2-14-2024

The Relative Strength of Managerial Abuse, Emotion Regulation, and Displaced Aggression on Life Satisfaction

Mikhail Lyublinsky
Walden University

Walden University

College of Psychology and Community Services

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Mikhail Lyublinsky

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Hedy Dexter, Committee Chairperson, Psychology Faculty
Dr. Anthony Perry, Committee Member, Psychology Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2024

Abstract

The Relative Strength of Managerial Abuse, Emotion Regulation, and Displaced

Aggression on Life Satisfaction

by

Mikhail Lyublinsky

MS, Walden University, 2013

BS, Brooklyn College, CUNY, 1984

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Psychology

Walden University

February 2024

Abstract

The potential for negative experiences in the workplace, such as managerial abuse (i.e., the inappropriate and harmful behavior of managers towards subordinates, including verbal aggression and unfair treatment), presents significant obstacles to employee satisfaction and overall well-being. Although ample evidence has supported the detrimental impact of managerial abuse on employees' life satisfaction, the influence of other factors such as the ability to regulate one's emotional reactions and/or vent one's anger by displacing it on someone without the power to retaliate may further impact one's satisfaction with life. Informed by the theory of displaced aggression, the purpose of this quantitative, nonexperimental, correlational study was to determine the relative strength of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression in predicting employee life satisfaction. Online surveys were administered by SurveyMonkey to 117 participants currently employed and who reported to a manager. Hierarchical multiple regression was used to analyze the data. Results indicated that neither managerial abuse nor emotion regulation significantly predicted employee life satisfaction. However, a significant positive relationship was found between displaced aggression and life satisfaction, suggesting that venting one's anger has a cathartic effect that serves to increase life satisfaction. Insights from this study may be used to inform organizational polices related to employee/manager role relationships with the potential to diffuse conflict and prevent a hostile work environment. Diffusing anger in the workplace has positive social change implications insofar as anger expressed either at work or at home affects not just the workers, but their families as well.

The Relative Strength of Managerial Abuse, Emotion Regulation, and Displaced

Aggression on Life Satisfaction

by

Mikhail Lyublinsky

MS, Walden University, 2013

BS, Brooklyn College, CUNY, 1984

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Psychology

Walden University

February 2024

Dedication

First and foremost, this work is dedicated to my wife, Adrienne O'Neill-Lyublinsky, who served as my steadfast pillar of support throughout the journey through the realms of research and academia. The limitless encouragement, patience, and love she provided have propelled each word written and every milestone reached. In acknowledgment of her vital role in this academic endeavor, I proudly dedicate this work to the woman whose unwavering belief in me has been the driving force behind my success.

Secondly, I dedicate this dissertation to my dear parents, Bela and Leonid Lyublinsky who, though no longer with us in physical presence, continue to shape the very essence of who I am. Their boundless love and nurturing guidance were the bedrock of my existence, instilling in me the values that have fueled my pursuits. In dedicating this work to them, I honor the legacy of two extraordinary souls whose encouragement inspired me to reach for the stars and be the best version of myself. Their enduring love lives on in the pages of my accomplishments, a testament to the profound impact they had on my life and aspirations.

Lastly, this dissertation is dedicated to each of you, my beloved children, Ingrid, Ashley, Jessica, and Lukian. As you navigate your unique paths in life, it is my heartfelt hope that this work becomes one of your guiding lights, a beacon illuminating the possibilities that await you. May these pages serve as a testament to the importance of fearlessly embracing one's calling. My aspiration is that this dissertation becomes an example, inspiring you to navigate your own ways with courage and authenticity. May it

instill in each of you the belief that you can freely embrace your passions and chart your

course at any point in life.

Acknowledgments

I extend my profound gratitude to Dr. Hedy Red Dexter, my esteemed dissertation chair, for her invaluable guidance during this academic pursuit. Dr. Dexter's exceptional expertise and extensive experience have played a pivotal role in shaping the course of this research. I am deeply appreciative of her dedication to upholding the highest academic standards. Her unwavering commitment to excellence, combined with a personalized approach that maintained rigor, has enriched the dissertation process. Dr. Dexter's insightful feedback, encouragement, and mentorship have been crucial in enhancing the quality of this work.

My sincere appreciation extends to Dr. Anthony Perry, a respected methodology expert and an essential member of the dissertation committee. Dr. Perry's profound understanding of research methods, adept application of theory, and statistical expertise have proved invaluable to this research project. His guidance and insights have significantly contributed to the strength and methodological soundness of this dissertation. Dr. Perry's commitment to excellence and his willingness to share his expertise have been crucial in shaping the research design and analytical framework.

I feel truly fortunate to have had Dr. Hedy Red Dexter and Dr. Anthony Perry as integral members of my dissertation committee, and I am grateful for their enduring support.

Lastly, I would like to acknowledge and express my sincere gratitude to all the teachers in my life for the invaluable lessons and inspiration they have imparted.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

An average American person spends 8 hours of a weekday at a place of their employment (Liu et al., 2018). During these hours, interactions with other people can lead to interpersonal conflicts (Wright et al., 2017). Interpersonal conflicts can occur between managers and their subordinates caused by simple disagreements or misunderstandings, that while unpleasant, are typically brief and inconsequential. Other conflicts may be more consequential as their root cause may be managerial abuse, which is not a transient occurrence and can be fraught with negative consequences for employees' emotional and psychological wellbeing (Bowling & Michel, 2011). This type of behavior varies and can include name calling, denial of privileges given to others, threats to job security, ostracizing, denial of promotion, exclusion from training, harassment, and others (Hinduja, 2009).

Managerial abuse can provoke anger among subordinate employees and the desire to retaliate. However, retaliating against one's boss is ill-advised as it may put one's job at risk. Employee anger may instead be displaced onto convenient substitutes (e.g., coworkers, or family members; Rajchert et al., 2022). Displaced aggression can be appeasing for an abused person (i.e., one confronted by a manager) and offer a sense of passing relief from the overburden of their traumatic encounters (Leander & Chartrand, 2017). Thus, displacing one's anger onto a less risky substitute can be cathartic. Alternatively, research has shown that the ability to regulate one's emotions when dealing with stressful situations can mitigate the need to express one's anger through

aggression (Hsieh & Chen, 2017). By whichever means, the need to alleviate stress is necessary not only for employee productivity at work but for employee wellbeing overall (Moin et al., 2020). By identifying that with the potential to ameliorate workplace conflict and improve workers' quality of life, the results of this study may help to reduce the impact of managerial abuse and contribute to improved quality of life for subordinate employees.

The material presented in Chapter 1 includes the study topic, research problem, the purpose of the study, research questions, and hypotheses. Following, I includes the theoretical framework and the nature of the study. The nature of the study addresses a rationale for the study design, the key variables, the methodology, assumptions, scope, and delimitations. I conclude the chapter with a brief discussion about the study limitations and significance.

Background

Hierarchical structure is a ubiquitous form of social organization (Friesen et al., 2014). Hence, it is not a surprise that most industrial institutions, as social organizations, have adopted this organizational structure to manage their business. The corporate hierarchy resembles a pyramid-like structure with several layers where lower-level employees report to individuals in the level above them. Research has shown that there are advantages to a corporate hierarchy, for example, unambiguous communications within the company, elimination of redundancies to facilitate the efficient allocation of resources to specific functions, and the presence of monitoring and controls over the company (Casson, 1994). Corporate hierarchy, by definition, ranks employees according

to their status or authority; leaders (e.g., managers, supervisors) have certain control over their subordinates who report directly to them. However, this employee ranking can also lead to the higher placement of people with inadequate skills and behaviors who, given their positions of power, may abuse or bully their subordinates (Holland, 2019). The consequences of such behaviors are detrimental both to the organization and, more importantly to these subordinates, specifically to their psychological and physiological well-being (Park & Ono, 2017).

The arousal of anger is a common reaction to abuse among subordinates (Gouldner, 1960). However, the subordinates, lacking power relative to their managers and being concerned with repercussions (e.g., risk of job loss) for venting their anger against an abusive manager, may instead lash out against a safer substitute (Dollard, 1938). The targets onto whom employee anger is displaced can include the organization, colleagues, friends, and family members, all often unaware of the reasons for the aggression. In episodes of displaced aggression, subordinates may sabotage company operations, lash out at a peer, or pick a fight with members of their family (Feng et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2022). The opportunity to vent one's anger through displaced aggression has been found to have a cathartic effect (Konecni & Doob, 1972; Leander & Chartrand, 2017). As an alternative to displaced aggression, the available literature has found that, when provoked, the ability to control one's emotional reactions, the aggressive impulse may be avoided altogether (Salguero et al., 2020). In any case, identifying strategies for diffusing anger has implications for improved quality of life. While studies to date have independently examined the influence of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and

displaced aggression on satisfaction with life, none has investigated the relative strength of each on life satisfaction.

Problem Statement

Managerial abuse is a pattern of abusive behavior directed at a subordinate under their supervision; abuse can include intimidation, humiliation, and other provocations used by managers to exert power and control over subordinates (Starr-Glass, 2017). Research has demonstrated that employees subjected to such behaviors may experience both psychological (e.g., feelings of anxiety, depression, and stress) and physical (e.g., elevated blood pressure, headaches, sleep disturbances, and digestive problems) symptoms (Bonde et al., 2016; Peltokorpi & Ramaswami, 2021). Working in a toxic work environment, subordinate employees may feel unsupported and undervalued, they can become demotivated, less productive, display higher levels of absenteeism, develop negative attitudes towards their jobs, leading to poor performance appraisal and, ultimately, to a decreased sense of job satisfaction (Moin et al., 2020). Overall, recent research has provided evidence of the negative impact of managerial abuse on employees' life satisfaction (Liang et al., 2022).

Displaced aggression occurs when an individual redirects their anger towards someone who is not its source (i.e., an abusive manager) often due to fear of retaliation or punishment (Dollard et al., 1939). As evidenced by Pedersen et al. (2017), people who engaged in displaced aggression had higher levels of negative emotions, decreased levels of self-esteem, and were experiencing increased levels of social rejection. Alternatively, some recent studies have found that displaced aggression can have a cathartic effect and

that the opportunity to vent one's anger may restore a sense of calm that diminishes the negative impact of manager abuse on the subordinate's sense of wellbeing (Jahanzeb et al., 2019; Leander & Chartrand, 2017). Both outcomes have found support in the literature, whether the impact of displaced aggression on life satisfaction is negative or positive may depend on the circumstances, including the individual's ability to control their emotional reactions to provocation. While the redirection of aggression towards safer targets may provide a temporary sense of relief and emotional release, it is still essential to recognize the potential negative consequences and limitations of this coping mechanism. Displaced aggression can have different impacts on one's satisfaction with life, with potential outcomes both deleterious and cathartic. In some cases, the expression of suppressed anger through displaced aggression may offer a sense of relief and catharsis, enabling people to regain a sense of empowerment and alleviate internal distress; this can result in a temporary boost to life satisfaction. In contrast, displacing one's anger to unsuspecting others (e.g., coworkers, family members) can strain relationships and hinder long-term healing and growth, leading to decreased life satisfaction.

Emotion regulation is one's ability to manage and control their own emotions, thoughts, and behaviors in response to challenging situations (i.e., managerial abuse; Cole & Michel, 1994). A study conducted by Aldao et al. (2010) demonstrated that individuals with capabilities to regulate their emotions had better coping skills and exhibited fewer symptoms associated with depression and anxiety. Another study showed that those who could better self-regulate their emotions were more likely perceived by

others as competent, pleasant, less angry, and having more positive social relationships (Asadi et al., 2022). Deffenbacher et al. (1996) found that individuals who were pleasant, less angry, less anxious and/or depressed, who had positive social relationships reported higher levels of satisfaction with life. On the other hand, according to de Ridder et al. (2012), one's exertion of excessive self-control may lead to their fatigue, weakening, closeness to new experiences, reduction in creativity, things that could decrease their well-being, stifle their opportunities for growth and development and ultimately decrease their satisfaction with life.

Although there exists a great deal of research examining the direct impact of managerial abuse, displaced aggression, and emotion regulation on satisfaction with life (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012; Stucke & Baumeister, 2006; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2007), no study to date has examined the relative strength of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression on satisfaction with life. In this study, I aimed to fill the existing gap by exploring this relationship.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative research was to determine the relative strength of managerial abuse (independent variable [IV]), emotion regulation (IV), and displaced aggression (IV) in predicting employee life satisfaction (dependent variable [DV]).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1: To what extent does displaced aggression, as measured by the Displaced Aggression Questionnaire, relate to life satisfaction, as measured by the

Life Satisfaction Questionnaire, among English-speaking adults, 18+, employed full-time in the United States?

$H_0 1$: Displaced aggression is a not a predictor of perceived life satisfaction.

$H_a 1$: Displaced aggression is a predictor of perceived life satisfaction.

Research Question 2: To what extent does managerial abuse, as measured by the Shortened Measure of Abusive Supervision, relate to life satisfaction, as measured by the Life Satisfaction Questionnaire, among English-speaking adults, 18+, employed full-time in the United States?

$H_0 2$: Managerial abuse is a not a predictor of perceived life satisfaction.

$H_a 2$: Managerial abuse is a predictor of perceived life satisfaction.

Research Question 3: To what extent does emotion regulation, as measured by the Emotion Regulation Strategies Scale, relate to life satisfaction, as measured by the Life Satisfaction Questionnaire, among English-speaking adults, 18+, employed full-time in the United States?

$H_0 3$: Emotion regulation is a not a predictor of perceived life satisfaction.

$H_a 3$: Emotion regulation is a predictor of perceived life satisfaction.

Theoretical and/or Conceptual Framework for the Study

Dollard's (1938) theory of displaced aggression was used as a foundation for this study. According to Dollard, aggression is displaced when individuals redirect their potentially aggressive behavior toward a substitute target who is not the primary source of their frustration. Dollard theorized that certain factors (e.g., fear of retaliation from an abusive manager) may prevent individuals from directly aggressing towards the source of

anger (i.e., the abusive manager). Hence, these individuals will direct their aggression at less threatening individuals (i.e., family members, coworkers, or friends).

Recent studies have shown a link between displaced aggression and various mental and physical health problems (Shafique & Sadiq, 2019). Displaced aggression can contribute to interpersonal issues (Su et al., 2021), creating tension among coworkers or family members that impact an individual's overall quality of life (Fugl-Meyer et al., 1991a). Research has also indicated that displaced aggression can be an opportunity to vent one's frustration, functioning, in that case, as a stress release to provide a sense of relief and/or satisfaction. A more detailed explanation of Dollard's theory is presented in Chapter 2.

Nature of the Study

The study used a cross-sectional, correlational, quantitative survey design that determined the relative strength of managerial abuse (IV), emotion regulation (IV), and displaced aggression (IV) in predicting employee life satisfaction (DV). Data were collected once by SurveyMonkey ©, a commercial survey research platform, using surveys to measure the variables of interest.

The population for this study was adults at least 18 years old employed at the time of the time of their participation. I used a convenience sampling strategy due to financial and temporal constraints. Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 28.0. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed, which is appropriate for determining relationships among variables, including their relative strength in relation to the outcome variable (see Jeong & Jung, 2016).

Definitions

Displaced aggression: Aggressive behavior directed away from the initial trigger, or the source of frustration or anger, toward either the self or a different entity (American Psychological Association [APA], 2023).

Life satisfaction: An assessment of one's well-being consisting of a number of compounding aspects that include states of self-care (e.g., dressing, hygiene, etc.), leisure, vocation, education, finances, sexual life, family life, and social life (Fugl-Meyer et al., 1991a).

Managerial abuse: Managerial behavior directed toward subordinates that often involves unfounded criticism, verbal abuse, intimidation, creation of hostile work environment, etc., to assert control (Van Fleet & Van Fleet, 2012).

Reappraisal: An emotion regulation strategy that involves reinterpreting a situation (e.g., deciding one feels excitement instead of anxiety; Gross, 1998).

Suppression: An emotion regulation strategy that involves inhibiting one's emotional impulse (e.g., counting to ten before responding in a tense situation; Gross, 1998).

Assumptions

There were several assumptions made in this study. I assumed that participants complied with instructions when completing the survey instruments. I also assumed that the participants were honest and truthful in their responses. Finally, while participants who have been abused or have vented their anger on unsuspecting coworkers or family

members may have been reluctant to disclose their experiences, I assumed that anonymous data collection mitigated their concerns.

Scope and Delimitations

The goal of the study was to determine the relative strength of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression on life satisfaction. The sample was limited by several criteria that included English-speaking U.S. residents employed at the time of the study in a subordinate role (i.e., report directly to a manager or supervisor who oversees their work-related activities). The sample participants were not limited to any of the existing industrial sectors, organizations, or communities. Individuals employed outside the United States may experience differences both in organizational structure and role relationships among employees and were, therefore, excluded. Examining cross-cultural differences was beyond the scope of this study.

Limitations

Because convenience sampling was used, the representativeness of the sample and, therefore, generalizability of the findings was limited. Self-selection bias is another potential limitation, as those who volunteered to participate may have been different demographically and dispositionally from those who did not volunteer. Lastly, when working with self-report surveys, social desirability bias can be limiting such that participants are inclined to present themselves, not as who they are, but how they wish to be viewed (Caputo, 2017). To address the potential for social desirability bias, the participants were assured of the anonymity of their responses, given that no identifying information was collected.

Significance

Because a large population of the United States residents must work and,
potentially, a significant number of these workers may experience some form of
managerial abuse, insights from this study may identify strategies effective at diffusing
subordinate anger. That knowledge may be used to inform organizational polices related
to employee/manager role relationships with the potential to diffuse conflict and prevent
a hostile work environment from negatively impacting workers' life satisfaction.
Diffusing anger in the workplace has positive social change implications insofar as anger
expressed either at work or at home affects not just the workers but their families as well.

Summary

Although the direct effect of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced
aggression have been shown to be related to quality of and satisfaction with life, research
to date has not examined the relative strength of each on life satisfaction. In this study, I
addressed that gap. The study was informed by the theory of displaced aggression and
used a cross-sectional, correlational design. The collection of data was facilitated by a
third-party vendor, SurveyMonkey©. Identifying strategies that may be effective at
diffusing workplace anger has implications for workers' and their families' satisfaction
with life.

Chapter 2 describes the literature search strategy followed by a detailed analysis
of the theoretical foundation (i.e., displaced aggression theory). The remainder of the
chapter presents an exhaustive review of the literature related to key variables (i.e.,

managerial abuse, emotion regulation, displaced aggression, and satisfaction with life), concluding with a summary.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Corporate hierarchy is one of the oldest and most prevalent organizational structures (Mercadal, 2021). The most discernible characteristic of this structure is the relationship between people who are "in charge" (i.e., managers) with those who report to them (i.e., subordinates). Managers control the business activities related to the functions under their purview, including the supervision of subordinates (Mercadal, 2021). Current research has provided numerous examples where managerial control tactics used in the function of the supervision of subordinates exceed the boundaries of acceptable norms (Khan et al., 2017). These tactics are referred to as managerial abuse or managerial abuse, the two interchangeable behavioral conceptualizations (Medina et al., 2020; Williams, 2018). The behaviors that comprise these conceptualizations include accusations of wrongdoing, humiliation, withholding necessary information, and demanding impossible deadlines (Khan et al., 2017), and have been shown to have consequences for employees' emotional and psychological wellbeing (Peltokorpi & Ramaswami, 2021). Additionally, these health consequences can negatively affect the organizations as poor employee health can result in excessive absenteeism, increased turnover, and decreased organizational productivity (Almeida et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2019; Williams, 2018).

Relevance of the Problem

Other repercussions of managerial abuse have been documented. For example, abused employees can become aggressive towards their colleagues. Fearing some measure of managerial punishment, the abused employee will likely not retaliate against

the abusive manager but will instead lash out against a coworker or family member who may present a convenient substitute. This transfer of anger from its source (i.e., the provocateur) to an alternative convenient target (e.g., coworker, family member) is defined as displaced aggression, the likelihood of which increases as the abused victim ruminates over the abuse with the intent to retaliate (Contreras et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2018). Studies has shown that an ability to manage one's emotional reaction to provocation calms the provoked person and reduces the probability that their anger and aggression will be displaced toward someone else (Richard et al., 2020). Research has also demonstrated that the ability to emotionally self-regulate reduces stress, anxiety, and increases life satisfaction (Moin et al., 2020). However, while rumination over retaliation against abusive managers (Goute et al., 2021) and displacement of aggression to other employees have been studied (Richard et al., 2020), to date, no research has examined the relative strength of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression on employee life satisfaction.

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relative strength of managerial abuse (IV), emotion regulation (IV), and displaced aggression (IV) on employee life satisfaction (DV). Knowing if emotion regulation is effective at controlling the aggression associated with the abusive behaviors can lead to mitigative practices with the potential to address the psychological and physical health of abused employees.

This chapter details the literature search strategy, the theoretical framework (i.e., theory of displaced aggression) followed by an exhaustive review of the literature related

to key variables (i.e., managerial abuse, emotion regulation, displaced aggression, and life satisfaction) and concluding with a summary.

Literature Search Strategy

The Walden University library was used to retrieve germane peer-reviewed articles. The databases used included Academic Search Complete, Thoreau, APA PsychInfo, APA PsycArticles, APA PsycTests, MEDLINE with Full Text, SAGE journals, SocINDEX with Full Text, and Taylor and Francis Online. Google Scholar was used to quick-scan available sources and locate more recent literature. Key terms used for the literature search included combinations of the following: *managerial abuse, managerial abuse, work-related stress, stress-related health outcomes, self-regulation, trait aggression, rumination, displaced aggression,* and *triggered aggression.* Apart from seminal and formative theoretical sources, the majority of the literature accessed was from 2017 to 2022.

