

**EXPLORING THE MODERATING EFFECT OF
EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON THE RELATIONSHIP
BETWEEN NARCISSISM AND WORKPLACE AGGRESSION**

**By
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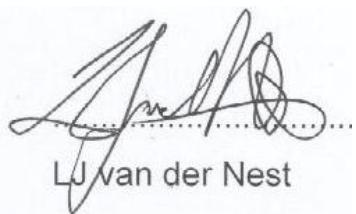


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December 2010

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, Lambertus Johannes van der Nest, hereby declare that the work contained in this dissertation is my original work and that I have not previously, in its entirely or in part, submitted it to any university for a degree.



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01 September 2010

ABSTRACT

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EXPLORING THE MODERATING EFFECT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NARCISSISM AND WORKPLACE AGGRESSION

Supervisor: Dr Gina Görgens, PhD

The aims of this study were to explore the relationships between narcissism, workplace aggression (WA) and emotional intelligence (EI), as well as to determine whether EI plays a moderating role in the relationship between narcissism and WA. A non-experimental research design (i.e. exploratory survey study) was used to explore the relationships between the three constructs. Narcissists are described as individuals who have a grandiose sense of self-importance or uniqueness, where they exaggerate their special talents and achievements. They are typically prone to rage, shame, inferiority, and humiliation when they are criticized by others (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). WA was defined as the efforts by individuals to harm others with whom they work, or have worked, or the organisations in which they are currently or were previously, employed (Neuman & Baron, 1997a). EI was defined as the capacity to effectively perceive, express, understand and manage emotions in a professional and effective manner at work (Palmer & Stough, 2001). A convenience sample of 134 academic (permanent and temporary) and support staff (middle and upper level) of two tertiary educational institutions within the Western Cape participated in the research. The Greenberg and Barling (1999) WA scale (that measures aggression towards colleagues, subordinates and supervisors), the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI, Raskin & Hall, 1979) and the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory (Gignac, 2008) were administered. Weak significant negative relationships were evident between EI and each of the dimensions of WA. This indicates that higher EI is associated with a decreased propensity to engage in verbal aggressive behaviours. EI may enable individuals to apply better coping mechanisms and display more appropriate emotional reactions to events which may induce aggressive behavior.

It was, furthermore, hypothesised that a significant negative relationship exists between EI and narcissism. Contrary to the expectation, a significant weak positive relationship emerged between the NPI and EI. It was also found that significant positive relationships emerged between six of the seven dimensions of EI and narcissism. The findings may indicate that individuals with a fragile high self-esteem (overt narcissists) may also be 'emotionally intelligent'. Individuals with high levels of narcissism may use emotional regulation strategies to manage their own and other's emotions in order to maintain their fragile self esteem. No significant relationship emerged between the NPI (total score) and any of the aggression subscales. This result may be due to methodological limitations (e.g. restriction of range) or the absence of an ego-threat eliciting cue in the questionnaire, which may have attenuated the results. However, two significant positive relationships emerged between the NPI dimensions of Entitlement and Exploitiveness with the Verbal Aggression towards a colleague subscale. Due to the fact that no significant relationship between narcissism (total score) and WA emerged in this study, the proposed hypo that EI moderates the relationship between narcissism and WA, could not be investigated. The limitations of the study and recommendations for future research were discussed.

OPSOMMING

Lambertus Johannes van der Nest, M Comm (Universiteit van Stellenbosch)

'N ONDERSOEK NA DIE MODERERENDE EFFEK VAN EMOSIONELE INTELLIGENSIE OP DIE NARSISME EN WERKSPLEKAGGRESSIE VERWANTSKAP

Studieleier: Dr Gina Görgens, PhD

Die doelwitte van hierdie studie was om die verband tussen narsisme, werksplekaggressie (WA) en emosionele intelligensie (EI) te ondersoek, asook om te bepaal of EI 'n modererende rol speel in die verband tussen narsisme en WA. 'n Nie-eksperimentele navorsingsontwerp (dit is, 'n verkennende studie) is gebruik om die verbande tussen die drie konstrukte te ondersoek. Narsiste word beskryf as individue wat 'n grootse gevoel van eiebelang of uniekheid het. Hulle oordryf hulle spesiale talente en prestasies. Wanneer ander hulle kritiseer, sal hulle gewoonlik geneig wees om woedend te word en skaam, minderwaardig of verneder te voel (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). WA word gedefinieer as die pogings van individue om die mense saam met wie hulle werk, of gewerk het, of die organisasie waar hulle tans werk, of voorheen gewerk het, skade aan te doen (Neuman & Baron, 1997a). EI word gedefinieer as die vermoë om emosies op 'n professionele en doeltreffende manier in die werkplek waar te neem, uit te druk, te verstaan en te beheer (Palmer & Stough, 2001). 'n Geriefsteekproef van 134 (permanente en tydelike) akademiese personeel en (middel- en bovlak-) steundienstpersoneel van twee tersiêre opvoedkundige instellings in die Wes-Kaap het aan die navorsingsprojek deelgeneem. Greenberg en Barling (1999) se WA-skaal (wat aggressie teenoor kollegas, ondergesiktes en toesighouers meet), die Narsistiese persoonlikheid-inventaris (NPI, Raskin & Hall, 1979) en die Genos Emosionele-intelligensie-inventaris (Gignac, 2008) is gebruik. Beduidende swak negatiewe verwantskappe tussen EI en elk van die dimensies van WA is gevind. Dit dui daarop dat 'n hoër EI geassosieer word met 'n afname in die neiging om in verbale aggressiewe gedrag betrokke te raak. EI kan individue in staat stel om beter hanteringsmeganismes te gebruik en meer gepaste emosionele reaksies te toon op gebeure wat tot aggressiewe gedrag kan lei.

Daar is in die studie aangevoer dat 'n betekenisvolle negatiewe verband tussen EI en narsisme bestaan. Teen alle verwagting is'n betekenisvolle swak positiewe verband tussen die NPI en EI na vore gekom. Daar is ook bevind dat daar betekenisvolle positiewe verbande tussen ses van die sewe dimensies van EI en narsisme bestaan het. Die bevindings kan daarop dui dat individue met 'n brose hoë selfbeeld (openlik narsistiese individue) ook "emosioneel intelligent" kan wees. Individue met 'n hoë mate van narsisme kan emosionele beheerstrategieë gebruik om hulle eie en ander se emosies te beheer om só hulle brose selfbeeld te handhaaf. Geen betekenisvolle verband tussen die NPI (totaal telling) en enige van die aggressie-subskale het na vore gekom nie. Hierdie bevinding kan dalk toegeskryf word aan metodologiese beperkings (soos beperkte omvang) of die afwesigheid van 'n stelling in die vraelys wat bedreiging vir die ego ingehou en die uitkoms kon verswak het. Twee betekenisvolle positiewe verbande is egter gevind tussen die NPI-dimensies Aanspraak en Uitbuiting en die subskaal Verbale Aggressie teenoor 'n kollega. Weens die feit dat geen noemenswaardige verhouding tussen narsisme (totale punt) en WA in hierdie studie gevind is nie, kon die voorgestelde hipotese dat EI die verband tussen narsisme en WA modereer nie ondersoek word nie. Die beperkings van die studie en aanbevelings vir toekomstige navorsing word bespreek.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The work environment has been found to be a source of stress and emotional disharmony (Hulin, 1991). Hence, subsequent negative emotional states may be experienced in response to situational workplace frustrations and other environmental conditions and events (Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Booth & Mann, 2005; Fitness, 2000; Spector & Fox, 2005). Individual differences (e.g. trait anger, negative affectivity, self control and previous exposure to aggressive cultures (Greenberg & Barling, 1999) and self-esteem (Oates & Forrest, 1985)) have been found to be strongly linked to aggressive behaviour. Research also supports the notion that some individuals have a greater propensity to act in aggressive ways (e.g. Dupré & Barling, 2001). The increasing presence in the work environment of behaviours that negatively impact on employees and the organisation, which in the extreme manifest itself in incidents of physical assault, violence and workplace aggression, is a factor to be reckoned with by management today (Pietersen, 2005). The occurrence of workplace aggression can be detrimental to organisational effectiveness, operations and also to the overall quality of life of its employees (Schrader, 2004). The workplace has been described as a “battleground for violence” in society (Chenier, 1998), and has been identified as one of the most interpersonally frustrating contexts that people have to deal with (Golem & Hulin, 1991; Gibson & Barsade, 1999; Grandy, Tam & Brauburger, 2002).

