proposed factor model. Neither the single-factor model (CFI = .35; RMSEA = .26; SRMR = .27) nor the alternative model where the items for job embeddedness, affective organizational commitment, and job satisfaction are allowed to load together (CFI = .86; RMSEA = .12; SRMR = .11) fit the data well, and all alternative models provided a significantly worse fit ($p < .05$) than the proposed factor solution.

Please insert Table 1 about here

Hypothesis 1a stated that if employees report being bullied at work that this will be positively related to their self-reported aggression toward coworkers. To test this relationship, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted. After controlling for gender and negative affectivity (i.e., step 1), the addition of workplace bullying (i.e., step 2) to the regression equation explained an additional 9.1 percent of the variance in aggression targeting one’s coworkers ($F = 19.90, p < .001$). Hypothesis 1a is supported (Please see Table 2).
Hypothesis 1b stated that the experience of being bullied at work will be positively associated with self-reports of acting aggressively toward family, friends, and significant others outside of the workplace. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses, controlling for gender and negative affectivity, indicate that the addition of workplace bullying to the regression equation explains an additional 6.3 percent of the variance in self-reported aggression targeting family, friends, and significant others outside of work \((F = 14.24, p < .001)\). Hypothesis 1b is supported.

Hypothesis 2a and 2b stated that the level of a person’s job embeddedness moderates the relationship between being bullied and self-reports of workplace aggression targeting coworkers and aggression targeting family, friends, and significant others outside of the workplace. To test for moderation, the approach suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used. In addition, all variables were centered to help control for the effects of collinearity. In the first step, the control variables (i.e., negative affect, gender, job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment) as well as the independent variable (workplace bullying) and the moderator variable (job embeddedness) were entered into the regression model. In the second step, the interaction between workplace bullying and job embeddedness was added to the analysis. A significant interaction indicates moderation. The results of the regression analyses support hypothesis 2a and 2b (Please see Table 2). Specifically, the addition of the interaction between workplace bullying and job embeddedness explains an additional 2.3 percent of the variance in aggression directed at one’s coworkers \((F = 5.16, p < .05)\) and 1.8 percent of the variance in aggression targeting one’s family, friends, and significant others outside of work \((F = 4.15, p < .05)\).

The interaction was examined by setting the moderator at values +/- 1 standard deviation from the mean (Aiken & West, 1991). This analysis indicates that when employees perceive themselves as highly embedded in the organization, the positive relationship between workplace
bullying and self-reported aggression is strengthened (Please see Figures 1-2). Specifically, when individuals are highly embedded in the organization and report exposure to bullying, these individuals are significantly more likely than individuals who are not embedded to report that they acted aggressively toward their coworkers, as well as their family, friends, and significant others outside of the workplace. Hypothesis 2a and 2b are supported.

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Please insert Table 2 and Figures 1 – 2 about here

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Discussion

The results of this study indicate that the frequency of employee perceptions of workplace bullying is positively related to self-reported aggressive behavior targeting coworkers. In addition, employees who perceived more frequent episodes of bullying at work reported higher levels of aggressive behavior targeting others outside of work (i.e., family, friends, significant others). Finally, highly embedded employees reported higher levels of aggressive behavior toward their coworkers as well as their family, friends, and significant others when they experienced bullying at their organization than employees who were not as embedded in their organizations. This effect was found even after controlling for the employees’ level of job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. The findings of this study indicate that employees who perceive they are bullied may act aggressively toward others inside and outside the organization. This trickle-down effect is more pronounced for those who believe they cannot escape the bullying situation (i.e., those who are highly embedded).