Theoretical Foundation

The Theory of Displaced Aggression

Dollard's (1938) model of displacement of aggression describes the potential for provoked persons to redirect their anger/aggression toward powerless others rather than at the more powerful provocateur. In the context of the workplace, for example, an employee bullied by a supervisor will likely not push back for fear of reprisal but will instead vent their anger at someone with status equal to their own (e.g., a coworker) or a family member lacking the power to retaliate (e.g., firing the employee; Miller et al., 2003). While it may be more satisfying to push back directly at the initial provocateur,

venting one's anger on the safer substitute (e.g., family member) still provides the provoked target a certain level of satisfaction and tends to lower any built-up aggressive tension (Bushman et al., 2005). Thus, to avoid the unfavorable consequence of direct aggression against the agent perceived to have provoked it, such as an abusive manager, the provoked person turns to a different target, presumably the safer choice, a coworker or a family member (Berkowitz, & Green, 1962).

Following the Dollard et al. (1939) publication, intense interest in displaced aggression generated a good deal of research activity that was short lived. Because scholars at that time questioned its empirical status, further research did not seem warranted and interest in displaced aggression faded (Hovland & Sears, 1940; Miller 1948). However, since the late 1980s, interest, especially in experimental psychological research, was reignited, and while Dollard (1938) has been widely credited with coining the theoretical concept of displaced aggression, over time, the concept has expanded to include specific conditions that moderate (i.e., likely to increase or constrain) the displaced aggressive impulse (Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000; Miller et al., 2003).

In their meta-analytic review, Marcus-Newhall et al. (2000) identified four theoretical conditions relevant to whether displaced aggression occurs, and the intensity of the aggressive action taken if it does.

The Provocation

Bettencourt and Miller (1996) defined provocation as a deliberate behavior intended to arouse anger that can vary in its intensity from something insignificant like hindering progress on a task to a more severe action such as a physical assault. Relevant

examples include a manager undermining a subordinate's work or verbally insulting a subordinate (Detert et al., 2008). In accordance with the reciprocity rule (Gouldner, 1960), the provocation provides the justification for the provoked target's aggression directed either at the initial provocateur or at an innocent other; in other words, a *tit for tat* (Bettencourt & Miller, 1996). Miller et al. (2003) stated that this element is theoretically and empirically important given the presumption that if an actor (e.g., an abused employee) had not previously been provoked, there would be no need to aggress against anyone, neither the initial provocateur nor an innocent other.

Similarity Between Provocateur and the Target of Displaced Aggression

According to Miller's model (1941), a provoked actor will have an initial desire for retaliation directed toward the source of their anger. In this situation, aggression towards the provocateur will depend on the relative levels of anger experienced and the provoked person's inhibitory tendencies (e.g., fear of consequential retaliation by the provocateur), and these two elements combined will predict the tendency to avoid direct aggression; if the avoidance tendencies are strong, then the actor's aggression will be repressed, especially if an alternative target is highly similar to the original provocateur. The suggestion here is that any aggressive retaliation by a provoked person towards a target will still be strongly influenced by the same inhibitory tendencies present given their similar retaliatory potential, and the stronger the likeness the less likely the aggression. This element is theoretically important as it can predict the strength of displaced aggression; that said, the level of potential provocateur retaliation and, therefore, the degree of inhibitory tendency of the provoked person are always

hypothetical as they cannot be empirically evaluated during initial conflicts (i.e., recreating control conditions would not be possible; Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000).

Similarity Between the Provoked Actor and the Target of Displaced Aggression

According to Byrne et al. (1967), people tend to like people similar to themselves, perceiving them as members of an overvalued ingroup. Conversely, people tend not to like dissimilar others, viewing them as members of an undervalued outgroup (Byrne, 1961). It follows, therefore, that an actor will be disinclined to aggress against ingroup members (e.g., coworkers) and more inclined to aggress against outgroup members (e.g., a member of the organization's housekeeping staff). As with the previous element, Marcus-Newhall et al. (2000) posited that ingroup vs. outgroup membership is important in predicting a provoked actor's tendency/degree of displaced aggression.

Setting of the Interaction Between the Provoked Person and Target of Displaced Aggression

Dollard et al. (1939) suggested that while any available nonpowerful individual can be a target of displaced aggression, Marcus-Newhall et al. (2000) claimed that the environment, per se, wherein in the provoked person and target of displaced aggression interact, cannot only predict the strength of the aggression but can also determine whether the aggression escalates. This does not include a situation where the displaced aggression target, per se, says or does something to further annoy or irritate the provoked person, but rather where something about the situation itself primes negative thoughts that function to increase the already provoked person's aggressive impulse. Consistent with Dollard's (1938) theoretical model, a person previously provoked, if irritated even unintentionally,

will likely vent their aggression on the unwitting target (e.g., an innocent family member). On the other hand, by presenting a pleasant disposition, the target may avoid the confrontation. That said, Marcus-Newhall et al. (2000) warned that absent a negative environment, or even in situations with positive environments, there is no guarantee that the provoked person will not aggress.

Renewed interest in displaced aggression theory has prompted its application in a number of recent studies. According to Xu et al. (2022), displaced aggression is a behavior that is observed in an actor who was provoked and made angry by that provocation. However, instead of aggressing directly at the source of the provocation for fear of strong retaliation, the actor directs their aggression at a weaker substitute; the substitute target can be both inanimate (e.g., an organization) or animate (e.g., an animal or another individual). In the example of the organization, the actor may decide to commit an act of sabotage such as damaging a computer system (Xu et al., 2022). However, for the purposes of this review, substitute targets only included persons (e.g., coworkers or family members).

The impulse to aggress when goals are thwarted is well-documented; what is not clearly understood is the impulse to displace the aggressive response onto unrelated targets. To determine what might motivate displaced aggression, Leander and Chartrand (2017) hypothesized that individuals use displaced aggression is to compensate for a sense of competence weakened by thwarted goals. Four experimental studies were conducted to test this hypothesis: Studies 1 and 2 tested the foundational predicts, namely that achievement goals, when first primed and then thwarted, would diminish one's sense

of competence (i.e., self-efficacy) and prompt a compensatory displaced aggression response (i.e., a proxy for threatened self-efficacy). Using a 2 (achievement prime vs. control) x 2 (task failure vs. success) factorial design, 145 introductory psychology students at a large midwestern university were either primed or not with an achievement goal (i.e., increase pressure to succeed) before undertaking a word-formation task where success/failure was manipulated. Results indicated that self-efficacy was negatively impacted for goal-thwarted participants. Having established the effect of goal-thwarting on self-efficacy, study 2 ($N = 386$) determined, as predicted, that self-efficacy, when threatened, prompts a displaced aggression response in an attempt to restore it. Study 3 examined the potential for displaced aggression, as a means to an end, to compensate for a diminished sense of self-efficacy. Goal failure was induced for 49 male undergraduates asked to perform an extremely difficult anagram task followed by an opportunity to allocate either barbecue sauce or hot sauce to individuals known to suffer painful reactions to hot sauce. As predicted, results indicated that the opportunity to aggress, even if only hypothetically, functions to compensate for goal-thwarted individuals' loss of self-efficacy.

To determine whether the superordinate motive was to experience efficacy or to aggress, per se, the final study gave goal-thwarted participants ($N = 377$) the opportunity to repeat the original task, predicting that a second chance to succeed would attenuate displaced aggression. Results supported this predication, at least among women. Unlike males, females may be disinclined toward aggressive responses, welcoming any opportunity to diffuse angry goal-thwarted responses that avoids aggression but still

restores self-efficacy. Findings from this study demonstrated a clear relationship between a thwarted goal and displaced aggression and are directly relevant to this study. Managerial abuse may function, similarly, to thwart an employee's workplace goals (e.g., withholding pertinent information, exclusion from meetings/discussions), creating an angry response than when displaced onto a substitute target (e.g., coworker, family member) may provide a sense of relief and/or satisfaction.

A well-recognized expression of displaced aggression is when an actor aggresses against an innocent individual as a result of the actor having been previously provoked (Dollard, 1939). However, there are different forms of displaced aggression that are not the result of provocation by an individual, but rather by something occurring in the environment that generates an emotional response resulting in some form of displaced aggression. To test that proposition, Hongbo et al. (2020) hypothesized that perceived coworker undermining (i.e., behavior by coworkers intending to impede others' success) would provoke an angry emotional response (i.e., state hostility) that will be expressed overtly as service sabotage (e.g., mistreating customers deliberately), behavior that harms the environment (i.e., the workplace/organization). Hongbo et al. hypothesized, further, that individual differences in distress tolerance (i.e., ability to deal with stress) and organizational identification (i.e., alignment between the organizational and personal goals) will moderate the relationship between perceived coworker undermining and service sabotage. Employees from service industries ($N = 218$) completed self-report measures, including a 5-item perceived coworker undermining scale (adopted from Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013), 6-item state hostility scale (Christian & Ellis, 2011), 15-

item distress tolerance scale (Simons & Gaher, 2005), 6-item organizational identification scale (adopted from Dukerich et al., 2002), and 3-item employee service sabotage scale (Chi et al., 2013). Results indicated that both distress tolerance and organizational identification moderated the relationship between perceived coworker undermining, state hostility, and service sabotage such that higher distress tolerance weakened the tendency for participants, angered by coworker undermining, to engage in service sabotage; greater organizational identification had the same moderating effect. In other words, the effect of hostility provoked by perceived coworker undermining on service sabotage was weaker when distress tolerance and organizational identification were higher. These findings are relevant to this study as they demonstrate the occurrence of displaced aggression in organizations that, if directed at coworkers, has the potential to create a hostile environment, impacting employee productivity and organizational profitability.

According to Bari et al. (2020), workers in a well-run company typically share their knowledge by exchanging ideas, processes, and experiences. This knowledge sharing benefits the company in myriad ways, including employee and team creativity, organizational learning, and increased productivity. Conversely, companies with abusive management experience a form of displaced aggression referred to as knowledge hiding (Feng et al., 2022), which is counterproductive and harmful to both the organization and its employees (Connelly et al., 2019). Feng et al. conducted a 3-wave time-lagged nonexperimental study to examine the extent to which knowledge hiding (a type of displaced aggression) mediates the relationship between exploitative leadership (a type of managerial abuse) and employee creativity, hypothesizing that exploited employees will

not react directly at the exploitive leader for fear of recrimination but will instead displace their aggression on coworkers by withholding knowledge that halts the creative process. The authors hypothesized, further, that the positive relation between exploitative leadership and knowledge hiding will be stronger with high-quality leader-member relationships, where exploited employees feel betrayed by supervisors with whom they enjoy good relations. Participants were employees ($N = 323$) working in service sector organizations who completed measures of exploitive leadership (e.g., "takes it for granted that my work can be used for his or her personal benefit"), leader-member exchange (e.g., "my supervisor recognized my potential"), knowledge hiding (e.g., "agreed to help him/her but never really intended to"), and employee creativity (e.g., "this person's work is original and practical"). All hypotheses were supported by the findings. This study is related to my research as it supports a positive correlation between managerial abuse and the negative outcomes detrimental to organizations.

While displaced aggression is a known phenomenon, explanations of the mechanisms that encourage or discourage displaced aggression in environments other than organizational settings, are scarce (Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000). Just as employees targeted for abuse by their supervisors in an organizational setting are unlikely to retaliate against the abuser who could fire them, abused individuals dependent on a romantic partnership may be disinclined to react directly at their abuser who could end the relationship. Like the abused employee who vents their anger on a safer substitute rather than risk losing the job, the romantic partner may opt to do the same. To examine this possibility, Slotter et al. (2020) theorized that individuals with high attachment anxiety

and high self-control, dependent on the relationship, will displace their aggression when provoked by their intimate partner. For dependent individuals, direct aggression against a provoking partner would jeopardize the relationship; that said, a good deal of self-control is required to resist striking back, choosing instead to displace the aggressive impulse on a less risky target. Three studies were conducted ($N = 327$): Study 1 examined the likelihood of using direct aggression as a function of attachment anxiety and self-control, whereas studies 2 and 3 compared direct and displaced aggressive tendencies when provoked. To simulate provocations, Study 1 ($N = 69$) used the *articulated thoughts in simulated situations paradigm procedure* developed by Davison et al. (1983), where participants were first provoked and then asked to imagine their romantic partners engaging in a conversation with an attractive person, i.e., "the rival." Three variations of this encounter were considered: (a) *neutral condition* where the conversation proceeds without any hits of flirting, (b) *rival provocation condition* where the rival visibly flirts with the partner, and (c) *partner provocation condition*, where the partner flirts with the rival). Aggressive behavioral inclinations were evaluated using "The voodoo doll task" adopted from DeWall et al. where a picture of a doll representing the intimate partner was pin pricked a number of times, depending on the level of perceived aggression. Defined as fear that a conflict situation may become a threat to the existing romantic relationship, Slotter et al. hypothesized that a partner's fear of a broken romantic relationship will prevent them from aggressing directly at their significant other and will, instead, motivate them to displace their aggression onto someone else. Attachment anxiety was measured using the 12-item Experiences in Close Relationships Short Form Scale (Wei et al., 2007)

and self-control was measured using the 13-item evaluation of dispositional self-control developed by Tangney et al. (2004). Supporting the hypothesis, results indicated that in an intimate relationship, higher levels of attachment anxiety and higher levels of self-control predicted lower possibility of direct aggression in the provoked partner.

Study 2 aimed to determine the relationship between attachment anxiety and direct vs. displaced aggression, hypothesizing that attachment anxiety would predict not only decreased direct aggression but increased displaced aggression. Participants ($N =$ 126) were primed to experience either elevated attachment anxiety or attachment security and then assigned to either a partner-provocation or acquaintance-provocation condition. This was followed by an opportunity to pin prick a doll representing both a romantic partner and acquaintance. Results again supported the authors' hypothesis. In study 3, 89 college students were played a money earning game scenario designed to measure aggressive responses (i.e., direct, displaced, no aggression) to provocation by a fictitious romantic partner or a student in their psychology class. Participants completed measures of attachment anxiety and self-control. Supporting the authors' hypothesis, results indicated that increases in attachment anxiety were related to increased displaced aggression and decreased direct aggression but only for those high in self-control. These findings are relevant to the proposed study given that emotion regulation, like self-control, requires a level of constraint on the part of the provoked individual who, in the study just reviewed, chooses not to jeopardize the relationship and, in the proposed study, the provoked individual is expected to choose not to jeopardize the job.

While much research has documented the sharing of knowledge in the organizational setting, an exchange necessary for an organization's profitability (e.g., Gold et al., 2001; Nonaka & Konno, 1998), much less is known about the factors that may impede this exchange and instead encourage individuals to hide their knowledge from each other. To address this gap, Ghani et al. (2020) examined the potential for knowledge hiding in the context of abusive supervisory behavior where abused employees may hide their knowledge (i.e., displace their aggression) in an attempt to thwart organizational goals. The authors also considered factors that may influence the positive relationship between supervisor abuse and knowledge hiding, hypothesizing that a breach in the psychological contract may mediate and psychological ownership may moderate this relationship. As defined by Robinson and Rousseau (1994), a psychological contract is an individual's perceptions of terms and conditions that predict future reciprocal interactions between that person and another party. Ghani et al. posit that managerial abuse is a breach of this contract, prompting abused subordinates to displace their aggression in the form of knowledge hiding and avoid direct confrontation with the abusive manager (2020). Psychological ownership, i.e., an employee's sense of being a part of the working unit or the unit's identity may weaken the motive to hide knowledge when abused by a supervisor.

Participants were employees of manufacturing and services sectors (*N*=344) who completed measures adopted from previous studies; all items were ranked on a 5-point Likert scale ranging 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*): Abusive supervision was measured with a 15-item instrument adopted from Tepper (2000) that included depictions

of the *supervisory abuse* (e.g., "my boss/supervisor ridicules me"); a 7-item scale adapted

from Dyne and Pierce (2004) measured *psychological ownership* and included items

reflecting sense of belonging to the organization (e.g., "this is my organization"); a 5-

item scale adapted from Robinson and Morrison (2000) measured *psychological contract*

breach (e.g., "I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my

contributions"); and *knowledge hiding* was measured with the 5-item scale (e.g., "I

withhold helpful information or knowledge from others") adapted from Peng (2013).

The results supported all three hypotheses, indicating (a) a positive relation

between supervisor abuse and employee knowledge hiding such that abused employees

displaced their aggression by hiding knowledge, (b) employees for whom managerial

abuse was perceived as a breach in the psychological contract tended to engage in

knowledge hiding, and (c) subordinates' feelings of psychological ownership weakened

the impulse to retaliate by hiding their knowledge when targeted for abuse by their

managers.

Adding to what is known about the use of knowledge hiding by subordinates to

thwart organizational goals (e.g., employee creativity) in the context of perceived abusive

supervision, Jahanzeb et al. (2019) aimed to determine if knowledge hiding (i.e.,

displaced aggression), used to retaliate against abusive managers, hampers employee

creativity. An important component in the successful expansion of an organization,

creative employees generate novel ideas that promote new products and services, thus

allowing the companies to get competitive advantage in their industrial domains (Reiter-

Palmon, 2011). Jahanzeb et al. hypothesized that (a) perceived *abusive supervision* would

be positively related to knowledge hiding, (b) *negative reciprocity beliefs* (i.e., the intention of abused persons to reciprocate negative treatment to their offenders) will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision and knowledge hiding, (c) *knowledge hiding* will mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and creativity and will be (d) moderated by employees' negative reciprocity beliefs such that higher levels of reciprocity beliefs will strengthen the positive relationship abusive supervision and creativity. Time-lagged and multisource data (i.e., self- and peer reports) were collected from employees working in telecommunications organizations and banks (N = 364 matched responses) with an 8-week time lag between Times 1 and 2. At Time 1, employees completed Tepper's (2000) 15-item scale to measure employees' perception of abusive supervision (e.g., "my boss ridicules me") and a 14-item scale (Eisenberger et al., 2004) to measure negative reciprocity belief (e.g., "If a person despises you, you should despise them"). Two months later, at Time 2, participants completed a 12-item scale (Connelly et al., 2012) to measure knowledge hiding (e.g., "I said I did not know even though I did"). Lastly, employee creativity was assessed using a 3-item scale (Oldham & Cummings, 1996) completed by employees' peers (e.g., "This person's work is original and practical").

As predicted, results indicated that abusive supervision was positively related to knowledge hiding and, further, that knowledge hiding weakened the negative relation between abusive supervision and creativity. Results also showed that negative reciprocity beliefs strengthened the positive relation between abusive supervision and knowledge hiding. Finally, results supported the moderated mediation hypothesis such that the

indirect effect of abusive supervision on employee creativity – via knowledge hiding – depends on negative reciprocity beliefs; in other words, the likelihood that employee creativity would suffer because angry employees withhold their knowledge is contingent on employees' desire for retaliation. While these findings show the potential for displaced aggression (i.e., knowledge hiding) to weaken the deleterious influence of abusive supervision on employee creativity, they are relevant to the proposed study that examined the potential for displaced aggression to weaken the influence of abusive supervision on life satisfaction.

How the Theory of Displaced Aggression Relates to the Study

Displaced aggression is a behavior that reliably appears as a topic of interest in research literature (Marcus-Newhal et al., 2000). While the circumstances in which this behavior presents itself differ, the model and the constructs on which the model is based are consistent. Someone verbally or physically, through actions (e.g., smoking, making noise) or through a combination of actions, provokes anger (i.e., the provocateur) in someone else (i.e., the provoked) who, rather than risk retaliation by the more powerful provocateur, will instead displace their anger on a safer, less powerful, substitute. Applied to this study, the provocateur is an abusive manager who by word or deed (e.g., belittles, fires) provokes a subordinate who vents their frustration/anger on a coworker or family member rather than risk reprisal from the manager. The displacement of anger may have implications for the subordinate's mental health and quality of life.

How the Research Questions Relate to the Theory

The purpose of this study was to determine the relative strength of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression in predicting employee life satisfaction. Displaced aggression theory can explain the tendency of provoked individuals to vent their anger on unsuspecting others rather than risk retaliation by a provocateur. Depending on the provoked individual's ability to regulate their emotional reaction to provocation, the act of displacing one's anger may have implications for their satisfaction in life.

Literature Review Related to Key Variables and/or Concepts

Managerial Abuse

As defined by Tepper (2000), abusive supervision is a set of verbal and non-verbal behaviors that occur in an organizational setting, practiced by people put in leadership positions and perceived by employees as undermining, threatening, humiliating, or intimidating. Tepper acknowledges that differences in individual personality traits/experiences (e.g., education, upbringing) make the perception of these behaviors subjective; some may view them as abusive, whereas others find them acceptable. To standardize the meaning of abusive supervision, settled on behaviors widely accepted in the scholarly literature, including but not limited to conversational rudeness, coercion into acceptance of otherwise disagreeable ideas, public criticism, and ostracism (e.g., Bies, 2000).

Managerial abuse, in all ways defined, is detrimental to the organizations where it is tolerated (Ghani et al., 2020); it contributes to reduced employee morale, productivity,

and staff resignations, ultimately diminishing the company's market advantage (Mathieu & Babiak, 2016).). Managerial abuse also affects the direct and indirect recipients of these behaviors, the coworkers who interact with them and family members when they return home after the workday. The outcomes may result in poor quality of life (Sainz et al., 2021) and poor mental and physical health (Peltokorpi & Ramaswami, 2021). The examination of existing research on abusive supervision offers more background.