1.2 WORKPLACE AGGRESSION

In this dissertation the term aggression is used to refer to hostile, as opposed to assertive, forms of behaviour. The International Labour Organisation (2002) defines Workplace Aggression (WA) as an incident in which a person is abused, threatened or assaulted in circumstances relating to their work. The intrusive behaviour (e.g. harassment, bullying, intimidation, physical threat and robbery) can originate from customers or co-workers at any level of the organisation. O’Leary-Kelly, Griffin and Glew (1996) define WA as the process by which an individual attempts to physically injure a co-worker. Neuman and Baron (1997a, 1997b, 1998) define WA as any form of behaviour directed by one or more persons in a workplace toward the goal of harming individuals in that workplace in ways

intended targets are motivate to avoid. This harm doing is intentional and includes psychological as well as physical injury.

There is a range of acts that constitute WA (Anderson & Pearson, 1999; Barling, 1996; Greenberg & Barling, 1999; Neuman & Baron, 1998). Efforts to harm others in the organisational context range from subtle and covert actions to active confrontations, the destruction of property and direct physical assaults (Barling, 1996; Baron, 1993; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Forms of WA include bullying, incivility, organisational retaliatory behaviour, emotional abuse and tyranny (Dupré & Barling, 2001).

Research indicates that the experience of WA undoubtedly brings along with it negative consequences (e.g. Budd, Arvey & Lawless, 1996), not for only individuals, but also for organisations. Negative impacts of WA include: production cost and loss (Coco, 1998), poorer interpersonal relations (Anderson & Pearson, 1999), more absenteeism, less commitment, increased organisation departure, decreased organisational functioning (Pearson, Anderson & Porath, 2000), performance (Zohar, 1999) and employee well-being (Kakianinen, Salmivalli, Björkqvist, Österman, Lahtinen, Kostame & Lagerspelz, 2001). It is clear that continued research is needed to better understand the factors that cause, facilitate or exacerbate workplace aggression, in order to better prevent or reduce it.

Over the past few years researchers have expanded their efforts to determine the causes of workplace aggression and the results indicate clearly that both individual and workplace factors are important in the prediction of WA. For example, research have suggested (e.g. Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Folger & Skarlicki, 1998; Martinko & Zellars, 1998) that the incidences of WA is probably the outcome of a complex interaction between situational factors (e.g. perceived injustice, Folger & Baron, 1996; Neuman et al., 1998), lack of control (Bennet, 1998), frustration-inducing events (Spector, 1997), environmental conditions (Anderson, Anderson & Deuser, 1996) and individual factors.

Some individuals have a predisposition to aggression (Dupré & Barling, 2001). In a recent study, Douglas and Martinko (2001) found that individual differences variables (e.g. trait anger, attribution style, negative affectivity, attitudes toward revenge, self-control and previous exposure to aggressive cultures) accounted for 62 per cent of the variance in WA. Various personality traits appear to have the potential to influence WA. Examples

include, Type A behaviour (Baron, Neuman & Geddes, 1999; agreeableness (Skarlicki et al., 1999) and narcissism (Penney & Spector, 2002).

Compelling evidence suggest that individuals with a high self-esteem are at greater risk for aggressive or violent behaviour because they are motivated to protect their self-perception and therefore are more sensitive to others' criticism (Shrauger & Lund, 1975). This may cause them to more frequently experience inconsistencies between their own and others' views of themselves, which leads to defensive behaviours (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Papps & O'Carroll, 1998). Hence it is argued that one possible predictor of WA could be narcissism and the ego threat mechanism that accompanies it.

1.3 NARCISSISM – THEORY OF EGO THREAT

The term narcissism is used to describe a pervasive pattern of overt grandiosity, self-focus and self-importance behaviour displayed by an individual (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). Various personality characteristics have been associated with narcissism. For example, narcissists are often defined as being preoccupied with dreams of success, power, beauty, and brilliance. They constantly seek and desire attention and admiration from others. Furthermore, threats to the narcissist' self-esteem are often followed with feelings of rage, defiance, shame, and humiliation. Narcissists will also display a sense of entitlement, with expectations for special treatment, without assuming reciprocal responsibilities. They are also unwilling to return the favours of others, and are unempathetic and interpersonally exploitative. Narcissists also have a grandiose sense of self-importance or uniqueness, where they exaggerate their special talents and achievements. Finally, narcissists are prone to rage, shame, inferiority, and humiliation when they are criticized by others (American Psychiatric Association, 2000).

Narcissistic individuals possess a fragile sense of self-esteem in which they are highly vigilant and emotionally sensitive to information that might threaten their desired superior self-appraisals (Spector, Fox & Domagalski, 2005). Penney and Spector (2002) found evidence of an indirect relationship between narcissism and Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) (e.g. WA) that was mediated by anger. They conclude that narcissist experience more anger than others because of the tendency to maintain constant vigilance to ego threats, and when threats to their ego surface, they are likely to respond by engaging in CWB (e.g. WA).

According to the ego threat conceptualisation, it has been argued that when narcissistic individuals receive negative feedback regarding their personal beliefs, they may feel that their ideas, and therefore their sense of self-worth, are being challenged. This challenge to their ideas is termed as an ego threat (Baumeister, Smart & Boden, 1996) and it results in the narcissist feeling the need to assert their personal beliefs (which is challenged). Bushman and Baumeister (1998) found that individuals who experienced an ego threat were more likely too aggress against the source of the ego threat (e.g. negative feedback) because they perceive it as an insult to their self worth (Salmivalli, 2001). Narcissism is inversely related to agreeableness, empathy, gratitude, affiliation and need for intimacy whereas it is positively related to competitiveness, exploitations, Machiavellianism, anger, hostility and cynical mistrust of others (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993; Rhodewalt, 2001; Sedikides, Campbell, Reeder, Elliot & Greeder, 2002). Narcissist relish direct competition against others (Morf, Weir, Davidov, 2000), overestimate their intelligence and attractiveness (Gabriel, Critelli & Ee, 1994) and are interpersonally dismissive and abrasive (Kernis & Sun, 1994).

