

What about me? A Conceptual Model of Interpersonal Deviance From the Victim's Perspective

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ABSTRACT

Workplace deviance costs organisations billions of dollars every year. Research to date has largely focussed on the perpetrators' perspective, to the detriment of victims of deviant behaviour. Little is known about the characteristics of victims, what strategies they select in response to being victimised or the individual consequences of interpersonal deviance. The purpose of this paper is to develop a conceptual model of interpersonal deviance that encompasses personal and contextual factors that potentially influence who becomes a victim, and to identify possible victim strategies based on the EVLN model and research into retaliation. The paper concludes by suggesting that there are attitudinal, behavioural and psychological consequences for victims of interpersonal deviance that justify further research in this area.

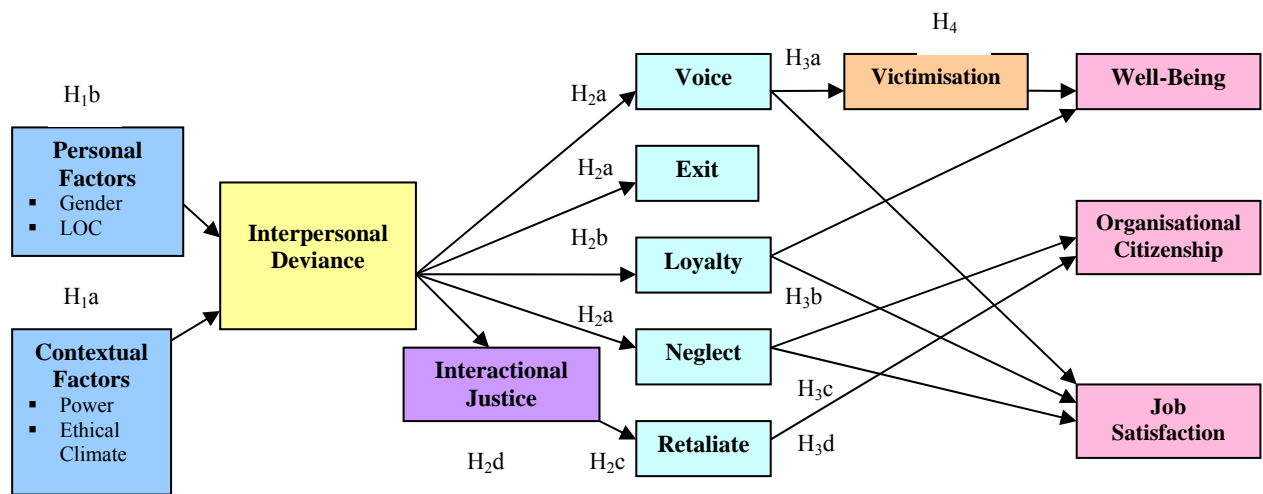
Keywords: interpersonal, deviance, victim, conceptual, EVLN, retaliation

INTRODUCTION

Employee theft - \$200 billion. Stealing software - \$10 billion. Lost productivity from substance abuse - \$200 billion. Every workplace violence claim - \$250,000. The destructive effect of interpersonal deviance on the individual victim? Priceless. Workplace deviance, or the “voluntary behaviour of organisation members which violates significant organisational norms and in doing so threatens the wellbeing of the organisation or its members” (Robinson and Bennet, 1995: 556), has crushing effects on organisations, not least of which is the phenomenal cost (Bacharach, Barnberger and Sonnenstuhl, 2002; Greenberg, 1997). There are two main types of workplace deviance, falling into the broad categories of interpersonal deviance (e.g. spreading rumours, gossiping, yelling at someone), and organisational deviance (e.g. sabotage, lying about hours worked, stealing) (Robinson and Bennet, 1995). This paper will focus on the interpersonal dimension, which is deviance that threatens the wellbeing of individuals within organisations. Robinson and Bennett developed their typology of deviance during a multiphase study, at one point using a multidimensional scaling technique to examine how the various deviant behaviours might relate to each other. The results showed that there were two dimensions to deviant behaviour, the first labelled “target” (either individual or the organisation) and the second labelled “minor or serious” with reference to the severity of the deviant behaviour. This gave four distinct categories of deviance – production (minor) and property (serious) deviance for the organisational target, and political (minor) and personal aggression (serious) for the individual target.