To better understand the managerial abuse phenomenon, it is helpful to investigate its potential causes. One is a "trickle-down" explanation. Per Mawritz et al. (2012), the managerial abuse occurs when managers themselves are abused by their superiors and then pass the abuse on to their subordinates. Alternatively, Khan et al. (2017) found that poor worker performance prompted managerial abuse. In a recent study, Tariq et al. (2021) present a novel explanation, suggesting that high-performing workers can make their managers envious, envy that triggers abuse behaviors toward these employees. The researchers argued that the envy is facilitated by the managers' social comparison orientation defined as a tendency to competitively contrast one's characteristics with the characteristics of other people. To examine this, Tatiq et al. (2021) hypothesized a relation between high-performing subordinates and managerial abuse mediated by managerial envy, but the mediated relationship is positive only when social comparison orientation is high. Tariq et al. (2021) performed a multi-source, time-lagged study with 95 managers and 385 subordinates ($N = 480$) with 1-month time lag between Times 1 and 2 and another 1-month time lag between Times 2 and 3. At Time 1, managers completed the 11-item social comparison orientation scale (adopted from

Gibbons and Buunk, 1999; e.g., "I always pay a lot of attention to how I do things compared with how others do things") and supervisor-rated subordinate performance was measured using the 4-item Subordinate Performance scale (Liden et al., 1993; e.g., "My subordinate is superior to other subordinates that I have supervised before"). One month later, managers completed a 9-item measure of supervisor envy towards their subordinates adapted from Cohen-Charash (2009; e.g., "I lack some of the things that my subordinate has"). Another month later, using the 15-item scale developed by Tepper (2000), subordinates rated their managers' abusive behaviors (e.g., "My supervisor puts me down in front of others").

As predicted, results indicated that managers' envy was positively related to both subordinate performance and abusive supervision and a positive relation was found between subordinate performance and abusive supervision via supervisor envy. Results showed, further, that supervisors' social comparison orientation moderated the direct relationship between subordinates' performance and supervisors' envy and that the indirect relation between subordinate performance and abusive supervision via supervisor envy was significant and positive but only when managers' social comparison orientation was high. This research is relevant to this study as it showed that workers, motivated to perform at the highest level, can unknowingly elicit feelings of managerial envy that make them targets of abuse.

To determine the cognitive and behavioral effects of managerial abuse, Lopes et al. (2018) examined the potential for the development of paranoia among bullied subordinates. The authors argue that paranoia is a maladaptive reaction to managerial

abuse that produces feelings of persecution, anxiety, and fear that, once entered into, paranoid employees are predisposed to making attribution errors (i.e., sinister attribution error) in assessing their superiors' behaviors as offensive, even when these behaviors are harmless. Lastly, Lopes et al. examined the potential for organizational support committed to upholding ethical standards to prevent or mitigate employee paranoia. In study 1, employees from various industries in in the United Kingdom (N=90) completed the 15-item Abusive Supervision Scale (Tepper, 2000), the 36-item Perceived Organizational and Supervisory Support Scale (Eisenberger et al., 2002), and the modified multidimensional Paranoia Checklist Scale (initially developed by Freeman et al., 2005), the 42-item Well-Being scale (Ryff & Keyes, 1995), and the modified Ambiguous Intentions Hostility Questionnaire (adapted from Combs et al., 2007). Results supported all hypotheses such that abusive supervision was positively related to all measured dimensions of paranoia and negatively related to perceived organizational support. Additionally, a positive relationship between sinister attribution error and managerial abuse and negative relation between paranoia and employee well-being was found.

In Study 2, Lopes et al. (2018) aimed to determine if paranoid responses, workplace deviance, intentions for aggressive behaviors, and when feeling under evaluative scrutiny, sinister attribution errors (e.g., wrongly construing harmless supervisor's behaviors as abusive) can be activated in employees simply by having them observe and episode of managerial abuse. To evaluate this, the authors conducted an experiment on a group of employees from various occupations in United Kingdom ($N =$

100). Participants were randomly assigned to two groups, one with a negative experimental condition and the other with a positive experimental condition. Each group viewed a short video representing "real" work situations. In the group with negative condition, the manager was shown to be abusive toward an employee, whereas in the positive condition, a supervisor was depicted to be very friendly toward the subordinate. To establish a baseline, completed the Abusive Supervision Scale (Tepper, 2000), State Social Paranoia Scale (Freeman et al., 2007), Submissive Behavior Scale (Allan & Gilbert, 1997), Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992), and Workplace Deviance Scale (i.e., the behaviors of workers' intentions to engage in deviant activities after being exposed to abusive supervision; Bennett & Robinson, 2000), and the Attributions Questionnaire for Supervisory-Related Behaviors was created by the authors. Participants completed the same measures after viewing the video. As predicted, results indicated that viewing an abusive managerial encounter (i.e., negative condition), produced an increase in negative affect combined with a decrease in positive affect; conversely, in the positive condition, Lopez et al. (2018) found an increase in positive affect coupled with a decrease in negative affect from pre- to posttest. Also, as hypothesized, exposing workers to abusive supervision would increase their paranoia, increase their sinister attribution errors, increase verbal and physical aggression, and increase work-related deviance was supported.

To understand the negative consequences of managerial abuse, Thompson et al. (2022) conducted two studies to examine the relationship between abusive supervision and subjective (Study 1) and objective (Study 2) health consequences. The researchers

also examined the mediating effects of resource depletion (i.e., decreased work-family balance and increased workplace burnout) on the relationship between managerial abuse and adverse health outcomes. Additionally, informed by gender socialization theory, the authors hypothesize that gender will moderate the indirect effect of abusive supervision on employees' health outcomes via work-family balance and burnout, such that the indirect effect is stronger for men (Stroud et al., 2002). For Study 1, surveys were distributed three times at 6-week intervals to married couples residing and working full-time in the US ($N = 701$). Participants completed the 15-item Abusive Supervision Scale (Tepper, 2000), a 6-item work-family balance scale (Carlson et al., 2009), 3-item burnout scale (Banks et al., 1980), and 1-item sliding scale to measure health (Dugan et al., 2012). Anxiety and depression were also measured. Gender was coded as 0 for males and 1 for females. Results indicated a significant negative relation between abusive supervision and work-family balance moderated by gender, such that the effect of abusive supervision on work-family balance was stronger for men than women. Additionally, the indirect effect of work-family balance on the positive relation between abusive supervision and burnout was also stronger for men than women; the indirect effect of abusive supervision on employees' anxiety and depression, via work-family balance and burnout, was also stronger for men than women.

Evidence that resource depletion in employees subjected to managerial abuse contributes to the increase in mental, physical, and emotional exhaustion (Study 1), prompted Thompson et al. (2022) to determine if chronic sickness, as a result of resource depletion, relates to an increased burden on the healthcare system manifested in a rising

number of medical office visits, interactions with clinical personnel, medical procedures, prescriptions, and administration of medications. Participants ($N = 155$) for Study 2 were patients at a medical facility pre-screened to assure they were employed, had a supervisor, and lived with at least one other person. As in study 1, participants completed measures of abusive supervision, work-family balance, and burnout; gender was coded 0 (male) or 1 (female). Unique to Study 2, participants' medical diagnoses, number of medications, and visits to a medical professional were provided. Results indicated a significant positive relation between burnout and chronic illness diagnosis; however, the indirect effect of abusive supervisor on chronic illness diagnosis via resource depletion was significant only for men. Results further revealed that abusive supervision's indirect effect, via resource depletion, on the relationship between number of visits to medical professionals and chronic illness diagnosis was stronger for men than women. The same held for the indirect effect of abusive supervision, via resource depletion, on the relationship between number of chronic pain medications and chronic pain diagnosis. These two studies show that, in addition to the health consequences, there are financial repercussions for employees who experience supervisor abuse as they must spend their resources on the increased medical visits and medications to attend to their mental, physical, and emotional disorders. Lastly, the studies demonstrate that supervisor abuse is associated with greater suffering in males than females.

Another reason for managerial abuse could be a simple workplace power asymmetry in combination with managers' perceptions of their social or cultural dominance (Rainey & Melzer, 2021). Abusive managers realizing that they have greater

organizational powers (e.g., ability to make decisions) and presuming that they belong to a "dominant" gender or ethnicity can decide to use these powers to attack those subordinates considered to be outside of their presumed stature. There is ample evidence to suggest that, compared to men, women have routinely faced work-related inequities such as reduced salaries (Hanek & Garcia, 2022) or greater risk of exposure to sexual harassment (Raj et al., 2020). This possible tendency can be magnified as women enter the workplace in greater numbers, exhibit commendable work-related skills and encounter managers who feel that their status is being threatened and, thus, use strategies to erode women's sense of competence and satisfaction acquired while doing their jobs (Sawyer et al., 2020).

There is a growing organizational movement to introduce diversity/equity programs to provide an equalizing effect where inequities such as wage gaps, hiring gaps, or promotion gaps are observed (Abendroth et al., 2017). Dobbin et al. (2015), argue that such programs showed initial success in promoting diversity within organizations. Despite their good intentions and demonstrated success, researchers argue that such programs can elicit backlashes from supervisors who feel that their status is being challenged (Tariq et al., 2021). Rainey and Melzer (2021) posit that such managers view the programs as a threat to their authority and, thus, aimed to demonstrate that managerial abuse occurs more often in the organizations where work-family and diversity programs were established to provide the equalizing effect to benefit women. The authors also suggest that managerial abuse will be more visible in the dyads of male/supervisors and female/subordinates, hypothesizing that (a) there is a positive relationship between

women's use of organizational work-family or diversity-equity programs and managerial abuse and (b) mixed-gender worker/supervisor dyads would be positively related to higher levels of supervisory abuse in workplaces where diversity/equity programs were used more frequently. Data were collected from employer-employee dyads (N=5,804 German workers) who completed measures of supervisory abuse and use of diversity/equity programs (i.e., mentoring/networking, use of mixed-gender teams, use of quotas) and work-family programs (i.e., workplace childcare, parental leave, flextime, and home/remote work). The results only partially supported the hypotheses. Of all the policies tested, only the frequent use of mentoring programs was associated with increased managerial abuse of female subordinates. Also, only the use of three family-work policies (i.e., workplace childcare, parental leave, and home/remote work) were associated with higher levels of supervisory abuse. These findings show how certain workplace policies such as introduction of equalizing programs, in some cases, can instigate managerial abuse.

The well-documented relationship between managerial abuse and negative behaviors exhibited by subordinates (e.g., thought work deviance, knowledge hiding, and service sabotage) is detrimental to the organization (Feng et al., 2022; Hongbo et al., 2020; Li et al. 2022), and to the employee whose personal and family well-being are affected (Arshad 2022; Carlson et al., 2012). Studies have also found that, when facing stressors, men and women may respond differently (Mensah, 2021). These findings prompted Zhou et al. (2018) to determine if there are gender differences in employees' mental health, family-related conflicts, and risk of alcohol abuse related to managerial

abuse. The authors hypothesized that there will be a positive relation between abusive supervision and both psychological distress and risk of alcohol use; however, women will experience greater psychological distress than men, but men will have higher risk of alcohol use than women. They hypothesized, further, that managerial abuse will be positively related to family conflicts but where women's role in the family domain will increase their work-family conflicts, men's role in the work domain will increase their work-family conflicts. Employees of Canadian organizations ($N = 2,058$) completed the 15-item Abusive Supervision Questionnaire (Tepper, 2000), a 12-item General Health Questionnaire (McDowell & Newell, 1996), adapted from Gutek et al. (1991) 4-item work-to-family conflicts (e.g., "After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do") and 4-item family-to-work conflicts (e.g., "My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work"), and alcohol use ($0 = low\ risk$, $1 = high\ risk$) based on the Canadian low risk drinking guidelines (e.g., consumed 11 or more alcoholic drinks for women and 16 or more for men; Butt et al., 1998).

As predicted, results revealed a positive relationship between managerial abuse and psychological distress, with women being affected more than men. A positive relation was also found between managerial abuse and work-family conflicts, more so for women than men, and family-work conflicts, more so for men than women. However, no gender difference was found for the relationship between abusive supervision and alcohol use.

Emotion Regulation

Masumoto et al. (2022) describes emotion regulation as a collection of deliberate and/or unconscious strategies (e.g., thoughts, feelings, behaviors, or physiological actions) people utilize to maintain or lessen their emotional response to an encountered stressor (i.e., eustress or distress). While according to Niculita and Korniejczuk (2020) the list of emotion regulation strategies is long (i.e., self-blame, acceptance, rumination, positive refocusing, refocus on planning, positive reappraisal, putting into perspective, catastrophizing, blaming others, suppression, mindfulness, and others), Vally and Ahmed (2020) state that the two strategies most widely cited by current research are *cognitive reappraisal*, people's efforts to restate an emotion-eliciting event to alter their perceptions of this event and to improve the emotional impact (e.g., comparing the situation at hand with a worse possibility) and *expressive suppression*, people's suppression of reflexive behavioral expressions of their emotions (e.g., keeping a neutral facial expression to cover displeasure; Gross & John, 2003). In their study, Vally and Ahmed (2020) wanted to demonstrate, first, that cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression are the two primary strategies used in the Middle Eastern region in the same way as observed in other parts of the world (i.e., US, Australia, Norway), and second, to determine if there is a relationship between use of these two strategies and psychological well-being. The researchers hypothesized that cognitive reappraisal will positively relate to psychological well-being (i.e., positive affect and flourishing), use of social support, academic achievement, and negatively relate to negative affect (e.g., depression), whereas expressive suppression will positively relate to negative affect, and negatively

relate to well-being, academic achievement, and use of social support. Students at the United Arab Emirates University ($N = 147$) completed the 10-item Emotional Regulation Questionnaire (Gross & John, 2003), 12-item Positive and Negative Experience, 8-item Flourishing Scale (Diener et al., 2010), and the Brief COPE Inventory (Carver, 1997) to assess use of emotional support (e.g., "I discuss my feelings with someone") and instrumental support (e.g., "I ask people who have had similar experiences what they did"). Except for a positive association between cognitive reappraisal and academic achievement and negative association between expressive suppression and academic achievement, all hypotheses were supported, confirming the benefits of cognitive reappraisal as an emotion regulation strategy.

Studies have found that the negative impact of interpersonal tensions on daily well-being is more pronounced among older adults, but that the potential for preferred emotion regulation strategies to neutralize this negative impact has not yet been examined. Using a sample of 293 adults, aged 65+, Birditt et al. (2020) hypothesized that interpersonal tensions would predict lower emotional well-being on the same day and the next and use of reappraisal and active coping strategies rather than avoidance would mitigate the negative relation between interpersonal tensions and well-being. To get baseline measures of emotional well-being, participants completed ecological momentary assessment questionnaires for 5-6 days on study-provided Android devices. Participants also completed assessments of preferences for emotion regulation strategies (i.e., reappraisal, avoidant, and active coping strategies), daily interpersonal tensions (e.g., were you aggravated during the day in any way?), daily emotional well-being (assessed

several times a day to avoid possible retrospective memory biases; Ebner-Priemer & Trull, 2009), and age and self-rated health. Results revealed, as predicted, that interpersonal tension related negatively to well-being. While cognitive reappraisal did not predict well-being, it did moderate, by weakening, the negative relationship between interpersonal tension and well-being. Conversely, preference for an avoidance strategy (e.g., distraction and acceptance) moderated, by strengthening, the negative relationship between interpersonal tensions and well-being. Results also indicated that preference for active coping emotion-regulation strategies weakened the negative but only for the oldest participants.

Hypothesizing that psychosocial factors related to work can have a negative effect on the health of employees, San Too and Butterworth (2018) aimed to determine if emotion regulation (i.e., cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression) moderated the relation between psychological job-related stressors (e.g., job insecurity, lack of autonomy in decision-making, high job demands, low level of support, insufficient recognition for work performed) and employee mental health. Participants were a representative sample ($N = 1,044$) of the Australian population who completed the Work and Well-being Survey. Specific predictions included a relation between emotion regulation and mental health such that less use of cognitive reappraisal and more use of expressive suppression would predict poor mental health. The 10-item Kessler Psychological Distress Scale was used to measure emotional distress, 13 items used to measure psychosocial work stressors were adapted from the PATH Through Life Survey, the Adult Psychiatric Morbidity Survey (McManus, et al., 2016), and the HILDA Survey

(Karasek & Theorell, 1990), the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (Gross & John, 2003) measured cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression. Results indicated that emotion regulation moderated the relationship between job stressors and employee mental health such that cognitive reappraisal weakened, and expressive suppression strengthened the negative influence of job stressors (i.e., job fairness and job control) on employee psychological distress and mental health.

Emotion regulation theory (Gross, 1998) explains not just strategies used by the individual to regulate one's own emotional reactions to situational stimuli, but strategies individuals use to control others' emotional reactions when engaged in interpersonal communication. Logically, efforts to enhance others' feelings have positive outcomes, whereas efforts to worsen others' feelings do not (Van Kleef, 2009). With that in mind, Niven et al. (2019) questioned whether the outcomes of interpersonal communication are contingent on the motives underlying efforts to regulate others' emotions. The authors hypothesized that interpersonal emotion regulation motives will moderate associated strategies, such that the positive impact of emotion-enhancing versus emotion-worsening strategies will be strengthened or weakened by prosocial or egoistic motives, respectively. Niven et al. conducted an experiment to test this hypothesis.

Participants ($N = 249$) read one of four passages representing a hypothetical conversation with their leader where emotion regulation strategy and motive were manipulated with descriptions of leader's behavior during the interaction (Niven et al., 2009) and the leader's motives (Dahling et al., 2009). For example, motive was manipulated using the character of the leader, either Machiavellian or altruistic terms

were used to imply egoistic or prosocial motives, respectively. *Relational outcomes* were measured using the Leader Member Exchange (e.g., "I think this team leader would recognize my potential and "How much would you like to work with the team leader in the future?") and *discretional performance outcomes* were measured with the 7-item organizational citizenship behavior adapted from Williams and Anderson (1991; e.g., "I would help this team leader if they had a heavy workload"). Consistent with previous studies (Van Kleef, 2009), results revealed that strategies to enhance emotions led to better outcomes than emotion-worsening strategies. However, extending the previous research, results indicated that these outcomes depended on regulators' (i.e., leaders) underlying motives such that, as predicted, emotion-enhancing outcomes resulted only when interpersonal emotion regulation was pro-socially motivated.

Life Satisfaction

According to the APA (2022a), a person's quality of life predicts their life satisfaction. The important components, or domains that constitute quality of life are physical, emotional, mental, and material well-being, interpersonal relationships, personal development, ability to determine one's own lifestyle choices, and inclusion in society (APA, 2022b). Hence, the self-assessed state of any of these domains can positively or negatively define their life satisfaction. High levels of quality of life may lead to better health, more productive behaviors, more meaningful social interactions, and better work performance (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005).

De Coning et al. (2019) posit that while existing research confirms a positive association between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, it remains ambiguous whether

wages, per se, or satisfaction with wages is related to life satisfaction. The authors aimed to determine if there are relationships among wage category (i.e., a derivative from gross wages), wage satisfaction, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction and if wage category and wage satisfaction mitigate low job and life satisfaction. Data were collected from actively employed South Africans ($N = 763$) who completed the South African Wage Indicator Survey that measured *job satisfaction* (e.g., "How satisfied are you with your job?"), *wage satisfaction* (e.g., "highly dissatisfied," "highly satisfied"), *gross wage* (i.e., "What is your gross income?"), and *life satisfaction* (i.e., 10-point Likert scale (i.e., 1=dissatisfaction, 10=satisfaction). The results revealed a relation between job and wage satisfaction, where the relation was positive at low levels of wage satisfaction, but less job satisfaction was found at higher wage-satisfaction levels. While wage and life dissatisfaction were positively related, wage and life satisfaction were even more strongly positively related at high wage satisfaction levels. Not surprisingly, results revealed that low gross wage earners reported low wage satisfaction; however, counterintuitively, the majority of high-wage earners were dissatisfied with their wage and high levels of job satisfaction weakened the positive association between job and life satisfaction. Importantly, results showed that wage and wage satisfaction did not compensate for the negative influence of job dissatisfaction on life satisfaction.

Acknowledging an association between job performance, job retention and life satisfaction, Hagmaier et al. (2018) aimed to determine if career satisfaction (i.e., evaluation of accumulated job-related experiences) affects life satisfaction. In a prospective longitudinal Study 1, the authors hypothesized that there is a positive

relationship between career satisfaction and life satisfaction and that this relationship remains positive over a span of time, predicting further that this relationship is reciprocal such that, over time, life satisfaction positively associates with career satisfaction. Study 1 was conducted on professionals holding master's degrees ($N = 517$) from various German universities. Data collection took place at three different times in 2006, 2008, and 2011. To evaluate career satisfaction, participants completed a German version of the 5-item, Likert-style Career Satisfaction Scale (e.g., "I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals"). Participants also completed a German version of the 5-item Satisfaction with Life Scale (e.g., "In most ways my life is close to the ideal"; Diener et al., 1985). The results of Study 1 revealed that, over a period of time, there is a statistically significant positive association between career satisfaction and life satisfaction. Further, the association is also bi-directional (i.e., between life satisfaction and career satisfaction).

In Study 2, in addition to the same two hypotheses, the authors suggested that work centrality, defined as the priority a person gives to work with respect to other life spheres, moderates the relationship between career satisfaction and life satisfaction. Data again was collected from employed professionals ($N = 99$) at three points in time, but with an interval of 4 weeks. In addition to the two questionnaires from Study 1, the participants completed a 6-item scale that measured work centrality (e.g., "If I won the lottery jackpot, I would immediately stop working"; Gerhardt, 2005) with answers rated from 1 to 5 (i.e., "strongly disagree", "strongly agree"). The results of Study 2 also confirmed a reciprocal, albeit within a short period of time, relationship between people's

careers and their life satisfaction. Additionally, results indicated that work centrality is a moderator in this relation such that high work centrality strengthens the positive association between people's careers and their life satisfaction.

Sousa et al. (2020) point out that the influence of family life on life satisfaction is important to examine and that because family life is strongly influenced by work and work by family life, conflicts between work and family can arise with negative impacts on both job and life satisfaction. The authors hypothesized that work-family conflict and family-work conflict negatively predict work-family guilt and family-work guilt (i.e., a person feeling guilty when either work life or family life takes precedence), respectively, and that both work-family conflict and guilt would be negatively related to life satisfaction. Participants ($N = 109$) were employed adults with children in their care who completed the 7-item Work-Family Guilt Scale (McElwain et al., 2005), 10-item, bidimensional, Work-Family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict scales (adapted from Santos & Goncalves), the Portuguese 5-item adaptation of the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985), and the Job Satisfaction Scale (Warr et al., 1979). The results revealed that work-family conflict and family-work conflict, but not work-family guilt and family-work guilt, negatively related to work-family guilt, family-work guilt, life satisfaction, and job satisfaction.