Surveying these characteristics, it can be argued that individuals, who have a narcissistic personality, may have a profound impact upon the operation of an organisation. For instance, narcissistic managers and supervisors may have problems interacting with colleagues, as well as communicating with lower level staff and line workers (King, 2007). The results of such behaviours may deter the organisation in achieving desired goals. In a similar vein, a leader who promotes a grandiose unrealistic vision may cause organisational members not to follow a specific request. Such an event may cause the organisation not only to lack in achieving a specific goal, but may have a detrimental financial effect upon the company (King, 2007). Also, due to their arrogance, sense of entitlement, lack of concern for others' feelings and abilities, along with a constant desire to be in the limelight, narcissists will find it difficult to work effectively in teams (Lubit, 2002). Finally, narcissists not only do a poor job at developing people, but they "alienate subordinates as a result of their devaluation of others, insistence on having their own way, lack of empathy, and willingness to exploit others" (Lubit, 2002, p. 130).

Narcissist' aggressive reactions serve to refute and prevent bad evaluation, as well as to constitute a means of achieving symbolic dominance and superiority over the other person

(Baumeister et al., 1996; Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Penney & Spector, 2002). Studies by Bushman et al. (1996) and Twenge and Campbell (2003) found that narcissists cause pain to those responsible for the negative feedback (i.e. direct aggression) whilst they typically responded (Lovallo, 1997) to negative feedback by blasting (i.e. violent verbal assault or outburst) innocent individuals (i.e. displace aggression).

Emotion is found to be a central in much organisation work on WA (Spector et al., 2001) and emotion has long played a central role in research concerning human aggression and violence (Spector & Fox, 2005). Emotions influence and represent the immediate response to situations that are perceived as stressful in the workplace and can even undermine rational selection of optimal courses of action (Lazarus, 1991; Leith & Baumeister, 1996; Payne, 1999). According to the theory of ego threat, it has been argued that there are two possible reactions to negative evaluation by others. Accepting the evaluation, which lowers the self-esteem of the individual (i.e. you blame yourself), or denying the criticism and blaming others (i.e. the source of the negative feedback) (Salmivalli, 2001; Baumeister, 1997). In response to the ego threat (e.g. negative evaluation), an individual makes a choice to either choose aggressive behaviour or constructive behaviour (Quebbeman & Rozell, 2002). Emotions influence behaviour choices in the workplace and can undermine rational selection of optimal courses of action (Leith & Baumeister, 1996) and thus it is argued that it might play a significant role in the choice of deconstructive (aggression or withdrawal) or constructive behaviour by the narcissist that experiences an ego threat.

1.4 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional Intelligence (EI) involves the ability to accurately perceive and express emotions; to use emotions to facilitate mental processes; to understand the nature and meaning of emotions; and to effectively manage and regulate emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

There is much interest in the area of EI on the part of both academic scholars and practitioners (Fox, 2000) and some have argued that EI may be integral to understanding aggression in the workplace (Quebbeman & Rozell, 2002). EI contribute to the ability to monitor one's own and other's emotions and to discriminate among them. This could assist an individual to use the information to guide their thinking and actions (Gardner, 1983; Mayer & Salovey, 1993). For example, Quebbeman and Rozell (2002) presented a model

of EI and dispositional affectivity as moderators of workplace aggression. They argued that individuals with higher EI and positive affect are more likely to react to perceived injustice with adaptive / constructive behaviours.

A more proactive dimension of EI relates to the management of one's own and other people's moods and emotions (George, 2000). Research has found that high EI individuals strive to maintain positive moods and alleviate negative moods (e.g. Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 1999). EI captures individual differences in the extent to which one is able to successfully manage moods and emotions in these ways. Management of one's own moods and emotions also relies on knowledge and consideration of the determinants, appropriateness and malleability of moods and emotions (George, 2000). This regulation entails a reflective process, which has been referred to as the meta-regulation of mood (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Previous research suggests a link between EI and emotional well-being. Research conducted by Schutte, Malouff, Simunek, McKenley and Hollander (2002) found that individuals high in EI may be able to maintain higher positive mood and self-esteem states, because their emotion regulation abilities enable them to counter some of the influence of negative situations and maximise the influence of positive situations. More specifically, individuals higher in EI showed less decrease in positive mood and self-esteem after a negative state induction, as well as an increase in positive mood after a positive state induction (Schutte et al., 2002).

Recent research evidence suggests that EI impacts on leadership and social relationships at work. In one study, individuals who scored higher on a test of EI were more empathic than their low EI counterparts (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). In another study, individuals with higher emotion regulation abilities also reported receiving more social support; being more satisfied with communications and with other group members, compared to their lower EI counterparts (Côté, Lopes, & Salovey, 2002).

EI has been theoretically related to several important human values including positive outcomes such as pro social behaviour, parental warmth, positive peer and family relations (Mayer et al., 1999; Rice, 1999; Salovey, Mayer, Caruso & Lopes, 2001), life satisfaction (Gignac, 2005) as well as the quality of interpersonal relationships. Success in

occupations that involve considerable reasoning with emotional information such as those involving creativity, leadership, sales and psychotherapy (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001; Salovey & Mayer, 1990) can be related to EI.

1.5 AIMS OF THIS RESEARCH

For the purposes of this research an argument will be proposed which states that if narcissists have a lower level of EI, it may be probable that such individuals could be more prone to aggression, than their higher EI counterparts. Hence, the current research will explore whether higher levels of narcissism is related to higher aggression, as well as whether individuals that are narcissistic, generally possess lower levels of EI. In addition the relationship between EI and aggression will also be investigated. As it is known that narcissist are more likely to aggress when an ego threat is experienced (Bushman et al., 1998), it could be argued they may be less prone to respond with aggression when EI is enhanced. Hence, the moderating effect of EI on the narcissism – WA relationship will also be investigated.

This dissertation will firstly, in chapter 2, present the theoretical framework for each of the three constructs and explain the major research conducted on each of these constructs and their relationships amongst each other. This will be done to ground the current research and pave the way to establishing the need and utility for this study. Chapter 3 will introduce the rationale, aims and objectives of this research and present details regarding how participants were sampled, the measurement instrument utilised, as well as how the data was collected and analysed. The results will be presented in chapter 4, followed in chapter 5 by a discussion thereof, limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

1.6 SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to provide an overview of this study. The main constructs WA, narcissism and EI was introduced and both the motivation for and purpose of the study were briefly mentioned. The next chapter will provide a detailed overview of the constructs already introduced in this chapter and specific references will be made to important literature and previous research involving these constructs.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the following section the relevant literature and current research related to WA, Narcissism and EI will be reviewed and discussed.

2.2 AGGRESSION

Most types of aggressive behaviour have negative repercussions in organisations (Olson, Nelson & Parayitam, 2006). Verbal abuse, for example, is common over many industries and occupations. In 2003 it was reported by Lutgen-Sandvik (2003) that 97 percent of nurses admitted to being recent victims of verbal abuse. Sixty percent of retail workers reported being the victim of verbal abuse, while the rate among university faculty and staff was 23 percent (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003). Employees who experience verbal abuse are more likely to engage in absenteeism. On an organisational level, this type of psychological aggression may also lead to higher levels of turnover (Delbel, 2003). Employee theft, a major form of covert aggression against the organisation, is also a serious concern for organisations. Studies have shown that two-thirds of employees have engaged in theft in their organisation (Huiras, Uggen, McBorris, 2002). This type of aggressive behaviour is very expensive to an organisation and was the subject of a study that concluded that happier employees steal less (Greenberg & Scott, 1996). Therefore, it is important for managers and organisations to understand the effect aggressive behaviour in the workplace has on performance and productivity. Organisational level workplace aggression may affect the performance and productivity of the organisation (e.g. Barling, 1996).