Whilst Robinson and Bennett's typology of deviance has proven useful; there remain some significant gaps in the field of interpersonal deviance, particularly in relation to the lack of understanding of the victim's point of view. The purpose of this paper therefore, is to propose a conceptual model of interpersonal deviance from the victim's perspective (see Figure 1) derived from a review of the literature summarised in Table 1. The paper proceeds by reviewing the literature relevant to each of the factors in the model before concluding with future research directions.

Figure 1: A Conceptual Model of Interpersonal Deviance from the Victim's Perspective



Interpersonal Deviance Constructs

There is now general consensus on the definition of interpersonal deviance, due to the work of Robinson and Bennet (1995). Their typology has been utilised by a number of researchers since its publication (e.g. Liao, Joshi and Chuang, 2004; Lee and Allen; 2002; Stamper and Masterson, 2002). A review of the literature would suggest that the proliferation of constructs that exist in the deviance domain presents a problem for research in this area. This paper begins by proposing that incivility, harassment and mistreatment are types of interpersonal deviance, as summarised in Table 2. Whilst each of these constructs is currently discussed in separate literature streams, it is suggested that they should be grouped under the umbrella of interpersonal deviance. Future research should seek to clarify the discriminant validity of these constructs and their relationship to interpersonal deviance.

Table 1: Summary of Interpersonal Deviance Literature

VARIABLE	AUTHORS	RESULT
Workplace Deviance	Liao, Joshi and Chuang (2004)	Interpersonal deviance is related to gender : $\gamma = 0.89$, $p < 0.01$, conscientiousness : $\gamma = 0.37$, $p < 0.01$, extraversion : $\gamma = -0.29$, $p < 0.05$
	Dunlop and Lee (2004)	Deviance (interpersonal and organisational) predicts work unit performance ratings ($r^2 = 0.17$, $p < 0.05$)
	Henle (2005)	Deviance (both types) is related to gender, the three justice types, socialisation ($r = -0.15$, -0.33) and impulsivity ($r = 0.37$, $p < 0.05 - 0.001$)
	Kickul (2001)	Deviance is related to negative affect towards the organisation ($r = 0.49$, $p < 0.01$)
Ethical Climate	Wimbush, Shephard and Markham (1997)	Education relates to law ($r = -0.22$), caring ($r = -0.24$), service ($r = -0.26$) ethical climate types ($p < 0.0001$), age relates to service and law ethical climate types ($r = 0.07 - 0.12$, $p < 0.05$ and 0.01 respectively) and gender relates to law, caring and service ethical climate types ($r = -0.07 - -0.12$, $p < 0.05 - 0.01$)
	Peterson (2002)	Political deviance is related to a caring climate, personal aggression not predicted by any climate type
	Key (2002)	Perceived ethical discretion is related to locus of control ($r = -0.37$, $p < 0.001$)
	Sims (2002)	Ethical rule breaking is related to job satisfaction ($r = -0.271$, $p = 0.001$)
Voice	Bergman, Langhout, Cortina and Fitzgerald (2002)	Reporting harassment has a moderating effect on the impact of both climate and victim rank on the job, psychological and health outcomes of sexual harassment ($p < 0.05$)
	Cortina and Magely (2003)	Support seeking and confronting interact with perpetrator power to predict social related victimisation ($p < 0.05$) and work related victimisation ($p < 0.01$ for confronting and 0.001 for support seeking), victims who voiced and were socially victimised had lower levels of psychological and physical health than those who did not voice, and lower than those who voiced and were both work and socially victimised.
OCB	Hoffi-Hofstetter and Mannheim (1999)	OCB is positively correlated with internal LOC ($r = 0.363$, $p < 0.01$), external LOC negatively correlated with exit behaviour ($r = -0.508$, $p < 0.01$)
	Lee and Allen (2002)	OCBI and OCBO relate to deviance ($r = -0.47$ and -0.33 respectively, $p < 0.01$)
	Blakely, Srivastava and Moorman (2005)	OCB is related to OCB's as role definition ($r = 0.5$, $p < 0.001$), for Chinese ($r = 0.65$, $p < 0.001$), and American sample ($r = 0.43$, $p < 0.001$), OCB's as role definition are positively related to nationality ($r = 0.21$, $p < 0.05$) in Chinese sample, OCB's as role definition is mediated by work locus of control
Mistreatment	Lim and Cortina (2005)	Mistreatment frequency is related to job related outcomes including satisfaction, stress, and withdrawal (Wilk's Lambda = 0.91 , $p < 0.01$), $r = -0.15$, 0.23 and 0.09 respectively, $p < 0.01$ for all)
	Deitch, Barsky, Butz, Chan, Brief and Bradley (2003)	Mistreatment related to job satisfaction ($r = -0.74$), emotional well-being ($r = -0.034$) and physical well-being ($r = -0.25$, $p < 0.01$), mistreatment related to job satisfaction ($r = -0.75$), emotional well-being ($r = -0.036$) and physical well-being ($r = -0.26$, $p < 0.01$), race is related to mistreatment ($r = 0.08$ and 0.12 , $p < 0.01$)