Hashemabady et al. (2022) examined the potential for emotion dysregulation to mediate the relationship between self-efficacy and life satisfaction. Data were collected from Iranian residents of Mashhad ($N = 402$), using the 17-item General Self-Efficacy Scale (Sherer et al., 1982), the 5-item Life Satisfaction Questionnaire or Subjective Well-

being Scale (Diener et al., 1985), and the 36-items Emotion Regulation Difficulty Questionnaire (Gratz & Roemer, 2004). Results revealed that self-efficacy positively predicts life satisfaction mediated by emotion dysregulation, such that high self-efficacy diminished the negative influence of emotion dysregulation on life satisfaction.

Summary and Conclusions

The purpose of the present research was to examine the relative strength of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression in predicting employee life satisfaction. While there might be economy-related fluctuations in the additions to the US workforce, the US Bureau of Labor Statistics (2022a) projects a steady growth in the working population. This implies the potential for a growing number of employees to encounter managerial abuse at their workplace. Informed by the theory of displaced aggression, the study determined the relative strength of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression in predicting employee life satisfaction. Insights from this study may be used by organizations to develop in-house policies for employees dealing with abusive managers.

Chapter 3 describes the research design and rationale followed by a detailed discussion of the methodology, including the population, sample and sampling procedures, power analysis, procedures for recruitment and data collection, instrumentation, and data analysis plan. Threats to validity and ethical concerns will also be discussed.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine the relative strength of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression in predicting employee life satisfaction. The current chapter addresses the specific methods used to research the study's problem. This description addresses the data collection strategy that includes the definition of the population from which the sample was drawn, the sampling procedures, the inclusion and exclusion criteria for the recruitment of the study's participants, and the actual procedures to recruit the participants. Further, the description addresses the data collection instruments selected for the study with the details pertinent to each instrument. These details include a justification for its selection and the validity and reliability of each instrument. The data analysis plan, threats to validity, and ethical considerations follow.

Research Design and Rationale

In this study, I used a nonexperimental, cross-sectional, quantitative survey design, using hierarchical multiple regression to examine the relative strength of managerial abuse (IV), emotion regulation (IV), and displaced aggression (IV) in predicting employee life satisfaction (DV). Data were collected at one time-point (i.e., cross-sectional design). A quantitative survey design was used as it is the most appropriate for examining relationships among variables (see Creswell & Creswell, 2018). A nonexperimental design was chosen, as the variables of interest have already occurred and cannot be manipulated by the researcher (see Kraska, 2010). The

participants for the study were recruited through a data collection vendor (i.e., Survey Monkey©). Individuals from their pool of candidates who met the inclusion criteria were recruited for the study. This type of survey distribution allowed for participation of a diverse sample of employed adults who reported to a manager.

<div align="center">

Methodology

</div>

Population

The target population for this study was legally employed adults working in the United States who reported directly to their company managers. For purposes of this study, a legally employed adult was a person of 18 years of age or older who received no less than a minimum wage as determined by the Fair Labor Standards Act mandated by the United States federal government (U.S. Department of Labor, 2022a). As of November 2022, the United Stated civilian labor force was projected to be 265.3 million individuals (U.S. Department of Labor, 2022b). Also, a manager was an employed adult whose partial or full responsibilities included assignment and supervision of tasks performed by other employees who reported directly to them (Williams & McWilliams, 2014). At the time of the study, there were approximately 1,583,412 managers currently employed in the United States (Zippia, 2022).

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

A convenience sampling strategy was used for this study, using SurveyMonkey© online research services. Participants had to be employed in the United States, at least 18 years of age, who reported directly to another person (i.e., manager, supervisor) at their

place of employment. SurveyMonkey© administered the survey to voluntary participants who met the inclusion criteria.

To determine the minimum sample size for the study, I completed a power analysis using G*Power 3.1(see Faul et al., 2009). The minimum recommended sample size was calculated using the following parameters for hierarchical multiple regression (fixed model, R^2 deviation from zero): an alpha level of .05, power of .80, an estimated effect size of .15 for the three predictor variables (i.e., managerial abuse, emotion regulation, displaced aggression). The estimated medium effect size of .15 was chosen based on the review of studies that examined relationships similar to the ones proposed in this research; effect sizes ranged from small to large. For example, Slotter et al. (2020) found a small effect size (.08) for the relation between self-control and displaced aggression, while Feng et al. (2022) found a large effect size (.36) for the relationship between managerial abuse and displaced aggression. Based on the specified parameters, the G*Power analyses software suggested a minimum sample size of 77. An older guideline used in determining sample size recommended 20 participants per IV being examined (see Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). However, a more recent recommendation suggested a minimum of 100 cases, regardless of the number of predictor variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

With IRB approval, the I used SurveyMonkey© services, a third-party vendor to recruit participants and administer an online survey to those who met all inclusion criteria. The survey included the informed consent form, eligibility screening questions,

de-identified demographic information, followed by the self-report questionnaires. The agreement to participate in the study was specified by the participants on the consent form. Prospective participants were told that participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. To protect the anonymity of the participants, signing of their names were replaced by checking "Agree" or "Disagree" in the designated check-off boxes. The consent form described the purpose of the study and the process in layman's terms. My contact information and Walden University's participant advocate was provided. Those individuals who met the criteria and agreed to participate were directed to the survey instruments described below. The estimated time needed to complete the survey was approximately 17 minutes. After completion of the survey, participants were directed to a debriefing page that included a comprehensive review of the study and answers to frequently asked questions. The debriefing page also included references to crisis services (National Alliance on Mental Health (https://www.nami.org/help; telephone – 1-800-950-NAMI [6264]; text 62640) in the event that participants experienced psychological distress. Participants were then thanked for their participation; my contact information was provided for those who might have had further questions, comments, or if they wished to receive a summary of the results after the study is completed.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

Displaced Aggression Questionnaire

The Displaced Aggression Questionnaire (Denson et al., 2006a) is a 31-item inventory that was used to identify individual differences in displaced aggression and to

clarify the dimensions underlying trait displaced aggression (e.g., "I reenact the anger episode in my mind after it has happened," or "If someone made me angry, I would likely vent my anger on another person"). The instrument was subdivided into three distinct subscales: (a) angry rumination (i.e., concentrating on anger caused by a provocation), (b) revenge ideation (i.e., capacity for holding a grudge and planning retaliation), and (c) behavioral displaced aggression (i.e., capacity for directing aggressive behavior towards others who are not the original provocateurs). Subscales can be scored individually and/or summed for a total score (Denson et al., 2006b). The total score was used for the purposes of this study. The instrument was comprised of two forms, each comprised of the same 31 items. The first 15 items on the first form were reversed-keyed, and the following 16 items were direct-keyed. Alternatively, the first 15 items on the second form were direct-keyed and the following 16 items were reversed-keyed. The instrument took approximately 5 minutes to complete. Responses were rated on a 7-items Likert scale, ranging from 1 ("*extremely uncharacteristic of me*") to 7 ("*extremely characteristic of me*"). The instrument was in the public domain and is available for use in research without the authors' permission.

Reliability and Validity. Both forms demonstrated good internal consistency (α = .91 for Form 1, and α = .94 for Form 2; Denson et al., 2006b). According to Denson et al. (2006), direct-keyed and reversed-keyed items demonstrated high correlation for both forms as well (r = -.70 for Form 1 and r = -.85 for Form 2). Two studies were conducted to evaluate test-retest reliability: First, a 4-week test-retest reliability was done on a cohort of undergraduate students (N = 133) where the total scale reliability coefficient r

was .77. Further, the test-retest coefficients for each of three scales were also found acceptable (anger rumination [r = .80], revenge planning [r = .75], and displaced aggression [r = .78]). The results of the second 11-week test–retest study (N = 101) demonstrated an excellent reliability coefficient for the total scale (r = .87) as well as acceptable reliability coefficients for all three subscales (i.e., angry rumination [r = .89], revenge planning [r = .86], and behavioral displaced aggression [r = .78]). Other derivations of the instrument (i.e., Displaced Aggression Questionnaire, French and Spanish versions, Henry & Gagnon, 2022 and García-Sancho et al., 2016, respectively) demonstrated a similarly high level of internal consistency.

Convergent validity for the Displaced Aggression Questionnaire subscales was tested by examining the relationships between the subscales of the Displaced Aggression Questionnaire and the Physical and Verbal Aggression Subscales of the Aggression Questionnaire (see Buss & Perry, 1992). Results demonstrated good convergent validity for all three subscales: angry rumination (r = .39), revenge planning (r = .44), and displaced aggression (r = .43). Using external measures (i.e., Driving Vengeance Questionnaire [Wiesenthal et al., 2000] and the Abuse Within Intimate Relationships Scale [Borjesson et al., 2003]), discriminant validity was established as there was no correlation between angry rumination and extroversion (r = -24), and revenge planning did not correlate to openness (r = -.11).

Shortened Measure of Abusive Supervision

Adopted from the original 15-item measure developed by Tepper (2000), the Shortened Measure of Abusive Supervision (Harris et al., 2007b), an 11-item inventory

that was used to measure abusive behaviors exhibited by managers toward their

subordinates in work relationships (e.g., "My boss makes negative comments about me to

others" or "My boss tells me I'm incompetent."). A total score is generated from items

that was scored using a 5-point Likert-scale, with responses indicating frequency of the

behavior ranging from 1 ("*I cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me*")

to 5 ("*He/she uses this behavior very often with me*"). It took about 15 minutes to

complete the survey. The instrument could be used for noncommercial research and

educational purposes without seeking written permission.

Reliability and Validity. The Shortened Measure of Abusive Supervision

showed high internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha ranging between .87 and .97

(Greenbaum et al., 2017; Greenbaum et al., 2013; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Nevicka et

al, 2007). Additionally, test-retest reliability analyses were performed 2 months apart at

three geographical locations, demonstrating good test-retest reliability: Karachi (α = .96,

.97), Istanbul (α = .93, .97), Dubai (α = *.89, .97*; Ghayas & Jabeen, 2020). Concurrent

validity was tested using Tepper's (2000) full 15-item scale, reporting r = 98 (Harris et

al., 2007b).

Life Satisfaction Questionnaire

The 9-item Life Satisfaction Questionnaire (Fugl-Meyer et al., 1991b) was

designed to measure levels of life satisfaction both overall (1 item) and individually

across eight different life domains, including leisure situation, vocation situation, family

life, etc. Scored on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = *very dissatisfying*, 6 = *very satisfying*), the

questionnaire can be completed in 4 minutes; a total score was generated from the means

of all items (see Post, 2012). The instrument could be used for noncommercial research and educational purposes without seeking written permission.

Reliability and Validity. Test-retest results indicated Spearman's r greater than .547 ($p < 0.001$) for most items. However, there were two items for which Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was relatively lower: satisfaction with financial situation ($r = .443, p < 0.01$ and $r = .306, p < 0.02$). Based on these results, Fugl-Meyer et al. (1991b) determined the tool to be reliable. Additionally, Boonstra et al. (2012) used test-retest weighted with Cohen's k to determine inter-rater reliability, finding a moderate reliability ranging from 0.41 to 0.64.

There were no significant differences when the Life Satisfaction Questionnaire was compared to the outdoor activities on the Frenchay Activities Index ($p = .16$). Significant correlations between the Life Satisfaction Questionnaire and measures of mood and participation indicate strong levels of concurrent validity (Post, 2012). Discriminant validity was tested by examining life satisfaction with other instruments such as the Frenchay Activities Index and the Nottingham Health Profile (see Boonstra et al, 2012). There were significant differences between the Life Satisfaction Questionnaire score and the other instruments (see Boonstra et al, 2012); subjects who had higher scores on the Life Satisfaction Questionnaire had lower scores on the other instruments (p values ranged from .006 to .0001).

Emotion Regulation Questionnaire

The 10-item Emotion Regulation Questionnaire was used to measure differences in the use of two emotion regulation strategies, that is, cognitive reappraisal and

expressive suppression (Gross & John, 2003). The cognitive reappraisal subscale included six statements while the expressive suppression subscale included four statements (Houston, 2019). The cognitive reappraisal items focused on changing how one thinks about or interprets a given situation (e.g., "When I want to feel more positive emotions, I change what I'm thinking about"). The expressive suppression items measured how uncomfortable thoughts are pushed out of mind (e.g., "I control my emotions by not expressing them"). The questionnaire items were scored using a 7-point Likert type scale with a range of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The subscales were scored by averaging the items, with a higher score on one or the other, resulting in an emotion regulation classification as either cognitive reappraisal or expressive suppression (Houston, 2019). The questionnaire could be completed in about 10 minutes and could be used for noncommercial research and educational purposes without seeking written permission.

Reliability and Validity. The Emotion Regulation Questionnaire internal consistency was estimated with Cronbach Alpha coefficients that ranged between .76 to .82 for the cognitive reappraisal scale and from .68 to 76 for the expressive suppression scale (see Gross & John, 2003). A factor analysis confirmed the two-factor structure of the questionnaire with scale intercorrelation between -.06 and +.06 (see Gross & John, 2003).

The association between the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire and other personality constructs such as perceived regulation success, inauthenticity, and dispositional coping converged but were generally negatively related. The standardized

beta coefficients ranged from -.05 to .43 for reappraisal and from -.43 to .47 for the suppression score (see Gross & John, 2003). The Emotion Regulation scales of reappraisal and suppression contributed unique variance in the relationship indicating convergent validity.

Discriminant validity was examined through the relationships between the Emotion Regulation subscales and Big Five personality dimensions (Gross & John, 2003). The standardized coefficients for the reappraisal scale ranged from -.20 to .15 while the suppression scale coefficients ranged from -.41 to .03. The relationship between extraversion and the suppression scale was questionable but the other dimensions of the Big Five personality, neuroticism, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness, were not related to reappraisal or suppression.

Data Analysis Plan

Data collected from SurveyMonkey platform were downloaded into the SPSS version 28.0. Hierarchical multiple regression was used to determine the extent to which managerial abuse, displaced aggression, and emotion regulation predict the degree of life satisfaction. In hierarchical regression, the predictor variables were entered into the equation in steps or blocks, starting with the variable that theoretically has the greatest predictive power (Jeong & Jung, 2016). Other predictor variables were added at each step of testing. The theoretical framework that informed this study suggested that displaced aggression may be the strongest predictor of life satisfaction (see Denson et al., 2008) followed by managerial abuse and emotion regulation. Prior to the regression analysis, assumptions for multiple regression were tested (i.e., normality, linearity,

homoscedasticity, multicollinearity, and independence of residuals). The following outputs of SPSS were utilized: (a) histograms and Q-Q plots for testing normality, (b) scatterplots for testing linearity, (c) a scatterplot of residuals to test for homoscedasticity, (d) variance inflation factor (VIF) to test multicollinearity, and (e) the Durbin-Watson d test to examine independence of residuals.

Threats to Validity

One potential threat to validity was self-selection bias. It is conceivable that the individuals who decided to take the survey had experienced confrontations with their managers. Thus, the results of a survey completed by these self-selected individuals would not necessarily be representative, limiting the generalizability of the results. Another potential threat to validity was participation of individuals who have not met the inclusion criteria, as there was no way to verify this. Online surveys were especially vulnerable to nonresponse bias, which occurred when participants did not respond to all survey questions; the defining characteristics of those whose surveys were incomplete could have been different from participants who responded to all survey questions (Kalaian & Kasim, 2008). Finally, social desirability bias could have threatened the study's validity in that people tended to represent themselves in the best possible light and, therefore, might not have honestly disclose sensitive information (Gordon, 1987). To limit this bias, participants were reminded that the survey was anonymous, and that no identifying information was going to be collected.

Ethical Procedures

Per institutional requirements, before administering the survey for data collection, I sought and received an approval from Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). All participants were provided with informed consent that included a description of the study, potential benefits of the study, and possible risks to the participants. The form also stated that all the information provided by the participants was de-identified and that this eliminated threats to participants' privacy. As recollecting incidents of managerial abuse may have been disturbing to some, both the consent form and the debriefing included references to the National Alliance on Mental Health (https://www.nami.org/help; telephone – 1-800-950-NAMI (6264); text 62640) where they could have found information for support. Participants were informed that they could have withdrawn from the study at any time without penalty. All data were stored in my personal password-protected computer accessible only by me; the data will be stored for 5 years after which it will be permanently erased from the computer memory.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the relative strength of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression on life satisfaction. I used a cross-sectional, quantitative, nonexperimental survey design and targeted legally employed adults, working in the United States who reported directly to their company managers. SurveyMonkey was the platform to administer the survey. SPSS statistical software was used to perform hierarchical multiple regression analyses. The instruments, their

reliability and validity, threats to the study validity, and ethical consideration were addressed. In Chapter 4, I describe the data analyses and report the results of the study.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine the relative strength of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression in predicting employee life satisfaction. This study employed hierarchical multiple regression to examine three research questions. This chapter begins with the research questions and hypotheses followed by an overview of the data collection and screening methods. It also includes descriptive statistics and an assessment of the statistical assumptions. Finally, I report the results.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1: To what extent does managerial abuse, as measured by the Shortened Measure of Abusive Supervision, relate to life satisfaction, as measured by the Life Satisfaction Questionnaire, among English-speaking adults, 18+, employed full-time in the United States?

$H_0 1$: Managerial abuse is a not a predictor of perceived life satisfaction.

$H_a 1$: Managerial abuse is a predictor of perceived life satisfaction.

Research Question 2: To what extent does emotion regulation, as measured by the Emotion Regulation Strategies Scale, relate to life satisfaction, as measured by the Life Satisfaction Questionnaire, among English-speaking adults, 18+, employed full-time in the United States?

$H_0 2$: Emotion Regulation is a not a predictor of perceived life satisfaction.

$H_a 2$: Emotion regulation is a predictor of perceived life satisfaction.

Research Question 3: To what extent does displaced aggression, as measured by the Displaced Aggression Questionnaire, relate to life satisfaction, as measured by the Life Satisfaction Questionnaire, among English-speaking adults, 18+, employed full-time in the United States?

$H_0$3: Displaced aggression is a not a predictor of perceived life satisfaction.

H_a3: Displaced aggression is a predictor of perceived life satisfaction.

Data Collection

Data were collected on a single day in September 2022. The survey was designed using the online SurveyMonkey platform and was administered to participants recruited by Prolific, another online research platform. To be eligible for the study, participants were required to meet all inclusion criteria (i.e., employed in the United States, at least 18 years of age, report directly to another person [i.e., manager, supervisor] at their place of employment). Those who did not meet these criteria, such as non-U.S. citizens, part-time employees, individuals under 18 or over 65, or employees without direct managers, were excluded. The survey was conducted online and began with an informed consent that included the study's purpose, procedures, voluntary nature, risks, benefits, privacy measures, and contact information. To safeguard participants' privacy, the survey was conducted anonymously, without collecting any personal information. Participants who did not provide consent were directed to the end of the survey and disqualified. Those who consented were then guided through screening questions, designed with a skip logic process to exclude participants who did not meet the inclusion criteria; if inclusion criteria were not met, participants were directed to a thank you page, ending the survey.

After all survey questions were answered, participants were directed to a debriefing page that explained the use of incomplete disclosure (i.e., passive deception) of the study's purpose, a practice typically used when revealing the true purpose of the study might bias participant responses. The debriefing page informed participants of the true nature of the study, which was to "examine relative strength of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression in predicting employee life satisfaction." Prolific did not reveal how many participants met the inclusion/exclusion criteria or chose to withdraw their data after being debriefed, so it was not possible to calculate response rates.

Demographics

The demographic data (i.e., gender, highest education level completed, age, years employed at current job) were collected from the participants and are displayed in Table 1. The average age of participants was 39.23 years ($SD = 10.38$), with slightly more males ($n = 53$, 50.5%) than females ($n = 49$, 46.7%), and with some of the participants identified as nonbinary ($n = 3$, 2.8%). Participants were asked about the number of years they were employed at their current jobs. The average length of employment was 6.78 years ($SD = 6.14$).

Table 1

Frequencies: Gender, Level of Education, Age, Years at Current Job

Variable		*n*	*%*
Gender	Male	53	50.5
	Female	49	46.7
	Nonbinary	3	2.8
	Total	105	100.00
Level of education	High school diploma or GED	10	9.52
	Some college or vocational training	18	17.14
	Associate's degree (e.g., AA, AS)	9	8.57
	Bachelor's degree (e.g., BA, BS)	53	50.49
	Master's degree (e.g., MA, MS, MBA)	13	12.38
	Doctoral degree (e.g., PhD, MD, JD)	1	0.95
	Professional degree (e.g., MD, JD, DVM)	1	0.95
	Total	105	100.00
Age	20-29	17	16.19
	30-39	46	43.81
	40-49	23	21.9
	50-59	15	14.29
	60-69	4	3.81
	Total	105	100.00
Years at current job	5-Jan	55	52.38
	10-Jun	31	29.52
	15-Nov	7	6.67
	16-20	5	4.76
	21-25	7	6.67
	Total	105	100.00

Results

Descriptive Statistics

The total sample included 105 out of 117 participants who completed the study. Ten point two percent ($n = 12$) of the participants were disqualified based on two screener questions (i.e., "Are you least 18 years old?", "Are you currently employed, having only one job?", "Do you directly report to a manager?", "Do you earn no less than minimum wage?")

