Antecedents of Negative Emotions and Intention to Sabotage: Active and Passive Workplace Mistreatments

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ABSTRACT

Workplace mistreatments and aggressions have become pressing issues in today's multi-generational workplace. Yet, to date, these issues have been widely neglected in the management literature. This study empirically explores the resultant effects of active (i.e., workplace tolerance to incivility) and passive (i.e., workplace ostracism) mistreatment on negative emotion and intention to sabotage by utilizing a generational perspective. Data was collected from bank employees in Nigeria (n=320) and analyzed with the aid of a structural equation modeling. The results revealed that: (1) active and passive workplace mistreatment are relevant factors inflicting negative emotions and intention to sabotage; (2) negative emotion inflicts the intention to sabotage; and (3) negative emotion mediates the relationship between both active and passive workplace mistreatments and intention to sabotage. Furthermore, the impact of passive workplace mistreatment on negative emotion is higher among Gen X and Gen Y cohorts; and its impact on intention to sabotage is higher among baby boomers cohorts. The impact of active workplace mistreatment on negative emotion is higher among Gen Y and baby boomers cohorts; and its impact on intention to sabotage is higher among Gen X and Gen Y cohorts. This study advances our knowledge concerning reactional response of employee from different generation to workplace mistreatments. Based on study's findings, theoretical and practical implications are identified and discussed.

Keywords: Ostracism, Incivility, Negative Emotion, Intention to Sabotage, Generation, Nigeria.

ÖZ

İşyerinde yapılan kötü muamele ve saldırılar bugünün çok nesilli işyerlerinde önemli meselelerden biri haline geldi. Ancak bugüne kadar bu konular yönetim literatüründe yaygın olarak ihmal edilmiştir. Bu çalışma ampirik olarak, nesilden nesnel bir perspektif kullanarak sabotaja yönelik olumsuz duygu ve niyet üzerine aktif (kabalığa karşı işyerinin toleransı) ve pasif (işyerinde dışlama) kötü muamelenin sonuç etkilerini araştırmaktadır. Veriler Nijerya'daki banka çalışanlarından (n = 320) toplandı ve yapısal eşitlik modellemesi yardımıyla analiz edildi. Elde edilen sonuçlar şunları ortaya çıkardı: (1) işyerindeki aktif ve pasif kötü muamele, negatif duygulara ve sabotaja neden olan faktörlerdir; (2) negatif duygu, sabote etme niyetine neden olur ve (3) olumsuz duyguları sabote etmek için hem aktif hem de pasif işyeri kötü muamelesi ve niyeti arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık eder. Dahası, işyerinde yapılan pasif kötü muamelenin olumsuz duygu üzerine etkisi, x-kuşağı ve y-kuşağı'nda daha yüksektir; ve sabotaj niyeti üzerindeki etkisi bebek patlaması kuşakları arasında daha fazladır. Aktif işyeri kötü muamelesinin negatif duygu üzerine etkisi, y-kuşağı ve bebek patlaması kuşakları arasında daha yüksektir; ve sabotaj niyeti üzerindeki etkisi x-kuşağı ve y-kuşağı'nda daha baskınıdır. Bu çalışma, çalışanların farklı nesillerden işyerinde yapılan kötü muamelelere tepkisel tepki ile ilgili bilgilerimizi geliştirmektedir. Çalışmanın bulgularına dayanarak, teorik ve pratik sonuçlar belirlenmiş ve tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Dışlama, Kabalık, Negatif Duygu, Sabotaj Niyeti, Nesil, Nijerya

This study is dedicated to my beloved family for their endless love, kindness and

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Human beings are social creatures who need social relationships to share their emotions and feelings, improve their emotional resources, and retain their physical and psychological health (Heaphy & Dutton, 2008). Moreover, humans have basic needs to maintain solid and steady social ties and feel accepted by their social groups (Park & Baumeister, 2015). Baumeister and Leary (1995) argued that these needs accordingly determine individuals' behavioral, emotional and cognitive processes. Accordingly, lacking social bonds will cause individuals to experience low self-esteem, emotional distress and depression (Cacioppo, Hughes, Waite, Hawkley & Thisted, 2006; Leary, Tambor, Terdal & Downs, 1995).

In particular, social contacts and their quality comprehensively affect organizations and organizational outcomes (Wesselmann & Williams, 2017). Accordingly, researchers have dedicated substantial attention to examining consequences of workplace mistreatments. Literature has referred to mistreatments with different labels including unethical behavior, emotional abuse, bullying, ostracism, violence, retaliation, misconduct, incivility, aggression and revenge (Fida, Paciello, Tramontano, Fontaine, Barbaranelli & Farnese, 2015). Nonetheless, in spite of different specific definitions, all work mistreatments and interpersonal conflicts are serious universal issues in organizations (Chappell & Di Martino 2006). For instance, abusive supervision (Detert, Trevino, Burris & Andiappan, 2007) and perceived

injustice/unfairness (Cohen-Charash & Mueller 2007; Jones, 2009) have been found to escalate counterproductive work behavior (CWB). Damaged and negative workplace relationships magnify employees' negative feelings and stress level (MacDonald, Karasek, Punnett & Scharf, 2001). Spector and Fox (2005) supported this idea by arguing that all workplace misbehaviors have potential or/and actual detrimental impacts on both employee and organization and negatively affect employees' well-being (Lim & Cortina, 2005).

As noted by Hitlan, Kelly, Schepman, Schneider and Zárate, (2006a) workplace mistreatment as a form of exclusionary behaviors divided into passive (i.e., workplace ostracism) and active (i.e., incivility, bullying and sexual harassment). Ostracism as one of most common causes of interpersonal conflicts is the extent to which individuals have the perception of being ignored or excluded (Williams & Zadro, 2001). In addition, as a passive form of mistreatment, workplace ostracism is defined as "painful and aversive experience which causes a sense of social pain" (Eisenberger, Lieberman & Williams, 2003, p. 291). That is to say, compared to other types of obvious, direct and visible misbehaviors (e.g., verbal abuse and incivility) ostracism (silence or no response to a greeting) is more covert and indirect (Williams & Zadro, 2001).

Ostracism can happen in the different kinds of social groups such as families, religious groups, schools and organizations (Nezlek, Wesselmann, Wheeler & Williams, 2012). Organizational studies have confirmed that ostracism threats different types of resources employees need to deal with daily events (Ferris, Berry, Brown & Lian, 2008a; Wu, Hong-kit, Kwan & Zhang, 2012). Ignoring or excluding individuals and their perception of a social rejection will result in numerous reflexive

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and immediate negative reactions such as imperiled psychological needs, negative affect and pain) which are followed by reflective or delayed reactions such as CWB (Bernstein, 2016; Williams, 2009).

Most of scholarly works on the consequences of workplace ostracism have focused on employees' performance and psychological issues (Wu, Hong-kit Yim, Kwan & Zhang, 2012). In this regard, workplace ostracism and the perception of unfriendly work environment have been found out to significantly affect employees' psychological health and manners (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2016; Heaphy & Dutton, 2008; Wu et al., 2012), and cause them to have depression, anxiety (Ferris et al., 2008a; Hitlan et al., 2006a), psychological pain (Colligan & Higgins, 2006) and negative emotions (Wu et al., 2012).

In stressful job conditions, employees easily fall into emotionally exhausted mood, which consequently negatively affect organizational outcomes (Vickers, 2006). Organizational literature has likewise supported this notion and indicated that in addition to lower levels of psychological health, ostracism results in higher turnover intentions, job search behavior (Ferris et al., 2008a; Hitlan et al., 2006) and job dissatisfaction (Wu et al., 2012).

As stated earlier, negative feelings and higher stress level are consequences of damaged workplace relationships (MacDonald et al., 2001). As a particular kind of employees' mistreatment (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), incivility embodies a subgroup of antisocial behavior (Giacolone & Greenberg, 1997). Incivility has been described as having lack of respect and honor for those individuals at whom the uncivil behavior is being directed (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

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Workplace incivility is also reported to reinforce psychological distress (Cortina, Magley, Williams & Langhout, 2001) and feelings of loneliness and frustration among employees (Vickers, 2006). Thus, as time goes by, disrespected employees will have less commitment and loyalty toward their jobs (Montgomery, Kane & Vance, 2004). Incivility similar to ostracism leads to depression, anxiety, job dissatisfaction, job tension, turnover intentions (Ferris et al., 2008a), emotional exhaustion, depressed mood (Wu, et al., 2012), lower job performance and decline in employees' contribution to the organization (Leung, Wu, Chen & Young, 2011).

In the same research stream, according to Abubakar and Arasli (2016), relational conflicts at work can also lead to intention to disrupt or harm the service flow in the organization. However, with respect to sabotage perspective, Abubakar and Arasli (2016) stated that before the actual sabotage incidence, the first step is the intention to sabotage the work or service flow. Accordingly, they defined intention sabotage as "a negative dispositional attitude, negative destructive state of mind, which is characterized by alienation, withdrawal and termination" (p. 1269). Stressors (e.g., workplace ostracism and incivility) characteristically cause employees to experience provoked negative emotions (Fox, Spector & Miles, 2001) which subsequently seem to be a significant precursor antecedent of intention to sabotage. Hence, intention to sabotage can be a behavioral reaction to perceived stressors, or more generally, frustrating circumstances at work, which interferes with employees' work processes.

Additionally, the significant role that negative emotions play in the occurrence of undesirable work behavior (e.g., CWB) has been established by several studies. With respect to job stressor, emotions play a central role in the job stress process as they are the immediate reactions to stressful situations (Lazarus, 1995; Payne, 1999)

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which subsequently motivate and stimulate subsequent physiological and behavioral changes (Spector, 1998). Along the same line, Fox et al. (2001) discovered positive and significant relationships among employee's negative emotions (e.g., anxiety, anger and frustration) and a variety of CWB (sabotage, interpersonal aggression, absenteeism, and theft). Thereby, negative emotions can act as a mediator in the relationship between workplace ostracism, tolerance to incivility and intention to sabotage. In other words, experienced negative emotions caused by workplace mistreatments increase behavioral reactions such as intention to sabotage.

In today's workplace, employees form different ages, background, and generations are working together (Costanza, Badger, Fraser, Severt & Gade, 2012). Although previously different generations were working together in the same organizations as well; however, they were normally being separated from each other. This separation could be due to the jobs' protocols, hierarchy, formality, features, and descriptions. For instance, while middle-aged employees were likely to be in middle management positions, younger employees were located in other positions (Gursoy, Maier & Chic, 2008). Nevertheless, recently, huge changes have occurred in the working environment and people from different generations are working closely the each other in workplaces for the first time in the history (Gursoy et al., 2008). According to Zemke et al. (2000) in modern organizations, individuals work next to people who can be as old as their parents or as young as their children.

As individuals from the same generational groups are inclined to have shared norms, values, and characteristics, they are also expected to share same work value and attitudes (Gursoy et al., 2008). The basic life experiences of each generation are likely to be relatively unchanging during their lives (Smola & Sutton, 2002).

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Therefore, each generation has an exclusive personality which defines its feelings and perceptions toward organization (Kupperschmidt, 2000; Smola & Sutton, 2002). For instance, varying among different generations, these generational personalities can determine what employees wish to get from their work and what their desired workplace look like (Gursoy et al., 2008).

Along with the same line of reasoning Zvikaite-Rotting (2007) believed that employees from different generations may not be able to understand each other's perspectives. These misunderstandings may cause stress, confusion and frustration. As a result, academics have shown considerable attention to generational differences in workplace attitudes and behaviors (Chen & Choi, 2008; Park & Gursoy, 2012; Parry & Urwin, 2011) such as work arrangements (Carlson, 2004), career development (McDonald & Hite, 2008) and workplace misbehaviors (Gross, 2009; Pharo et al., 2011).

Considering that each generation has its own sets of values and behaviors due to the period in which they were born (Fountain & Lamb, 2011), reception and reaction to workplace mistreatments vary across them (Joshi, Dencker & Franz, 2011). Hence, this study aims to explore the reactional responses of employees from different generations to both active and passive workplace mistreatments.

While Samnani and Singh (2012) noted that mistreatment studies have been relatively unexplored, Reio and Ghosh (2009) called for more exploration concerning uncivil workplace behaviors aimed at understanding and lowering such misbehaviors. Building on the ideas presented above, current inquiry will shed light from a generational horizon and seek to explore whether workplace ostracism and

tolerance to workplace incivility would be associated with increased negative emotional feelings and the intention to sabotage.

1.1 Contribution of the Study

The frequencies of and consequences caused by workplace mistreatments are believed to be among the most severe problems that organizations are dealing with nowadays (Bennett & Robinson, 2003). Nonetheless, current studies on relational mistreatments in organizations hardly reflect the issues of ostracism and tolerance incivility in workplace simultaneously with consideration of impacts of generational differences on employees' reactions to such unpleasant situations. Concisely, this study contributes to the organizational and management literature in different ways. First and foremost, it validated a newly developed scale (i.e., intention to sabotage) and its antecedents in banking industry in Nigeria. As reviewing of the relevant literature revealed, although service sabotage has been identified and analyzed in various contexts, yet "intention to sabotage" is a new concept which has been overlooked by the organizational literature (Abubakar & Arasli, 2016).

Second, current study correspondingly contributes to the growing literature of workplace ostracism and tolerance to incivility by exploring passive and active forms of mistreatment in a single study. Analyzing the joint effects of passive and active workplace mistreatments would provide a finer-grained theoretical analysis than prior studies which explored the phenomena individually, as this has not been examined elsewhere and particularly not in the Nigerian banking industry.

Third, at this juncture, this study attempts to advance knowledge concerning the reactional responses of employees form different generations. Therefore, it

investigates the role of generation as a possible moderator among active and passive workplace misbehaviors and undesirable work behavioral outcomes (e.g., intention to sabotage).