2.2.1 Defining Aggression

According to Anderson (2002, p.86), “human aggression is behaviour which is performed by one person (the aggressor) with the intent of harming another person (the victim) who is believed by the aggressor to be motivated to avoid that harm”. Berkowitz (1993) pointed out that a major problem in defining aggression is that in the English language the term is used to refer to a large variety of different actions. “When people describe someone as being aggressive, they might be saying that he frequently attempts to hurt others, or that he is often unfriendly, or in a quite different sense, that he is typically very forceful and tries

to get his own way in his dealings with others, or maybe that he assertively stands up for his beliefs, or perhaps that he usually attempts to solve problems facing him" (Berkowitz, 1993, p.4). What may be concluded is that human aggressive behaviour, by definition, occurs within the context of social interaction. The work environment is seen as a system of total social interaction. Therefore, it is possible to say that aggression in different forms, also occur in the workplace environment (Baron & Richardson, 1994).

Bandura (1973) did not conceptualize aggression to include intentions, but instead considered aggression as harmful behavior that violates social norms. Buss and Perry (1992) defined verbal and physical aggression as the motor components of behavior that involve hurting or harming others. Barratt (1991) further classified aggression into three categories: premeditated, medically related, and impulsive aggression. The distinction between premeditated (proactive) and impulsive (reactive) aggression has also been confirmed by others (Dodge, 1991; Vitiello, Behar, Hunt, Stuff, & Ricciuti, 1990).

The problem with defining aggression is that there is no substantial agreement on the definition of the construct, and that various numbers of contrasting formulations have been offered over the years (Buss, 1961; Geen, 1990; Krahé, 2001). Beyond basic consensus, there is furthermore a need to define more precisely the criteria that have to be met by a specific behaviour to be categorised as 'aggressive'. The answer to such a question, of course, depends quite heavily upon the definition of aggression one chooses to adopt. Buss (1961) contends that aggression is simply any behaviour that harms or injures others or is, "...a response that delivers noxious stimuli to another organism" (p.1). Krahé (2001), however, contends that aggression is too broad to only be defined as behavioural harm doing. According to Geen (1990) aggression must be defined with other elements (i.e. intent and motivation).

A second definition, offered by several researchers (e.g., Berkowitz, 1993; Feshbach, 1997), contends that in order to be classified as aggression, actions must involve the intention of harm or injury to others and not simply the delivery of such consequences. However, there has been considerable confusion regarding this point of the definition. That is, that aggression should be viewed as behaviour, and not as an emotion, a motive, or an attitude. For example, the term aggression has been applied to negative emotions such as anger, to motives such as the desire to harm or injure others, and even negative attitudes,

such as racial or ethnic prejudice. All of these factors play a role in the occurrence of aggression, but their presence is not a necessary condition for the performance of such action. Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer and Sears (1939, p.11) defined aggression as, "...an act whose goal-response is injury to an organism" and therefore indicate the motivation to injure the organism.

A third view, offered by Zillmann (1979), restricts use of the term aggression to attempts to produce bodily or physical injury to another. Baron (1977) stated that, "...aggression is any form of behaviour directed toward the goal of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment" (p.7). This definition of aggression include the criteria that needs to be met for a person's behaviour to qualify as aggression: the behaviour must be carried out with intention to inflict negative consequences on the target, which, in turn, presupposes the expectancy that the action will result in a particular outcome (Krahé, 2001).

Although the terms 'aggression' and 'violence' are often used interchangeably, it should be noted that there are differences between them. The most sensational form of aggression is violence (Martinko, Scott, Douglas, 2006) and violence has extreme harm as its goal (e.g. death). All violence is aggression, but many instance of aggression is not violent (Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Neuman & Baron, 1998; Straus & Gelles, 1986). Conceptually then, aggression and violence differ with respect to the nature of harm imposed on a victim. The consensus in the literature is that if harm inflicted is physical in nature, then the behavior that brought about this harm can be classified as violent. Support for this distinction comes from work by Barling (1984) in the area of marital aggression. In their study, two consistent factors emerged in two separate samples: violence (e.g., hitting, beating, and kicking) and psychological aggression (e.g., insulting, swearing).

Averill (1982), Berkowitz (1993) and Geen (2001) challenged the traditional assumption that anger causes aggression. However, anger plays a role in aggression (Berkowitz, 2001). First, anger reduces inhibitions to aggress in at least two ways – anger sometimes provides justification for aggressive retaliation. It may, for example, interfere with higher-level cognitive processes, which are part of the reappraisal process (e.g. reasoning and judgment). Secondly, anger allows a person to maintain an aggressive intention over time. It increases attention to provoking events, increases the depth of processing of those

events, and therefore improves recall of those events. Thirdly, anger is used as an information cue. If anger is triggered in an ambiguous social situation, the anger experience itself helps resolve the ambiguities, and does so in the direction of hostile interpretations. Fourthly, anger primes aggressive thoughts, scripts and associated expressive-motor behaviors. Lastly, anger energizes behavior by increasing arousal levels (Anderson & Bushman 2001).

The Buss Typology (Buss, 1961) of aggression is the most widely recognized model in this field, and this has served as the basis for several studies of WA (Baron & Neuman, 1996, 1998; Baron et al., 1999; Geddes & Baron, 1997; Neuman & Keashly, 2004). According to Buss (1961), aggression can be captured using three dichotomies: (a) physical-verbal, (b) active-passive, and (c) direct-indirect.

Physical aggression may be defined as an assault by means of body parts or weapons. Physical aggression, as the label implies, involves physical actions on the part of the actor and might include pushing, shoving, assault, unwanted touching, or defacement of property. Pain to another person is a consequence of physical aggression. Verbal aggression is defined as vocal responses that deliver harmful stimuli (e.g. rejection and threat) to another person. Verbal aggression inflicts harm through words as opposed to deeds (e.g., yelling, shouting, unfair criticism, damaging gossip, etc.). With respect to direct forms of aggression, the actor harms the target directly, whereas in the case of indirect aggression, the actor might inflict harm on something the target values or someone the target cares about, such as a protégé or spreading gossip. Finally, active aggression requires the actor to do something to harm the target, whereas passive-aggression involves withholding something that the target need of values. Another important distinction, and one that is probably closely associated with perceptions of intent, relates to the overt or covert nature of the aggressive act (Baron & Neuman, 1998; Baron & Neuman, 1996; Kaukianen et al., 2001). Some behaviour are easily recognized as aggressive in nature (i.e., homicide, abusive verbal exchanges, slamming doors, pounding fists, throwing objects, etc.), whereas others are invisible, less visible, or more ambiguous in form and therefore covert in operation (e.g., withholding needed resources or information, failing to return phone calls or e-mail messages, showing-up late for meetings and various forms of sabotage, etc.). Regardless of their form or process, to the extent that

these actions involve efforts by individuals to harm others with whom they work – or organisations in which they are employed – they constitute WA.

Aggression has many different kinds of aggressive behaviours, which reveal different motives and causes. Geen (2001) proposed the dimensions of aggression with which to capture many (if not all) of the underlying motives of aggressive behaviour. More specifically, people either react to actions that they perceive as being provocative (reactive, hostile, affective, or 'hot' aggression) or initiate acts of aggression against others as a means of obtaining some other desired end (instrumental, proactive, 'cold' aggression) (Neuman & Baron, 1998).