Power	Cortina and Magely (2003)	Victims with less power than their perpetrator who voiced experienced more victimisation than victims of equal power.
	Pearson, Anderson and Porath (2000)	Perpetrators of incivility are three times more likely to be of higher status than the target.
Incivility	Lim and Cortina (2005)	Incivility is related to job satisfaction ($r = -0.28$), job stress ($r = 0.26$) and withdrawal ($r = 0.09$) each at $p < 0.01$.
	Cortina, Magely, Langhout and Williams (2001)	Gender predicts only 1% of variance in incivility, job position predicts 7%, age does not predict incivility, incivility predicts each of the five type of satisfaction (r^2 ranging from 3 – 16%) , incivility predicts 8% of job withdrawal, frequency of incivility affects turnover intentions, incivility predicts 2% of psychological distress, incivility did not predict extrinsic commitment
Harassment	Lim and Cortina (2005)	Gender and sexualized harassment are related to job stress ($r = 0.09$ and 0.07 respectively, $p < 0.01$)
Job Satisfaction	Rusbult, Farrell Rogers and Mainous (1988)	Low job satisfaction relates to exit ($p < 0.01$), voice ($p < 0.05$), neglect ($p < 0.01$) and withdrawal ($p < 0.01$) Job satisfaction predicts exit, neglect and withdrawal ($p < 0.01$ for first two, $p < 0.05$ for the last) Meta analysis shows all four strategies are related to job satisfaction ($p < 0.01 - 0.05$)
	Deitch, Barsky, Butz, Chan, Brief and Bradley (2003)	Job satisfaction related to emotional well-being ($r = 0.39$, $p < .01$) and physical well-being ($r = 0.28$, $p < 0.01$)
	Bolin and Heatherly (2001)	Dissatisfaction predicts absenteeism, privilege abuse and theft ($r = 0.03 - 0.13$, $p < 0.05$)
	Spector (1988)	Job satisfaction relates to work locus of control ($r = 0.42 - 0.68$, $p < 0.05$)
	Furnham, Adrian and Cooper (1996)	Education is related to intention to quit ($r = 0.22$) and to job satisfaction ($r = -0.24$)
Turnover	Bolin and Heatherly (2001)	Intention to quit predicts absenteeism, privilege abuse and theft ($0.02 - 0.07$, $p < 0.05$)
	Hanisch and Hulin (1991)	Turnover intentions are related to gender, work satisfaction, lateness, absenteeism, unfavourable job behaviours, and health condition ($r = 0.11 - 0.28$, $p < 0.05$)
	Harelos and Axelrod (2005)	Turnover is related to verbal abuse ($r = 0.34$, $p < 0.01$), work obstruction ($r = 0.27$, $p < 0.01$), organisational commitment ($r = -0.040$, $p < 0.01$) and work satisfaction ($r = -0.35$, $p < 0.01$)
	Spector (1988)	Intention to leave is related to work locus of control ($r = 0.35 - 0.38$, $p < 0.05$)
	Furnham, Adrian and Cooper (1996)	Education is related to intention to quit ($r = 0.22$, $p < .05$)