Forth, current study also utilized a unique sample of employees in Nigeria, Africa's largest economy and one of the fastest growing economies in the world which has diverse middle and working class employees. Sanusi (2012), the former governor of Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), noted that "a well-functioning financial system matters to everyone and to the economy at large." The banking industry in Nigeria experienced a reform which led to several mergers and acquisitions. Hitherto, mergers and acquisitions have been associated with a range of negative behavioral outcomes such as acts of theft, sabotage, increased voluntary turnover and absenteeism (Cartright, 2006, cf. Gunu, 2009). In addition, a study in the Nigerian banking industry found that humane treatment of employees is a strategy to enhance organizational performance and employee retention (Gberevbie, 2010).

Finally, taken all together, this study, not only offers a theoretical explanation for the psychological process of the correlation between situations and behavior, but also indicates at where in this relationship individual differences such as generation may become an influential factor.

1.2 Research Objectives

Even though both workplace ostracism and workplace tolerance to incivility are detrimental for organizations and both have negative consequences in a workplace; there is a need to combine them as active and passive type of workplace mistreatments and understand the mechanism through which they lead to detrimental

outcomes such as intention to sabotage. The Nigerian banking and insurance employees in that sense provide with a rich source of information as the industry is struggling with numerous challenges regarding interpersonal conflicts. Despite its importance, this topic has not been studied extensively in the literature. Accordingly, the main objectives of this research are to answer following questions:

Q1: Does workplace ostracism and workplace tolerance to incivility cause negative emotions and latter intention to sabotage?

Q2: Can generation be a moderating factor changing the degree to which workplace ostracism and tolerance to incivility affect negative emotion and intention to sabotage?

1.3 Outline of the Study

The thesis comprises of five chapters. Chapter One (introduction) presents background and context about the subject, aims and objectives of the study, rationale and the reason why the study is conducted, and the research questions.

Chapter Two (literature review) presents a review of the relevant literature. It discusses workplace ostracism and tolerance to incivility, negative emotions and intention to sabotage. In addition to reviewing findings of previous researches about these concepts, it also offers theoretical frameworks by which the focal relationships can be explained.

Chapter Three (methodology) provides information about how the research is conducted, including data collection process and research and sampling methods which researcher used for the analysis.

Chapter Four (data analysis) presents findings and results.

Chapter Five (findings and discussion) discusses and interprets the findings of the study. It also includes managerial implications, limitations of the present research and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Workplace Mistreatments

Workplace mistreatment is a broad concept which covers a full variety of negative psychological and physical interactions among individuals in the work environment (Cortina et al., 2001). According to the literature workplace mistreatments consist of five different forms of abusive supervision, ostracism, undermining, incivility, and unwanted sexual attention (Sulea, Filipescu, Horga, Ortan & Fischmann, 2012). Social support and healthy work relationships play significant role in employee's well-being. Once such kind of support is endangered by work mistreatments, the employees will be more inclined to engage in a spiral of losses, and experience negative emotions (Sulea et al., 2012). These negative interactions can also affect employees' personal lives (Cortina et al., 2001).

However, due to the reasons discussed earlier, in the current study, the focus is on two types of dysfunctional interactions at work, namely ostracism and incivility. Therefore, the current study aims to investigate how different types of interpersonal mistreatment in the work contexts (i.e., active and passive) linked to negative emotions and intention to sabotage.

2.2 Ostracism

Human beings are social creatures whose their psychological and physical well-being considerably depend on their social relationships (Wesselmann & Williams, 2017). Humans need social relationships to share their emotions and feelings, improve their emotional resources and retain their physical and psychological health (Heaphy & Dutton, 2008). More importantly, they need to maintain their social relationships to survive, be happy and secure (Lieberman, 2013). On the other hand, undesirable and detrimental social relationships can threaten people's psychological needs and social lives (Smart Richman & Leary, 2009).

Social interactions can satisfy four main psychological needs of humans (Wesselmann & Williams, 2017) including need for belongingness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), need for positive self-esteem (Tesser, 1988), need for having control over their surroundings (Burger, 1992; Rothbaum, Weisz & Snyder, 1982) and need for a meaningful existence (Heine, Proulx & Vohs, 2006). Conversely, poor social relationships generate serious negative psychological and physical outcomes for excluded people (Leary et al., 1998a).

Human beings' psychological system has been developed in a way that it can inspect and detect signals of relational and social acceptance (Leary, 2005; Leary & Guadagno, 2004). When accepted by others, individuals will have positive feelings about themselves and higher self-esteem (Leary, 1999; 2005). Conversely, being rejected and excluded by others damages ones self-esteem and interpersonal value and encourages behaviors which can avert such threats (Leary, 1990; Leary,

Springer, Negel, Ansell & Evans, 1998b; Leary, Haupt, Strausser & Chokel, 1998a; Leary & Guadagno, 2004).

Ostracism is an undesirable social experience whose origins go back to the beginning of the history (Forsdyke, 2009). Williams, (2001) defined ostracism as the sense of being excluded and ignored by other individuals either explicitly and in front of others (e.g., receiving a cold shoulder by someone), or implicitly and nonverbally (e.g., not getting any given contact) and causing others to feel unseen (Böckler, Hömke & Sebanz, 2014). It also refers to be the feeling of being forgotten by (King & Geise, 2011) or receiving an awkward silence from other individuals (Koudenburg, Postmes & Gordijn, 2011).

Compared to other active forms of interpersonal conflicts like bullying and incivility, ostracism is more a passive type of relational aggression (Leung et al., 2011; Zhao, Peng & Sheard, 2013). It can happen in different ways such as leaving the area intentionally, giving a silent treatment to the particular individuals (Liu, Kwan, Lee & Hui, 2013), not answering while one is speaking or leaving once one enters the room (Wesselmann & Williams, 2017). Remarkably, some studies discussed that being excluded from social engagement has more negative psychological effect than being exposed to hostility (O'Reilly, Robinson, Berdahl & Banki, 2015). Supporting the same argument, MacDonald and Leary (2005) have equaled social exclusion to "social death."

Ostracism often happens with no explicit explanation or overt negative attention (Williams, 2007). However, academic works have indicated that due to the fact that people may not recognize why they are being ostracized, ostracism can create the

perception of meaningless life (Stillman, Baumeister, Lambert, Crescioni, DeWall & Fincham, 2009) and remarkably overwhelm individuals' self-esteem. Henceforward, individuals cognitively list all of their negative characteristics which can be the reason behind this negative experience. This can eventually multiple the impacts of depriving from social connection (Ferris, Lian, Brown, & Morrison, 2015). Ostracized individuals eventually behave in a way that enables them to strengthen and compensate their self-esteem and belonging needs, which are threatened by ostracism (Williams, 2009). In their meta-analysis, Gerber and Wheeler (2009) likewise argued that ostracism affects individual's need of control, which subsequently cause them to show some antisocial reactions.

Social psychology literature revealed that being ostracized by other individuals not only causes individuals to experience negative mood (Gonsalkorale & Williams, 2007), but also can be among the most painful emotional experiences that a human can ever face (e.g., Van Beest & Williams, 2006; Williams, Cheung & Choi, 2000). The reason can be the inner tendency that human beings have for being noticed, which makes this staying unseen by others a cruel penance for them (Wesselmann & Williams, 2017). Blackhart, Knowles, Nelson, and Baumeister (2009) in their meta-analysis documented that ostracism can generate emotional numbness and stated that "Taken together, rejected people feel worse than accepted or neutral ones." (p. 294).

Further, results of 62 ostracism studies expose that ostracized individuals experience more negative mood and less positive mood comparing to those who haven't had such experiences (Gerber & Wheeler, 2009). Ostracism, as an interpersonal stressor, not only cause psychological distress and pain (Williams, 2001), but also, according to social psychological literature can activate those parts of the brain which are

related to physical pain (Eisenberger & Lieberman, 2005; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). This can subsequently generated a sense of misery, lonesomeness and depression (Williams, 2007).

Several studies in the literature supported the notion that the perception of being ostracized adversely influence individuals' psychological needs, attitudes, affects (Robinson, O'Reilly, & Wang, 2013), life distress, and physical health (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). Negative social experiences such as feeling emotionally or physically excluded makes individuals to experience depression and feel separated, helpless and worthless (Riva, Montali, Wirth, Curioni & Williams 2016). It also results in various negative emotional outcomes such as shame (Chow, Tiedens, & Govan, 2008), sadness (Buckley, Winkel & Leary, 2004), anger (Chow et al., 2008; Zadro, Williams & Richardson, 2004) and generalized hurt feelings (Leary et al., 1998b). Ostracized individuals also tend to have lower ability to self-regulate impulsive reactions (Oaten, Williams, Jones & Zadro, 2008).

2.2.1 Workplace Ostracism and Its Consequences

Ostracism is a common universal phenomenon (Nezlek et al., 2012) which not only happens in dyads, but also it happens in larger contexts (Williams, 2009). In other words, to be ignored, overlooked and excluded by others (either individuals or groups) is a shared occurrence in all social contexts (Williams, 1997) including work environments (Hitlan et al., 2006a). For this reason, various scholars examined ostracism in different social contexts such as schools (e.g., Gilman, Carter-Sowell, DeWall, Adams & Carboni, 2013) and organizations (e.g., Ferris, Brown, Berry & Lian, 2008b; Robinson et al., 2013). Moreover, emphasizing on the importance of ostracism and its frequent occurrence in work contexts, Ferris et al., (2008b) and Wu et al. (2012) noted that ostracism happens in almost all organizations. Supporting

these claims, findings of Fox and Stallworth's (2005) study showed that 66 per cent of employees who participated in their study have received "the silent treatment" at their work.

Workplace ostracism refers to "a situation in which an individual or group omits to take actions that engage another organizational member when it is socially appropriate to do so" (Robinson et al., p. 206). Workplace ostracism is an indication to the targets that she/he is not observed as a valuable colleague who deserves others' acceptance (Robinson et al., 2013). The perception of not being a part of other groups and being less valuable than others weakens the quality of social interaction between individuals, and negatively affects their psychological health, emotions and manners (Colligan & Higgins, 2006; Ferris et al., 2008b; Heaphy & Dutton, 2008; MacDonald et al., 2001; Wu et al., 2012). Ostracism also thwarts individual's ability to establish and retain positive social relationships, reputation and work success in their workplaces (Robinson et al., 2013).

As mentioned earlier, four essential human needs of self-esteem, belongingness, control and meaningful existence are threatened by workplace ostracism (Williams, 1997; 2001). Consequently, employees who are the targets of this undesirable behavior tend to be angry, resentful, afflicted (Mount, Ilies & Johnson, 2006), hostile, aggressive (Leung et al., 2011; Warburton, Williams & Cairns, 2006) and have severed workplace relationship (Ferris, et al., 2008a). Such experiences and feelings are not only exceptionally painful, but also under some conditions can lead to deprived well-being (Hitlan et al., 2006a), frustration, depression, anxiety (Anderson & Pulich, 2001; Colligan & Higgins, 2006; Ferris et al., 2008a). Ostracism can likewise cause psychological distress (Wu et al., 2012, 17), feelings of loneliness and sadness (Hitlan et al., 2006a; Hitlan, Cliffton & DeSoto, 2006b),

emotional exhaustion (Wu et al., 2012), and negative emotions (Gonsalkorale & Williams, 2007).

In the same line of reasoning, workplace ostracism have been confirmed to be related to negative workplace behaviors such as harassment and aggression (O'Reilly, Robinson, Banki & Berdahl, 2011), turnover intention (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999), deviant behaviors (Hitlan & Noel, 2009; Smart Richman & Leary, 2009), inferior performance (Hitlan et al., 2006b), inferior in-role performance (Ferris et al., 2008b) and CWB (e.g., Zhao et al., 2013; Yan, Zhou, Long & Ji, 2014).

Earlier studies in social psychology concluded that being ignored or rejected is a negative social experience that leads to a sense of hatred toward the sources of exclusion (Craighead, Kimball & Rehak, 1979; Fenigstein, 1979; Predmore & Williams, 1983). Despite the fact that ostracism is a painful experience, its occurrence may be without any spiteful intention or without any intentions at all (Williams, 1997). Yet, reactions toward ostracism vary among of employees (Zhao et al., 2013). Ostracized or excluded employees may take both indirect or/and reciprocal actions toward their coworkers (Ferris et al., 2008b; Zhao et al., 2013). On one hand, they may get involved in less dramatic behaviors and avoid any direct contact with their offenders (Ferris et al., 2008a). On the other hand, targets of ostracism may demonstrate revengeful behaviors (Ferris et al., 2008a; Twenge & Campbell, 2003), anti-social behaviors such as anger and aggression (Leung et al., 2011; Warburton et al., 2006) and preventive, harmful and hostile reactions (Park & Baumeister, 2015; Baumeister, Brewer, Tice, & Twenge, 2007). They may even be less collaborative with other people (DeWall, Twenge, Gitter & Baumeister, 2009; Twenge, Baumeister, DeWall, Ciarocco & Bartels, 2007). Employees can convince

themselves that the reason behind their negative emotions is the organization and its members and as a result they deserve these kinds of aggressive behaviors (Penney & Spector, 2005).

Supporting the same notion, Abubakar and Arasli (2016) have also discovered that cynicism, as a kind of negative emotional state, inflicts the intention to sabotage; therefore, current study equally expects workplace ostracism to manifest the intention to sabotage.

Current study believes that COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) provides adequate and proper guidance to develop the relationships among ostracism, negative emotions, and intention to sabotage.

COR theory posits that individuals' well-being significantly depends on their resources. The resources in COR theory defined as "objects, personality characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of these objects, personal characteristics, or energies" (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 516). Hence individuals try to conserve, protect, and build valuable personal resources (self-esteem) and job resources (co-worker support) (Wright & Hobfoll, 2004). COR theory suggests that individuals employ a kind of behavior by which they can reduce the frequent depletion and maintain those valuable resources needed for confronting tense situations (Leung et al., 2011).