Hostile aggression has been conceived as being impulsive, thoughtless, driven by others, having the ultimate motive of harming the target, and occurring as a reaction to some perceived provocation (Anderson & Bushman, 2002). Baron (1977) initially defined it as, "...instances of aggression in which the primary or major goal sought by aggressors is that of causing the victim to suffer" (p13). Geen (2001) used the term affective aggression behaviour to describe hostile aggression. Affective aggression is aimed primarily at injuring the provoking person. In contrast, instrumental aggression has generally been applied to instances in which aggressors assault other persons not out of a strong desire to see them suffer, but primarily as a means of attaining other goals (Baron, 1977). For example, Bushman and Anderson (2001) conceived instrumental aggression as a premeditated means of obtaining some goal or incentive, other than harming the victim, and being proactive rather than reactive. Although the majority of work in the aggression field has tended to focus on affective aggression, it is clear that people often attack others with intent to harm without necessarily feeling any malice toward the victim. The primary goal of such aggression is not injury or harm to the victim; the aggression is simply a means to some other desired end. The world of work involves, by definition, the pursuit of an endless array of 'desired ends' (e.g., raises, promotions, choice assignment, eye-catching offices, power, perks, etc.), and instrumental aggression often serves as a means to those ends (Neuman & Baron, 1998)

2.2.2 Models and theoretical approaches to aggression

Theoretical approaches of aggression aim at explaining aggressive behaviour in terms of biological (Ethological, Socio-biology and Behaviour genetics) and psychological models

(Freudian psychoanalysis, Frustration-aggression hypothesis, Cognitive neoassociationism, Excitation transfer model, Social-cognitive model, Learning model and Social interactionist model) that guide thinking and research in this domain (Krahé, 2001). Five main theories of aggression guide most current research. The theories themselves overlap considerably, which is what instigated early attempts to integrate them into a broader framework, the General Aggression Model (GAM) (Anderson, Deuser & DeNeve, 1995; Anderson et al., 1996a).

2.2.2.1 Frustration-Aggression Theory

In the original frustration-aggression hypothesis (Dollard et al., 1939), aggression was explained as the result of a drive to end a state of frustration, whereby frustration is defined as external interference with the goal-directed behaviour of the person. Thus, the experience of frustration activates the desire to act aggressively against the source of the frustration, which in turn precipitates the performance of aggressive behaviour (Krahé, 2001). The frustration-aggression theory started off as a drive model, but it has developed into a more complex approach, stressing the cognitive appraisal of the situational aggressive response. Berkowitz (1989) carried it further in his cognitive neoassociation model summarised in the next section.

2.2.2.2 Cognitive Neoassociation Theory

Berkowitz (1989, 1990, 1993) has proposed that aversive events such as frustrations, provocations, loud noises, uncomfortable temperatures and unpleasant odours produce negative affect. Frustrations, however, only lead to aggression to the extent that they arouse negative affective states. Within this theory it is argued that negative affect produced by unpleasant experiences stimulates thoughts, memories, expressive motor reactions and psychological responses, associated with both fight and flight tendencies. The associations give rise to feelings of rudimentary anger (fight) and fear (flight). The theory assumes that cues present during an aversive event become associated with the event and with the cognitive and emotional responses triggered by the event (Anderson et al., 2002). Cognitive neoassociation theory not only provides a causal mechanism for explaining why aversive events increase aggressive inclinations, i.e., via negative affect (Berkowitz as cited in Anderson & Bushman, 2002, p.29), but it subsumes the frustration-aggression hypothesis (Dollard et al., 1939).

2.2.2.3 Social Learning Theory

Another way in which aggressive behaviour can be learned is by observing others behaving in an aggressive fashion. According to social learning theories (Bandura, 1983; Mischel, 1973, 1999; Mischel & Shoda, 1995), people acquire aggressive responses in the same way they acquire other complex forms of social behaviour – either by direct experience or observing others. Social learning theory explains the acquisition of aggressive behaviour, via observational learning processes, and provides a useful set of concepts for understanding and describing the beliefs and expectations that guide social behaviour (Anderson et al., 2001).

2.2.2.4 Script Theory

Huesmann (1986, 1998) proposed that when children observe violence in the mass media, they learn aggressive scripts. Scripts are sets of particularly well-rehearsed, highly associated concepts in memory; often involving causal links, goals and action plans (Abelson, 1981; Schank & Abelson, 1977). Scripts define situations and guide behaviour. The person selects a script to represent the situation and then assumes a role in the script. Once a script has been learned, it may be retrieved at some later time and used as a guide for behaviour. For example, a child who has witnessed several thousand instances of using a gun to settle a dispute on television is likely to have a very accessible script that has generalised this behaviour across many situations. The script becomes chronically accessible (Anderson et al., 2001).

2.2.2.5 Excitation Transfer Theory

According to Krahé (2001), whether or not an individual will react with aggressive responses to aversive stimulations, depends to a high degree on how the stimulation is interpreted by the recipient. In his Excitation transfer theory, Zillmann (1979, 1983) proposes that the intensity of an anger experience is a function of two components: the strengths of the psychological arousal generated by an aversive event, and the way in which the arousal is explained and labelled. According to the theory, physiological arousal dissipates slowly. If two arousing events are separated by a short amount of time, arousal from the first event may be misattributed to the second event. If the second event is related to anger, then the additional arousal should make the person even angrier.

Excitation transfers also suggest that anger may be extended over long periods of time if a person has consciously attributed his or her heightened arousal to it. Therefore, after the arousal has dissipated the person remains ready to aggress for as long as the self-generated anger persists (Anderson et al., 2001).

2.2.2.6 Social Interaction Theory

Tedeschi and Felson (1994) proposed a theory to analyse aggressive behaviour into a broader social interactionist theory of coercive actions. For example, an actor uses coercive actions to produce some change in the target's behaviour. Coercive actions can be used to obtain something of value (e.g., information, money, goods, sex, services, safety), to exact retributive justice for perceived wrongs, or to bring about desired social and self-identities (e.g. toughness, competence). According to this theory, the actor is a decision maker whose choices are directed by expected rewards, cost and probabilities of obtaining different outcomes (Anderson et al., 2001). This concept of coercive action is less value laden, avoiding the traditional qualification of aggression as legitimate or illegitimate. Furthermore, it includes threats and punishment as well as bodily force, inflicting harm or gaining compliance from an unwilling target (Krahé, 2001). Social interaction theory provides an explanation of aggressive acts motivated by higher level (or ultimate) goals. This theory provides an excellent way to understand recent findings where aggression is often the result of threats to high self-esteem, especially to unwarranted high self-esteem (i.e., narcissism) (Baumeister et al., 1996, Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). The valuable contribution of the social interactionist approach is to place aggression in the context of other forms of social behaviour designed to exert influence over others. According to the theory, aggression is but one potential influence strategy. Therefore, the individual is seen as having control over his or her aggressive responses as well as being able to choose non-aggressive alternatives (Krahé, 2001).

2.2.2.7 The General Aggression Model

The General Aggression Model (GAM) developed by Anderson et al. (2001) is a recent addition to the range of theoretical conceptualisations of the antecedents of aggression and offers an integrative framework for many aspects from previous theories (Lindsay & Anderson, 2000). The GAM uses the knowledge structures for perception, interpretation, decision-making and action (e.g., Bargh, 1996; Collins & Loftus, 1975; Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Higgins, 1996; Wegner & Bargh, 1998) as the building blocks of the model. Key

features include the ideas that knowledge structures (a) develop out of experience, (b) influence perception at multiple levels, from visual patterns to complex behavioural sequences, (c) can become automatized with use, (d) can contain (or are linked to) affective states, behavioural programs, and beliefs, and (e) are used to guide peoples' interpretations and behavioural responses to their social (and physical) environment. Three particularly relevant subtypes of knowledge structures are (a) perceptual schemata, which are used to identify phenomena as simple everyday physical objects (chair, person) or as complex as social events (personal insults), (b) person schemata, which include beliefs about a particular person or group of people, and (c) behavioural scripts, which contains information about how people behave under varying circumstances (Bushman & Anderson, 2001).