The following means and standard deviations were calculated for the three predictor variables: managerial behaviors ($M = 1.37$, $SD = 0.57$), emotion regulation ($M = 4.33$, $SD = .86$), and displaced aggression ($M = 154.69$, $SD = 37.03$). Means and standard deviations were also calculated for the outcome variable: life satisfaction ($M = 33.11$, $SD = 7.34$). Table 2 displays the means and the standard deviations for the predictor and outcome variables.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Predictor and Outcome Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*
Managers behaviors	1.37	0.57	1	4.09
Emotion regulation	4.33	0.86	1	6.50
Displaced aggression	154.69	37.03	69	217.00
Life satisfaction	33.11	7.34	14	46.00

Evaluations of Statistical Assumptions

Assumptions for multiple regression were tested prior to each regression analysis (i.e., normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity, and independence of residuals). Normality was tested using the Shapiro-Wilk test and Q-Q plots. Table 3 provides the results of the Shapiro-Wilk test, indicating that the displaced aggression ($p =$ .063) and life satisfaction ($p = .115$) variables were normally distributed. However, because managerial abuse ($p < .001$) and emotion regulation ($p = .005$) variables were not normally distributed, the assumption of normality was only partially met. Q-Q plots reflect the findings for normality data and are provided in Appendix A.

Table 3

Shapiro-Wilk Normality Testing for Study Variables

Variable	Statistic	df	p	Skewness	Kurtosis
Managerial abuse	0.674	105	0.000	2.632	8.021
Emotion regulation	0.963	105	0.005	-0.604	1.898
Displaced aggression	0.977	105	0.063	-0.310	-0.496
Life satisfaction	0.980	105	0.115	-0.314	-0.357

Linearity between predictor and outcome variables was assessed through the examination of scatterplots. The scatterplots, in Appendix B, illustrate the linear relationships between each predictor and the outcome variable. The data satisfied the linearity assumption.

Multicollinearity was assessed by examining the VIF. VIF for the predictor variables are presented in Table 4. VIF values are well below 10, and tolerance scores are above 0.2, indicating that the predictor variables are not highly correlated and, therefore, the multicollinearity assumption has been met.

Table 4

Collinearity Diagnostics for Predictor Variables

Variable	Tolerance	*VIF*
Manager behaviors	0.941	1.063
Emotion regulation	0.944	1.059
Displaced aggression	0.891	1.122

Independence of residuals was examined using the Durbin-Watson d test. Table 5 provides the Durban-Watson test results for the regression, using the three predictor variables (i.e., managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression). The Durbin-Watson score of 1.713 was close to 2.0, indicating that the assumption of independence of residuals was met.

Homoscedasticity was examined using scatterplots of the standardized residual and standardized predicted values for the performed regression test (see Appendix C). Examination of the scatterplots indicated that the variance of residuals was not constant for all models. Thus, the assumption of homoscedasticity was not met, especially in the lower scores.

P-P plots for all three regression models were used to examine the distribution of the residuals (see Appendix D). The residuals were normally distributed for two regression models (i.e., emotion regulation, displaced aggression). However, the residuals for managerial abuse were not normally distributed. Therefore, the assumption of normally distributed residuals was only met partially.

In addition to testing the assumptions for multiple regression, the reliability of the instruments used in the current sample was assessed by computing Cronbach's alpha. Table 6 presents the Cronbach's alpha coefficients (α) for each instrument, with each showing acceptable internal consistency, ranging from .74 to .92.

Table 5

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for Study Instruments

Instrument	α
Shortened Measure of Abusive Supervision	0.918
Displaced Aggression Questionnaire	0.964
Life Satisfaction Questionnaire	0.871
Emotion Regulation Questionnaire	0.735

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

A hierarchical multiple regression approach was used to explore the associations between the outcome variable (i.e., life satisfaction) and three predictor variables (i.e., managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression). This method was selected to evaluate the unique impact of each predictor variable while simultaneously

accounting for the influence of other predictors. In the hierarchical multiple regression analysis, predictor variables were sequentially introduced into the regression equation, prioritizing their predictive power according to theoretical rationale. Consequently, the regression analysis followed a three-stage process: managerial abuse was entered in the first step, followed by emotion regulation in the second step, and finally displaced aggression was added in the third step. This order of variable entry aligns with the theoretical framework and existing literature.

The results revealed that at Stage 1, managerial abuse did not significantly contribute to the regression model, $F(1,103) = 1.53, p = .219$. Emotion regulation entered at Stage 2 also did not significantly contribute to the model, $F(2,102) = .876, p = .424$. Finally, the addition of displaced aggression contributed significantly to the model at Step 3, $F(3,101) = 3.78, p = .013$, accounting for 10.1% of the variance in life satisfaction. The explained variance for the models (R^2) ranged from .015 to .101, indicating the model accounts for a small variability in life satisfaction. Tables 7 and 8 present the regression model summary.

Table 6

Model Summary

Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. Error of the estimate
1	0.121	0.015	0.005	7.324
2	0.129	0.017	-0.003	7.352
3	0.318	0.101	0.074	7.065

Research Questions 1 through 3 asked to what extent do managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression relate to life satisfaction for employees reporting to a manager. Table 8 provides the coefficients for the above model. Managerial abuse and emotion regulation were not a significant predictor of life satisfaction. Therefore, I failed to reject the null hypotheses for Research Questions 1 and 2. In Stage 3, the hierarchical regression revealed that displaced aggression was a significant positive predictor of life satisfaction, $\beta = 0.307$ ($t = 3.074$, $p = 0.003$), meaning that, after controlling for other variables (i.e., managerial abuse and emotion regulation), participants' ability to displace their aggression increased their life satisfaction. This indicates that individuals who exhibit higher levels of displaced aggression tend to have higher life satisfaction, while those with lower levels of displaced aggression tend to report lower life satisfaction. The null hypothesis for Research Question 3 was rejected, and the alternative was accepted.

Table 7

ANOVA Results for Three Stage Regression Model

Model		SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
1	Regression	82.056	1	82.056	1.530	0.219
	Residual	5524.572	103	53.637		
	Total	5606.629	104			
2	Regression	93.593	2	46.796	0.866	0.424
	Residual	5513.036	102	54.049		
	Total	5606.629	104			
3	Regression	565.361	3	188.454	3.776	0.013
	Residual	5041.268	101	49.914		
	Total	5606.629	104			

Table 8

Coefficients

Model		B	SE	β	t	p
1	(Constant)	35.259	1.875		18.802	0.000
	Managerial abuse	-1.561	1.262	-0.121	-1.237	0.219
2	(Constant)	33.574	4.104		8.180	0.000
	Managerial abuse	-1.560	1.267	-0.121	-1.232	0.221
	Emotion regulation	0.389	0.842	0.045	0.462	0.645
3	(Constant)	25.482	4.742		5.374	0.000
	Managerial abuse	-0.622	1.255	-0.048	-0.496	0.621
	Emotion regulation	-0.216	0.832	-0.025	-0.260	0.796
	Displaced aggression	0.061	0.020	0.307	3.074	0.003

Summary

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was employed to determine the relative strength of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression on employees' life satisfaction. The results indicated that neither managerial abuse nor emotion regulation significantly predicted life satisfaction. Statistical analysis did reveal a significant positive relationship between displaced aggression and life satisfaction, such that higher levels of displaced aggression predicted higher levels of life satisfaction. Chapter 5 provides an in-depth interpretation of these findings, a description of study limitations, implications for social change, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative, cross-sectional, correlational survey study was to determine the relative strength of managerial abuse (IV), emotional self-regulation (IV), and displaced aggression (IV) on life satisfaction (DV). A hierarchical regression was used to identify which among the IVs accounted for the greatest variance in employee life satisfaction. Results from this study offer valuable insights for both researchers and practitioners, providing a deeper understanding of the factors influencing employee well-being and potentially informing strategies for fostering a more positive and supportive work environment.

The analysis results showed that neither managerial abuse nor emotion regulation significantly predicted an individual's life satisfaction. In contrast, the findings demonstrated a positive correlation between displaced aggression and life satisfaction.

Interpretation of the Findings

Managerial Abuse and Life Satisfaction

Managerial abuse refers to the mistreatment or inappropriate conduct displayed by a manager towards subordinates within a workplace context. This type of mistreatment can take various forms, encompassing verbal, emotional, or even physical ill-treatment. Instances of managerial abuse may involve the use of derogatory language, unjustly criticizing employees, assigning impractical workloads, undermining or belittling staff, and overall fostering a hostile or toxic work environment (Khan at al., 2018).

While this study did not provide direct evidence of the impact of managerial abuse on life satisfaction, there may be reasons why results did not align with previous research. The study design (i.e., cross-sectional) could be one of the reasons why the results did not demonstrate the expected negative relationship between managerial abuse and quality of life. In cross-sectional studies, data on both exposures (to managerial abuse) and outcomes (on life satisfaction) are collected at a particular moment in time; because exposures and outcomes are measured simultaneously, it becomes challenging to establish if the exposures occurred before or after the outcomes in a cross-sectional study (Wang & Cheng, 2020). As a consequence, cross-sectional studies are unable to assess the temporal relationship between outcome and predictor variables (Wang & Cheng, 2020). The abusive managerial behaviors are continuous phenomena with outbursts occurring spontaneously (Bassman & London, 1993). Whether managerial abuse influences life satisfaction would be better determined by a longitudinal design, allowing sufficient time for the abuse to affect, or not, the abuse target's satisfaction with life (Leineweber et al., 2013; Peltokorpi & Ramaswami, 2021).

Emotion Regulation and Life Satisfaction

Emotion regulation is a set of processes by which individuals navigate and adjust their emotional experiences, expressions, and responses. This skill involves the capacity to effectively monitor, appraise, and influence one's own emotions, sometimes along with those of others in social interactions. Emotion regulation incorporates a diverse set of strategies and mechanisms (i.e., reappraising emotions, suppression, expressing emotions, modifying the situation, etc.) designed to fine-tune the intensity, duration, and outward

manifestation of emotions, facilitating adaptation to different situations and sometimes fostering general well-being (Masumoto et al., 2022).

In alignment with the current study, Nedaei et al. (2016) found no significant correlation between emotion-based coping strategies and quality of life. The authors hypothesized that finding no relationship might be attributed to insufficient emotion management competence that could potentially be improved through training. Lastly, Ghaemi et al. (2018) demonstrated a positive relationship between emotion regulation and quality of life. Differences in the instruments used in the two studies may explain why Ghaemi et al. found the predicted relationship between emotion regulation and quality of life where my study did not. The Emotion Regulation Questionnaire used in my study measured only reappraisal and suppression, whereas the Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire used by Ghaemi et al. measured a broader spectrum of emotion regulation (i.e., self-blame, acceptance, rumination, positive refocusing, refocus on planning, reappraisal, putting into perspective, catastrophizing, and blaming others). In other words, it offered a much more nuanced set of options that may capture more of the emotion regulation strategies participants may actually use -- hence, the predicted relation between emotion regulation and quality of life was able to be detected.

Displaced Aggression and Life Satisfaction

Displaced aggression involves redirecting aggressive behavior from its initial source of frustration or anger toward oneself or another person (APA, 2023). The positive relationship between displaced aggression and life satisfaction found in this study support the notion that releasing anger towards others can be cathartic and, therefore, positively

predict life satisfaction. The phenomenon of satisfaction value or cathartic effect of displaced aggression was initially proposed by Dollard (1938), a finding consistent with Konecni and Doob (1972), where participants, having been intentionally annoyed, had the opportunity to administer shocks to both those who caused the annoyance and innocent bystanders. The results indicated that intentionally annoyed participants found cathartic relief in giving shocks, whether to the source of annoyance or to innocent parties. Similarly, Leander and Chartrand (2017) demonstrated that people act aggressively when facing challenges or obstacles to achieving their goals. In these situations, when success is impeded, individuals might become aggressive as a way to compensate for feeling inadequate. Displaced aggression then becomes a way to restore a sense of competence in the face of setbacks, thus enhancing their positive feelings about life.

Limitations of the Study

This study focused exclusively on English-speaking U.S. adults aged 18 and older currently employed in a single job who reported to a manager. It is worth noting that other groups, such as freelancers (approx. 36% of the U.S. workforce in 2022; see Statista, 2022), retired (approx. 19% of the U.S. population in 2022; see Congressional Research Service, 2022), part-time workers (approx. 17% of the U.S. workforce in 2022; see U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics , 2023b), unemployed individuals (approx. 3.6% of the U.S. workforce in 2022; see U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2022c), and those with multiple jobs (approx. 4.9% of the U.S. workforce in 2022; see U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2023d), were not included. Additionally, some adults may have temporarily

left employment for educational pursuits or military service. Furthermore, there are working adults who are not fluent in English (approx. 8.2% of the working adult population in the U.S.; see U.S. Census Bureau, 2022), which could limit the broader implications a hostile workplace environment. Due to these specific inclusion requirements, the study's findings cannot be generalized beyond this narrowly defined population.

The results may also suffer from self-selection bias. Research has indicated that individuals who voluntarily participate in research may be different demographically (e.g., education, socioeconomic status, lead more altruistic lifestyles) compared to those who abstain from participation (Lu et al., 2022; Niebuur et al., 2018;), potentially limiting the representativeness of the sample and generalizability of results. Limited representativeness and generalizability are threats to validity associated with convenience, or nonprobability, sampling that are not necessarily limitations associated with random sampling, where everyone in the target population has an equal chance of participating (Antonie et al., 2020).

The presence of certain discrepancies in this study raised concerns about the reliability of the study's findings. More specifically, the survey underwent a double administration owing to a procedural error, where one of the scales included the repetition of the same question. Although this duplication was rectified in the second, resubmitted survey, upon reviewing the initial results, it became apparent that a minimal number of participants provided different responses to the same duplicated question. This phenomenon of providing inaccurate responses to survey questions is identified as

response bias and, when present, has the potential to distort the overall results (Elston, 2021). Finally, in the context of self-report surveys, social desirability bias may pose a limitation, as participants tend to portray themselves not as they truly think and/or act, but rather in the way they wish to be perceived (Caputo, 2017).

Recommendations

The aim of this study was to fill the gap in existing literature by investigating how managerial abuse, emotional regulation, and displaced aggression contribute to the life satisfaction of employed adults in the United States. Despite the study's findings there is still much to discover about how these three constructs interact and their ability to predict individuals' life satisfaction. With considerations of managerial abuse, future researchers should conduct a more nuanced examination of specific abusive behaviors exhibited by managers within workplace contexts. While the I explored the broader concept of managerial abuse, a more detailed analysis of distinct mistreatment patterns can potentially provide valuable insights into their differential impacts on individuals' life satisfaction. By scrutinizing specific abusive behaviors such as the use of derogatory language, unjust criticism, imposition of impractical workloads, undermining, and belittling of staff, researchers can unravel the intricacies of how different types of mistreatments contribute to overall well-being. Additionally, investigating the duration of employment for both managers and subordinates could offer a temporal dimension to these analyses, further enhancing the understanding of the long-term implications of specific abusive behaviors on individuals' overall life satisfaction.

To better understand how the ability to manage one's emotional reactions may relate to how satisfied they feel in life; future researchers should consider looking at specific ways people manage their feelings. The current study addressed emotion regulation in general, but given the complexity of this construct, future researchers should take a closer look at the different strategies people use to handle their emotions. Fine-tuning and applying the instruments that focus on various ways, both intentional and automatic, that people deal with their feelings, such as changing how they think about things (i.e., cognitive reappraisal) or not expressing negative emotional reactions (i.e., expressive suppression) and other adaptive coping mechanisms (Niculita & Korniejczuk, 2020), can provide a clearer picture of how these strategies affect the extent to which people are satisfied with life. By studying how well different strategies work and what happens when these are used, researchers can sort out which methods make people feel better or worse. Also, considering that there might be a delay between using these strategies and feeling satisfied with life, future studies should look at these dynamics over different time periods, designing their research as longitudinal rather than cross-sectional.

Examining how individual differences in personality traits influence the impact of displaced aggression on overall well-being is also warranted. As with other constructs used in this study, future research should employ a longitudinal design. Tracking the relationship between displaced aggression and life satisfaction over time can clarify whether this connection is transient or if the experience of displacing aggression has lasting effects on life satisfaction. Furthermore, while the current study demonstrated that displaced aggression can positively predict life satisfaction, previous research has shown

the opposite (i.e., displaced aggression negatively predicts life satisfaction [Contreras & Novaco, 2023]). A longitudinal study might reveal that the impact of displaced aggression on well-being is initially a temporary release of pent-up emotions, but over time, this effect diminishes, leaving behind regrets, damaged relationships, and other negative consequences.

Implications

The corporate hierarchy stands as one of the oldest and most widespread organizational structures (Friesen et al., 2014). In this framework, managers exercise control over all organizational functions within their domain, extending their authority over subordinates under their employ. Various studies have documented instances of unprofessional managerial behaviors, some of which escalate to the level of managerial abuse—examples include accusations of wrongdoing, humiliation, withholding crucial information, and setting unrealistic deadlines, all of which pose a threat to the emotional and psychological well-being of employees (Starr-Glass, 2017). The repercussions of chronic employee stress resulting from managerial abuse are profound, contributing to increased absenteeism, elevated turnover rates, a decline in overall organizational performance, and other negative consequences that funnel into lower levels of satisfaction with life (Deffenbacher et al., 1996).

When confronted with managerial abuse, employees undergo a sequence of emotional reactions (Yu & Duffy, 2021) in an effort to cope with these intense feelings (Brown et al., 2021). Nevertheless, the cumulative impact of the emotional strain results in exhaustion detrimental to an individual's overall life satisfaction (Saeed et al., 2022).

Emotional exhaustion can contribute to displaced aggression through a process of emotional spillover and the need to release pent-up frustration (Lagios et al., 2023). While displaced aggression can provide cathartic release and temporary reduction of stress, which, as demonstrated by this study, can positively correlate to satisfaction with life, a large body of research also demonstrates deleterious effects of this behavior on people's well-being (see Gallegos et al., 2023). Informed by Dollard's (1938) theory of displaced aggression, there exists a nuanced connection between emotion regulation and displaced aggression, particularly in the realm of managerial abuse. The habitual displacement of emotions has the potential to adversely impact mental well-being, intensify personal challenges, and strain interpersonal relationships.

Positive Social Change Implications

While partially inconclusive, findings from this study can encourage further investigations into the dynamics of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, displaced aggression, and life satisfaction, thereby holding significant implications for positive social change. By exposing the consequences of managerial abuse, both to employee well-being and company productivity, future research can underscore the need for healthier workplace environments. Organizations stand to gain by instituting policies and practices that prioritize respectful leadership and offer anger management programs for employers and support mechanisms for employees experiencing abuse. Developing strategies for effective emotion regulation and conflict resolution within organizations can prompt a positive cultural shift in the workplace, ultimately fostering heightened life satisfaction for all involved. This, in turn, has the potential to yield a broader societal

impact by cultivating more harmonious and supportive work environments, prioritizing employee well-being, and contributing to the overall advancement of positive social change.

Theoretical, Methodological, and Empirical Implications

The study's somewhat unexpected results may motivate researchers to undertake replication studies using different sampling strategies and different research designs. For example, researchers might employ randomized sampling, a longitudinal approach design, and more refined data collection instruments (e.g., using independent subscale scores rather than instrument totals). These modifications have the potential to yield a productive distinction from the current study, aligning the results more closely with those of previous, similar research.

Conclusion

The study aimed to determine the relative strength of managerial abuse, emotion regulation, and displaced aggression on employee well-being. Contrary to predictions, the results revealed no relationship between either managerial abuse or emotion regulation and life satisfaction, suggesting that their impact on life satisfaction may be contingent on other factors or situational contexts not identified in this study. Despite its limitations, this study offers insights into the dynamics among workplace dynamics, emotional processes, and overall life satisfaction.

For example, a significant positive relationship between displaced aggression and life satisfaction was found, indicating that individuals who, having been the target of managerial abuse, vent their anger on a surrogate (e.g., someone without the ability to

retaliate) may experience a cathartic release of pent-up anger and a sense of well-being. While the ability to displace one's aggression may provide temporary relief for individual targets of managerial abuse, studies have found that anger displaced on coworkers contributes to workplace hostility. In the interest of employee satisfaction and workplace productivity, anger management programs have the potential to ameliorate the problem or, better yet, to prevent workplace hostility from materializing in the first place.

References

Abendroth, A.-K., Melzer, S., Kalev, A., & Tomaskovic-Devey, D. (2017). Women at work: Women's access to power and the gender earnings gap. *ILR Review, 70*(1), 190–222. https://doi.org/10.1177/0019793916668530

Aldao, A., Nolen-Hoeksema, S., & Schweizer, S. (2010). Emotion-regulation strategies across psychopathology: A meta-analytic review. *Clinical Psychology Review, 30*(2), 217-237. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2009.11.004

Allan, S., & Gilbert, P. (1997). Submissive behaviour and psychopathology. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology, 36,* 467-488. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8260.1997.tb01255.x

Almeida, J. G., Hartog, D. N. D., De Hoogh, A. H. B., Franco, V. R., & Porto, J. B. (2021). Harmful leader behaviors: Toward an increased understanding of how different forms of unethical leader behavior can harm subordinates. *Journal of Business Ethics, 180*, 215-244. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-021-04864-7

American Psychological Association (2022a). *APA dictionary of psychology*. Life Satisfaction. https://dictionary.apa.org/life-satisfaction

American Psychological Association (2022b). *APA dictionary of psychology*. Quality of Life. https://dictionary.apa.org/life-satisfaction

American Psychological Association. (2023). *APA dictionary of psychology*. https://dictionary.apa.org/displaced-aggression

Antonie, L., Inwood, K., Minns, C., & Summerfield, F. (2020). Selection bias encountered in the systematic linking of historical census records. *Social Science*

History, 44(3), 555-570. https://doi.org/10.1017/ssh.2020.15

Arshad, A. (2022). *Employees in the face of abusive supervision: Using personal, social and environment resources as coping mechanisms* [Doctoral dissertation, The University of Waikato]. Research Commons. https://hdl.handle.net/10289/14825

Asadi, F., Khodabakhsh Pirkalani, R., & Mehrinezhad, S. A. (2022). The role of emotion regulation strategies, defense mechanisms and integrative self-knowledge in predicting quality of interpersonal relationships. *Journal of Modern Psychological Researches*, *17*(67), 1-11.