Table 2: Interpersonal Deviance Related Organisational Behaviour Constructs

Construct	Definition	Deviance Type
Sexual Harassment (Lim and Cortina, 2005)	All inappropriate and unwanted behaviours in the workplace that aim to gain sexual access to the target	▪ Personal aggression e.g. assault
Incivility (Andersson and Pearson, 1999)	A low intensity deviant behaviour with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect	▪ Political / personal aggression e.g. gossiping, yelling at someone
Interpersonal Mistreatment (Cortina and Magely, 2003)	A specific antisocial variety of workplace deviance involving a situation in which at least one organisational member takes counternormative negative actions or terminates normative positive actions against another member.	▪ Political / personal aggression e.g. exclusionary behaviour, refusal to speak to others

The Effect of Contextual and Personal Factors on Interpersonal Deviance

It is generally accepted that organisational behaviour can be influenced by both contextual and personal factors, such as organisational climate and personality. Hence, research into personality in isolation offers limited insight into behaviour, and it is generally recommended that an interactive approach that considers both the context and the behaviour is followed (Vardi and Weitz, 2004; Robinson and Greenberg, 1998). For example, prior research has explored the characteristics of the perpetrator ('bad apples') as well as the influence of organisational factors ('bad barrels') (Dunlop and Lee, 2004). The conceptual model of interpersonal deviance presented as Figure 1 therefore hypothesises that both contextual and personal factors will influence victims' perceptions that they have been harassed, mistreated or subjected to uncivil actions by another.

In line with the 'bad barrel' argument, Vardi and Weitz (2004) suggest that organisations themselves can provide an opportunity for employees to misbehave, and that certain organisational factors may in fact encourage or deter misbehaviour within the workplace. Several authors have argued that organisations are strong situations (Bono and Judge, 2004; Davis-Blake and Pfeffer 1989) and therefore organisations may exacerbate or reduce behaviours (even those ingrained in an employee's personality). Ethical climate, for example, has been linked both conceptually (Appelbaum, Deguire

and Lay, 2005) and empirically (Petersen, 2002) to workplace deviance. Other organisational factors that have been conceptually linked to workplace deviance include control or formalisation processes such as bureaucracy, and HR practices such as performance evaluations and job descriptions. For example, Zimmerman (2001) showed that there is an empirical relationship between these systems and collusion in organisations, with collusion then proposed to lead to deviance. However, there have been mixed theoretical opinions as to whether these control processes reduce or promote deviance. It has been posited that high levels of bureaucracy can actually allow deviance to go relatively unnoticed, and that flatter, less hierarchical and decentralised organisations that promote self regulation tend to work better at preventing it. However, formal processes such as policies and procedures, labour contracts, written evaluations and job descriptions tend to reduce autonomy and thereby reduce the opportunities for deviant behaviour (Vardi and Weitz, 2001; Demski, Lewis, Yao and Yildirim, 1999).

Despite the critical value of research on contextual factors, the examination of organisational level variables such as those mentioned above is somewhat problematic, due to the large number of organisations that would be required. Notwithstanding this, the potential value of perceptual data on some contextual factors, namely perceived ethical culture and power, seems to have been overlooked. Ethical culture, by definition, implies that there is a shared perception of what an organisation's culture is by its employees (Key, 1999). However, Key found that individual perceptions of ethical culture may not necessarily agree with the perceptions of others in the organisation and perceptual data may therefore provide a means of exploring this organisational variable. Given that ethical culture has previously been related to the incidence of deviance (Peterson, 2002) examining the relationship between perceived ethical climate and interpersonal deviance may prove useful.