This study makes a number of significant contributions to the field. First, past research and theorizing in workplace bullying has defined a series of steps bullied employees may be
likely to take in response to bullying, including leaving the organization. However, what has not been clear in the literature is what happens when the employees believe they cannot or do not want to leave the organization. This is especially important because most victims of bullying do not leave their organization (Berthelsen et al., 2011). While victims of bullying may not exit their organization for a variety of reasons (e.g., poor economic conditions, loyalty to the organization, etc.), the findings in this study indicate that when employees feel “stuck” or “bound” to an organization due to high levels of job embeddedness and experience workplace bullying, aggression toward coworkers as well as family, friends, and significant others can result. This is consistent with the research done by Hanisch and Hulin (1991) that argues that individuals who do not leave can find alternative ways to “withdraw” from the organization. In this study, that alternative method of withdrawal was aggression targeting one’s coworkers. Future research should examine how such types of aggression may further increase instances of abuse and bullying in the workplace leading to “spirals of incivility” (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). In addition, future research should explore additional relevant constructs, such as perceived job alternatives and organizational loyalty, that may influence the degree to which employees feel bound or attached to their organization and how this attachment to the organization can influence aggression targeting supervisors, coworkers, and subordinates.

As mentioned earlier, there has been a call for more research examining the effects of perceived workplace bullying on the behavior of the employee outside of the work setting. In this study, individuals who believed they were targets of workplace bullying behavior were significantly more likely to report higher levels of aggression targeting their family, friends, and significant others outside of the workplace compared to individuals who did not believe they were bullied at work. In this case the spiral of incivility appears to spread beyond the work
setting to one’s personal life, especially if the employee feels bound to the bullying workplace. Future research in this area should focus on how employees target specific individuals outside the workplace. In the present study, the focus was on self-reported aggressive behavior targeting family, friends, and significant others in general. It may be possible that individuals act differently to their family members than to their close friends and significant others when bullied at work. An additional interesting area for future research to examine is the role that being bullied at work plays in the decision to act aggressively toward customers and/or clients.

Finally, this study adds to the growing literature that demonstrates that being embedded in an organization is not always beneficial. The findings of this study indicate a specific situation where high embeddedness may have negative consequences. Specifically, when a person is highly embedded in a situation that involves bullying, this may have detrimental effects not only within the organization, but also on the employee’s family, friends, and significant others. In addition, the effects of job embeddedness on aggressive responses to bullying are over and above the effects of job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. Future research in this area should continue to identify potential boundary conditions to the positive and negative consequences of job embeddedness.

**Practical Implications**

There are also several practical implications based on the results of this study. First, given all the potential positive consequences of job embeddedness (i.e., higher performance, lower turnover, absenteeism, etc.), organizations still need to take steps to embed their best employees. However, leaders and managers need to be aware of the degree to which bullying occurs in their organization since highly embedded employees may respond to this bullying behavior by increasing their own level of aggression both inside and outside the organization.
To avoid such spirals of incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), managers and organizations must act quickly in response to reports of bullying, and providing training to employees to ensure that what constitutes bullying is understood by all organizational members and is considered unacceptable (Crothers, Lipinski, & Minutolo, 2009). Soylu (2011) and others (e.g., Bond, Tuckey, & Dollard, 2010; Law, Dollard, Tuckey, & Dormann, 2011) have found that when organizations take steps to create a positive organizational climate, instances of bullying can decline. Second, given the findings of this study that bullying behavior can lead to additional aggression, targets of this behavior should be counseled and supported to help them cope with the bullying (Crothers et al., 2009). This may be one step in breaking the escalating cycle of workplace bullying. Finally, for the bullies themselves, organizations must sanction this behavior immediately (e.g., change in job responsibilities, fired, etc.) and provide training to the bullies to help them change their behavior in the future (Crothers et al., 2009).

Study Limitations

The results of this study should be viewed in the context of its limitations. First, although data was collected over a two or three week window, this is not a longitudinal study or design. Therefore, we cannot be sure if workplace bullying leads to workplace aggression, or if there is a reversed or bidirectional relationship (e.g., if employees are known to act aggressively toward their coworkers or even their friends and family, this may cause others to target bullying behavior at them). Future research should attempt to examine workplace bullying over time, not only to establish clear directionality between bullying and subsequent aggression, but also a longitudinal design would allow researchers to see how prolonged exposure to workplace bullying influences a variety of important outcomes.
Second, the focus of this study was on overall perceptions of job embeddedness and how this may influence aggressive reactions to workplace bullying both inside and outside of the work setting. Although the global, perceptual measure of job embeddedness used in this study incorporates the ideas of fit, links, and sacrifice, it does not measure them explicitly (Zhan et al., 2012). Therefore, it is unclear which dimensions of job embeddedness are most important in influencing aggressive reactions to workplace bullying. However, this is not unusual as very few studies on job embeddedness examine fit, links, and sacrifice independently (Jiang et al., 2012) since it is the combined forces of fit, links, and sacrifice that bind someone to an organization (Yao et al., 2004). Future research examining the role that job embeddedness plays in reactions to workplace bullying should consider testing these relationships at the fit, links, and sacrifice (both on- and off-the-job) dimension. It is possible that some of these dimensions are more important than others in influencing reactions to workplace bullying. In addition, since this study controlled only for affective commitment and overall job satisfaction, future research should consider controlling for the multiple components of organizational commitment (i.e., affective, normative, continuance) and satisfaction (job, coworker, pay, etc.).