To preserve their resources employees need to share their feelings and have emotional relationships with others (Heaphy & Dutton, 2008). Adversely affecting individuals' feelings (Liu at al., 2013), ostracism (as a stressor) diminishes those

resources needed for fulfilling work demands (Silver, Poulin & Manning, 1997; Wu et al., 2012). Losing their valuable resources, this study proposes ostracized individuals will face negative emotions and may have the intention to sabotage the service of their organization. Therefore, based on the literature, previous findings and mentioned theories it is expected that being omitted by other coworkers in the work environment gives a rise to negative emotions and intention to sabotage (which will be fully discussed in following sections). Therefore, this study hypothesizes that:

H1a: Workplace ostracism is positively related to employee's negative emotions.

H1b: Workplace ostracism is positively related to the intention to sabotage.

2.3 Workplace Incivility and Its Consequences

Recently researchers' attentions have comprehensively been drawn to relational misbehaviors in the workplace. Bullying, violence, incivility and sexual harassment are among brutal and hostile experiences, which seem to negatively affect work environment (Baillien & De Witte, 2009; Saunders, Huynh & Goodman-Delahunty, 2007). Among these, workplace incivility is defined by Andersson and Pearson (1999) as "low-intensity, disrespectful or rude deviant workplace behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target and is in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others." (p. 457). Moreover, according to Kane and Montgomery (1998) incivility is a "treatment that is discourteous, rude, impatient, or otherwise showing a lack of respect or consideration for another's dignity" (p. 266).

In agreement with these definitions Pearson and Porath (2009) defined workplace incivility as "exchange of seemingly inconsequential words and deeds that violate

conventional norms of workplace conduct" (p. 21). These rude manners comprise of gossip, rolling eyes at colleagues' ideas, emailing/texting throughout the meetings, giving offensive comments, not saying thank you or/and please, and neglecting or affronting coworkers (Pearson, Andersson & Wegner, 2001; Pearson & Porath, 2009). Such misbehaviors denotes isolation (e.g., from significant activities at work), disrespectful behaviors (e.g., public humiliation) and verbal hostility (e.g., swearing) (Lim & Cortina, 2005).

An important challenge to incivility is that it is a subjective incidence. In other words, as Loi and Loh (2015) stated, individuals have different interpretation and perceptions of incivility. Circumstances and participants can cause incivility to be perceived as deliberately repulsive or not. As Pearson and Porath (2004) debated minorities, females, vote-less employees, temporary employees, part-timers, and outsourcers are more susceptible to incivility.

Furthermore, some researchers discussed that gender can influence the perception of what is considered aggressive (e.g., Berdahl & Moore, 2006). As females are more sensitive to social behaviors, they notice relational conflicts and incivility more in their workplaces (Loi & Loh, 2015). Green, Goodman, Krupnick, Corcoran, Petty, Stockton and Stern (2000) in their study, examining 1,909 sophomore females, discovered that emotional health of those who had experienced different kinds of social ordeals had suffered considerably more than other groups. In addition, Berdahl and Moore (2006) and Montgomery et al. (2004) found that women consider harassing or uncivil behaviors more improper, offensive, or discourteous.

Another significant concept in the definition of incivility is the notion of ambiguity. It does not have to be offender's purpose to intentionally distress or suffer affected individuals. In fact, offender's unawareness of the consequences of his/her behavior, or target's sensitiveness and misinterpretation can increase incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). This unclear nature of workplace incivility creates a difficulty in identifying and dealing with it (Loi & Loh, 2015). However, despite its indirect and unclear nature workplace incivility can be extremely detrimental for both targets and the organization. In fact, workplace incivility can be as psychologically destructive as harassment and other kinds of workplace misbehaviors.

By examining more than 2,000 individuals, Cortina et al. (2001) also exposed that almost 80 per cent of the participants stated that having no regard and good manners is an important issue and almost 60 per cent stated that the situation is even becoming worse. Particularly in the workplaces, a significant number of employees perceive themselves as targets of these disrespects (Roche, Fox, Kaufer, Pearson, Porath & Schouten, 2003). Other individuals believe that informal work environment boost workplace incivility as they there will be less signs of proper relational behavior. Similarly, according to Holm, Torkelson and Bäckström (2015) a "me first" behavior and new types of psychological contracts can give a rise to workplace incivility.

Studying workplace incivility, Cortina et al. (2001) discovered that more than 70 per cent of the participants had an experience of incivility in their past five years at work. Likewise, Graydon, Kasta and Khan (1994) and Wesselmann, Wirth, Pryor, Reeder and Williams (2015) studied front line employees in their research and found that, during the last 3 years, more than 50 per cent of participants had experienced such

misbehaviors at least 1 time. Moreover, Pearson and Porath's (2009) uncovered that 96 per cent of the participants in their study had experienced incivility at work and 94 per cent of those who were victimized by uncivil acts mentioned that they will "get even" with the offenders.

Incivility, or employees not having respect for one another, is pervasively going to cost organizations (Lim & Cortina, 2005). Although incivility is a common occurrence in organizations, yet many failed to identify it. in addition, only a small number of managers understand its detrimental impacts, and most of them are not well-equipped to handle it (Pearson & Porath, 2005). Although there is no organization which directly promotes or encourages incivility, as literature denotes, incivility occurs in the work settings frequently and continuously (Loi & Loh, 2015) and became a predominant enigma for most of the organizations (Trudel, 2009).

Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p. 19) referred to psychological stress as "relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being." According to this definition, thus, any incident perceived by the employees to be tense and stressful can negatively affect work environment. Incivility is viewed as a stressor by some scholars (e.g., Griffin, 2010; Lim, Cortina & Magley, 2008). A stressful atmosphere inspires incivility and results in additional reciprocal aggressive behaviors (Holm et al., 2015). According to Andersson and Pearson (1999) incivility can turn into a negative spiral and reciprocal social manners between involved parties. In other words, incivility can intensify targets' responses to the aggression, promote relational conflicts (Holm et al., 2015), and adversely affect the work environment (Pearson, Andersson & Porath, 2000).

Uncivil behavior at work is costly for organizations in many ways, as it can cause toxic work environment for the victims and the witnesses; for those who directly encounter uncivil behavior, as well as those who are witnessing it directed toward others or organization (Montgomery et al., 2004). Incivility makes disregarded employees, eyewitnesses, and other stakeholders to behave in such manners that abolish organization's values and diminish its resources (Pearson & Porath, 2005). Workplace incivility and stress can influence the quality of work (Leiter, Price & Laschinger, 2010). Moreover, as a kind of daily hassle (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Lazarus, 2006), incivility can negatively affect organizations' and employees' psychological, physical (Loi, Loh & Hine, 2015; Reio & Ghosh, 2009) and occupational wellbeing (Lim & Cortina, 2005).

Additionally, uncivil behaviors at work or employees' lack of regard for one another cause numerous negative outcomes for organizations. It can result in higher work withdrawal (Lim et al., 2008; Pearson and Porath, 2009), higher turnover (Lim et al., 2008; Reio & Ghosh, 2009). It results in lower loyalty, job satisfaction, productivity and performance (Pearson & Porath, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005; Reio & Ghosh, 2009), and worsens work effort and work quality (Pearson & Porath, 2005). Incivility similarly leads to tarnished organizations' reputation, damaged organizational relationships and weakened customer satisfaction (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

Targets of uncivil behaviors experience negative emotions which can consequently lead to aggression (Porath & Pearson, 2012). Yet, surprisingly, rarely target employees report this hostility to managers and supervisors who can handle it. Instead, when confronting with incivility at work, some employees consider changing their job in order to avoid repetition of these behaviors. Some may steal

from perpetrator or/and organizations and some may sabotage the work machineries. Some targets may come up with covert ways to get even with their perpetrators (Pearson & Porath, 2005). In some cases, the perpetrator and the target can keep on reciprocating the uncivil behavior toward each other, intensify the violation, or leave the scenes. When the offense is intensified by both parties it will get more aggressive each time and may even lead to physical hostility (Pearson & Porath, 2005).

Moreover, sometimes targets of incivility will share their negative experience with other peers, friends and family members who were not involved or did not even observe the situation (Pearson et al., 2001). Consequently, these third parties might come up with a way to get even with the instigators in targets' favors. What is more, being aware of incivility happening in their work environments, these third parties may reduce organizational resources, either by refusing to help the instigator, ruining the instigator's reputation, or informing other coworkers about the incivility which has happened (Pearson & Porath, 2005).

However, the important notion is that most of these happen without organizations even being aware of them. Due the fact that there are no existing laws against incivility, it is more risky and difficult to be complained about. In addition, organizations not noticing incivility and targets not reporting it can make it a kind of phenomenon that is rarely recognized in organizations.

As discussed earlier, there are numerous reasons that cause incivility to be ignored and unsolved in the work environment. Some managers do not even hear about incivility in their organizations and if they do so they consider it as personal matters and do not wish to be involved in employees' interpersonal problems. Few managers

allow or even reward this hostility as a competitive advantage. Nevertheless, overlooking these rude and hostile behaviors can seriously affect targets, their family and friends, other employees, customers and the organization itself (Pearson & Porath, 2005). Organizations which overlook incivility create room for situations in which individual self-interest wear away norms of a friendly environment (Pearson & Porath, 2005).

As workplace violence specialists argue treating individuals with no dignity and honor boost violent reactions of employees (Anfuso, 1994; Brandt & Brennan, 1993). Yet a greater danger lies beneath the existence of habitual instigators (Pearson & Porath, 2005). Occasionally habitual instigators are not even blamed and can get away with their disrespectful behaviors as they are believed to have superior skills or organizational power (Pearson & Porath, 2005). On occasion offender develops expected pattern of uncivil behaviors in his/her organization. Rude behaviors toward other employees, humiliation of their subordinates and yelling at other peers in difficult times are among such behaviors. Regardless of common awareness by other colleagues about instigator's incivility, organizations' tolerance for such uncivil behaviors can occasionally last all through perpetrator's work life. Supporting the above-mentioned ideas, finding of a study by Pearson and Porath (2005) show that only 25 per cent of incivility targets were pleased with how their organizations deal with incivility.

2.3.1 Tolerance to Workplace Incivility

Of particular importance to this study is "tolerance to incivility" that is organizations permitting uncivil behaviors in the workplace. More importantly, when organizations do not do anything to deter a perpetrator's uncivil act or in some occasions, even reward it, perpetrators can turn into "role models" for others employees (Loi & Loh,

2015), thus creating a work climate that tolerates uncivil behaviors. Organizational climate embodies a set of work environment characteristics which directly or indirectly are perceived by the individuals. These characteristics act as major drives in determining employees' behaviors (Ivancevich et al., 2004). If organizations do not react firmly to discourage uncivil behaviors and tolerate incivility, then it can be perceived as an acceptable behavior by employees and accordingly influence their behaviors (Loi & Loh, 2015).

Incivility as a type of workplace deviance is not technically illegal. However, the pressing issue is that many companies failed to identify it. Majority of top managers often ignores because they are not well-prepared and others are not well-equipped to deal with it (Porath & Erez, 2007; Sulea et al., 2012). Hence, Pearson and Porath (2005, p. 9) argued that at best, organizations' reactions to workplace incivility are "spotty." When people disregard each other frequently, uncivil interactions among them may turn into a spiral of aggression. "Incivility spiral" is a form of asymmetric uncivil interaction among organizational members (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). These uncivil exchanges might cause incivility and aggression to become a daily norm of interactions among individuals. In these cases incivility can turn into a culturally accepted misbehavior which consequently generates to a culture dominated by conflict in the organizations (Pearson & Porath, 2005).

Organizational culture is defined as implicit beliefs, values, traditions and norms which direct employees' behavior and organizational operations (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006). An organizational culture which overlook and tolerate uncivil behavior can lead to monetary losses (Cortina & Magley, 2009), decreased efficiency (Pearson and

Porath, 2005), higher turnover (Tepper, 2000), absenteeism (Cortina & Magley, 2009) and dissatisfaction (Estes & Wang, 2008).

Additionally, plenty of research have mentioned consequences of workplace incivility, such as low job satisfaction, poor organizational performance, low organizational productivity, decreased organizational commitment and deprived employee health (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Johnson & Indvik, 2001; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Porath & Erez, 2007). Victims of incivility feel poor in terms of psychological well-being due to depression, anxiety, sadness and nervousness which in turn affect organizational performance and productivity. Also, frequency of uncivil workplace experiences causes higher psychological distress and negative emotions and increase intention to turnover among employees (Cortina et al., 2001). Conflict of personal values with organizational values can be the main reason for turnover and intention to leave (Laschinger, Leiter, Day & Gilin-Oore, 2009); which are closely related to the intention to sabotage as they share similar antecedents. Hence, employees experiencing incivility may engage in organizational misbehaviors and deviance such as retaliation and sabotage (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

Notably, COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) suggested that psychological or emotional distress and misbehaviors like negative emotions, CWB, sabotage, rudeness, withholding effort and time wasting occur when employees face resource loss (Hobfoll, 1988; Wright & Hobfoll, 2004). COR theory refers to resources as personality characteristics, conditions, objects or energies that individual value and cherish. As individuals' well-being significantly depends on their resources, they try to conserve, protect, and build valuable personal and job resources (Wright & Hobfoll, 2004). According to COR theory, individuals display a kind of behavior by

which they can decrease the frequent depletion and preserve those valuable resources needed for confronting tense situations (Leung et al., 2011). In addition, to maintain their resources valuable employees have emotional relationships with others (Heaphy & Dutton, 2008).

Tolerance to workplace incivility (as a stressor) negatively affects individuals' feelings (Cortina et al., 2001) and reduces those resources needed for accomplishing work demands (Silver, et al., 1997; Wu et al., 2012). Therefore, trying to keep their valuable resources and prevent additional resource loss, current study proposes that individuals who believe their organizations tolerate uncivil behaviors employees may intend to sabotage the flows of activities in their organizations. Therefore, based on the aforementioned theoretical and empirical evidence, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H2a: Workplace tolerance to incivility is positively related to employee's negative emotions.

H2b: Workplace tolerance to incivility is positively related to the intention to sabotage.