The second contextual factor of interest, power, can be represented by a combination of both occupational status (absolute power) and wrongdoer relative power (how much formal authority that the victim perceives the perpetrator to have over aspects of the victim's job). Cortina and Magely (2003) found that both these aspects of a person's employment predicted whether they experienced mistreatment and victimisation. Exploration of the influence of power on the experience of incivility

and harassment would determine if these findings can be extended to other forms of deviance, and provide further insight into how interpersonal deviance may be prevented. Based on previous research it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 1a(i): Perceived ethical climate will be negatively related to the incidence of interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 1a(ii): Perpetrators of interpersonal deviance will have absolute or perceived power over victims.

In terms of personal factors, it is possible that certain types of people may be more likely to be selected as targets than others. Despite a large body of research on the perpetrators of deviance and their characteristics, little is known about the individual targets. To date, the limited empirical research that has been conducted on victim characteristics such as insider-outsider status (Robinson and Greenberg, 1998), and occupational status (Cortina, Magely, Williams and Langhout, 2001) has predominantly yielded findings that are of little practical significance.

Personal factors that could be examined in future research include gender, education, employment experience and the personality trait of work locus of control. Whilst some previous research has considered these factors, there is a tendency to include only one or two at any time, which fails to address the fact that personal factors may interact with each other to produce different outcomes. For example, gender has been found to be related to interpersonal deviance (Liao, Joshi and Chuang, 2004) and to the experience of incivility, with 70% of victims being female (Pearson, Anderson and Porath, 2000). However; it is unclear whether age (a second personal factor) may mediate these relationships - Perhaps younger females are more likely to experience interpersonal deviance than older females?

In other cases, previous research has linked these personal factors to organisational behaviour constructs that are conceptually related to interpersonal deviance. For example, work locus of control (the generalised expectancy that organisational and work related rewards, reinforcements or outcomes

are controlled either by one's own actions (internals) or by other forces (externals) (Spector, 1988) is related to the quality of leader-member exchanges (Martin, Thomas, Charles, Epitropacki and McNamara, 2005), satisfaction with supervisors (Garson and Stanwyck, 1997) and distress at work (Noor, 2002). Whilst these findings suggest that locus of control is related to the nature of interpersonal interactions and relationships, whether locus of control influences whether an individual is selected as a target of interpersonal deviance is yet to be determined. Perpetrators may deliberately select targets that they feel are less assertive, less in control and are more reliant on others for their self esteem, because these people are more vulnerable. To make matters more complicated, gender may interact with work locus of control to predict interpersonal deviance. Investigating the interactions between various personal factors may be helpful in developing a profile of possible victims. Based on this discussion, future research could explore the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1b(i): Females experience more interpersonal deviance than males.

Hypothesis 1b(ii): Internal locus of control is negatively related to the experience of interpersonal deviance.

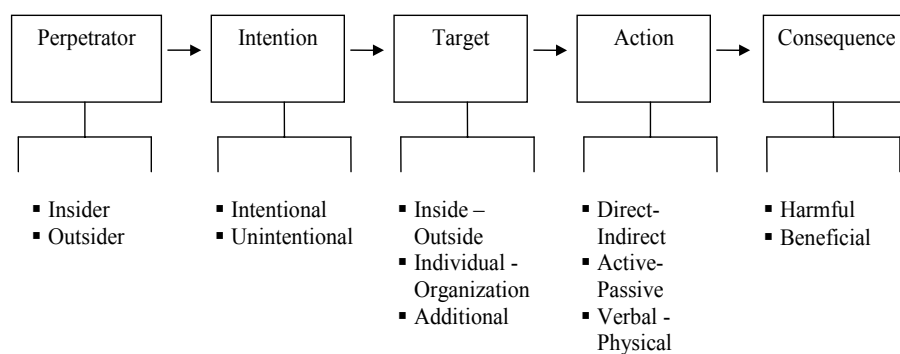
The Victim's Perspective

Prior research into workplace deviance has primarily focused on the perpetrators' perspective, to the neglect of victims. For example, Robinson and Greenberg's (1998) conceptual process model (shown in Figure 2 overleaf) offers insight in regards to how deviance may occur within organisations, yet includes nothing from the victim's perspective. The action stage in Robinson and Greenberg's (1998) model refers to the action taken by the perpetrator against the target, *not what the target does after the experience*. There appears to be a need for an extension of this model to include a parallel process from the victim's perspective. This may include what actions the victim takes after experiencing the interpersonal deviance, and what the consequences are for the victim personally.