Banks, M. H., Clegg, C. W., Jackson, P. R., Kemp, N. J., Stafford, E. M., & Wall, T. D. (1980). The use of the general health questionnaire as an indicator of mental health in occupational studies. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *53*(3), 187–194. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1980.tb00024.x

Bari, M. W., Ghaffar, M., & Ahmad, B. (2020). Knowledge-hiding behaviors and employees' silence: mediating role of psychological contract breach. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *24*(9), 2171–2194. https://doi.org/10.1108/JKM-02-2020-0149

Bassman, E. & London, M. (1993). Abusive managerial behaviour. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 14*(2), 8-24. https://doi.org/10.1108/01437739310032683

Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*, 349 –360. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.3.349

Berkowitz, L. & Green, J. A. (1962). The stimulus qualities of the scapegoat. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 64*(4), 293–301. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0041482

Bettencourt, B. A., & Miller, N. E. (1996). Gender differences in aggression as a function of provocation: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 119*(3), 422–447. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.119.3.422

Bies, R, J. (2000). Interactional (in)justice: The sacred and the profane. In J. Greenberg & R, Gropanzano (Eds,), *Advances in organizational behavior: Forthcoming*. Stanford University Press.

Birditt, K. S., Polenick, C. A., Luong, G., Charles, S. T., & Fingerman, K. L. (2020). Daily interpersonal tensions and well-being among older adults: The role of emotion regulation strategies. *Psychology and Aging, 35*(4), 578–590. https://doi.org/10.1037/pag0000416

Boncoeur, O. D., Takeuchi, R. & Richard, O. C. (2019). *Gender* Workplace Harassment and Upward Displaced Aggression. *Academy of Management Proceedings, 2019*(1), 14922. doi:10.5465/AMBPP.2019.192

Bonde, J. P., Gullander, M., Hansen, Å. M., Grynderup, M., Persson, R., Hogh, A., Kolstad, H. A. (2016). Health correlates of workplace abuse: A 3-wave prospective follow-up study. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment & Health, 42*(1), 17–25. https://doi-org.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/10.5271/sjweh.3539

Boonstra, A., Reneman, M. F., Stewart, R., & Balk, G. A. (2012). Life satisfaction questionnaire (Lisat-9). *International Journal of Rehabilitation Research, 35*(2),

153–160. doi:10.1097/MRR.0b013e328352ab28

Borjesson, W. I., Aarons, G. A., & Dunn, M. E. (2003). Development and confirmatory factor analysis of the abuse within intimate relationships scale. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *18*(3), 295-309. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260502250089

Bowling, N. A., & Michel, J. S. (2011). Why do you treat me badly? The role of attributions regarding the cause of abuse in subordinates' responses to abusive supervision. *Work & Stress*, *25*(4), 309–320. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2011.634281

Brown, L. R., Mason, B., & Carter, M. (2021). Workplace bullying from the perspectives of trainee clinical psychologists. *The Journal of Mental Health Training, Education and Practice*, *16*(2), 139-152.

Bushman, B. J., Bonacci, A. M., Pedersen, W. C., Vasquez, E. A., & Miller, N. (2005). Chewing on It Can Chew You Up: Effects of Rumination on Triggered Displaced Aggression. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 88*(6), 969–983. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.88.6.969

Buss, A. H., & Perry, M. (1992). The Aggression Questionnaire. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *63*, 452-459.

Butt, P., Gliksman, L., Beirness, D., Paradis, C., & Stockwell, T. (2011) Alcohol and health in Canada: A summary of evidence and guidelines for low-risk drinking (Tech. Rep.). Ottawa, ON: Canadian 166 B. Zhou et al. / Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology (2018) 34(3) 157-167 Centre on Substance Abuse.

http://www.ccsa.ca/eng/topics/alcohol/drinking-guidelines/pages/default.aspx

Byrne, D. (1961). Interpersonal attraction and attitude similarity. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 62*(3), 713–715. doi:10.1037/h0044721

Byrne, D., Griffitt, W., Stefaniak, D. (1967). Attraction and similarity of personality characteristics. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 5*(1), 82–90. doi:10.1037/h0021198

Cabello, R., Salguero, J. M., Fern´andez-Berrocal, P., & Gross, J. J. (2013). A Spanish adaptation of the emotion regulation questionnaire. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment, 29*, 234–240.

Cannon, W. B. (1927). The James-Lange theory of emotions: A critical examination and an alternative theory. *The American Journal of Psychology, 39*(1-4), 106–124. doi:10.2307/1415404

Caputo, A. (2017). Social desirability bias in self-reported well-being measures: Evidence from an online survey. *Universitas Psychologica, 16*(2). https://doi.org/10.11144/Javeriana.upsy16-2.sdsw

Carlson, D., Ferguson, M., Hunter, E., & Whitten, D. (2012). Abusive supervision and work-family conflict: The path through emotional labor and burnout. *The Leadership Quarterly, 23*, 849-859. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.05.003

Carlson, D. S., Grzywacz, J. G., & Zivnuska, S. (2009). Is work—family balance more than conflict and enrichment? *Human Relations*, *62*(10), 1459–1486. doi:10.1177/0018726709336500

Carver, C. S., & Glass, D. C. (1978). Coronary-prone behavior pattern and interpersonal

aggression. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 36*, 361–366.

Casson, M. (1994). Why are Firms Hierarchical? *International Journal of the Economics of Business, 1*(1), 47–76. doi:10.1080/758540499

Chi, N.-W., Tsai, W.-C., & Tseng, S.-M. (2013). Customer negative events and employee service sabotage: The roles of employee hostility, personality and group affective tone. *Work & Stress*, *27*(3), 298–319. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2013.819046

Christian, M. S., & Ellis, A. P. J. (2011). Examining the Effects of Sleep Deprivation on Workplace Deviance: A Self-Regulatory Perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, *54*(5), 913–934. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.0179

Cohen-Charash, Y. (2009). Episodic envy. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 39*(9), 2128–2173.

Cole, P. M., & Michel, M. K. (1994). The Development of Emotion Regulation and Dysregulation: A Clinical Perspective. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, *59*(2/3), 73–100. https://doi.org/10.2307/1166139

Combs, D. R., Penn, D. L., Wicher, M., & Waldheter, E. (2007). The Ambiguous Intentions Hostility Questionnaire (AIHQ): A new measure for evaluating hostile social-cognitive biases in paranoia. *Cognitive Neuropsychiatry*, *12*, 128-143.

Congressional Research Service (2022). Retirement Trends in United States, 2000-2022. Retrieved from https://crsreports.congress.gov/product/pdf/IN/IN11959

Connelly, C. E., Černe, M., Dysvik, A., & Škerlavaj, M. (2019). Understanding knowledge hiding in organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *40*(7),

779–782. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2407

Connelly, C. E., Zweig, D., Webster, J., & Trougakos, J. P. (2012). Knowledge hiding in
organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *33*(1), 64–88.
https://doi.org/10.1002/job.737

Contreras, I. M., & Novaco, R. W. (2023). Anger Rumination Vs. Revenge Planning:
Divergent Associations with Aggression and Life Satisfaction. *Journal of School
Violence*, *22*(3), 383-394.

Creswell, J.W., & Creswell, J.D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and
mixed methods approaches* (5th ed.). SAGE Publications, Inc.

Dahling, J. J., Whitaker, B. G., & Levy, P. E. (2009, April 1). The development and
validation of a new Machiavellianism scale. *Journal of Management, 35*(2), 219.

Davison, G. C., Robins, C., & Johnson, M. K. (1983). Articulated thoughts during
simulated situations: A paradigm for studying cognition in emotion and behavior.
Cognitive Therapy and Research, 7, 17–39.
http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF01173421

De Coning, J. A., Rothmann, S., & Stander, M. W. (2019). Do wage and wage
satisfaction compensate for the effects of a dissatisfying job on life
satisfaction? *SAJIP: South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *45*, 1–11.
https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v45i0.1552

Deffenbacher, J. L., Oetting, E. R., Lynch, R. S., & Morris, C. D. (1996). The expression
of anger and its consequences. *Behaviour Research and Therapy, 34*(7), 575.

Denson, T. F., Pedersen, W. C., & Miller, N. (2006a). Displaced Aggression

Questionnaire. *PsycTESTS*. https://doi.org/10.1037/t03155-000

Denson, T. F., Pedersen, W. C., & Miller, Norman (2006b). The displaced aggression questionnaire. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol 90*(6), 1032-1051. https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.90.6.1032

Denson, T. F., Pedersen, W. C., Ronquillo, J., & Miller, N. (2008). Trait displaced aggression, physical health, and life satisfaction: A process model. *Personality down under: Perspectives from Australia. Hauppauge, NY, US: Nova Science Publishers*.

de Ridder, D. T. D., Lensvelt-Mulders, G., Finkenauer, C., Stok, F. M., & Baumeister, R. F. (2012). Taking Stock of Self-Control: A Meta-Analysis of How Trait Self-Control Relates to a Wide Range of Behaviors. Personality & Social Psychology Review (Sage Publications Inc.), 16(1), 76–99. https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868311418749

Detert, J. R., Treviño, L. K., Burris, E. R., & Andiappan, M. (2008). "Managerial modes of influence and counterproductivity in organizations: A longitudinal business-unit-level investigation". *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(2), 328. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.2.328

DeWall, C. N., Finkel, E. J., Lambert, N. M., Slotter, E. B., Bodenhausen, G. V., Pond, R. S., Jr., . . . Fincham, F. D. (2013). The voodoo doll task: Introducing and validating a novel method for studying aggressive inclinations. *Aggressive Behavior, 39,* 419–439. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/ab.21496

Diener, E., Emmons, R.A., Larsen, R.J. and Griffin, S. (1985). The Satisfaction with Life

Scale. Journal of Personality Assessment, 49(1), 71-75.

https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa4901_13

Diener, E., Wirtz, D., Tov, W., Kim-Prieto, C., Choi, D.-W., Oishi, S., & Biswas-Diener, R. (2010). New well-being measures: Short scales to assess flourishing and positive and negative feelings. *Social Indicators Research, 97*, 143–156. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-009-9493-y

Dobbin, F., Schrage, D., & Kalev, A. (2015). Rage against the iron cage: The varied effects of bureaucratic personnel reforms on diversity. *American Sociological Review, 80*(5), 1014–1044.

Dollard, J. (1938). Hostility and Fear in Social Life. *Social Forces, 17*(1), 15–26. https://doi.org/10.2307/2571143

Dollard, J., Doob, L. W., Miller, N. E., Mowrer, O. H., & Sears, R. R. (1939). *Frustration and aggression.* Yale University Press.

Dugan, A. G., Matthews, R. A., & Barnes-Farrell, J. L. (2012). Understanding the roles of subjective and objective aspects of time in the work-family interface. *Community, Work & Family*, *15*(2), 149–172.

Dukerich, J. M., Golden, B. R., & Shortell, S. M. (2002). Beauty Is in the Eye of the Beholder: The Impact of Organizational Identification, Identity, and Image on the Cooperative Behaviors of Physicians. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *47*(3), 507–533. https://doi.org/10.2307/3094849

Dyne, L. V., & Pierce, J. L. (2004). Psychological ownership and feelings of possession: three field studies predicting employee attitudes and organizational citizenship

behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *25*(4), 439.

Ebner-Priemer, U. W., & Trull, T. J. (2009). Ecological momentary assessment of mood disorders and mood dysregulation. *Psychological Assessment, 21*, 463–475. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0017075

Eisenberger, R., Lynch, P., Aselage, J., & Rohdieck, S. (2004). Who takes the most revenge? Individual differences in negative reciprocity norm endorsement. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 30*, 787–799.

Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*, 565-573.

Elston, D. M. (2021). Participation bias, self-selection bias, and response bias. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology*.

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A.-G. (2009). Statistical power analyses using G*Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior Research Methods*, *41*(4), 1149–1160. https://doi.org/10.3758/BRM.41.4.1149

Feng, Y., Ayub, A., Fatima, T., Irfan, S., & Sarmad, M. (2022). I cannot be creative due to my exploitative leader! A moderated mediation interplay of leader–member exchange quality and knowledge hiding. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, *35*(3), 558–579. https://doi.org/10.1108/JOCM-04-2021-0127

Freeman, D., Garety, P., Bebbington, P., Smith, B., Rollinson, R., & Fowler, D. (2005). Psychological investigation of the structure of paranoia in a non-clinical population. *British Journal of Psychiatry*, *16*, 427-435.

Freeman, D., Pugh, K., Green, C., Valmaggia, L., Dunn, G., & Garety, P. (2007). A measure of state persecutory ideation for experimental studies. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, *195*, 781-784.

Friesen, J. P., Kay, A. C., Eibach, R. P., & Galinsky, A. D. (2014). Seeking structure in social organization: Compensatory control and the psychological advantages of hierarchy. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 106(4), 590.

Fugl-Meyer, A. R., Bränholm, I. B., & Fugl-Meyer, K. S. (1991a). Happiness and domain-specific life satisfaction in adult northern Swedes. *Clinical rehabilitation, 5*(1), 25-33. https://doi.org/10.1177/026921559100500105

Fugl-Meyer, A. R., Bränholm, I.-B., & Fugl-Meyer, K. S. (1991b). Life Satisfaction Questionnaire. *PsycTESTS*. https://doi.org/10.1037/t12710-000

Ghaemi, F., Soltaninejad, M., & Khaje, F. (2018). The prediction of quality of life based on cognitive emotion regulation strategies and communication skills in female nurses. *Iranian Journal of Psychiatric Nursing*, *6*(5), 50-56.

Gallegos, I., Guàrdia-Olmos, J., & Berger, R. (2023). *Ripple Effects of Abusive Supervision*. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *20*(4), 3500.

García-Sancho, E., Salguero, M. J., Vasquez, E. A., & Fernández-Berrocal, P. (2016). Validity and reliability of the Spanish version of the Displaced Aggression Questionnaire. *Psicothema, 28*(1), 96–101. https://doi.org/10.7334/psicothema2015.222

Ghani, U., Teo, T., Li, Y., Usman, M., Islam, Z. U., Gul, H., Naeem, R. M., Bahadar, H.,

Yuan, J., & Zhai, X. (2020). Tit for Tat: Abusive Supervision and Knowledge Hiding-The Role of Psychological Contract Breach and Psychological Ownership. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *17*(4). https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17041240

Gerhardt, C. (2005). *Working time and income abandonment as a political readiness to act: the role of morale, self-interest and anticipated free-riders* [Doctoral thesis, The University of Trier]. Trier. http://ubt.opus.hbz-nrw.de/volltexte/2005/336

Gibbons, F.X., & Buunk, B.P. (1999). Individual differences in social comparison: he development of a scale of social comparison orientation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76*(1), 129–142.

Ghayas, M. M., & Jabeen, R. (2020). Abusive supervision: Dimensions & Scale. *New Horizons (1992-4399)*, *14*(1), 107–130. https://doi.org/10.2.9270/NH.14.1(20).07

Gold, A. H., Malhotra, A., & Segars, A. H. (2001). Knowledge Management: An Organizational Capabilities Perspective. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, *18*(1), 185–214. https://doi.org/10.1080/07421222.2001.11045669

Gordon, R. A. (1987). Social Desirability Bias: A Demonstration and Technique for Its Reduction. *Teaching of Psychology*, *14*(1), 40–42. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15328023top1401_11

Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity. *American Sociological Review, 25*, 161-178

Goute, A. K., Goute, A., & Jan, N. A. (2021). The Dark Side of Leadership: A Review of Literature on Abusive Supervision. *IUP Journal of Organizational Behavior,*

20(4), 153–166.

Greenbaum, R. L., Hill, A., Mawritz, M. B., & Quade, M. J. (2017). Employee
Machiavellianism to Unethical Behavior: The Role of Abusive Supervision as a
Trait Activator. *Journal of Management*, *43*(2), 585–609.
https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314535434

Greenbaum, R. L., Mawritz, M. B., Mayer, D. M., & Priesemuth, M. (2013). To act out,
to withdraw, or to constructively resist? Employee reactions to supervisor abuse
of customers and the moderating role of employee moral identity. *Human
Relations*, *66*(7), 925–950. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726713482992

Gross, J. J. (1998). Antecedent- and Response-Focused Emotion Regulation: Divergent
Consequences for Experience, Expression, and Physiology. *Journal of
Personality and Social Psychology*, *74*(1), 224–237.

Gross, J. J., & John, O. P. (2003). Individual differences in two emotion regulation
processes: Implications for affect, relationships, and well-being. *Journal of
Personality and Social Psychology*, *85*(2), 348–362. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-
3514.85.2.348

Graen, G. B., & Scandura, T. A. (1987). Toward a psychology of dyadic
organizing. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 9,* 175–208.

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership:
Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25
years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership
Quarterly, 6*(2), 219–247. https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(95)90036-5

Gratz, K. L., & Roemer, L. (2004). Multidimensional assessment of emotion regulation and dysregulation: Development, factor structure, and initial validation of the difficulties in emotion regulation scale. *Journal of psychopathology and behavioral assessment*, *26*(1), 41-54.

Hagmaier, T., Abele, A. E., & Goebel, K. (2018). How do career satisfaction and life satisfaction associate? *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *33*(2), 142–160. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-09-2017-0326

Hanek, K. J., & Garcia, S. M. (2022). Barriers for women in the workplace: A social psychological perspective. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, e12706.

Harmon-Jones, E. 2003. Anger and the behavioral approach system. *Personality and Individual Differences, 35*, 995–1005. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(02)00313-6

Harmon-Jones, E., & Allen, J. B. (1998). Anger and frontal brain activity: EEG asymmetry consistent with approach motivation despite negative affective valence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*, 1310–1316. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.74.5.1310

Harris, K. J., Kacmar, K. M., & Zivnuska, S. (2007a). An investigation of abusive supervision as a predictor of performance and the meaning of work as a moderator of the relationship. *The Leadership Quarterly, 18*(3), 252–263. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.03.007

Harris, K. J., Kacmar, K. M., & Zivnuska, S. (2007b). Shortened Measure of Abusive Supervision. PsycTESTS. https://doi.org/10.1037/t11353-000

Hashemabady, B. G., Tavousi, A. Z., Mazloomzadeh, M., & Kazemi, S. M. (2022). The relationship between self-efficacy and life satisfaction: Mediating role of emotion dysregulation. *Journal of Fundamentals of Mental Health*, *24*(4), 231–240.

Henry, A., & Gagnon, J. (2022). Displaced Aggression Questionnaire -French Version. *PsycTESTS*. https://doi.org/10.1037/t84865-000

Hewig, J., Hagemann, D., Seifert, J., Naumann, E., & Bartussek, D. (2004). On the selective relation of frontal cortical asymmetry and anger-out versus anger-control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 87*, 926–939.

Hinduja, S. (2009). Occupational stressors and antinormative behavior. *Security Journal*, *22*(4), 269–285. https://doi-org.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/10.1057/palgrave.sj.8350083

Hogg, M. A., & Vaughan, G. M. (2005). *Social psychology* (4th ed.). Prentice Hall.

Holland, P. (2019). The impact of a dysfunctional leader on the workplace: a new challenge for HRM. *Personnel Review*, *49*(4), 1039-1052. https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-03-2019-0134

Hongbo, L., Waqas, M., & Tariq, H. (2019). From victim to saboteur: Testing a moderated mediation model of perceived undermining, state hostility, and service sabotage. *Journal of Service Theory and Practice*, *29*(1), 2–21. https://doi.org/10.1108/JSTP-02-2018-0030

Hongbo, L., Waqas, M., Tariq, H., Nana Abena, A. A., Akwasi, O. C., & Ashraf, S. F. (2020). I will hurt you for this, when and how subordinates take revenge from abusive supervisors: A perspective of displaced revenge. *Frontiers in Psychology,*

12. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.672074

Hoobler, J. M., & Brass, D. J. (2006). Abusive supervision and family undermining as displaced aggression.*Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(5), 1125–1133. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.5.1125

Hovland, C. I., & Sears, R. R. (1940). Minor Studies of Aggression: VI. Correlation of Lynchings with Economic Indices. *The Journal of Psychology, 9*(2), 301–310. doi:10.1080/00223980.1940.9917696

Hsieh, I.-J., & Chen, Y. Y. (2017). Determinants of aggressive behavior: Interactive effects of emotional regulation and inhibitory control. *PLOS ONE, 12*(4), e0175651. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0175651

Houston, E. (2019, July 4). *Using the Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire.* PositivePsychology.com. https://positivepsychology.com/emotion-regulation-questionnaire/#comment-list

Jahanzeb, S., Fatima, T., Bouckenooghe, D., & Bashir, F. (2019). The knowledge hiding link: A moderated mediation model of how abusive supervision affects employee creativity. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *28*(6), 810–819. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2019.1659245

Jeong, Y., & Jung, M. J. (2016). Application and Interpretation of Hierarchical Multiple Regression. *Orthopaedic Nursing*, *35*(5), 338-341.https://doi.org/10.1097/NOR.0000000000000279

Liang, L. H., Coulombe, C., Brown, D. J., Lian, H., Hanig, S., Ferris, D. L., & Keeping, L. M. (2022). Can two wrongs make a right? The buffering effect of retaliation on

subordinate well-being following abusive supervision. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 27*(1), 37–52. https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000291

Liu, B., Chen, H., & Huang, X. (2018). Map Changes and Theme Evolution in Work Hours: A Co-Word Analysis. *International Journal of Environmental Research And Public Health, 15*(5). https://doi-org.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/10.3390/ijerph15051039

Kammeyer-Mueller, J., Wanberg, C., Rubenstein, A., & Zhaoli S. (2013). Support, Undermining, and Newcomer Socialization: Fitting in during the First 90 Days. *Academy of Management Journal*, *56*(4), 1104–1124. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.0791

Karasek, R. & Theorell, T. (1990). *Healthy work: stress, productivity, and the reconstruction of working life*. Basic Books, New York

Kessler, R. C., Andrews, G., Colpe, L. J., Hiripi, E., Mroczek, D. K., Normand, S.-L. T., Walters, E. E., Zaslavsky, A. M., Prnjak, K., Pemberton, S., Helms, E., & Phillips, J. G. (2020). K10 Scale. *Journal of General Psychology, 147*(4), 361–380.