Knowledge structures include affect in three different ways. Firstly, they contain links to experiential concepts. For example, when a knowledge structure containing anger is activated, anger is experienced. Secondly, they include knowledge about affect, such as when a particular emotion should be experienced and how emotions influence people's judgement and behaviour. Thirdly, a script may include affect as an action rule (Ableson, 1981). For example, a personal insult script may prescribe aggressive retaliation but only if anger is at a high level of fear (Anderson & Dill, 2000; Anderson & Bushman, 2000; Bushman & Anderson, 2001). The GAM focuses on the 'person in the situation', called an episode, consisting of one ongoing social interaction.

2.2.3 WORKPLACE AGGRESSION

2.2.3.1 Introduction

There is a tremendous range in the acts that constitute WA (Anderson & Pearson, 1999; Barling, 1996; Greenberg & Barling, 1999; Neuman & Baron, 1998). Neuman and Baron (1996, 1997a, 1998) conceptualised WA as the, "...effort by individuals to harm others with whom they work, or have worked, or the organisations in which they are currently or were previously employed" (p.38). This harm doing is intentional and includes psychological as well as physical injury. Efforts to harm others in an organisational context range from subtle and covert actions, through to active confrontations, the destruction of property and direct physical assaults (Barling, 1996; Baron, 1993; Robinson & Bennet, 1995). According to Dupré and Barling (2001) WA includes direct physical aggression (e.g. punch or shove),

direct psychological harm (e.g. verbal insults or ignoring the victim), and indirect harm (e.g. destroying the victim's property or spreading rumours).

The following is forms of WA: bullying (e.g. Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996), incivility (Anderson & Pearson, 1999), organisational retaliatory behaviour (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), emotional abuse (Keashly, 1998) and tyranny (Ashforth, 1994). Baron (1993) suggested that WA occurs at three levels: (1) the withholding of cooperation, spreading rumours or gossip, consistent arguments and the use of offensive language, (2) intense arguments with supervisors, co-workers and customers, sabotage, verbal threats and feelings of persecution and (3) frequent displays of intense anger resulting in recurrent suicidal threats, physical fights, destruction of property, use of weapons, and commission of murder, rape or arson.

2.2.3.2 Outcomes of Workplace Aggression

Research indicates that the experience of WA results in negative consequences (e.g. Budd et al., 1996), not only for individuals, but also for the organisation and society (Dupré & Barling 2001). For example, witnessing and experiencing WA may lead to fear of future violent incidents (Leather, Lawrence, Beale, Cox, & Dixon, 1998; Rogers & Kelloway, 1997). LeBlanc and Kelloway (2002) have shown that experiencing aggression from co-workers directly predicted the degree of emotional well-being; psychosomatic well-being and affective commitment of employees, while experiencing aggression from the public indirectly predicted fear of aggression. In addition, Schat and Kelloway (2002) found that fear of WA was predicted by violence and control and that greater level of this type of fear resulted in poorer well-being.

In a study conducted by Dupré and Barling (2001) it was reported that fear of WA and sexual harassment affected the mood of the individual. The components of negative mood in the study were anger, anxiety and sadness. The negative mood, furthermore, led to reduced affective commitment to the organisation and cognitive distractions (Dupré and Barling, 2001). Hence, organisational level WA may affect the performance and productivity of the organisation (e.g. Barling, 1996). Carione (2000), Cohen (1996), Jossi (1999), and Mello (1998) suggested that the negative relationship between workplace aggression and organisational productivity is a result of the negative individual outcomes associated with WA. WA is associated with higher absenteeism and turnover (e.g. Cohen,

1996) which leads to the costly expense of hiring and training replacement employees (Gerhart, 1990, Sager, 1990).

A group of researches (e.g. Baron & Neuman 1996; Geddes, Lieb, & Linnehan, 1994; Geddes & Baron 1997; Neuman & Baron, 1997a) has examined the prevalence of various forms of WA. Neuman and Baron (1998) presented three dimensions (expression of hostility, obstructionism and overt aggression) of a framework, which categorise empirical evidence on the nature and prevalence of WA

Expression of hostility includes behaviours that are primarily verbal or symbolic in nature (e.g. gestures, facial expressions and verbal assaults) (Neuman & Baron 1998). These forms of aggression may not seem particularly lethal; but they do take an emotional toll on employees (Kinney, 1993). Moreover, the data suggests that expression of hostility occur significantly more often than any other form of aggression (Baron & Neuman, 1996). During a study of workplace harassment, Björkqvist, Österman, and Hjelt-Bäck (1994) found that 32% percent of 338 respondents indicated that have observed others being shouted at loudly or being exposed to insulting comments, insinuating glances, negative gestures, undue criticism and unfairly damaging performance evaluations. Furthermore, ostracism, intentionally being ignored by others who are in one's presence, is another pervasive hostile behaviour (Williams & Sommer, 1997). In some organisations, ostracism has been used to shun workers who violate group norms, or as retaliation against whistleblowers (Miceli & Near, 1992; Sheler, 1981).

Obstructionism is actions that are designed to impede an individual's ability to perform his or her job, or interfere with an organisation's ability to meet its objectives (Neuman & Baron, 1998). The majority of these behaviours involve passive forms of aggression (withholding some behaviour or resource), which makes it extremely difficult to track (Neuman & Baron, 1998). Obstructionism is covert in nature, and therefore is appealing to potential aggressors. Thus, by using these covert tactics maximum harm can be done to intended victims while minimizing the danger to the individual inflicting the obstructionisms (Björkqvist et al., 1994). Baron and Neuman (1996) found that this passive form of aggressive behaviour (covert aggression) is more prevalent in the work setting than active aggression. Forms of obstructionism include, work slowdowns (Taylor, 1989), employee sabotage (creating 'down time', leaving the work site, 'losing' paper work, 'getting lost',

pulling the fire alarm) (Giacalone & Rosenfeld, 1987), inaction (predictable destruction of resources, e.g. machinery, as a result of deliberate inaction on someone's part) and wastage (e.g. deliberate wastage of resources like raw materials) (Analoui, 1995). Finally, obstructionism manifests itself in behaviours that may detract from organisational effectiveness, anti-citizenship (Youngblood, Trevino & Favia, 1992) or organisational retaliatory behaviour (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

Overt aggression is behaviours that are associated with workplace violence. Homicide is the most serious and visible form of workplace aggression (Neuman et al. 1998). Non-fatal forms of aggression or sexual assault are violent incidents in the work settings, for which data is not easily attained. While the number of physical assaults in the workplace is certainly significant, a vast majority of employees never witness or experience this form of aggression (Neuman & Baron, 1998). Neuman and Baron (1998) surveyed 452 persons: 70.6% had never witnessed physical assault and 20.6% indicated that they had witnessed them rarely. When asked if they had ever personally experienced such an assault, 88.1% indicated that they had not. Property damage, destruction of machinery or goods, passing on defective work, flattening tires, scratching cars, planting computer viruses, deletion of important computer records and writing on company furniture have all been identified as acts of sabotage and vandalism in the workplace (Crino & Leap, 1989; DiBattista, 1991; Giacalone, Riordan, & Rosenfeld, 1997). Sometimes theft is viewed as an action performed for economic gain, and not as an aggressive act (Neuman & Baron, 1996). In other instances, stealing items will cause inconvenience or harm to specific individuals who need those items. In such cases, theft may well constitute an aggressive action (Neuman and Baron 1996, 1998). Some acts of theft may be annoyance motivated and is an example of affective aggression. Greenberg (1990, 1993a, 1994a) for example, suggested that individuals steal from their companies because they believe this is justified for 'getting even'. In the individuals' eyes, their companies are not providing them with fair outcomes –so they steal company property (Greenberg & Scott, 1996).