In relation to what the victim does in response to deviant behaviours, it is unknown whether certain strategies are more likely to be used in certain circumstances or indeed by certain types of victims. Strategy choice models themselves are few and far between, particularly in specific reference to

interpersonal deviance. The exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect (EVLN) model has been discussed in reference to responding to organisational decline. Exit is a permanent move away from the organisation, whereas voice is an attempt to improve the situation. Loyalty is engaging in supportive actions for the organisation, and neglect is engaging in passive negative behaviours such as failing to put effort into maintaining relationships (Withey and Cooper, 1989).

Figure 2: The Deviance Process (Robinson and Greenberg, 1998:5)



Voice and loyalty are considered constructive responses, and exit and neglect destructive responses (Farrell, 1983; Farrell, Rusbult, Rogers and Mainous, 1988). More recently, Cortina and Magely's (2003) research into the use of voice as a response (or strategy choice) to mistreatment within the workplace is one of few papers that apply the EVLN model outside its original intention and within the deviance field. However, this is not to say that the EVLN model has remained completely confined to the issue of organisational decline. There has also been a loose comparison drawn between voice strategies and the whistle-blowing literature. Results suggest that the decision to whistle-blow (a particular type of voice strategy) may be influenced by a number of demographic and personality characteristics such as age, education and locus of control (Brewer and Selden, 1995; Dworkin and Baucus, 1995; Keenan and Sims, 1995). However, the research does not differentiate between whistleblowers that are the actual victim and those that are not, and empirical results on the matter have been mixed (Miceli, Dozier and Near, 1991). The contemporary application of the EVLN model

to victim strategy choice may introduce a useful means of exploring actions that are taken following the experience of interpersonal deviance. The relevant hypotheses would be:

Hypothesis 2a: The strategies of voice, exit and neglect will be positively related to the experience of interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 2b: The strategy of loyalty will be negatively related to the experience of interpersonal deviance..

To Retaliate or not to Retaliate – The Importance of Interactional Justice

A conceptual argument can also be put forward that deviance may in fact breed deviance, such as the notion of the incivility spiral (Andersson and Pearson, 1999), normalisation (Greenberg and Alge, 1998; Greenberg, 1998), and injustice perceptions (Vardi and Weitz, 2004). The lack of research on the victims of interpersonal deviance has meant that the potential for the victim to engage in retaliation, either against another person or against the organisation, as a response to being a victim, has also not been discussed in depth. The concept of retaliation can be traced back to the work of Kemper (1966), who termed it “reciprocal deviance”, or acts that are designed to punish the target as a form of revenge. Greenberg (1996) further explores this notion and suggests that retaliation is an act of deviant behaviour designed to harm the target (organisational or individual) that has harmed them regardless of whether this would restore equity or redistribute resources. Robinson and Bennett (1997: 16) would classify retaliation as being expressively motivated, as it primarily aims to “vent, release or express one’s feeling of outrage, anger or frustration” and is not concerned with material gains or restoration of equity. Within the conceptual model presented as Figure 1, retaliation is therefore suggested as a fifth possible action that victim’s may take in response to interpersonal deviance (EVLN-R model).

In terms of injustice, it makes sense that individuals that feel they may have been unfairly treated may be motivated to engage in retaliatory behaviour. Previous research into how justice relates to deviance has found that organisational injustice not only predicts workplace deviance, it also interacts with personality to explain even further variance in workplace deviance. When the results are examined

more closely, it is evident that *interactional justice* is the dominant factor, predicting between 24 and 32% of total variance in conjunction with personality traits, and 22% on its own (Henle, 2005). Interactional justice refers to an employee's perception concerning the quality of interpersonal treatment by others (particularly authority figures) within the organisation (Vardi and Weitz, 2004). Henle's (2005) finding that emphasises the importance of interactional justice conflicts with Vardi and Weitz's (2004) conceptual argument that three types of justice (procedural, interactional and distributive) should be investigated, but is consistent with Kickul's (2001) finding that interactional injustice perceptions influence the incidence of workplace deviance. Together these findings justify a focus on the interactional justice dimension in future research into interpersonal deviance.