2.4 Emotions at Work

Feelings and emotions are essential parts of the human experience (Muchinsky, 2000). Emphasizing on the significant role that emotions play in human's behaviors, Lewis and Haviland (1993, P. xi) in their seminal Handbook of Emotions stated:

"No one would deny the proposition that in order to understand human behaviors, one must understand feelings. The interest in emotions has been enduring; however, within the discipline of psychology at least, the study of feelings and emotions has

been somewhat less than respectable. Learning, cognition, and perception have dominated what have been considered the legitimate domains of inquiry… However, with the emergence of new paradigms in science, we have seen a growing increase of interest in the study of emotion. No longer has the outcast that it was, the study of emotion been legitimized by the development of new measurement techniques, as well as by new ways to conceptualize behavior and feelings."

Compared to any other activities, individuals spend most of their lives at work. Work environments offer plenty of opportunities to employees to experience variety of emotions (Muchinsky, 2000). Thus, nowadays, due to their important role in organizational context, emotions have become a popular topic in management studies (Ashkanasy & Ashton-James, 2005; Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002).

Employees may experience numerous uplifts and hassles daily at their workplaces. These incidents at work, eventually may lead to positive or negative emotions. The provoked emotions caused by daily work incidents, affect employees' work attitudes such as commitment and job satisfaction, and employees' behaviors such as intention to quit and antisocial behaviors (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006; Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009). Interactions with supervisors, coworkers, and customers are among those work hassles that generate negative emotions (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009). These interpersonal conflicts stimulate negative emotions which eventually endanger both employees' and organization's well-being and effectiveness (Fox et al. 2001; Rodell & Judge, 2009).

In the same vein, Fox et al. (2001) discovered positive and significant relationships among negative emotions (e.g., anxiety, anger, and frustration) and a variety of CWB (e.g., sabotage, interpersonal aggression, absenteeism, and theft). Other scholarly works have similarly provided evidence of an association between negative emotions and CWB (e.g., Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009; Levine, Xu, Yang, Ispas, Pitariu, Bian & Musat, 2011; Shockley, Ispas, Rossi & Levine, 2012; Spector & Fox, 2005).

According to Muchinsky (2000) individuals' feelings indicate their unconscious and implicit judgments of any particular events. Additionally, as individuals' emotions can provide some information about their needs, anxieties, motives, and possible reactions to specific situations, emotions can imply the need for some actions. As Muchinsky (2000) argued, although individuals may not recognize it, these actions may offer individuals a chance of returning to normal or neutral state of mind. Negative emotions resulted from work stressors increase the possibility of showing unfavorable behaviors by those who are struggling with interpersonal conflicts, perceived injustice, ostracism and incivility (Yang & Diefendorff, 2009). Results of the study of Sakurai and Jex, (2012) supported this notion by indicating that the association between coworker incivility and increased workplace misbehavior is mediated by negative emotions. This is also supported by findings of the study of Fox et al., (2001) which show that negative emotions mediate the relationship between perceived injustice and CWB.

As mentioned earlier, ostracism can happen in different kinds of social groups such as families, religious groups, schools and organizations (Nezlek et al., 2012). Ignoring or excluding individuals and their perception of a social threat will result in

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numerous reflexive and immediate negative reactions (e.g., imperiled psychological needs, negative emotion and pain) which is followed by reflective or delayed reactions such as CWB (Bernstein, 2016; Williams, 2009). Ostracized individuals at the reflexive (immediate stage) tend to feel higher level of anger and sadness (Williams, 2009). These immediate reactions tend to be consistent and stressful regardless of who and why the ostracism is happening or even who is ostracized (Yaakobi & Williams, 2016).

After the initial stage, the second and the reflective stage is when the individuals' concentration will be on recovering from ostracism through either behavioral or cognitive strategies. Cognitive tactics represent acknowledging and recognizing the reasons behind the occurred ostracism (Williams, 2009). Williams (2009) later discussed that the immediate sadness and distress caused by ostracism work as an indicator for engaging in possibly harmful behaviors in the workplace.

Aforesaid, emotions are the immediate reactions to stressful situations (Lazarus, 1995; Payne, 1999) which subsequently motivate and stimulate psychological and behavioral changes (Spector, 1998). A review of the organizational literature also revealed that as frustrating situations at workplaces result in negative emotions, employees may cognitively engage in unethical behaviors which let them to avoid the acquired collective values and norms temporarily (Detert, Trevino & Sweitzer, 2008; White, Bandura & Bero, 2009). As Cropanzano, Rupp and Byrne (2003) stated, negative emotions can cause individuals to have superior motivation to behave in ways that they believe is helping them cope or lessen their felt negative emotions. In the same vein, numerous scholars (e.g., Ferris et al., 2008a; Spector & Fox, 2005; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009; Zhao et al., 2013) disclosed that the negative

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emotions caused by ostracism at a later stage gives a rise to adverse job outcomes such as CWB. In addition, these negative emotions can cause lower levels of productivity and higher levels of absenteeism (Anderson & Pulich, 2001; Colligan & Higgins, 2006).

Supporting the empirical results of Fida, Paciello, Barbaranelli, Tramontano and Fontaine's (2014) study, a more recent research by Fida et al. (2015), examining 1147 employees, showed that job stressors elicited negative emotions that in turn, lead to CWB. Subsequently these reactional behaviors will enable employees to deal with and lessen the emotionally unpleasant circumstances caused by ostracism and tolerance to workplace incivility. Therefore, in a nutshell, experienced negative emotions caused by workplace mistreatments boost behavioral reactions such as intention to sabotage. More subtly, ostracized employees and those who believes that their organization tolerate incivility may intent to sabotage their organization due to these negative emotions.

Abundant studies drawing upon tenets of Affective Event Theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) explained the relationship between work events, negative emotions, and employees' behaviors. Numerous principles of AET have been confirmed by existing literature, indicating the relationship of work events with negative and positive emotions (Wegge, Dick, Fisher, West & Dawson, 2006). It is also confirmed by the literature that these affective states and emotions eventually form employees' work attitudes and behaviors (Niklas & Dormann, 2005).

According to Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) work event refers to something that happens in a work environments thru a specific period that changes what an

employee experience or feel. These affective events sequentially influence employee behavior. Based on AET, employees' emotional states are the fundamentals of their attitude and behavior formation in organizations. Further, as this theory suggests, repetitive daily events affect employees' perceptions about their jobs, their employers, and their colleagues. Eventually, this emotional development can profoundly influence employees' behaviors. As stated by AET, stable aspects of the work contexts (e.g., a tolerance to incivility) encourage the occurrence of particular work incidents (e.g., intention to sabotage). Therefore, AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) can explain the interaction between workplace mistreatments (ostracism and tolerance to incivility), negative emotions, and intention to sabotage as these work events are the potential sources of emotional responses.

Moreover, principles of the stressor-emotion model of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005) explain the reasons why stressful situations at work cause employees display CWB. Stressor-emotion model of CWB explains the mechanism through which perception of environmental issues (stressors) generates negative emotion and subsequently CWB. This model theorizes that CWB can be a potential outcome and response to frustrating and stressful situations at one's work (Spector & Fox, 2005). Based on what this framework underlines, negative emotions and affects influence individuals' violent behavior (Fida et al., 2015). Referring to principles of the stressor–emotion model of CWB, Fida et al., (2014) found that job stressors provoke negative emotions which accordingly induce both CWB toward individuals (CWB-I) and toward organizations (CWB-O). Thereby, emotions significantly affect work stress process (Fida et al., 2015) by depicting an immediate response to stressful conditions (Payne & Cooper, 2001).

In a nutshell, CWB is an unavailing behavioral reaction of stress intended to manage stressful conditions and decrease its consequent negative emotions (Krischer, Penney & Hunter, 2010; Rodell & Judge, 2009). Therefore, grounding on stressor-emotion model of CWB, current study argues that when employees are treated in disrespectful manner, and when top managements tolerates and/or fail to punish the instigator, these will stimulate negative emotions which may manifest CWB such as intention to sabotage.

In addition, current study drew upon Fox and Spector's (1999) model of work frustration-aggression to explain the relationship between workplace mistreatments, negative emotions and intention to sabotage. Model of work frustration-aggression provides imperative implications for how employees react to workplace mistreatments. According to Fox and Spector (1999), experiencing frustrating events can develop into emotional reactions like frustration, and ultimately behavioral reactions and aggression. Therefore, facing with thwarting incidents at work can generate emotional reactions (e.g., negative emotions, frustration) and eventually behavioral reactions. Hence, poor interpersonal treatments, as situational constraints, stimulate negative emotions and frustration. Accordingly, employees will react to this emotional arousal and aversion by displaying negative behaviors. In accordance with this theory, Agnew (1992) and Jang and Johnson (2003) discovered that work strains provoke negative emotions which consequently provide motivation for negative behaviors. Thereby, it is plausible that targets of workplace ostracism and tolerance to incivility may experience negative emotions, which generate subsequent motivation for employees to have intention to sabotage.

The simultaneous examinations of different theories for explaining the path between work mistreatments and emotions enable us to elucidate the association between emotions and actions. As a result, the current study posits that negative emotions stimulated by ostracism and tolerance to workplace incivility facilitate the recourses for employees to intend to sabotage their work. Based on the aforementioned theoretical and empirical evidence, this study proposed the following hypotheses:

H3: Negative emotion is positively related to the intention to sabotage.

H4a: Negative emotions mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and intention to sabotage.

H4b: Negative emotions mediate the relationship between tolerance to workplace incivility and intention to sabotage.

2.5 Workplace Sabotage

Work and service sabotage are prevalent organizational problems in today's workplaces which can generate various problems for both employees and organizations. According to Lee and Ok (2014) workplaces misbehaviors like sabotage approximately cost the USA $200 billion annually. Moreover, as Harper (1990) indicated, seventy five per cent of employees deliberately engaged in deviant behaviors. According to Harris and Ogbonna's (2002) and Slora's (1991) estimation this figure can reach 85 per cent and 96 percent respectively.

Work sabotage has various synonyms in academic studies including "counter-productive behaviors" (Sykes, 1997), "dysfunctional behaviors" (Griffin, O'Leary, Kelly & Collins, 1998), "employee deviance" (Aquino, Lewis & Bradfield, 1999), employee "misbehavior" (Ackroyd & Cowdry 1992; Sprouse, 1992) and "antisocial

behavior" (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997). Social science scholars have also tried to refine sabotage by using other alternative words such as "deviant behavior" (Becker, 1963), "restriction of output and social cleavage in industry" (Collins et al., 1946), "cheating at work" or "residual rule breaking" (Scheff, 1970).

Nevertheless, all of aforementioned concepts have a shared description which is a mindful and intentional deviance from mutual norms of a social context (Abubakar & Arasli, 2016). Taylor and Walton viewed work sabotage as "disablement of the means of production" (p. 241). Work sabotage similarly refers to "destructive consequences of negative employee behavior" (Abubakar & Arasli, 2016, p. 1269).

Although sabotage and service sabotage may have same characteristics, there have been valuable studies regarding manufacturing sabotage, which their results cannot be generalized to service contexts (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006). Harris and Ogbonna (2002) differentiated work and service sabotage based on their impacts, targets and nature (i.e., hidden or covert). Compared to work sabotage in manufacturing contexts, where the impacts of sabotage are delayed, in service industry, impacts of sabotage are almost immediate. In addition, contrary to workplace sabotage in which the targets are either coworkers or organizations, customers as the first group which are affected and suffered by these negative behaviors, to a great extant, are the targets of service sabotage (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006, 2009). Finally, although sabotage is regularly considered as a hidden phenomenon, service sabotage with 64 per cent of the incidents reported to be public, is more evident, obvious and observable.

Accordingly, as Harris and Ogbonna (2002, 2006) defined, service sabotage is deliberate behaviors and actions which service employees display to negatively affect the service outcome. This can include playing pranks on customers, manipulating the service speed, taking revengeful actions on problematic customers, and being aggressive and rude toward customers (Lee & Ok, 2014).

In service contexts employees will have more direct customer-contacts. Therefore, service sabotage is likely to be more prevalent and have more profound impacts. Service sabotage has negative influence on customers' opinions about service quality, word of mouth behavior and willingness to comeback (Gremler & Gwinner, 2000, Lee & Ok, 2014). Moreover, in services context, customers' satisfactions, evaluations and perceptions of service performance is significantly determined by employees' behavior (Sergeant & Frenkel, 2000). These behaviors can consequently affect both customers' service experiences and organization's effectiveness (Gremler & Gwinner, 2000; Lee & Ok, 2014). Therefore, service sabotage can eventually affect organizations' success and growth (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002).

2.5.1 Intention to Sabotage

When employees feel frustrated, disappointed and helpless they are more inclined to blemish and harm responsible employees or the organization (Abubakar & Arasli, 2016). Engaging in negative behavior as a result of depression gives employees some kind of psychological freedom (Lawrence & Robinson, 2007). This stream of reasoning asserts sabotage as a way of confronting unfair managerial system (Abubakar & Arasli, 2016). However as Abubakar and Arasli (2016) claimed, prior to actual sabotage, the first step in sabotage perspective can be the "intention to sabotage." To support their argument Abubakar and Arasli (2016) discussed that "prevention is always better than cure. So, why should organizations measure

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something (service sabotage) that has already occurred?" (p. 1268). Therefore, they claimed that intention to sabotage provides more meaningful and profound understanding of the sabotage concept and measuring the intention to sabotage offers a prior understanding of the phenomena.

According to former empirical studies sabotage comprises of inaction, wastage, and destruction intended to damage organizational performance (Dubois, 1987). Furthermore, whilst service sabotage represents an actual action, intention to sabotage underlines the likelihood or tendency of individuals to be involved in harmful behaviors toward others (Abubakar & Arasli, 2016). Intention to sabotage as Abubakar and Arasli (2016, p. 1269) defined is "a negative dispositional attitude, a negative destructive state of mind, which is characterized by alienation, withdrawal, and termination. It is also the intention to disrupt or harm the service flow in an organization." Supervisor, coworker and customer conflicts seem to cause employees to display negative behavior toward an organization and its members (Newman et al., 2012) and accordingly may give a rise to intention to sabotage.