2.2.3.3 Causes of workplace aggression

Aggression, like other forms of complex behaviour, stems from the interplay of a wide range of social, situational and personal factors (e.g. personality and individual differences) (Neuman & Baron, 1998). Personality traits have the potential to influence perceptions of the environment, emotional reactions and behaviour. Recent research has

illustrated the important role that personality plays in the prediction of WA (Penney, Spector & Fox, 2002). Hence, a short discussion on various causes of WA (Neuman & Baron, 1998) is presented next.

2.2.3.3.1 Social determinates

Several social factors are relevant to aggression in the workplace (e.g. unfair treatment, frustration-inducing events, increased workforce diversity and being exposed to aggression-related norms of behaviour) (Neuman & Baron, 1998). Weide and Abbott (1994) found that 80% of the cases of workplace homicide they studied involved employees who wanted revenge caused by unfair or unjust treatment. Research related to organisational justice (Greenberg, 1990) suggests that, under certain circumstances, perceptions of unfair treatment is associated with conflict (e.g. Crosby, 1976; Mark & Folger, 1984), workplace aggression (Baron & Neuman, 1997; Neuman & Baron, 1997b), employee theft (e.g. Greenberg, 1993, 1994), and negative reactions to employee layoffs (Brockner, Konovsky, Cooper-Schneider, Folger, Martin, & Bies, 1994). The frustration-aggression hypothesis describes interference with goal-directed behaviour, as an antecedent of aggression (Dollard., 1939; Feshbach, 1984; Spector, 1997). In the organisational setting, frustration (unfair or intentional) has been found to be positively correlated with aggression against others, interpersonal hostility, sabotage, strikes, work slowdowns, stealing and employee withdrawal (Spector, 1978, 1997; Neuman & Baron, 1998; Storms & Spector, 1987). In addition, an increase in workforce diversity may lead to tension and interpersonal conflict (Neuman & Baron, 1998). For example, according to Baron and Neuman (1996) the differences (e.g. age, gender, ethnicity, culture and physical or mental capabilities) between individuals can be perceived and generate feelings of negative affect. These feelings, in turn, may result in decreased levels of interpersonal attraction, difficulty in interpersonal communication or mutual stereotyping (e.g. Branscombe & Wann, 1994; Roger, 1983; Schwartz & Struch, (1990) in Geen & Donnerstein, 1993) as well as increased potential aggression.

2.2.3.3.2 Situational determinants

In the workplace, layoffs and downsizing have a more direct effect on aggression (Neuman & Baron, 1998). Victims of layoffs experience frustration and stress (Bronckner et al., 1994), as well as depression, resentment and hostility (Catalano, Novaco & McConnell, 1997). Furthermore, the employees which are left experience distrust in management

(Brockner, 1988; Cascio, 1993) and have to cope with increased workloads (Tomasko, 1990). Baron and Neuman (1998) found that cost cutting (e.g. downsizing, layoffs, budget cuts and pay cuts) and organisational change (restructuring and reengineering) are related to expressions of hostility and obstructionism. Environmental conditions (e.g. hot temperatures, high humidity, extreme cold, poor lighting, air quality, high level of noise) have also been linked to WA (e.g. Anderson et al., 1996; Baron, 1993; Berkowitz, 1993; Cohn & Rotton, 1997).

2.2.3.3.3 Personal determinants

Personal factors include all the characteristics a person brings to the situation, such as personality traits, attitudes and genetic predispositions (Anderson et al., 2001). According to Huesmann et al., (1984) aggression is a highly stable behaviour and an individual's past history of aggression is important in subsequent acts of aggression (e.g. Riggs & O'Leary, 1998). Trait anger is a disposition to experience anger over time and situations (Spielberger, 1996). High trait anger individuals are more likely to respond aggressively to particular situations than are low trait anger individuals because they are more likely to perceive a wider range of situations as anger provoking than do low trait anger individuals (Berkowitz, 1993). Individuals who view aggressive behavior as acceptable or justifiable are more likely to engage in aggression than people who view aggressive behavior as unacceptable or unjustifiable (Bulatao & VandenBos, 1996 cited in Douglas & Martinko, 2001). Skarlicki and Folger (1999) found that the relationship between perceptions of fairness and organisational retaliatory behavior was stronger for employees who exhibited high negative affectivity than for employees who exhibited low negative affectivity. Negative affect reflects the individuals' predisposition to experience negative psychological states such as hostility, sadness, and anxiety (Dupre & Barling, 2008). Inflated or unstable self-esteem (which is akin to narcissism) predicts aggression if self-esteem is threatened (Anderson & Bushman, 2002). As the association between narcissism and aggression will be investigated in this study, an overview of research related to narcissism is presented next. At the end of the chapter an integrated discussion of the association between all the variables (aggression, EI and narcissism) investigated in this research, is presented. The aggression and narcissism link will be further explored in that section (section 2.5).

2.3 NARCISSISM

One possible predictor of aggression in workplace could be the personality construct known as narcissism. There is compelling empirical support for the notion that narcissism may be associated with increased aggression (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998), especially in response to insults or negative evaluation (Rhodewalt & Morf, 1998).

2.3.1. Definition of Narcissism

Narcissism refers to a “pervasive pattern of grandiosity” that is characterised by arrogant or haughty behaviours, feelings of entitlement and superiority, and a lack of empathy for or concern about others (Horton, Bleau, & Drwecki, 2006). Individuals high in narcissism believe they are better than others (Gabriel, Critelli, & Ee, 1984 cited in Horton et al., 2006). Bushman and Baumeister (1998) found that high narcissism will predict aggression following an ego-threat. A recent study found evidence for a combination of narcissism and social rejection as a predictor of anger and aggressive behaviour (Twenge & Campbell, 2003). Rhodewalt, Madrian and Cheney (1998) collected data concerning daily experiences and emotional reactivity on five consecutive days and reported a greater positive mood variability, mood intensity and self esteem instability for highly narcissistic individuals.

Narcissism has a long and varied past as a personality construct (Campbell, Foster, & Finkel, 2002). The construct narcissism takes its name from a Greek myth. Narcissus was a young man who fell in love with his own reflection in a pool and ultimately perished as results of his self-absorption (Baumeister et al., 1996). Bulfinch (1959) cited in Kubarych, Deary and Austin, (2004) describes how the nymph, Echo adores Narcissus but comes to reject her love in favour of his own reflection in the water. Echo pines away because of the unanswered love for Narcissus. Narcissus dies because of the impossible love for himself. In the myth, Narcissus is portrayed as preoccupied with himself, arrogant, and holding self-views close to perfection. Echo is the more fragile type, whose self-worth is strongly dependent on others, and who ultimately cannot even survive without being validated by others. Interestingly, these two character types have merged in what we have come to know as the narcissistic personality (Thomaes, 2007).