In reference to the victims of interpersonal deviance, it is clear that the injustice arises from interactions with other people. Therefore, it is proposed that the desire to retaliate would be motivated by feelings of specifically interactional injustice. In previous research, the motivation to retaliate has been found to be predicted by interactional justice (Ambrose, Seabirght and Schminke, 2002; Bies and Tripp, 1998; Folger and Skarlicki, 1998). Given that some confusion may arise from the addition of retaliation to the potential victim strategies, an important distinction must be made between neglect and retaliation. The neglect construct relates to withdrawal behaviour, for example putting less effort into their work, not working on maintaining work relationships, and generally letting things fall apart (Rusbult, et al 1988; Withey and Cooper, 1989). However, neglect is considered a *passive* response, predominantly *without real intention to harm*, to a negative situation. Retaliation on the other hand refers to *active* behaviour – *intentionally destructive* acts, such as lateness, absenteeism and sabotage, each of which is a means of escaping unsatisfying work situations (Hanisch and Hulin, 1990; 1991; Giacalone and Knouse, 1990) and is intended to harm. The definition of deviant behaviour itself explicitly states that the behaviour is voluntary (Robinson and Bennet, 1995), suggesting that the individual is not forced to act but chooses to engage actively in the behaviours. It is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 2c: Retaliation will be positively related to the experience of interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 2d: Interactional justice perceptions will mediate the relationship between interpersonal deviance and retaliation.

The Outcomes of Interpersonal Deviance

As with Robinson and Greenberg's (1998) perpetrator perspective process model, a model from the victim's point of view should also include outcomes. The outcomes that are proposed for future research to examine are job satisfaction (JS), well being (WB) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Following the literature review, these three variables were selected for two reasons; firstly, because they will enable the behavioural, attitudinal and psychological dimensions of outcomes to be related to strategy choice, providing a more comprehensive approach to examining effects of interpersonal deviance¹, and secondly, because previous research has linked these constructs to relevant organisational phenomena, including interpersonal deviance itself. For example, Lim and Cortina (2005) found that both mistreatment frequency and incivility are negatively related to job satisfaction, and wellbeing is reduced by mistreatment. Cortina, Magely, Langhout and Williams (2001) found incivility related negatively to job satisfaction and positively to distress. Deitch, Barsky, Butz, Chan, Brief and Bradley (2003) found that mistreatment related negatively to job satisfaction, emotional well-being and physical well-being.

It is generally accepted that organisations benefit from having employees with high levels of OCB, JS and WB. For example, OCB is not only positive because it means employees engage in behaviour that is not required in their job but is otherwise advantageous to the organisation, it is also negatively related to deviance (Lee and Allen, 2002). Whilst there is little previous research on the strategies and their influence on the outcomes, the effects of strategy choice on JS, WB and OCB are relatively predictable. For example, retaliation is likely to negatively relate to OCB because the person is deliberately engaging in destructive acts and their inclination to engage in discretionary behaviours would be low. Voicing is likely to be positively related to WB because the victim may find that the situation improves because they are supported by others, and the potential for action against the perpetrator to be instigated as a result of voicing is likely to increase extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction.

¹ It should be noted at this point that exiting (one of the strategy choices) should also be considered as an outcome in itself because it has a negative effect on the organisation in terms of turnover and loss of human capital (Saint-Onge, 1996).

Neglect has been previously associated with lowered job satisfaction (Rusbult, et al, 1988). Neglect is also likely to be negatively related to OCB given that passive acts such as the withdrawal of effort would logically translate into the reduction or cessation of OCBs as well. Loyalty has been related previously to lower satisfaction (Rusbult, et al, 1988) and it is possible that remaining loyal may result in lower wellbeing given that it may create a sense of cognitive dissonance by requiring the individual to support an organisation despite their negative experiences within it. The relevant hypotheses regarding the strategies and the outcomes would be:

Hypothesis 3a: Voice will be positively related to JS and WB.