Building on the principles of COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) current study explains the relationship among study's variables. COR theory suggests that since individuals' resource loss is an essential ingredients for stress; henceforth additional resource loss should be limited (Westman, Hobfoll, Chen, Davidson & Laski, 2005). Physically, psychologically and emotionally drained employees may experience negative emotions when they face undesirable interpersonal relationships in their workplaces (Ferris et al., 2008). These individuals subsequently trying to keep their valuable resources and avoid further resource loss may intend to sabotage the service flow in their organizations.

2.6 The Role of Generation

Today's workplace consists of employees from different generation, background, ages and groups which affect work environments' dynamics (Costanza et al., 2012). Dissimilar values and attitudes of generations are believed to be among the most significant diversity factors of workplace behavior (Meredith, Schewe & Hiam, 2002). Likewise, generational differences have been found to influence work attitudes (Costanza et al., 2012), work values (Smola & Sutton, 2002), job satisfaction (Westerman & Yamamura, 2007), organizational commitment (Dabova, 1998; D'Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008) and leadership styles (Arsenault, 2004).

Yet, generational differences are often ignored in diversity literature (Arsenault, 2004). Notwithstanding, understanding generational differences is indispensable (Arsenault, 2004), because disparate generational does not only have implications on social environments and work related behaviors (Park & Gursoy, 2012), but also in the establishment of healthy workplace (Leiter et al. 2010).

Generation is ''an identifiable group that shares birth years, age, location, and significant life events at critical developmental stages'' (Kupperschmidt, 2000, p. 66). Baby boomers cohorts are born between 1946 and 1964; Generation X cohorts (1965 - 1980) and Generation Y cohorts (1981 - 2000) as noted by Fry (2016). With the preferences of flexibility, fulfillment, financial benefits and harmonious work environments (Joyner, 2000), Generation X have found to also pursue emotional security, independency and entrepreneurial activities (Howe & Strauss, 2007). Additionally, with respect to ones' work, Generation X value advanced work opportunities, developing positive work relationships and work-life balance more

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than boomers or elders (Chao, 2005). Valuing personal goals more than work related ones they are also more likely to seek challenging jobs with higher salaries and more benefits (Jorgensen, 2003). On the contrary, appreciating work-life quality more than income, Generation Y members are more tolerant, trustful, structured (Syrett & Lammiman, 2003) independent, responsible (Wolfe, 2004), group-oriented and have stronger sense of identity (Peterson, 2004).

With respect to workplace mistreatments, recently researchers focused on different group of people's attitude and vulnerability toward ostracism (e.g., Pharo, Gross, Richardson & Hayne, 2011). Influencing organizations and employees, ostracism is a universal phenomenon which is happening among all demographic lines such as age, gender, and generation (Williams & Sommer, 1997). In addition, in work contexts, individual characteristics including personality, power and tenure can affect the degree of one's perception of ostracism (Robinson et al., 2013).

As argued by Williams (2009), the immediate negative outcomes of ostracism tend to be less moderated by specific individual differences. This suggests that most people have equable reactions to ostracism (McDonald & Donnellan, 2012). However, research studies have exposed that in the reflective (delayed) stage, individual's background and their understanding of the situation may foster their coping reactions (Zadro, Boland & Richardson, 2006). Furthermore, the reflective stage (delayed reaction) to ostracism has been proven to be moderated by individual differences such as personality. For instance, while targets' variation of depression, trait self-esteem and social anxiety have no influence on immediate distress, Nezlek, Kowalski, Leary, Blevins and Holgate (1997) and Zadro et al. (2006) discovered that

ostracized individuals with higher level of social anxiety need longer time for recovery.

Hence, due to the reasons mentioned above and also the negative psychological impacts of ostracism, there has been a growing of interest among management and organizational researchers to examine how adult employees will respond to workplace ostracism (Ferris et al., 2015; O׳Reilly et al., 2015; Wu, Liu, Kwan & Lee, 2016; Xu, Huang & Robinson, 2015). A careful synthesis of the management literature reveals that sensitivity toward ostracism is higher among adolescents and emerging adults in comparison to older counterparts (Pharo et al., 2011). Research has similarly shown that ostracism diminishes adolescent's self-esteem (Pharo et al., 2011), disturbed mood (Sebastian, Viding, Williams & Blakemore, 2010) and mood changes (Gross, 2009). Nevertheless, young adolescents and emerging adults showed equal mood change toward ostracism (Gross, 2009).

According to what literature has demonstrated, negative consequences of incivility tend can be moderated by specific individual differences. For instance, the results of the study of Loi, Loh and Hine (2015) showed that female employees, more than male ones, are likely to experience and suffer from workplace incivility. Likewise, perception of tolerance to incivility makes female employees to have less withdrawal behaviors. In addition, Berdahl and Moore (2006) and Montgomery et al., (2004a) found that women consider harassing or uncivil behaviors more improper, offensive, or discourteous.

In the same line of reasoning, Joshi et al., (2011) claimed that stress experienced in a multigenerational workplace may change or increase the experience of incivility. A

study in a nursing school indicates that although Generation X and baby boomer cope similarly, baby boomer experience less incivility than Generation X (Ziefle, 2014). Based on the aforementioned theoretical and empirical evidence, this study proposes that generational differences will moderate the relationships in the hypothesized model (see figure 1). Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H5a: Generation will moderate the relationship between workplace ostracism and employee's negative emotions.

H5b: Generation will moderate the relationship between workplace ostracism and intention to sabotage.

H5c: Generation will moderate the relationship between workplace tolerance to incivility and employee's negative emotions.

H5d: Generation will moderate the relationship between workplace tolerance to incivility and intention to sabotage.

H5e: Generation will moderate the relationship between employee's negative emotions and intention to sabotage.

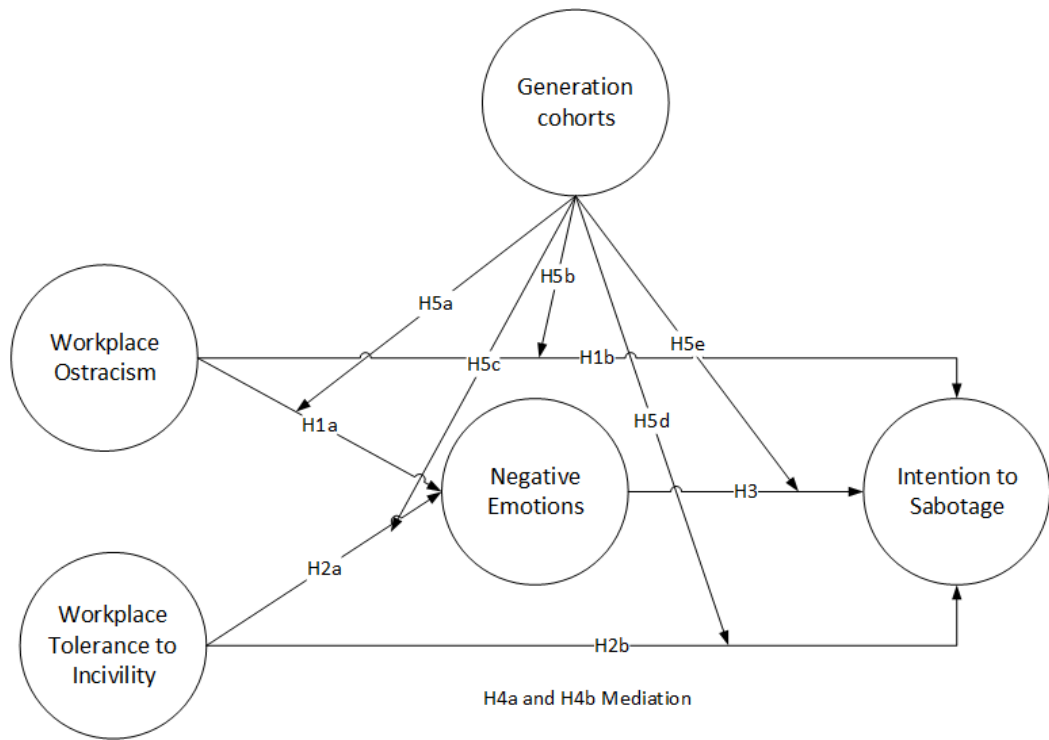Figure 1 depicts the current research model and the proposed hypotheses.

Figure 1: Conceptual Model

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Context

The banking and insurance industry in Nigeria is tormented by constant lack of transparency, corruption and communication issues. It has also been immensely affected by the industry reorganization (e.g., mergers and acquisitions) followed by global crisis of 2007-2009 and crash in oil price of 2015. This industry also witnessed an overhaul as a result of reforms by the Central Bank of Nigeria. These changes have led to the implementation of sustainable strategies like mergers, acquisition, down-sizing and others, aimed to improve performance and profit. Whilst this may sound good from macroeconomic perspectives, some of the banks have also adopted some strategies that deemed to be detrimental to employees coupled with the absence of solid legislation to protect employees.

Most consolidated and merged banks in Nigeria are in distress and have failed to increase organizational performance. In majority of the cases, top management have faced challenges regarding how to integrate two or more merged cultures to maintain and respond to pressing issues (Okoro, 2010), which included workplace mistreatment and other organizational outcomes. These reformations brought in further employment issues for banking and insurance industry including cultural conflicts, salary reduction, employees' realignment and redeployments and layoffs. They similarly generated numerous HRM challenges namely higher employee

cynicism, burnout, turnover and depression and lower organizational citizenship behavior (Nwagbara, Oruh, Ugorji, & Ennsra, 2013). As a result, HR specialists in Nigerian banks struggle with endemic employment-related issues including staffing, promotions, compensation, performance evaluation, job insecurity, social rights, management process, organizational culture and misconducts (Abubakar & Arasli, 2016). These issues can affect employees' happiness, feelings, and satisfaction and well-being (Barnett, Rachel, Pearson & Ramos, 2005). In addition, penetrating any of these psychological contracts can have adverse impact on employees' work-related attitudes such as loyalty and work engagement (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2007; Chiaburu, Peng, Oh, Banks, & Lomeli, 2013).

Workplace mistreatment legislation in developing countries like Nigeria is worrisome (Ikyanyon & Ucho, 2013; Oghojafor, Muo & Olufayo, 2012); and the phenomenon is an undiagnosed social problem facing employees and employers in Africa (Fajana, Owoyemi, Shadare, Elegbede & Gbajumo-Sheriff, 2011). Bank employees in Nigeria are mostly subjected to degradation of dignity, and other discriminatory practices (Adenugba & Ilupeju, 2011). Taken this together with the extent literature, there seems to be a dearth of research on the dynamics of workplace mistreatments and its consequences, more specifically in Nigeria. Therein, exploring these phenomena will harvest insights and panaceas that can be used by the practitioners and policy makers.

3.2 Procedure

Data was collected from four big size commercials banks in Nigeria. The survey items were developed in English. As a next step, following Perrewe et al. (2002) suggestions a preliminary (pilot) survey was conducted (n=10) to assess whether the

questionnaire has any ambiguity or not, and whether respondents were able to understand and respond to the questions without difficulties. Results from the preliminary survey shows that the respondents did not fully understood some of the items; hence a number of modifications were made to survey items.

Prior to data collection, the HR departments of the banks who accepted to participate in the study were contacted and the survey link along with the cover letter were sent to them for evaluation. Accordingly, employing a convenient sampling technique, and in line with other empirical studies (e.g., Dennis, Alamanos, Papagiannidis & Bourlakis, 2016; Dennis, Papagiannidis, Alamanos & Bourlakis, 2016; Holm et al., 2015; Hung & Law, 2011; Lin, Wu & Cheng, 2015; Schaufeli, 2017; Wang, Law, Hung & Guillet, 2014) the survey was administered online. Email survey in the 1980s and web survey in the 1990s have grown into new trends and established the foundation of an online research era (Hung & Law, 2012). In addition, as Lin, Wu and Cheng (2015) stated administering an online survey is a very effective means of reaching the majority of the population. Hence, nine hundred bank employees received an email in their private mailbox with a link to the survey. Instead of work email address, private email addresses were deliberately used in order to stress that participation is voluntarily.

The online survey had a cover letter directed at respondents that provided brief information about the research intent in consort with contact information. Participants were told to respond to the questions as honestly as possible, and that there is no right or wrong answers. The survey asked for voluntarily participation and participants were free to withdraw at any point. The survey also assured confidentiality of the respondents (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2012).

Scholars argued that employing these procedures can "help reduce people's evaluation apprehension and make them less likely to edit their responses to be more socially desirable, lenient, acquiescent and consistent with how the researcher wants them to respond" (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003, p. 888). At the end of the survey only 351 usable samples were obtained (resulting to 39% response rate), out of which due to missing data 320 were used for data analysis. However, low response rate shouldn't be interpreted as a counter-reaction to previous surveys that have been mandatory for all employees (Schaufeli, 2017).

3.3 Measures

Workplace tolerance to incivility was measured with a four- item scale adopted from Loi et al.'s (2015) study of uncivil workplace behavior. Rating contained a five-point scale ranging from 5 (there would be very serious consequences) to 1 (nothing). Respondents were asked the following: "What would likely happen if you made a formal complaint against a co-worker who engaged in the following behavior? For example, repeatedly treated you in overtly hostile manner (e.g., spoke to you in aggressive tone of voice, made snide remarks to you, or rolled his or her eyes at you).

Ostracism was measured with 10 items taken from Ferris et al. (2008b). Response choices ranged from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). The sample statements included: others ignored you at work, you noticed others would not look at you at work and others at work treated you as if you weren't there.

Negative emotions was measured with a ten-item scale adopted from the job-related affective well-being scale (JAWS), developed by Fox (2000). Rating contained a

five-point scale ranging from 5 (frequently) to 1 (never). Sample of stated emotions included: gloomy, angry, depressed, and fatigued.

Intention to sabotage was measured with 8 items adopted from Abubakar and Arasli (2016) using five Likert scale ranging from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). Sample of items included: I often think about withdrawing my effort and energy and enacting flexible service rules because of rude customers, I don't see any problem directing customers to other banks, I want "get at customer, colleague or supervisor" to make others laugh.