Khan, A., Quratulain, S., & Crawshaw, J. (2017). Double Jeopardy: Subordinates' Worldviews and Poor Performance as Predictors of Abusive Supervision. *Journal of Business & Psychology, 32*(2), 165–178. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-016-9442-0

Khan, A. K., Moss, S., Quratulain, S., & Hameed, I. (2018). When and How Subordinate Performance Leads to Abusive Supervision: A Social Dominance Perspective.

Journal of Management, 44(7), 2801–2826.

https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206316653930

Konecni, V. J., & Doob, A. N. (1972). Catharsis through displacement of

aggression. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 23*(3), 379–

387. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0033164

Kraska, M. (2010). *Quantitative Research* (Vol. 3). Sage Publications, Inc.

Kroenke, K., Strine, T. W., Spitzer, R. L., Williams, J. B., Berry, J. T., & Mokdad, A. H.

(2009). The PHQ-8 as a measure of current depression in the general population.

Journal of Affective Disorders, *114*(1–3), 163–173. doi:10.1016/j.jad.

2008.06.026

Lagios, C., Restubog, S. L. D., Garcia, P. R. J. M., He, Y., & Caesens, G. (2023). A

trickle-out model of organizational dehumanization and displaced

aggression. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *141*, 103826.

Leander, N. P., & Chartrand, T. L. (2017). On thwarted goals and displaced aggression:

A compensatory competence model. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*,

72, 88–100. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2017.04.010

Leineweber, C., Baltzer, M., Magnusson Hanson, L. L., & Westerlund, H. (2013). Work–

family conflict and health in Swedish working women and men: a 2-year

prospective analysis (the SLOSH study). *The European Journal of Public

Health*, *23*(4), 710-716.

Liden, R.C., Wayne, S.J., & Stilwell, D. (1993). A longitudinal study on the early

development of leader-member exchanges. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*(4),

662–674.

Li, A., Liao, C., Shao, P., & Huang, J. (2022). Angry but not Deviant: Employees' Prior-Day Deviant Behavior Toward the Family Buffers Their Reactions to Abusive Supervisory Behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *177*(3), 683–697. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-021-04750-2

Liu, S., Zhu, Q., & Wei, F. (2019). How Abusive Supervision Affects Employees' Unethical Behaviors: A Moderated Mediation Examination of Turnover Intentions and Caring Climate. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 16*(21). https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16214187

Lopes, B. C., Kamau, C., & Jaspal, R. (2019). Coping with perceived abusive supervision: The role of paranoia. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *26*(2), 237–255. https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051818795821

Lowery, B. S., Knowles, E. D., & Unzueta, M. M. (2007). Framing inequity safely: Whites' motivated perceptions of racial privilege. Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin, 33(9), 1237–1250.

Lyubomirsky, S., King, L. A., & Diener, E. (2005). The benefits of frequent positive affect. *Psychological Bulletin, 131*, 803–855. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.131.6.803

Lu, D., He, Y., & Tan, Y. (2022). Gender, socioeconomic status, cultural differences, education, family size and procrastination: A sociodemographic meta-analysis. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *12*, 719425.

Mansueto, G., & Faravelli, C. (2021). Stressful life events and psychosis: Gender

differences. *Stress and Health: Journal of the International Society for the Investigation of Stress*. https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.3067

Marcus-Newhall, A., Pedersen, W. C., Carlson, M., & Miller, N. E. (2000). Displaced Aggression Is Alive and Well: A Meta-Analytic Review. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 78*(4), 670–689.

Masumoto, K., Harada, K., & Shiozaki, M. (2022). Effect of Emotion Regulation on Mental Health of Couples in Long-Term Marriages: One-Year Follow-up Study. *Japanese Psychological Research, 64*(3), 360–368. https://doi.org/10.1111/jpr.12325

Mathieu, C., & Babiak, P. (2016). Corporate psychopathy and abusive supervision: Their influence on employees' job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Personality and Individual Differences, 91, 102–106. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2015.12.002

Mawritz, M.B., Mayer, D.M., Hoobler, J.M., Wayne, S.J., & Marinova, S.V. (2012). A trickle-down model of abusive supervision. *Personnel Psychology*, *65*(2), 325–357.

McElwain, A., Korabik, K., & Chappell, D. (2005). *The work-family guilt scale*. Poster presented at the annual meeting of the Canadian Psychological Association, Montreal, QC.

McManus, S., Bebbington, P. E., Jenkins, R., & Brugha, T. (2016). *Mental health and wellbeing in England: the adult psychiatric morbidity survey 2014*. NHS digital.

Medina, A., Lopez, E., & Medina, R. (2020). The Unethical Managerial Behaviors and Abusive Use of Power in Downwards Vertical Workplace Abuse: A

Phenomenological Case Study. *Social Sciences (2076-0760), 9*(6), 110.

https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci9060110

Mensah, A. (2021). Job stress and mental well-being among working men and women in

Europe: The mediating role of social support. *International Journal of*

Environmental Research and Public Health, *18*(5), 2494.

Mercadal, T. M., PhD. (2021). Hierarchical Organizational Structure. Salem Press

Encyclopedia.

Merskey, H. (1986). International association for the study of pain (IASP): subcommittee

on taxonomy, classification of chronic pain, description of pain terms. *Pain, 3*, 1-

226.

Mikulincer, M., Shaver, P. R., & Pereg, D. (2003). Attachment theory and affect

regulation: The dynamics, development, and cognitive consequences of

attachment-related strategies. *Motivation and Emotion, 27*(2), 77-102.

Miller, N. E. (1941). The frustration-aggression hypothesis. *Psychological Review, 48*,

337-342.

Miller, N. E. (1948). Theory and experiment relating psychoanalytic displacement to

stimulus-response generalization. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social*

Psychology, 43(2), 155–178. doi:10.1037/h0056728

Miller, N., Pedersen, W. C., Earleywine, M., & Pollock, V. E. (2003). A Theoretical

Model of Triggered Displaced Aggression. *Personality & Social Psychology*

Review (Lawrence Erlbaum Associates), 7(1), 75–97.

https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327957PSPR0701_5

Mitchell, M. S., & Ambrose, M. L. (2007). Supervisor-Directed Deviance

Measure. *PsycTESTS*. https://doi.org/10.1037/t30180-000

Mitchell, M. S., & Ambrose, M. L. (2007). Abusive supervision and workplace deviance

and the moderating effects of negative reciprocity beliefs. *Journal of Applied

Psychology*, *92*(4), 1159–1168. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.4.1159

Moin, M. F., Wei, F., & Weng, Q. (2020). Abusive supervision, emotion regulation, and

performance. *International Journal of Selection & Assessment*, *28*(4), 498–509.

https://doi.org/10.1111/ijsa.12301

Nedaei, A., Paghoosh, A., & Sadeghi-Hosnijeh,, A. (2016). Relationship between Coping

Strategies and Quality of Life: Mediating Role of Cognitive Emotion Regulation

Skills. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *8*(4), 35-48. doi: 10.22075/jcp.2017.2252

Nevicka, B., De Hoogh, A. H. B., Den Hartog, D. N., & Belschak, F. D. (2018).

Narcissistic leaders and their victims: Followers low on self-esteem and low on

core self-evaluations suffer most. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *9*.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.00422

Niebuur, J., van Lente, L., Liefbroer, A. C., Steverink, N., & Smidt, N. (2018).

Determinants of participation in voluntary work: a systematic review and meta-

analysis of longitudinal cohort studies. *BMC public health*, *18*, 1-30.

Nielsen, M. B., & Einarsen, S. (2012). Outcomes of exposure to workplace abuse: A

meta-analytic review. *Work & Stress, 26*(4), 309–332.

https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2012.734709

Niculita, Z., & Korniejczuk, V. (2020). Emotion Regulation and Cognitive Coping

Strategies for Couple Partners. A Correlational Study. *Anthropological Researches and Studies, 10*(1), 64–72. https://doi.org/10.26758/10.1.7

Niven, K., Totterdell, P., & Holman, D. (2009). A classification of controlled interpersonal affect regulation strategies. Emotion, 9(4), 498–509. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0015962

Niven, K., Troth, A. C., & Holman, D. (2019). Do the effects of interpersonal emotion regulation depend on people's underlying motives? *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology, 92*(4), 1020–1026. https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12257

Nonaka, I., & Konno, N. (1998). The Concept of "Ba": BUILDING A FOUNDATION FOR KNOWLEDGE CREATION. *California Management Review*, *40*(3), 40–54. https://doi.org/10.2307/41165942

Nunnally, J.C. & Bernstein, I.R. (1994), *Psychometric theory*, *3E*, McGraw-Hill, New York

Oldham, G. R., & Cummings, A. (1996). Employee Creativity: Personal and Contextual Factors at Work. *Academy of Management Journal*, *39*(3), 607–634. https://doi.org/10.2307/256657

Park, J. H., & Ono, M. (2017). Effects of workplace abuse on work engagement and health: the mediating role of job insecurity. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *28*(22), 3202–3225. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1155164

Pedersen, W. C., Ellison, J., & Miller, N. (2017). Displaced aggression is alive and

well. *The Wiley handbook of violence and aggression*, 1-13. doi: 10.1037//0022-3514.78.4.670

Peltokorpi, V., & Ramaswami, A. (2021). Abusive supervision and subordinates' physical and mental health: the effects of job satisfaction and power distance orientation. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 32*(4), 893–919. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2018.1511617

Peng, H. (2013). Why and when do people hide knowledge? *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *17*(3), 398–415. https://doi.org/10.1108/JKM-12-2012-0380

Post, M.W., vanLeeuwen, C. M., vanKoppnhagen, C.F., & de Groot, S. (2012). Validity of the Life Satisfaction Questions, the Life Satisfaction Questions, the Life Satisfaction Questionnaire, and the Satisfaction with Life Scale in Persons With Spinal Cord Injury. *Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation*, *93*(10), 1832-1837.

Rainey, A., & Melzer, S. M. (2021). The Organizational Context of Supervisory Abuse: Diversity/Equity and Work-Family Policies. *Work & Occupations*, *48*(3), 285–319. https://doi.org/10.1177/0730888421997518

Raymond, B., & Bruschi, I. G. (1989). Psychological abuse among college women in dating relationships. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 69*(3-2), 1283-1297. https://doi.org/10.1177/00315125890693-241

Reiter-Palmon, R. (2011). Introduction to Special Issue: The Psychology of Creativity and Innovation in the Workplace. *Psychology of Aesthetics, Creativity, and the Arts, 5*(1), 1–2. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0018586

Raj, A., Johns, N. E., & Jose, R. (2020). Gender Parity at Work and Its Association With Workplace Sexual Harassment. *Workplace Health & Safety*, *68*(6), 279–292. https://doi.org/10.1177/2165079919900793

Rajchert, J., Konopka, K., Oręziak, H., & Dziechciarska, W. (2022). Direct and displaced aggression after exclusion: Role of gender differences. *The Journal of Social Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1080/00224545.2022.2042173

Richard, O. C., Boncoeur, O. D., Chen, H., & Ford, D. L. (2020). Supervisor Abuse Effects on Subordinate Turnover Intentions and Subsequent Interpersonal Aggression: The Role of Power-Distance Orientation and Perceived Human Resource Support Climate. *Journal of Business Ethics, 164*(3), 549–563. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-4019-7

Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of management journal, 38*(2), 555-572. https://doi.org/10.5465/256693

Robinson, S. L., & Morrison, E. W. (2000). The development of psychological contract breach and violation: a longitudinal study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *21*(5), 525. https://doi.org/10.1002/1099-1379(200008)21:5<525::AID-JOB40>3.0.CO;2-T

Robinson, S. L., & Rousseau, D. M. (1994). *Violating the psychological contract: Not the exception but the norm.15*(3), 245–259. doi:10.1002/job.4030150306

Rushton, J. P., Chrisjohn, R. D., & Fekken, G. C. (1981). The altruistic personality and the self-report altruism scale. Personality and individual differences, 2(4), 293-

302.

Ryff, C., & Keyes, C. (1995). The structure of psychological wellbeing revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69*, 719-727.

Saeed, A., Pervez, R., & Mushtaq, S. (2022). Impact of Despotic Leadership with Mediation of Emotional Exhaustion on Life Satisfaction and Organizational Career Growth: Moderating Role of Emotional Intelligence. *Journal of Managerial Sciences*, *16*(4), 21-45.

Salguero, J. M., García-Sancho, E., Ramos-Cejudo, J., & Kannis-Dymand, L. (2020). Individual differences in anger and displaced aggression: The role of metacognitive beliefs and anger rumination. *Aggressive behavior*, *46*(2), 162-169. https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.21878

San Too, L., & Butterworth, P. (2018). Psychosocial job stressors and mental health: The potential moderating role of emotion regulation. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 60*(10), e518-e524. https://doi.org/10.1097/JOM.0000000000001416

Santos, J., & Gonçalves, G. (2014). Contribution to the Portuguese adaptation of the work-family and family-work conflict scales. *Revista eletrónica de Psicologia, Educação e Saúde, 3*(2), 14-30. https://revistaepsi.com/wp-content/uploads/artigos/2013/Ano3-Volume2-Artigo2.pdf

Sawyer, K., Young, S. F., Thoroughgood, C., & Dominguez, K. M. (2020). Does Reducing Male Domination in Teams Attenuate or Intensify the Harmful Effects of Perceived Discrimination on Women's Job Satisfaction? A Test of Competing

Hypotheses. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, *69*(2), 557–577.

https://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12180

Sainz, M., Delgado, N., & Moriano, J. A. (2021). The link between authentic leadership, organizational dehumanization and stress at work. *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones*, *37*(2), 85-92.

Simons, J. S., Gaher, R. M. (2005). Appraisal Subscale. [Subscale from: Distress Tolerance Scale]. *Motivation and Emotion*, *29*(2), 83–102.

Slotter, E. B., Grom, J. L., & Tervo-Clemmens, B. (2020). Don't take it out on me: Displaced aggression after provocation by a romantic partner as a function of attachment anxiety and self-control. *Psychology of Violence*, *10*(2), 232–244.

https://doi.org/10.1037/vio0000279

Schmid, E. A., Pircher Verdorfer, A., & Peus, C. V. (2014). Shedding Light on Leaders' Self-Interest: Theory and Measurement of Exploitative Leadership. *Academy of Management Annual Meeting Proceedings*, *2014*(1), 1.

https://doi.org/10.5465/AMBPP.2014.13714abstract

Shafique, F., & Sadiq, R. (2019). Aggression and Physical Health in Married Women. *JPMI: Journal of Postgraduate Medical Institute*, *33*(4), 319–323.

Shaver, P., Schwartz, J., Kirson, D., & O'Connor, C. (1987). Emotion knowledge: Further exploration of a prototype approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*, 1061–1086. http://dx.doi.org/10 .1037/0022-3514.52.6.1061

Shepard, M. F., & Campbell, J. A. (1992). The Abusive Behavior Inventory: A measure of psychological and physical abuse. *Journal of interpersonal violence, 7*(3), 291-

305. https://doi.org/10.1177/088626092007003001

Sherer, M., Maddux, J. E., Mercandante, B., Prentice-Dunn, S., Jacobs, B., & Rogers, R. W. (1982). The self-efficacy scale: Construction and validation. *Psychological reports*, *51*(2), 663-671.

Shirom, A., & Melamed, S. (2006). A comparison of the construct validity of two burnout measures in two groups of professionals. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *13*(2), 176–200. doi:10.1037/1072-5245.13.2.176

Simões, A. (1992). Ulterior validação de uma escala de satisfação com a vida (SWLS) [Further validation of a life satisfaction scale]. *Revista Portuguesa de Pedagogia, 26*(3), 503–515.

Sousa, C., Pinto, E., Santos, J., & Gonçalves, G. (2020). Effects of work-family and family-work conflict and guilt on job and life satisfaction. *Polish Psychological Bulletin*, *51*(4), 305–314. https://doi.org/10.24425/ppb.2020.135463

Slotter, E. B., Grom, J. L., & Tervo-Clemmens, B. (2020). Don't take it out on me: Displaced aggression after provocation by a romantic partner as a function of attachment anxiety and self-control. *Psychology of Violence, 10*(2), 232–244. https://doi.org/10.1037/vio0000279

Spurk, D., Abele, A.E. and Volmer, J. (2011), The career satisfaction scale: longitudinal measurement invariance and latent growth analysis. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 84*(2), 315-326. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.2011.02028.x.

Starr-Glass, D. (2017). The misappropriation of organizational power and control:

Managerial abuse in the workplace. In *Handbook of research on human factors in contemporary workforce development* (pp. 87-109). IGI Global. DOI: 10.4018/978-1-5225-2568-4.ch004

Statista (2022). Freelance workforce distribution in the United States as of 2022. Retrieved from https://www.statista.com/statistics/685553/distribution-of-freelance-workforce-us/

Stroud, L. R., Salovey, P., & Epel, E. S. (2002). Sex differences in stress responses: Social rejection versus achievement stress. *Biological Psychiatry*, *52*(4), 318–327. doi:10.1016/S0006-3223(02)01333-1

Stucke, T. S., & Baumeister, R. F. (2006). Ego depletion and aggressive behavior: Is the inhibition of aggression a limited resource? European Journal of Social Psychology, 36(1), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.285

Su, S., Quan, F., & Xia, L. (2021). Longitudinal relationships among interpersonal openness trait, hostile attribution bias, and displaced aggressive behavior: Big Five treated as covariates. *International Journal of Psychology*, *56*(5), 669–678. https://doi.org/10.1002/ijop.12745

Suresh K., & Chandrashekara S. (2012). Sample size estimation and power analysis for clinical research studies. *Journal of Human Reproductive Sciences 8*(3). doi: 10.4103/0974-1208.97779.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using Multivariate Statistics*. Pearson Education. Boston, MA.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics.* Pearson

Education. Boston, MA.

Tangney, J. P., Baumeister, R. F., & Boone, A. L. (2004). High self-control predicts good adjustment, less pathology, better grades, and interpersonal success. *Journal of Personality, 72,* 271–324. http://dx.doi.org/10 .1111/j.0022-3506.2004.00263.x

Tariq, H., Weng, Q. (Derek), Ilies, R., & Khan, A. K. (2021). Supervisory Abuse of High Performers: A Social Comparison Perspective. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 70*(1), 280–310. https://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12229

Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of Abusive Supervision. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*(2), 178–190. https://doi.org/10.5465/1556375

Tepper, B. J. (2007). Abusive supervision in work organizations: Review, synthesis, and research agenda. *Journal of Management, 33*(3), 261–289. doi:10.1177/0149206307300812

Tepper, B. J., Duffy, M. K., Henle, C. A., & Lambert, L. S. (2006). Procedural injustice, victim precipitation, and abusive supervision. *Personnel Psychology, 59*(1), 101–123.

Thompson, M., Carlson, D., Crawford, W., Kacmar, K. M., & Weaver, S. (2022). You make me sick: Abuse at work and healthcare utilization. *Human Performance*. Online. https://doi.org/10.1080/08959285.2022.2104846

Thompson, R. A. (1994). Emotion Regulation: A Theme in Search of Definition. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 59*(2/3), 25–52. https://doi.org/10.2307/1166137

Torrence, B. S., & Connelly, S. (2019, a). Emotion Regulation Strategies

Scale. *PsycTESTS*. https://doi.org/10.1037/t81549-000

Torrence, B. S., & Connelly, S. (2019, b). Emotion regulation tendencies and leadership performance: An examination of cognitive and behavioral regulation strategies. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *10*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01486

Tugade, M. M., & Fredrickson, B. L. (2007). Regulation of Positive Emotions: Emotion Regulation Strategies that Promote Resilience. Journal of Happiness Studies, 8(3), 311–333. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-006-9015-4

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2022a). *Labor force projections to 2024: the labor force is growing, but slowly.* https://www.bls.gov/opub/mlr/2015/article/labor-force-projections-to-2024.htm

US Bureau of Labor Statistics (2023b). News Release. The employment situation – October 2023. Retrieved from https://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/empsit.pdf

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2022c). Economic News Release. Regional and state unemployment, 2022 annual average summary. Retrieved from https://www.bls.gov/news.release/srgune.nr0.htm

U.S. Bureau of Labor Stattistics (2023d). Labor Force Statistics from the Current Population Survey. Retrieved from https://www.bls.gov/cps/lfcharacteristics.htm

U.S. Census Bureau, (2022). What Languages Do We Speak in the United States. Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/library/stories/2022/12/languages-we-speak-in-united-states.html

U.S. Department of Labor (n.d.). *Workers Under 18*. Retrieved from https://www.dol.gov/general/topic/hiring/workersunder18#:~:text=Generally%20s

peaking%2C%20the%20Fair%20Labor,being%20employed%20in%20hazardous%20occupations.

U.S. Department of Labor (2022a). Wage and Hour Division. *Wages and the Fair Labor Standards Act.*

https://www.dol.gov/agencies/whd/flsa#:~:text=The%20Fair%20Labor%20Standards%20Act%20(FLSA)%20establishes%20minimum%20wage%2C,%2C%20State%2C%20and%20local%20governments.

U.S. Department of Labor (2022b). *Labor force projections to 2022: the labor force participation rate continues to fall.*

https://www.bls.gov/opub/mlr/2013/article/labor-force-projections-to-2022-the-labor-force-participation-rate-continues-to-fall.htm

Vally, Z., & Ahmed, K. (2020). Emotion regulation strategies and psychological wellbeing: Examining cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression in an Emirati college sample. Neurology, *Psychiatry and Brain Research, 38*, 27–32. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.npbr.2020.09.001

Van Fleet, D. D., & Van Fleet, E. W. (2012). Towards a behavioral description of managerial abuse. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 24*(3), 197–215. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10672-012-9190-x

Wang, X., & Cheng, Z. (2020). Cross-sectional studies: strengths, weaknesses, and recommendations. *Chest, 158*(1), 65-71.