Hypothesis 3b: Loyalty will be negatively related to JS and WB.

Hypothesis 3c: Neglect will be negatively related to OCB and JS.

Hypothesis 3d: Retaliation will be negatively related to OCB.

Victimisation after Voice – A Mediator of Psychological Well-Being

If a victim chooses to voice, they may not get the response they anticipated. Research suggests that organisational remedies, minimisation and victimisation² are possible responses to the reporting of mistreatment, and whilst voice might be thought to improve job, psychological and health outcomes for the victim, in reality it would seem it does not. In fact, it may even worsen them (Bergman, Langhout, Palmieri, Cortina and Fitzgerald, 2002). Victimisation exists in two forms, social and work. Cortina and Magely (2003: 248) define social victimisation (SV) as “antisocial behaviours that have the purpose or effect of negatively altering the targets interpersonal relations with other organisational members, and that are intended by the instigator or perceived by the target to be reprisal for the targets behaviours”; and work victimisation (WV) as “adverse work related actions that have the purpose or effect of altering the targets job and that are intended by the instigator or perceived by the target to be a reprisal for the targets behaviours”. Examples of social victimisation include ostracism, silent treatment, threats and exclusion, and work victimisation include involuntary transfer, poor performance appraisals, demotion and deprivation of perquisites.

² Cortina and Magely (2003) actually refer to these two constructs as work retaliation victimisation and social retaliation victimisation; however the term retaliation has been removed in this case so as to not create confusion between retaliation within the ELNV-R model.

What happens to a victim after being mistreated and/or reporting mistreatment is a complicated issue. For example, well-being has been shown to be directly reduced by the experience of mistreatment (Lim and Cortina, 2005). Confrontation of perpetrator as a response, target occupational status and mistreatment frequency have been shown to significantly predict both SV and WV. The experience of victimisation then leads to lower psychological, physical and professional well-being in victims (Cortina and Magely, 2003). Therefore it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 4: Victimisation will mediate the relationship between voice and WB.

LIMITATIONS

There are several limitations with respect to the conceptual model of interpersonal deviance presented in this paper. Firstly, given the current proliferation of constructs that exists, it is difficult to review all the literature that is potentially relevant to the deviance domain in a short paper. The review in this paper highlights the need for simplification of the constructs to be undertaken, such that constructs such as counterproductive work behaviour (Spector et al., 2006) and organisational misbehaviour (Varid and Weitz, 2004) become more closely related to the workplace deviance literature. In the interest of parsimony, it was also not possible to review in detail all the possible organisational and contextual factors that might predict interpersonal deviance. The paper has focussed on those which appear to offer the potential for the most explanatory power. Secondly, the proposed model of interpersonal deviance is a perceptual model. What is of interest is the victim's perception that they have been the recipient of some form of interpersonal deviance, rather than whether the deviant behaviour actually occurred.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper was to develop a conceptual model of interpersonal deviance from the victim's perspective based on a review of the literature in this area. The conceptual model focuses on understanding interpersonal deviance from the perspective of the victim, an area that has been somewhat neglected within the literature. It identifies key phases in the process and factors that may affect how the victim responds to interpersonal deviance. The incorporation of the EVLN model as

possible strategy choices available to the victim is also an important addition to the deviance literature. Future research is now required to quantitatively test the proposed model using path analysis. The practical significance of the model is largely linked to the managerial and organisational implications it may have if supported empirically. The information on perceived ethical culture will offer some level of insight into an organisation's ethical culture and how this affects interpersonal deviance. Furthermore, information about the potential responses of victims to interpersonal deviance could be used to develop specific training programs and designated management systems to encourage the reporting of deviant behaviours. More importantly the identification of the characteristics of the victims may offer insight into how and why perpetrators select their targets. On a larger scale, the results could be coupled with previous research findings on the characteristics of perpetrators to create two profiles (a perpetrator and a victim) for potential use in training and prevention programs. Finally, subsequent use of the model in organisations to attempt to reduce or prevent interpersonal deviance will lead to improved profitability in organisations that are currently suffering from the direct and indirect costs of interpersonal deviance.

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