3.4 Analytic Methods and Approaches

Current study used IBM SPSS AMOS structural equation modeling (SEM) technique to test the proposed measurement and structural model. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test psychometric properties of the measures in the forms of convergent validity, discriminant validity and composite reliability (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). This is because CFA is a statistical method utilized to validate the factor structure of a group of observed variables (Harrington, 2008). CFA helps researchers and academics to identify and determine construct validity namely convergent, discriminant, and nomological validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988).

Convergent validity refers to the unity that exists among items of the same construct (Churchill, 1979). The standardized factor loadings of the scale items, composite reliability (CR) and average variance extract (AVE) of each construct can serve as indicators of convergent validity (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). Discriminant validity is another important component which refers to the absence of unity among the scale items of different constructs. Kline (2005) argued that through

analyzing the correlation coefficients among suggested constructs, discriminant validity could be detected. In addition, as Kline (2005) argued, there will be an evidence of discriminant validity if the value of correlation coefficients does not surpass 0.85. Subsequently, as suggested by Cronbach (1951), in order to assess reliabilities of scales Cronbach's alpha (α) of each scale was measured.

Common Method Variance (CMV) defined as "the variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent" (Podsakoff et al., 2003, pg. 879). Podsakoff et al. (2012) proposed few procedural and statistical remedies for reducing the potential threat of CMV. This study employed both procedural and statistical remedies for this purpose. According to Podsakoff et al. (2012), one factor model or "Harman single factor test" is a possible statistical method to reduce impacts of CMV. Hence, "Harman single factor test" was carried out to diminish the potential effect of for CMV. Moreover, 1 item model and the other proposed model were assessed and their fit indexes were calculated. Additionally as mentioned earlier, respondents were assured of anonymity and confidentiality of their responses in order to decrease social desirability bias (Podsakoff, et al., 2012).

The proposed model of this study is a compound model which encompasses both mediation as well as a multi-group moderating effect. Such kind of model can be best assessed by SEM. As Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle and Mena (2010) recommended, due to its strict nature, SEM is preferred to linear regression approaches. Moreover, compared to regression approaches, SEM can identify the multi-level mediation effects to a greater extent. A bias-corrected bootstrapping method was employed to adequately test the mediation effects. Various researchers (e.g., Shrout & Bolger,

2002; Preacher & Hayes, 2004) supported that bootstrapping technique is a powerful means to test mediation effects. This is because of its ability in resampling the dataset with the purpose of creating a confidence interval (CI). Therefore considering the above said evidences, as bootstrapping method seems to be superior to SOBEL test, bootstrapping technique was employed by the author.

To test the moderator effect of a categorical moderator, and to evaluate the dissimilarities across different groups, both at model and path level, a multi-group moderation analysis was utilized. Therefore, to fit each category, the sample was spitted into three. According to the group of the moderator (generational cohorts), the effects of predictor variables on their corresponding variables were measured. As a result, the author followed the procedures that has been utilized by former studies (e.g., Abubakar, Ilkan, Al-Tal & Eluwole, 2017; Singh, & Sharma, 2016) and conducted multi-group moderation analyses and measured the beta coefficients. In addition Chi-square value and significance tests were measured by employing the statistical analysis instrument developed by Gaskin (2012).

Demographics variables: Descriptive statistic shows that 61% of the respondents were males. About 45% of the respondents have bachelor degree, 29% some college degrees and the rest higher degrees. Majority of the respondents (44.4%) were Generation Y cohorts; 34% were Generation X and the rest belongs to the baby boomers cohorts. Twenty seven percent of the respondents had more than 9 years of work experience, twenty eight percent between 5 to 8 years and 26% had less than 1 year of work experience.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

Variable	percentage %
Gender	
Male	61%
Female	39%
Generation	
Gen-Xers	34%
Gene-Yers	44.4%
Baby boomers	21.6%
Education	
Some college	29%
Bachelor	45%
higher degrees	26%
Work Experince	
Less than 1 year	26%
Between 1-4 years	19%
Between 5-8 years	28%
Above 9 years	27%

Chapter 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Preceding hypotheses testing, the author assessed and evaluated the topology of the scale items. This means whether the scale items comprised in the questionnaire captures the phenomenon, and load on the predicated construct. For structural equation modelling the author employed AMOS program version 21. Confirmatory factor analysis reveals that all the fits were good enough. The results suggest that the hypothesized model (four items model) appears to have a better fit to the data when compared with one item model. Moreover, the change in Chi-square was significant enough. Considering that the difference was eminent, the model fit for the one item model was poorer. Based on Podsakoff et al. (2003) and Podsakoff et al. (2012) recommendation this suggests that the dataset is not affected by CMV (Please refer to Table 2).

Table 2: Goodness Fit of the Model

Goodness-of-fit indices Four item model	Goodness-of-fit indices one item model	Cut-off points
Chi-square (X^2) = 1146.8	Chi-square (X^2) = 5190.7	
df = 389, p<.001,	df = 405, p<.001	
GFI = .81	GFI = .39	1 = maximum fit (Tanaka & Huba, 1985)
NFI = .87	NFI = .42	1 = maximum fit (Bentler & Bonett, 1980)
CFI = .91	CFI = .43	1 = maximum fit (McDonald & Marsh, 1990)
TLI = .90	TLI = .39	1 = maximum fit (Bentler & Bonett, 1980)
RMSEA = .020	RMSEA = .041	Values < .06 = good fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993)
CMIN/df = 2.95	CMIN/df = 12.81	Values >1 & < 5 = good fit (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985)

Note: df, degree of freedom; GFI, Goodness Fit Index; NFI, Normed Fit Index; CFI, Comparative Fit Index; TLI, Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CMIN/df, Relative Chi-square

Table 3: Factor Loadings

Scale Items	Factor loadings
Ostracism	
"Item 1"	.68
"Item 2"	.72
"Item 3"	.65
"Item 4"	.50
"Item 5"	.75
"Item 6"	.67
"Item 7"	.76
"Item 8"	.75
"Item 9"	.68
Tolerance for Workplace Incivility	
"Item 1"	.60
"Item 2"	.71
"Item 3"	.94
"Item 4"	.97
Negative Emotions	
"Item 1"	.73
"Item 2"	.79
"Item 3"	.81
"Item 4"	.83
"Item 5"	.79
"Item 6"	.71
"Item 7"	.66
"Item 8"	.75
"Item 9"	.74
Intention to Sabotage	
"Item 1"	.88
"Item 2"	.57
"Item 3"	.62
"Item 4"	.95
"Item 5"	.99
"Item 6"	.93
"Item 7"	.89
"Item 8"	.54

Notes: -* dropped items during confirmatory factor analysis

To assess the internal consistency and reliability of the scale items, Cronbach's alpha (α) of each construct was evaluated. As Nunnally (1976) suggested, all alpha coefficients were greater than the threshold of 0.70. As a next step, the CR values were evaluated, and all the values were greater than the threshold of 0.60 (Hair et al., 1998; 2012). These provided evidence of internal consistency and instrument reliability. Please refer to Table 3.

CFA analysis showed that all the scale items of the measurement model significantly loaded under their respective factors. The range of standardized factor loadings was from 0.54 to 0.88. One item each from ostracism and negative emotion were eliminated due to low standardized loading < 0.50 as recommended by Hair et al. (1998). Next, the AVE coefficient of each construct was calculated, the values were greater than the threshold of 0.50 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Fornell, & Larcker, 1981).

Furthermore, the values of all the possible correlations between the four variables were not close to 1, more precisely above 0.80, which indicates distinctness of the constructs in the measurement model (Kline, 2005). Based on the extant evidence, the author concluded that the current results provided evidence of convergent and discriminant validity. Please refer to Table 3.

Variables	CR	α	AVE
1. Workplace ostracism	.88	.89	.50
2. Tolerance for Workplace incivility	.89	.89	.68
3. Negative emotions	.92	.92	.57
4. Intention to sabotage	.94	.94	.66

Table 4: Reliability, Convergent and Discriminant Statistics

Note: CR*, composite reliability, AVE, average variance extracted; α, Cronbach's alpha*

Table 5: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Study Variables

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Education	1.98	.74	_							
2. Gender	1.39	.49	-.008	_						
3. Work Experience	2.57	1.15	.076	-.003	_					
4. Generation Cohort	2.13	.74	-.006	-.040	-.527[**]	_				
5. Workplace ostracism	4.55	.41	-.012	.016	.150[**]	-.088	_			
6. Tolerance for Workplace incivility	4.67	.47	-.034	.071	.104	-.061	.567[**]	_		
7. Negative emotions	4.73	.39	-.062	.024	.164[**]	-.053	.570[**]	.562[**]	_	
8. Intention to sabotage	4.63	.48	.023	.056	.001	-.065	.402[**]	.473[**]	.413[**]	_

Note: *Composite scores for each variable were computed by averaging respective item scores.*
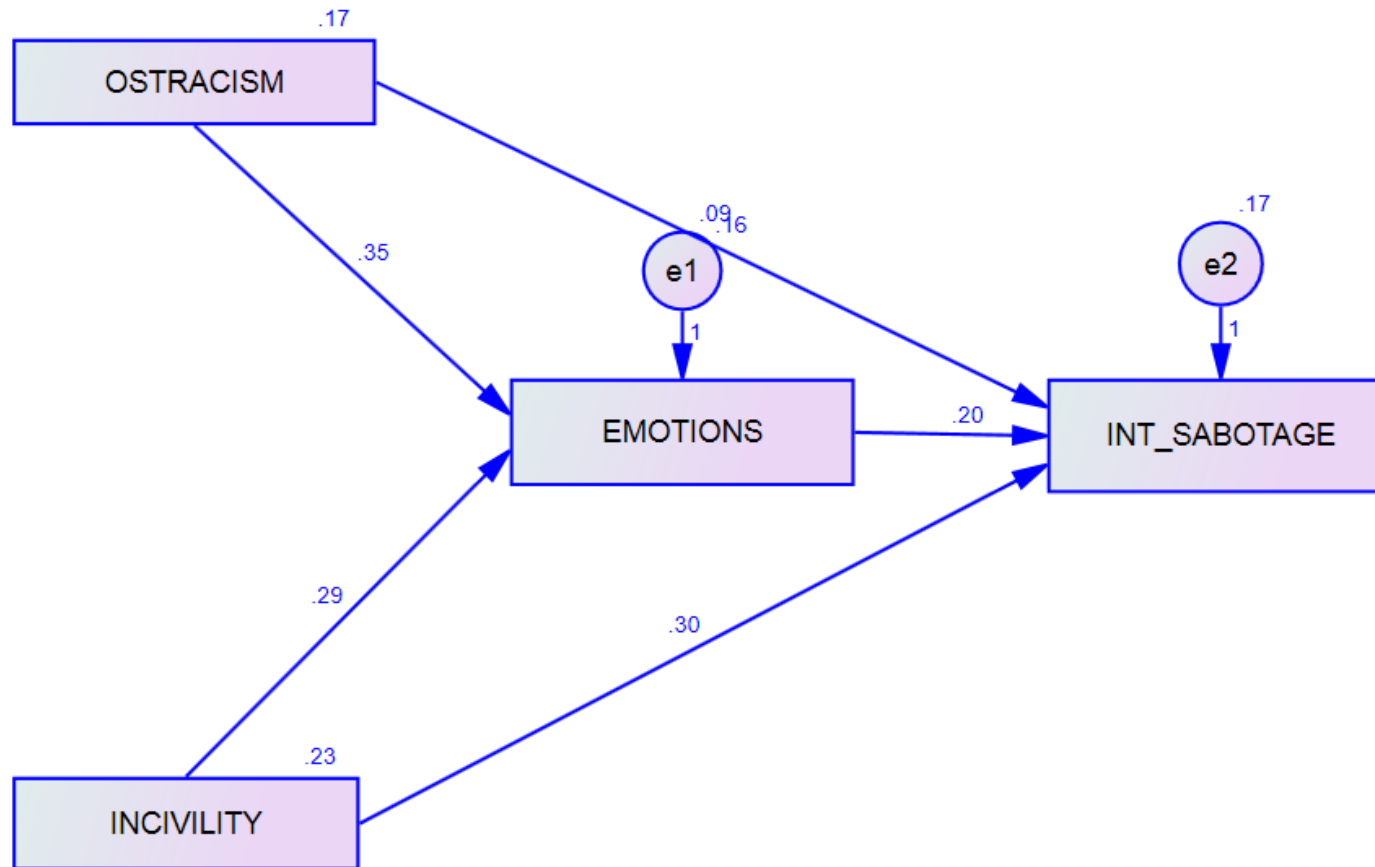*SD, standard deviation;* [**] *Correlations are significant at the .01 level.*

Figure 2: SEM Model

Table 6: Maximum Likelihood Estimates for the Research Model

Regressor Variables	Regressand Variables	Coefficient estimates	Standard error	t-statistics	p
Workplace ostracism	Negative emotions	.353	.041	8.59	.001
Workplace ostracism	Intention to sabotage	.159	.062	2.58	.010
Workplace tolerance to incivility	Negative emotions	.290	.035	8.19	.001
Workplace tolerance to incivility	Intention to sabotage	.302	.053	5.73	.001
Negative emotions	Intention to sabotage	.200	.076	2.64	.008

Notes: *Significant at the $p < 0.10$ level (two-tailed); **Significant at the $p < 0.05$ level (two-tailed); ***Significant at the $p < 0.001$ level (two-tailed)

Demographic data captured in this study included generational cohorts, work experience, education level and gender. Due to the fact that these demographic characteristics might have severe interactions with the variables chosen by current study, hereafter, it seemed logical for the current study to evaluate them as control variables. The inter-correlation coefficients in Table 5 show that there were few notable associations between the research variables and the control variables.

The result presented in Table 5 and 6, and figure 2 confirmed that workplace ostracism (r = .570, p < .001) (β = .353, p < .001) explains R^2 (Negative emotions) = 35% of the variance, therefore **H1a** is supported and workplace ostracism (r = .402, p < .001) (β = .159, p < .05) explains R^2 (Intention to sabotage) = 16% of the variance, therefore **H1b** is supported. Moreover, workplace tolerance to incivility (r = .562, p < .001) (β = .290, p < .001) explains R^2 (Negative emotions) = 29% of the variance and accordingly **H2a** is supported and workplace tolerance to incivility (r = .473, p < .001) (β = .302, p < .001) explains R^2 (Intention to sabotage) = 30% of the variance and accordingly H2b is supported. Next, negative emotions (r = .413, p < .001) (β = .200, p < .01) explains R^2 (Intention to sabotage) = 20% of the variance. Hence, **H3** is supported.