Third, the measurement of workplace bullying in this study focused on personal forms of bullying, rather than including work-related bullying items from the NAQ-R (Einarsen et al., 2009). This was done to gain a potentially clearer measure of workplace bullying since the respondents in this sample may not associate the items associated with “work-related” bullying to be actual bullying. For example, “being exposed to an unmanageable workload”, “being given tasks with unreasonable deadlines”, and “excessive monitoring of your work” may be bullying, but they could also be a function of tight deadlines, customer demands, or even economic factors such as managers and employees dealing with the effects of a downsizing
situation. Even if these types of behaviors persist for months at a time, employees may not view these as workplace bullying. However, future research should attempt to replicate these findings using the full NAQ-R measure.

Finally, information about aggression at work and outside of work was collected directly from the employee. One could argue that this leads to a less accurate measurement of aggression since some individuals may under-report their real level of aggression. However, recent research has demonstrated that self-reported measures of aggression are a good alternative to other-rated aggression (Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012). In addition, it may be that the tests of the hypotheses in this study are very conservative since it may be even harder to find significant results if the employees are under-reporting their actual level of aggression associated with workplace bullying. Even with this said, future research should collect aggression ratings from members of the employee’s family, friends, significant others, and peers to truly understand the role of workplace bullying on these behaviors.

**Conclusion**

This study is the first to examine how perceptions of job embeddedness may impact the relationship between exposure to workplace bullying and self-reported aggression at work and outside of work. The study’s findings indicate that being embedded in an organization is not always a positive thing. In fact, organizations that take steps to embed their employees must also be aware of how job embeddedness in combination with bullying may have negative consequences inside the organization as well as in the broader community.
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THE ROLE OF JOB EMBEDDEDNESS…

Table 1

*Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations*\(^a,b\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Workplace Bullying</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>(.94)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Aggression at Coworkers</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.46*** (.83)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Aggression Outside Work</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>.45*** .65*** (.96)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Job Embeddedness</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>(.91)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Negative Affectivity</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>.50*** .41*** .47*** .07</td>
<td>(.93)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>-.35*** -.23*** -.28*** .50*** -.36*** (.98)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Affective Commitment</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>-.23*** -.10</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>.65*** -.23*** .73*** (.86)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Gender</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.03</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

\(^a^*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001\) (two-tailed)

\(^b\)Numbers in parentheses are coefficient alpha.
Table 2

**Workplace Bullying and Job Embeddedness**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Aggression Outside of Work</th>
<th>Aggression at Coworkers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>β</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Affectivity</td>
<td>.33***</td>
<td>.28***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>-.18</td>
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<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workplace Bullying</td>
<td>.29***</td>
<td>.29***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Embeddedness</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workplace Bullying x Emb. c</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>.14*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total R²</strong></td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Change in R²</strong> d</td>
<td>.06***</td>
<td>.02*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001
b Standardized betas shown for final regression equation.
c Workplace Bullying x Emb. represents the interaction of workplace bullying and job embeddedness.
d Change in R² for the addition of Workplace Bullying or the interaction term (Workplace Bully x Job Embeddedness) to the regression equation. For the analyses, all variables were centered.
Figure 1. The Moderating Effect of Job Embeddedness in the Relationship between Workplace Bullying and Aggression Outside of Work
Figure 2. The Moderating Effect of Job Embeddedness in the Relationship between Workplace Bullying and Aggression Targeting Coworkers