Warr, P., Cook, J., & Wall, T. (1979). Scales for the measurement of some work attitudes and aspects of psychological well-being. *Journal of Occupational Psychology,*

52(2), 129-148. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1979.tb00448.x

Webb, T. L., Miles, E., & Sheeran, P. (2012). Dealing with feeling: a meta-analysis of the effectiveness of strategies derived from the process model of emotion regulation. *Psychological bulletin*, *138*(4), 775. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0027600

Wei, M., Russell, D. W., Mallinckrodt, B., & Vogel, D. L. (2007). The Experiences in Close Relationship Scale (ECR)-short form: Reliability, validity, and factor structure. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 88*, 187–204. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00223890701268041

Wiesenthal, D. L., Hennessy, D., & Gibson, P. M. (2000). The Driving Vengeance Questionnaire (DVQ): The development of a scale to measure deviant drivers' attitudes. *Violence and Victims*, *15*(2), 115-136. DOI: 10.1891/0886-6708.15.2.115

Wilhelm, K. A. (2014). Gender and mental health. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry, 48,* 603-605. https://doi.org/10.1177/0004867414538678

Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management, 17*(3), 601–617. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639101700305

Williams, K. R. (2018). Toxic leadership in defense and federal workplaces: sabotaging the mission and innovation. *International Journal of Public Leadership, 14*(3), 179–198. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPL-04-2018-0023

Williams, C., & McWilliams, A. (2014). MGMT. Australia: Cengage Learning.

Wright, R. R., Nixon, A. E., Peterson, Z. B., Thompson, S. V., Olson, R., Martin, S., & Marrott, D. (2017). The Workplace Interpersonal Conflict Scale: An Alternative in Conflict Assessment. Psi Chi Journal of Psychological Research, 22(3), 163–180. https://doi.org/10.24839/2325-7342.JN22.3.163

Xu, F., Hsu, C., Luo, X., & Warkentin, M. (2022). Reactions to Abusive Supervision: Neutralization and IS Misuse. *Journal of Computer Information Systems*, *62*(3), 632-641. https://doi:10.1080/08874417.2021.1887776

Yu, L., & Duffy, M. K. (2021). The whiplash effect: The (moderating) role of attributed motives in emotional and behavioral reactions to abusive supervision. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *106*(5), 754.

Zhang, Y., & Bednall, T. (2016). Antecedents of Abusive Supervision: a Meta-analytic Review. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *139*(3), 455–471. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-015-2657-6

Zippia (2022). Manager demographics and statistics in the U.S. https://www.zippia.com/manager-jobs/demographics/

Zhou, B., Marchand, A., & Guay, S. (2018). Gender Differences on Mental Health, Work-Family Conflicts and Alcohol Use in Response to Abusive Supervision. *Revista de Psicologia Del Trabajo y de Las Organizaciones*, *34*(3), 157–167. https://doi.org/10.5093/jwop2018a

Appendix A: Displaced Aggression Questionnaire

Directions: Fill out the following questionnaire to the best of your ability. Please be completely honest. Your responses will remain strictly confidential.

Rate each of the items below using the scale below. Write the number corresponding to your rating in the box following each statement.

1-----------2-----------3-----------4-----------5-----------6-----------7

Extremely   Extremely

Characteristic of me   Uncharacteristic of

me

1   I get "worked up" just thinking about things that have upset me in the past.

2   Sometimes I can't help thinking about times when someone made me mad.

3   Sometimes I get so upset by work or school that I become hostile toward family or friends.

4   When things don't go the way I plan, I take my frustration out at the first person I see.

5   I have long living fantasies of revenge after the conflict is over.

6   The more time that passes, the more satisfaction I get from revenge.

7   If someone made me angry I would likely vent my anger on another person.

8   I would get frustrated if I could not think of a way to get even with someone who deserves it.

9   If I have had a hard day at work or school, I'm likely to make sure everyone knows about it.

10   I feel angry about certain things in my life.

11   When angry, I tend to focus on my thoughts and feelings for a long period of time.

12   If a person hurts you on purpose, you deserve to get whatever revenge you can.

13   I re-enact the anger episode in my mind after it has happened.

14   When feeling bad, I take it out on others.

15   I never help those who do me wrong.

16   After an argument is over, I keep fighting with this person in my imagination.

17   When somebody offends me, sooner or later I retaliate.

18   When angry, I have taken it out on people close to me.

19   I think about certain events from a long time ago and they still make me angry.

20   I take my anger out on innocent others.

21   When someone makes me angry I can't stop thinking about how to get back at this person.

22   I often find myself thinking over and over about things that have made me angry.

23   I think about ways of getting back at people who have made me angry long after the event has happened.

24   Whenever I experience anger, I keep thinking about it for a while.

25   If somebody harms me, I am not at peace until I can retaliate.

26   I keep thinking about events that angered me for a long time.

27   Sometimes I get upset with a friend or family member even though that person is not the cause of my anger or frustration.

28   When someone or something makes me angry I am likely to take it out on another person.

29   When I am angry, I don't care who I lash out at.

30   I often daydream about situations where I'm getting my own back at people.

31   If another person hurts you, it's alright to get back at him or her.

Key

SUBSCALE	ITEMS
Angry Rumination	1, 2, 10, 13, 14, 16, 19, 22, 24, 26
Behavioural Displaced Aggression	3, 4, 7, 9, 11, 14, 20, 27, 28, 29
Revenge Planning	5, 6, 8, 12, 15, 17, 21, 23, 25, 30, 31

Appendix B: Shortened Measure of Abusive Supervision

<u>Response scale:</u>

1 = I cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me

2 = He/she very seldom uses this behavior with me

3 = He/she occasionally uses this behavior with me

4 = He/she uses this behavior moderately often with me

5 = He/she uses this behavior very often with me

1. My boss makes negative comments about me to others.

2. My boss expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason.

3. My boss tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid.

4. My boss tells me I'm incompetent.

5. My boss reminds me of my past mistakes and failures.

6. My boss breaks promises he/she makes.

7. My boss is rude to me.

8. My boss gives me the silent treatment.

9. My boss invades my privacy.

10. My boss puts me down in front of others.

11. My boss ridicules me.

Appendix C: Life Satisfaction Questionnaire (LiSat-9)

How satisfactory are these different aspects of your life? Indicate the number which best suits your situation.

1 = Very dissatisfying	4 = Rather satisfying
2 = Dissatisfying	5 = Satisfying
3 = Rather dissatisfying	6 = Very satisfying

Life as a whole is	12	3
My ability to manage my self-care (dressing, hygiene,	12	3
transfers,		
etcetera) is		
My leisure situation is	12	3
My vocational situation is	12	3
My financial situation is	12	3
My sexual life is	12	3
My partnership relation is	12	3
My family life is	12	3

My contacts with friends and acquaintances are   12   3

Appendix D: Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ)

The Emotion Regulation Questionnaire is designed to assess individual differences in the habitual use of two emotion regulation strategies: cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression.

Instructions and Items

We would like to ask you some questions about your emotional life, in particular, how you control (that is, regulate and manage) your emotions. The questions below involve two distinct aspects of your emotional life. One is your emotional experience, or what you feel like inside. The other is your emotional expression, or how you show your emotions in the way you talk, gesture, or behave. Although some of the following questions may seem similar to one another, they differ in important ways. For each item, please answer using the following scale:

1--------------2---------------3-------------4-------------5--------------6-------------7

strongly   neutral   strongly

disagree   agree

1. When I want to feel more positive emotion (such as joy or amusement), I change what I'm thinking about.

2. I keep my emotions to myself.

3. When I want to feel less negative emotion (such as sadness or anger), I change what I'm thinking about.

4. When I am feeling positive emotions, I am careful not to express them.

5. When I'm faced with a stressful situation, I make myself think about it in a way that helps me stay calm.

6. I control my emotions by not expressing them.

7. When I want to feel more positive emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation.

8. I control my emotions by changing the way I think about the situation I'm in.

9. When I am feeling negative emotions, I make sure not to express them.

10. When I want to feel less negative emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation.

Note

Do not change item order, as items 1 and 3 at the beginning of the questionnaire define the terms "positive emotion" and "negative emotion".

Scoring (no reversals)

Reappraisal Items: 1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 10; Suppression Items: 2, 4, 6, 9.

Appendix E: Appendix A: Q-Q Plots of Variables, Scatterplots, and P-P Plots

Figure E1

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of Manager Behaviors


Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of Manager_Behaviors
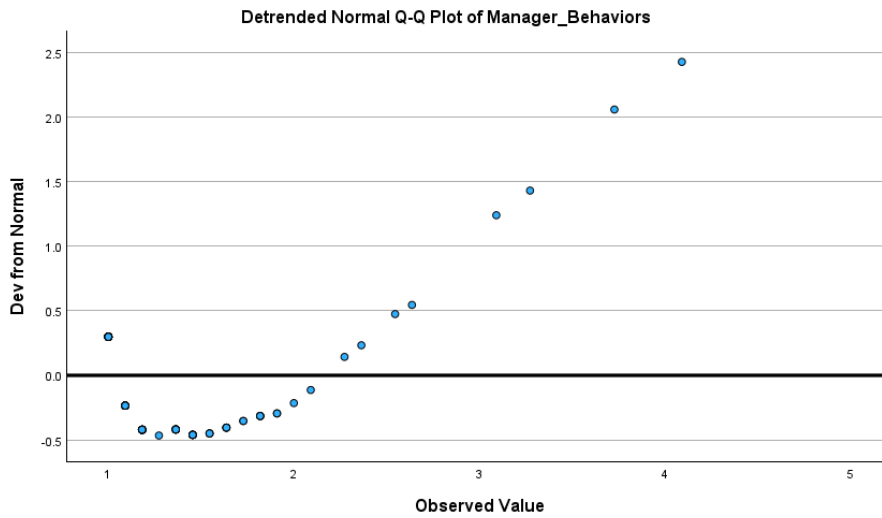
Figure E2

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of Emotion Regulation

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of Emotion_Regulation
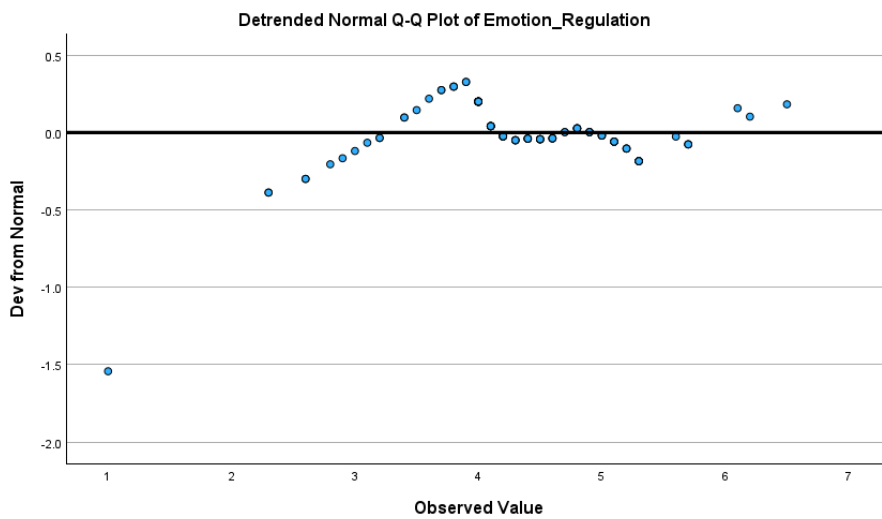
Figure E3
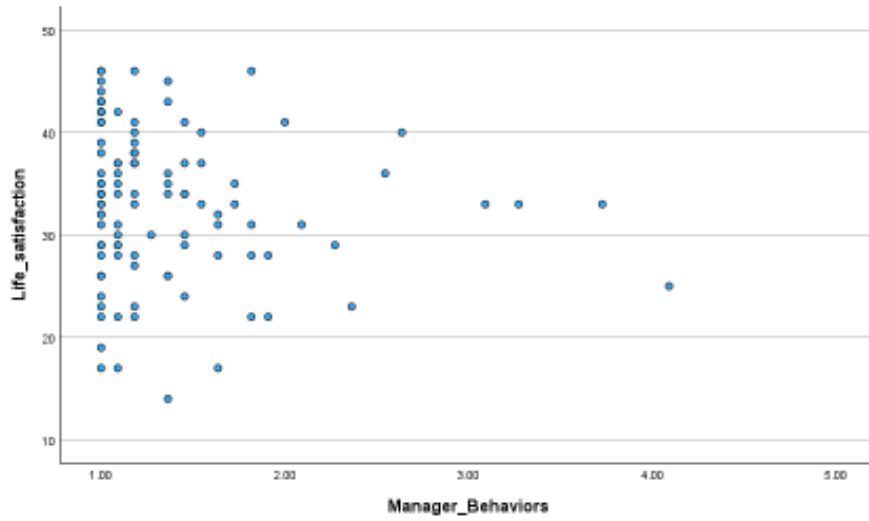
Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of Displaced Aggression
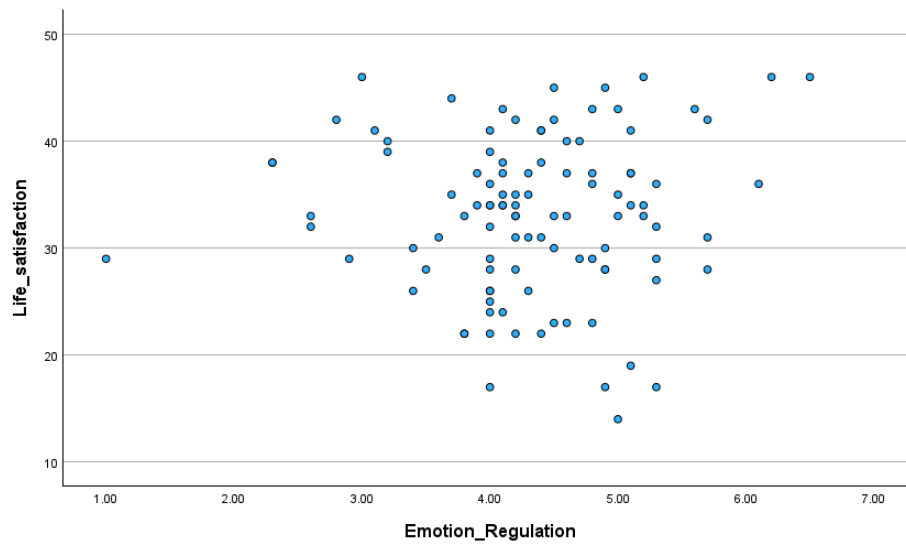

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of Displaced_Aggression
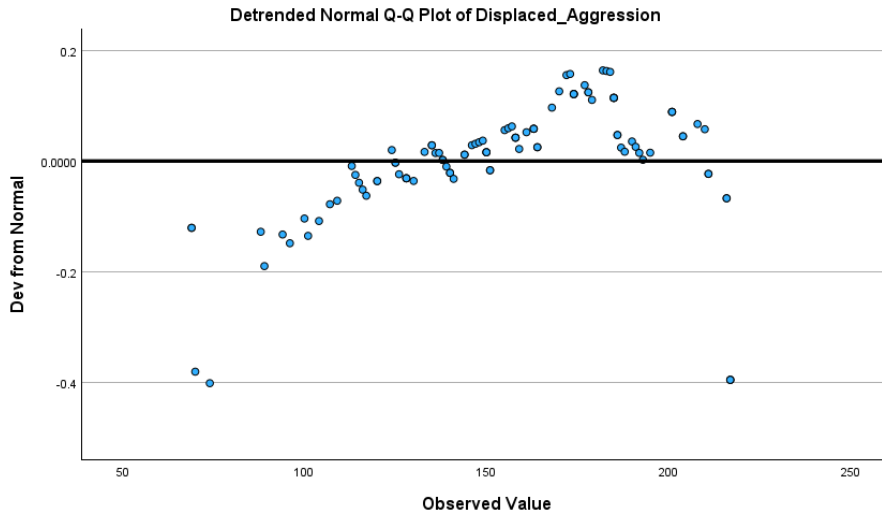
Figure E4

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of Life Satisfaction

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of Life_satisfaction
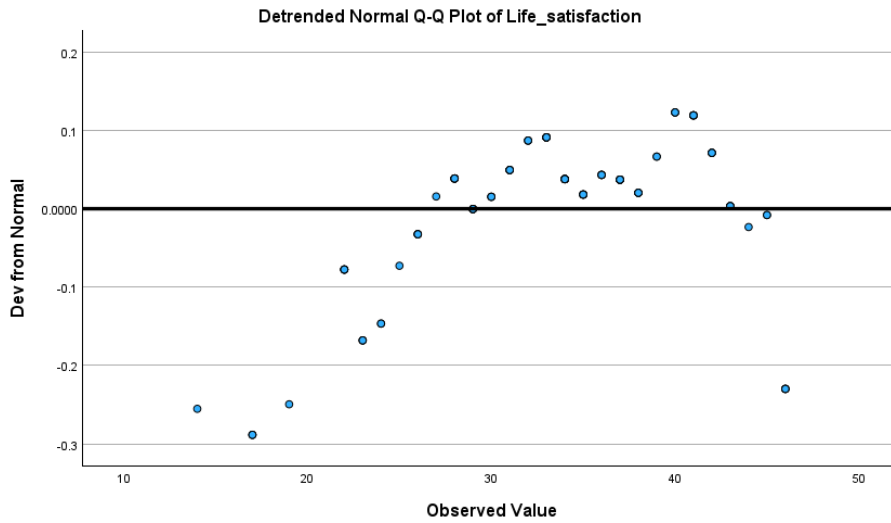
Figure E5

Scatterplot of Correlation Between Manager Behaviors and Life Satisfaction

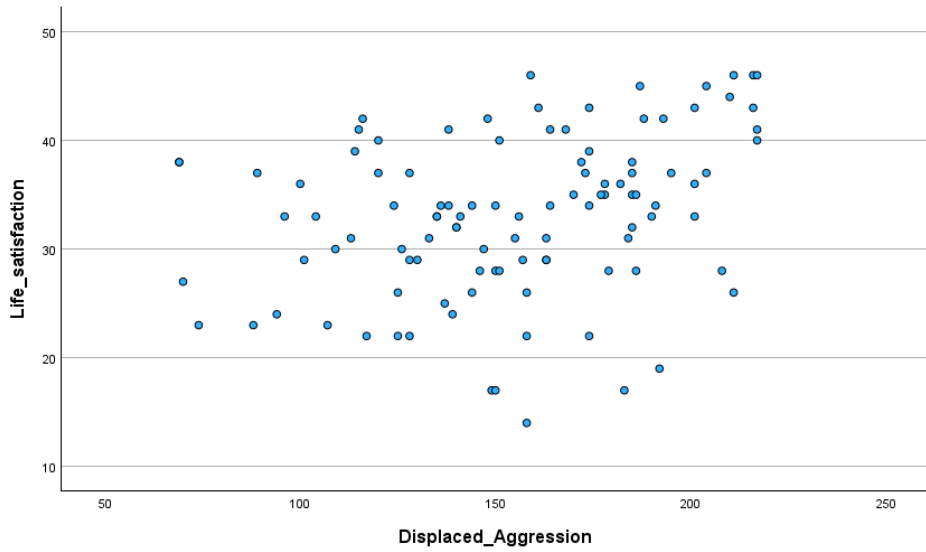**Figure E6**

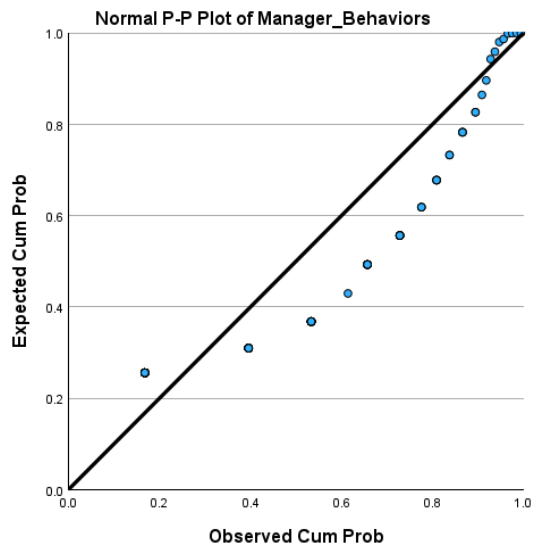*Scatterplot of Correlation Between Emotion Regulation and Life Satisfaction*

Figure E7

Scatterplot of Correlation Between Displaced Aggression and Life Satisfaction
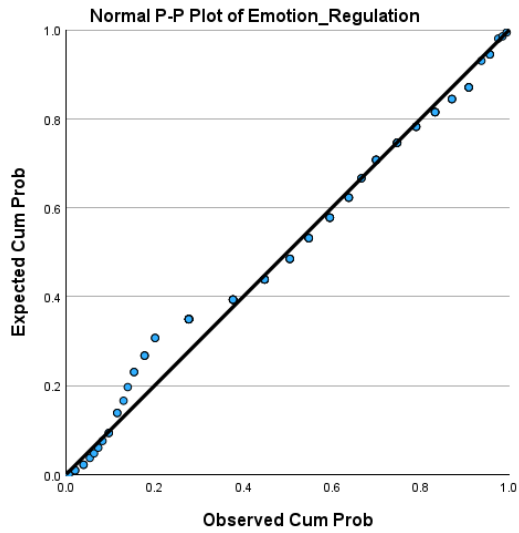

Figure E8

Normal P-P Plot of Manager Behaviors

Figure E9

Normal P-P Plot of Emotion Regulation

Normal P-P Plot of Emotion_Regulation

Figure E10

Normal P-P Plot of Displaced Aggression

Normal P-P Plot of Displaced_Aggression