Current study assessed the indirect effect of workplace ostracism and workplace tolerance to incivility on intention to sabotage through negative emotion (mediation effect of negative emotions). To augment the evidence of the indirect effect, the author bootstrapped the model using a bias-corrected confidence interval for the standardized parameter estimate as recommended by (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Shrout & Bolger, 2002), utilizing a validation sample of (*n* = 2,000). The outcome shows that the indirect effect of workplace ostracism on intention to sabotage through negative emotion was (β =.071, *p* < .05); and bias-corrected estimate

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suggests that a partial mediation exists (p = .014, 95% confidence interval: .013 −

.147). Next, the outcome shows that the indirect effect of workplace tolerance to

incivility on intention to sabotage through negative emotion (β = .058, p <.05); and

bias-corrected estimate suggests that a partial mediation exists (p = .011, 95%

confidence interval: .014 − .121). According to these results, H4a, H4b gained

support. Please see Table 7.

Regressor Variables	Regressand Variables	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect
		Table 7: Break Down of Total Effect of the Research Model		
Workplace ostracism	Negative emotions	.353	.353	.000
Workplace ostracism	Intention to sabotage	.230	**.159**	**.071**
Workplace tolerance to incivility	Negative emotions	.290	.290	.000
Workplace tolerance to incivility	Intention to sabotage	.360	**.302**	**.058**
Negative emotions	Intention to sabotage	.200	.200	.000

Table 8: Cohorts Multi-Group Analyses

Regressor Variables	Regressand Variables	Boomers β (t)	Gen X β (t)	Gen Y β (t)	X^2 (p)	Decision
Workplace ostracism→Negative emotions		.132(1.26)	.515(7.68***)	.312(5.26***)	131(p<.05)	√
Workplace ostracism→ Intention to sabotage		.384(2.89**)	.166(1.28)	.049(0.605)	127(p<.10)	√
Tolerance for Workplace incivility →Negative emotions		.319(4.22***)	.204(3.73***)	.346(5.96***)	126(p<.10)	√
Tolerance for Workplace incivility →Intention to sabotage		.094(0.88)	.369(4.08***)	.332(4.14***)	127(p<.10)	√
Negative emotions→Intention to sabotage		.104(0.68)	.181(1.21)	.268(2.57**)	124(p>.10)	X

Notes: β, beta-value; t, t-value; $\chi 2$, chi-square

*Significant at the p < 0.10 level (two-tailed); **Significant at the p < 0.05 level (two-tailed); ***Significant at the p < 0.001 level (two-tailed)

A multi-group moderation analysis was used to assess the moderating effect of generation in the model. The cohorts were not different in the model, and as such a path-level analysis was conducted. The data presented in Table 8 delineates that when a workplace is infiltrated with ostracism, Gen X cohorts are approximately 1.5 times more likely to develop negative emotion in comparison with Gen Y, and about 4 times in comparison with baby boomers. In addition, gen-y is about 2.3 times more likely to develop negative emotion in comparison to the baby boomers. Thus, **H5a** gained support. The result also reveals that baby boomers are about 2.3 times more likely to develop intention to sabotage in comparison with Gen X, and about 8 times in comparison with Gen Y. Thus, **H5b** gained support.

Next, the result shows that when organizations tolerate workplace incivility. Gen Y cohorts are about 1.7 times more likely to develop negative emotion in comparison with Gen X; and no difference with baby boomers. Baby boomers are about 1.5 times more likely to develop negative emotion in comparison with members of Gen X. Thus, **H5c** gained support. The results also reveal that Gen X and Gen Y are about 4 and 3.5 times more likely to develop the intention to sabotage in comparison with baby boomers. No significant differences were observed between Gen X and Gen Y. Thus, **H5d** gained support. Finally, the chi-square and the p–value presented in Table 8 suggested that there is no difference between the cohorts along the path between negative emotion and the intention to sabotage. Hence, **H5e** was rejected.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

There has been a growing of interest among organizational scholars for examination of interpersonal conflicts, CWB, aggression, theft and sabotage. Nevertheless, although service sabotage has been greatly examined by organizational scholars, intention to sabotage is an overlooked and poorly under-researched topic, in the service context (Abubakar & Arasli, 2016). Intention to sabotage provides a more meaningful and profound understanding of the sabotage concept. Measuring intention to sabotage offers a prior understanding of the phenomena and can foresee the degree to which actual service sabotage can happen (Abubakar & Arasli, 2016). In addition, as discussed earlier, both workplace ostracism and tolerance to incivility have been confirmed to be related to negative workplace behaviors. Hence, the current study aimed to investigate the relationship between workplace ostracism, tolerance to incivility and intention to sabotage in the Nigerian banking and insurance industry. Hereupon, this inquiry is a compelling study which extends the roles of workplace ostracism and tolerance to incivility to the confines of intention to sabotage.

The findings of the current study shed light on workplace ostracism, tolerance to workplace incivility, negative emotions and intention to sabotage research stream. In understanding the underlying dynamics of the aforementioned variables, the addition of generation as a moderator adds zest to the current research model. Findings

pointed out that workplace ostracism and tolerance to incivility were both positively related to negative emotions and intention to sabotage. In addition, there was a positive relationship between negative emotions and intention to sabotage. Results were also supported the role of generational differences as a moderator of the relationship between workplace ostracism and tolerance to incivility and intention to sabotage.

As hypothesized, study's findings suggest that workplace ostracism is positively and significantly related to the negative emotion (H1a). This is consistent with prior workplace bullying and ostracism findings (Anderson & Pulich, 2001; Colligan & Higgins, 2006; Ferris et al., 2008a; Pharo et al., 2011; Riva et al., 2016; Williams, 2007; Williams & Nida, 2011), which suggest that ostracism can manifest depression among employees. Due to the fact that ostracism reduces the chances of social interaction among employees, it significantly affects employees' psychological health and manners (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2016; Heaphy & Dutton, 2008) and endangers employees' psychological needs and social relationships (Wu et al., 2012). Therefore, ostracized employees will experience more negative emotions.

Further, the current study uncovers evidence of the positive relationship between workplace ostracism and the intention to sabotage (H1b). These results are also in agreement with, Yan, et al's (2014) findings which showed a positive relationship between ostracism and CWB. Likewise, Detert et al.'s (2007) study regarding abusive supervision and Cohen-Charash and Mueller's (2007) and Jones' (2009) studies regarding perceived injustice/unfairness, confirmed that these negative work attitudes can escalate CWB. In the same vein, numerous scholars (e.g., Cropanzano et al., 2003; Ferris et al., 2008b; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009; Zhao et al., 2013)

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disclosed that negative emotions caused by ostracism at a later stage give a rise to adverse job outcomes such as CWB.

Results of the current study are in line with COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) which has been well-studied in the area of job stress and social stressors. Conferring to COR theory people try to conserve valuable energy and resources. Hence, losing their emotional resources, ostracized employees tend to experience higher level of negative emotions (Wu et al., 2012) and they may intend to sabotage the service while trying to preserve those resources (Abubakar & Arasli, 2016). In summary, these findings support former research findings (e.g., Erkutlu & Chafra, 2016) confirming that workplace ostracism generates high costs for service organizations.

Life stressors and undesirable life events generate depression (Brown & Harris, 1978). Consistent with Sliter, Jex and Grubb (2013) who asserted workplace mistreatments can lead to employees' stress, the findings reveal that tolerance to workplace incivility is positively and significantly related to the negative emotion (H2a). These findings are also in agreement with Paciello et al. (2012) and Detert et al. (2008) which exposed the role that quality of social ties plays on affecting people's adoption of harmful behaviors. This is equally consistent with numerous studies regarding trauma and victimization at workplaces (e.g., Pimlott-Kubiak & Cortina, 2003).

Tolerance to workplace incivility was also found to associate with the intention to sabotage (H2b). This notion has been supported by Andersson and Pearson (1999) and Sliter, Sliter and Jex (2012) who both noted that incivility from co-workers is related to increased absenteeism and revenge against the coworker. These results are

also consistent with studies who found that interpersonal conflicts manifest CWB (e.g., Penney & Spector, 2005) and turnover intention (e.g., Ghosh, Reio & Bang, 2013). Similarly, according to the literature, as a type of workplace aggression (Niedhammer, David & Degioanni, 2009; Yamada, 2000), workplace incivility has immediate and negative impacts on employees' well-being (Lim et al., 2008; Reio & Ghosh, 2009), job satisfaction (Reio & Ghosh, 2009; Penney & Spector, 2005) and turnover intentions (Pearson et al., 2000; Cortina et al., 2001).

These findings make sense in light of COR theory doctrines stating that people act to conserve energy and resources. Individuals will be engaged in those kinds of behaviors which help them to maintain their valuable resources. As such, resource depletion can have a true cost for organizations. The findings also coincide with the tenets of AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), which proposed that workplace event (e.g., mistreatments) could cause employees' affect (e.g., negative emotions), and these conditions may in turn lead to misbehavior such as intention to sabotage. Hence, organizations' tolerance to workplace incivility affects employees and causes them to feel negative emotions and have the intention to sabotage the service flow of their organizations.

In addition to the positive impacts of negative emotions on intention to sabotage (H3), the pattern of the results likewise shows support for the mediating role (indirect) of negative emotion between ostracism and intention to sabotage (H4a) and tolerance to workplace incivility and intention to sabotage (H4b) in the Nigerian banking industry. Current research findings indicate that when employees face ostracism at their work and believe that their organizations tolerate disrespectful behaviors, being distressed about upcoming contacts with the perpetrator will cause

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them to feel negative emotions and accordingly intend to sabotage their organization's workflow. Besides, people who experience negative emotions such as fear, anger and resentment tend to be more demanding, hostile and often have weaker workplace relationships (Watson & Clark, 1984) and thereby increasing the potentiality to engage in undesirable behaviors such as CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005).

The findings of the study are also in conformity with the applied theoretical frameworks including model of work frustration-aggression (Fox & Spector, 1999) and job stress-emotion framework of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Fox and Spector's (1999) model of work frustration-aggression highlights the impacts of negative emotions on violent behavior. Conferring to model of work frustration-aggression confronting frustrating incidents at work induces emotional reactions (e.g., negative emotions) and consequently behavioral reactions (e.g., intention to sabotage). Hereafter, poor interpersonal relationships stimulate frustration and negative emotions. Subsequently, employees may intend to sabotage the service flow of their organization to cope with these emotionally repulsive and disheartening conditions cause by workplace mistreatments.

Moreover, in accordance with Spector and Fox's (2005) model, the findings of current study expose a positive impact of ostracism and tolerance to incivility (as job stressors) in provoking negative emotions. According to this model CWB is an emotion-based reaction to stressful conditions at work. Job stress-emotion model of CWB suggests that interpersonal conflicts as job stressors manifest adverse work behaviors through negative emotions that they cause for employees. According to this model individuals observe and evaluate environmental incidents (Lazarus, 1995).

Stressful situations (i.e., job stressors) that are perceived to threaten individuals' well-being (Spector, Dwyer & Jex, 1998) lead to negative emotional responses such as anger or anxiety and negative emotions (Spector, 1998). Consequently, employees may engage in CWB as a coping strategy to lessen these emotionally repulsive and frustrating situations (Spector, 1998).

When employees perceive that their organizations are unsupportive, the decline in their empathy triggers a cognitive process to decrease the blame which can prevent aggressive responses toward both employees and organization (Fida et al., 2015). Therefore, employees who are ostracized and believe that their organization tolerate incivility tend to experience negative emotions and accordingly intend to sabotage the service flow in their organizations.

Another important aspect of the findings that requires special attention is that the sizes of the effect of workplace ostracism and tolerance to incivility on negative emotion are not significantly different; but their effect on intention to sabotage differs significantly. In particular, the impact of workplace tolerance incivility on the intention to sabotage is approximately 2 times higher than workplace ostracism; which is contrary to Sulea et al.'s (2012) findings who claimed that ostracism has higher effect.

The workplaces in contemporary organizations consist of different generations working together. The current study aimed to determine whether generational differences exist in terms of the response to workplace ostracism and the situations in which organizations seem to ignore and tolerate uncivil behaviors. Specifically, current study explored whether some generations (i.e., baby boomers, Generation X

and Generation Y) would be less likely to experience negative emotions and intend to sabotage the service when they face ostracism and remark a tolerance to uncivil behaviors in their workplace.

This study hypothesized that generation will moderate the observed relationships. The findings of the study combined with profound literature review, have offered evidence that support that generational difference is significantly related to workplace misbehaviors namely ostracism and intention to sabotage. Findings illustrate that having different mindsets and beliefs of different generations influence the extent to which ostracism and tolerance to incivility affect negative emotions and intention to sabotage. As suggested, the relationships between determinants of intention to sabotage of employees were moderated by generational differences (H5a, H5b, H5c and H5d). However, relationship between negative emotions and intention to sabotage was not moderated by generational differences (H5e was rejected accordingly).

As Arsenault (2004) argued each generation has its own traditions and culture, collective preferences, emotions and attitudes. Recently, Kim, Kim, Han and Holland (2016) supported this notion arguing that behaviors, attitudes, and values are unlikely to change during a generation's lifetime, thus distinguishing them from former and latter ones. In the same line of reasoning, Karp and Sirias (2001) argued that different characteristics of generations such as personality, emotion and work values in some situations can lead to conflict in interpersonal relationships at workplaces.

According to the results, for employees in Generation X, there were positive relationships between ostracism and negative emotions and tolerance to incivility and

intention to sabotage. In case of Generation Y employees, there was a positive relationship between tolerance to incivility and negative emotions and in case of baby boomers the relationship was positive relationship between ostracism and intention to sabotage. Revealing by the results, Generation X employees are more likely to incorporate negative emotion in regard to ostracism and Generation Y employees are more likely to do so in regard to tolerance to incivility. Moreover, baby boomers appear to ascribe more vengeful behaviors toward instigators or organizations when they face ostracism in their workplaces. Alternatively, Generation X employees may ascribe more spiteful motives to the instigators or organizations when they remark that their organizations tolerate incivility.

These results validate the importance of generational differences in regard to reactions to misbehaviors witnessed in the workplace. These results similarly certify that different generations may behave differently when confronting with stressful situations (workplace ostracism and tolerance to incivility) in which the intention to hurt is exposed to interpretation. These findings exposed how to dissuade intention to sabotage among different generations. Hence, this study's results offer a better understanding of how work attitudes characterized by generational differences are crucial factors in determining impacts of intention to sabotage among banking employees in Nigeria.

5.1 Theoretical Implications

The findings of current study have important theoretical implications. Firstly, simultaneous examinations of different theories for clarifying the relationships between work mistreatments (i.e., workplace ostracism and tolerance to incivility),

negative emotions and intention to sabotage (as a newly developed construct) elucidate the paths between mistreatments, emotions and actions.

In addition, results of this study add additional support for the tenets of COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), AET (Weiss & Corpanzano, 1969), stressor-emotion model of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005) and work frustration-aggression (Fox & Spector, 1999) theories. According to what is revealed by the results when Nigerian employees face workplaces ostracism, they will experience higher level of negative emotions and subsequently these negative emotions will cause them to have the higher intention to sabotage. Additionally, when these employees remark that their organizations tolerate uncivil behaviors, they feel negative emotions. Accordingly, due to these adverse emotions they are more likely to intend to sabotage the service flow of their organizations. These results also revealed that abovementioned theories are valid and relevant in Nigerian context and more specifically Nigerian banking and insurance industry. These findings also reveal that Nigerian employees' behavior are in line with the tenets and assumptions of these theories.

5.2 Managerial Implications

To a large extent current inquiry expands earlier findings in the literature of organizational misbehavers. The results of this study can be promising in determining organizational and human resource strategies meant to discourage work mistreatments. Accordingly, current study proposes some beneficial implications for the Nigerian banking industry managers.

First of all, current study recommends managers put more effort to control incivility in the workplaces as it turns out to be more detrimental. Due to potential costs and

the likelihood of workplace incivility to disperse and create a mistreatment spiral, organizations should try to curtail incivility and encourage courtesy. Therefore, it is essential for managers to be actively involved and prevent different kind of work misbehaviors (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Moreover, Schneider, Wesselmann and Desouza (2017) highlighted the destructive effects of ignoring misbehaviors and stated that silent bystanders can nurture an intolerance climate. Similarly these silent observers can intentionally or unintentionally increase individuals' feelings of ostracism (Chernyak & Zayas, 2010). Therefore, consistent with Schneider et al. (2017) present study suggests organizations train their leaders, managers, supervisors and employees to be active allies and not bystanders, to interfere and discourage these hostile behaviors.

Incivility, exclusion, harassment, and discrimination are subtle organizational misbehaviors which deleteriously affect targets (Zurbrügg & Miner, 2016). Social and environmental norms are significant factors in determining meanings and impacts of the behaviors (Robinson et al., 2013). Human beings should follow certain social norms in their daily interpersonal and social interactions (Goffman, 1959). Violating these norms and scripts requires self-regulation, focus and concentration (Ciarocco, Sommer & Baumeister, 2001). Nonetheless, if any, there are small numbers of well-defined social norms concerning these behaviors in workplaces (DeSouza, 2011). Loi and Loh (2015) recommended organizations inspire a culture that denounces any type of misbehavior and encourage well-mannered behaviors and safe workplaces. Therefore, current study recommends managers establish a set of ethical rule, codes of conducts and policies which avert undesirable employee behaviors and help employees cope with challenging job circumstances. In addition, this study advises organizations to try to come up with

work policies and organizations' mission statements which precisely and strictly advocate proper work principles. These procedures and regulations and establishing some formal and informal methods of conflict management can generate a safe culture in which regard, respect and well-mannered behaviors are encouraged.

What is more, incivility, as a misbehavior, which is lack of regards for one another, is not an illegal behavior. Most of organizations failed to identify incivility, and most of managers and supervisors are not well equipped to handle it. In the same line of reasoning, to protect their employees from subsequent harmful outcomes, current study advises managers to delegitimize such misbehaviors by setting tough rules like a zero-tolerance policy for incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999) and swift punishment for instigators.

Considering the tense competition amongst service providers, the results of this study, in agreement with Erkutlu and Chafra (2016), suggest that organizations and more specifically service providers, should prevent and stop workplace ostracism promptly. Preventive organizations act on such misbehaviors before their members feel demotivated and disconnect from their work (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2016). Moreover, identifying the source and underlying reasons of ostracism proactively can mitigate the negative impacts and the likelihood of its reoccurrence (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2016). Individuals with past experiences of ostracism and with lower self-esteem are more likely to ostracize other people (Wu, Yim, Kwan & Zhang, 2012). Therefore, organizations are advised to provide adequate and appropriate training programs for both managers and employees to improve their self-esteem. More importantly, current study suggests HR practitioners employ psychometric and

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personality tests during the employment and selection stage to identify those applicants with aggressive behaviors.

As earlier studies have revealed ostracism can be an emotionally painful experience and generate feelings of guilt, anxiety and stress even for the instigator (Ciarocco et al., 2001). Organizations which decrease these undesirable feelings can cause a greater occurrence of purposeful ostracism (Robinson et al., 2013). As a result, consistent with Williams (2007), this study's suggestion to managers is to develop some influential coping strategies to decrease negative outcomes resulted from ostracism. Organizational leaders should also educate their employees about detrimental impacts of ostracism and encourage them to solve their difficulties through discussion (Williams, 2001).

In addition, for handling and if possible lessening the level of ostracism happening under their supervision, another suggestion of this study for managers is to nurture an organizational culture which deters misbehaviors. Therefore, establishing a resource-rich environment for employees and strengthening workplace harmony is advisable for organizations. Such environments can enhance one's workplace meaningfulness and eventually lead to positive organizational outcomes (Zdaniuk & Bobocel, 2015).

As mentioned earlier and along with the literature, the findings reveal the potential detrimental consequences of workplace mistreatments. However, firing the instigators of workplace mistreatment has been unsuccessful to address the problem of negative and unethical behaviors in organizations (Analoui, 1995). Still, ineffective trainings, insufficient communication and unsupportive rules and policies make employees dismissal a momentary solution (Abubakar & Arasli, 2016).

Therefore, the recommendation of this study for managers is to provide adequate and accurate ethical training programs, which offer employees a proper set of communication skills and also necessary skills for dealing with challenging conditions that may encourage aggressive behaviors. Similarly, along with Pearson and Porath (2005), this study recommends managers provide proper training to educate employees in stress and conflict management. By providing proper training for employees organizations can teach employees how to communicate and relate with one another which resembles a realm of mindfulness, support and fairness.

Dealing with a multigenerational work environment is a main challenge for managers nowadays (Rani & Samuel, 2016). Each generation has its own perception and attitude toward the workplace. Undermining behaviors and lack of understanding about these differences may lead to various negative work outcomes such as miscommunication, misinterpretation and wicked relationships among generations (Becton, Walker & Jones-Farmer, 2014). Therefore, offering emotional assistance and helping employees to restructure challenging circumstances, current study highlights the need for psychologists in modern organizations (Jóhannsdóttir & Ólafsson, 2004).

Unlike Kowske, Rasch and Wiley (2010) who argued that tailoring HR practices to each generation is costly and exceeds its advantages, in agreement with Yang and Tread (2016), this study believes that managers should customize their practices and help employees based on their generational level of needs. Particularly, Generation X and baby boomers should be encouraged to acquire required skills to deal with workplace conflict more properly. Therefore, the suggestion for practitioners is to

manage, recruit, train, motivate, and reward each generation differently to improve required skills to deal with undesirable behaviors.

Generation X, when being ostracized, more than others developed negative emotions and when witnessing tolerance to incivility intended to sabotage the service more than others. Generation X cohorts are less outcome oriented, distrusting and skeptical (Francis-Smith, 2004), less loyal to the organization and more ready to leave the organization for a more interesting work with more benefits (Hays, 1999). Considering all of these factors, this study suggests managers try to gain employees trust especially in challenging situations by providing more practical and active help and encouraging them to actively express their feelings through channels provided by the organization.

Generation Y, as the future generation of employees (Twenge, 2010), wish for meaningful work and are more cynical with the organization (Ryan, 2000). Also, when witnessing tolerance to incivility, they experienced negative emotions more than others. Thereof, current study suggests that managers educate this generation to openly discuss their work problems with their supervisors and encourage them to proactively shape their work environment in a positive way. Both generations X and Y appraise social work values more than baby boomers (Lamm & Meeks, 2009). Hence, while putting an effort to create a pleasant work environment, managers should emphasize social relationships and motivate these generations to work in friendly collaboration and not in hostility.

Finally, facing ostracism, baby boomers as the upcoming retired generation (Twenge, 2010) have shown the intention to sabotage the service more than others. In order to

prevent this, present study recommends managers to offer them proper anger and crisis management training and educate them on how to deal with their negative emotions.

5.3 Limitations and Future Research Directions

The findings of this study should be interpreted in light of the study's inherent limitations. First, the measures were self-reported, which can raise concerns regarding CMV (Podsakoff et al., 2003). However, efforts were made to lessen the impact of CMV by ensuring confidentiality of responses, which is expected to reduce social desirability bias.

Second, the absence of a cross-lagged study design limits the causal conclusions that can be drawn from the results. Therefore, future studies can employ longitudinal study design which allows making causal inferences. Conducting a longitudinal study will also provide confirmatory evidence for the current findings.

Third, generalizability of the study findings is constraint due the use of data from the Nigerian context. Although Nigeria offers an ideal context to inspect the proposed hypotheses, these results may not be generalizable to Western and Eastern nations and other national settings with more effective resources and regulatory systems that may limit workplace mistreatment. In addition, cultural setting may have significant impact on findings. As such, present study urges scholars to conduct similar studies in other countries and cultural settings.

Fourth, in line with Wesselmann, Williams and Nida (2016), this study believes that there are numerous possible future research directions for ostracism. Although current study adopted the psychometrically sound scale for workplace ostracism, this

scale does not identify between the sources and forms of workplace ostracism. Some individuals can confront more of one type of ostracism which subsequently can determine and affect their immediate and delayed reactions as well as their coping mechanism. Accordingly, future research can employ a as set of scales which can identify different sources or frequencies of ostracism.

Fifth, although this study has provided evidence that workplace tolerance to incivility is more detrimental than workplace ostracism; yet, more research is needed to rule out alternative explanations before the current outcome is archived. Future research can also examine other factors contributing to incivility and ostracism for instance effectiveness of coping, gender and potential differences among additional generational groups.

A final, but vital area, for future research is to investigate interventions for dealing with the effects of workplace mistreatment, and the results of the current study can guide such interventions. Positional moderators that can buffer the negative effect of workplace mistreatment namely psychological capital could be tested on the model.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A

- Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Aagree	Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	5	

Items					
Others ignored you at work	1	2	3	4	5
Others left the area when you entered	1	2	3	4	5
Your greetings have gone unanswered at work	1	2	3	4	5
You involuntarily sat alone in a crowded lunchroom at work	1	2	3	4	5
Others avoided you at work	1	2	3	4	5
You noticed others would not look at you at work	1	2	3	4	5
Others at work shut you out of the conversation	1	2	3	4	5
Others refused to talk to you at work	1	2	3	4	5
Others at work treated you as if you weren't there	1	2	3	4	5
Others at work did not invite you or ask you if you wanted anything when they went out for a coffee break	1	2	3	4	5

Items					
I often think about withdrawing my effort and energy and enacting flexible service rules because of rude customers	1	2	3	4	5
I sometimes feel it is not worth caring for the bank resources, time and energy, as no one knows your value	1	2	3	4	5
I will not hesitate to share my knowledge, experience, and feedback with the management	1	2	3	4	5
I will not hesitate to share my knowledge, experience, and feedback with coworkers	1	2	3	4	5
I don't see any problem directing customers to other banks	1	2	3	4	5
I don't have the intention to hurt customers	1	2	3	4	5
I don't have the intention to hurt coworkers	1	2	3	4	5

As long as I am comfortable with many aspects of my job, why should I slow down or disrupt service flow	1	2	3	4	5

- Please indicate what would likely happen in your workplace if you made a formal complaint against a co-worker who engaged in the following behaviors.

Nothing	Very little- someone might talk to the person	The person would be told to stop	The person would be given a formal warning	There would be very serious consequences
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Items					
Repeatedly invaded your privacy (e.g. read communications addressed to you, took items from your desk, or opened your desk drawers without permission).	1	2	3	4	5
Repeatedly gossiped about you to other coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5
Repeatedly treated you in overtly hostile manner (e.g. spoke to you in an aggressive tone of voice, made snide remarks to you, or rolled his or her eyes at you).	1	2	3	4	5
Regularly withheld important information relevant to your job and/or excluded you from key decisions.	1	2	3	4	5

- Please indicate how often you feel each of the following emotions.

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Frequently
1	2	3	4	5

Items					
Furious	1	2	3	4	5
Gloomy	1	2	3	4	5
Angry	1	2	3	4	5
Anxious	1	2	3	4	5
Bored	1	2	3	4	5
Depressed	1	2	3	4	5
Discouraged	1	2	3	4	5
Disgusted	1	2	3	4	5
Fatigued	1	2	3	4	5
Frightened	1	2	3	4	5

Please fill the following section.

Gender:
Male◯   Female◯

Year of Birth:
1943-1960◯   1961-1980◯   1981-2000◯

Organizational tenure:
Less than 1 year◯   Between 1-4 years◯   Between 5-8 years◯
More than 9 years◯

Educational level:
Some college degree◯   Bachelor degree◯   Higher degrees◯