In the terminology of modern clinical psychology, such excessive and dysfunctional self-love is characteristic of an individual with a narcissistic personality. Psychodynamic theorists (Freud, 1957; Kernberg, 1975; Kohut, 1971) first described the personality

construct of narcissism. In the clinical tradition and in its extreme form, narcissism is a personality disorder (i.e., narcissistic personality disorder; NPD) that involves grandiose views of self, an inflated sense of entitlement, and exploitive attitudes towards others, fantasies of unlimited power, beauty, success, sensitivity to criticism and disturbance in interpersonal relationships and feelings of entitlement (DSM-IV; American Psychiatric Association, 1994). According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV, 1994), narcissists exaggerate their talents and achievements, demand attention and admiration, expect nothing less than special treatment, are unempathetic, and tend to use others for their own needs. Importantly, and perhaps paradoxically, narcissists also worry obsessively about what others might think of them, and are highly sensitive to circumstances that challenge or disconfirm their grandiosity. Self-regulatory formulation of narcissism is also endorsed by object relations' theories (e.g. Horney, 1950; Kernberg, 1975; Kohut, 1976; Reich, 1960). These theories propose that the need for self-esteem regulation is a result of the narcissist's having, in one way or another, developed an idealized and unrealistic vision of self, which he or she is constantly striving to meet (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993). Narcissists maintain this grandiose self-concept both internally, by defending the self against criticism, associating with high-status others, and seeking admiration and attention (Campbell & Foster, 2002). This has led researchers and clinicians to suggest that the narcissistic self is not only grandiose, but also markedly vulnerable (e.g., DSM-IV, 1994; Kernberg, 1975; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Wallace & Baumeister, 2002). At the same time, the narcissist responds defensively to criticism or threats to self-esteem (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993). Twenge and Campbell (2003) defined narcissism as a complex trait that includes inflated views of self, intra-psychic and interpersonal strategies for maintaining these inflated self-views, and poor relational functioning.

2.3.2. Origin of the concept Narcissism

Empirical investigation of the origins of narcissism is scarce (Horton, Bleau & Drwecki, 2006). The development of a theory for narcissism has been a topic of continuous debate among researchers (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). Given the characterisation of narcissism as a personality disorder, clinical theorists have dominated the discussion about the development of narcissism (Hort et al, 2006). It has been argued that the construct of narcissism is compromised by the contrast between vague psychoanalytic terminology and theory, and more observable elements of the concept (Bradlee & Emmons, 1991).

Havelock Ellis (cited in Raskin & Terry, 1988, p. 890) introduced the concept of narcissism into the psychological literature in 1898 as individuals who are “entirely absorbed in self admiration”.

Freud (1914/1957) cited in Morf and Rhodewalt (1993, p.668) subsequently adopted the psychological construct and coined the term “narcissism”. The concept of narcissism played a critical role in Freud’s clinical thinking. Additionally he used it as a meta-psychological construct to represent a normal stage of infant psychological development (Bradlee et al, 1992). He suggested that narcissism was a libidinal investment in an overvalued ego (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993). Freud conceptualised two types of narcissism: Primary and Secondary narcissism. Primary narcissism is the investment of energy into the ego (self). Freud theorized that some of this energy is later directed to objects (persons), but such object libido can be drawn back to the ego, resulting in a secondary narcissism, setting up an antithesis between ego libido and object libido (Erwin, 2002). Freud’s development and thinking of narcissism followed two separate, however interdependent lines. On the one side he theorised narcissism as a metapsychological construct, whereas on the other, side narcissism served as a diagnostic category (Raskin & Terry, 1988). Freud’s clinical uses for the term narcissism included the following behavioural phenomena: (a) a set of attitudes a person has towards oneself, including self-love, self-admiration and self-aggrandisement, (b) several kinds of fears or vulnerabilities related to a person’s self-esteem that include fear of loss of love and the fear of failure, (c) a general defensive orientation that includes megalomania, idealisation, denial, projection and splitting, (d) motivation in terms of need to be loved as well as striving for self-sufficiency and for perfection and (e) a constellation of attitudes that may characterise a person’s relationship with others (Raskin & Terry, 1988).

Clinical theorists, Kohut (1971, 1976) and Kernberg (1975) both conceptualised narcissism as a normal aspect of self-development that evolves as the individual matures (Cain, Pincus & Ansell, 2008). Within this conceptualisation of narcissism, adults regularly have narcissistic needs that require age-appropriate provision to support and maintain self-cohesion and a realistic sense of self-esteem (Cain et al., 2008). According to Kernberg (1975 as cited in Emmons, 1987) narcissism develops as a consequence of parental rejection and abandonment. This parental-devaluation theory states that because of a cold and rejecting parent, the child defensively withdraws and comes to believe that is it only

himself or herself that can be trusted and relied on, and therefore loved. Kernberg adheres to a stage model of libidinal development sequences of undifferentiated libido followed by autoeroticism, narcissism and then object love, with narcissist individuals not reaching the final stage (Emmons, 1987).

Kohut (1976) conceptualised narcissism as narcissistic libido development into adulthood. According to Emmons (1987), Kohut's theory is actually a development theory of the self, where pathological narcissism can result from the failure to idealise the parents because of rejection or indifference. Kohut proposed that the narcissistic perception of reality leads to a perception by the person that he/she is omniscient with unlimited power, and knowledge. Everyone and everything is an extension of the self, exist to serve the self and is under the control of the self. When there is an inconsistency with this perception, narcissistic rage follows (Brown, 1996). Kernberg (1975) cited in Horton et al. (2006) suggested that narcissism develops as a result of pathological organisation of self (one's belief about the self), idea of self (an idealised image of self) and ideal object (an idealised image of another individual, usually a parent). Kernberg suggests that this pathological organisation is a consequence of parents who are cold and harsh toward a child, but who also regards the child as gifted or special. The narcissistic child "often occupies a pivotal point in their family structure, such as being the only child, or the only 'brilliant' child, or the one who is supposed to fulfil family aspiration" (Horton et al., 2006 p.351).

Rothstein (1979) provided another theory of the development of narcissism, known as object relations theory. Object relation theory suggests that childhood narcissism is a response to a parent's narcissistic use of the child. Narcissism develops when the parent regards the child as a means to satisfy selfish motives, not as an individual to be nurtured. The parents' identity is enmeshed with the child's, and the parent subverts the development of the child's' independent sense of self rather than risk a symbolic loss to his or her own self (Horton, et al., 2006). The narcissistic self is a manifestation of an ongoing search for approval from the idealised object (in this case, the parent, but eventually transferred to other important individuals).

The final perspective on the development of narcissism is offered by Millon (1981) who termed his theory as social learning theory of narcissism. Millon described the development of narcissism not as a response to parental devaluation but rather as a

consequence of parental overvaluation (Emmons, 1987). According to Millon (cited in Emmons, 1987) such unrealistic overvaluation will lead to self-illusion that “cannot be sustained in the outer world” (p.165). Feelings of grandiosity and entitlement, which are characteristic of the narcissistic self, are learned, and even mimicked, from parental behaviour toward the child (Horton, et al., 2006). The core conceptualisation of the abovementioned theories is that narcissist's have in one way or another developed an idealised and unrealistic vision of self, which he or she is constantly striving to meet (e.g. self-esteem regulation) (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993).

2.3.3. Measures of narcissism

Narcissism has encountered a resurgence of theoretical and empirical attention during the last 15 years in personality and social psychology (Emmons, 1987; Rhodewalt & Morf, 1995), due to the development of the NPI.

For more than half a century, the concept of narcissism has been discussed and debated by various groups of scholars (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993). There has been extensive theoretical attention; however, the construct has had little empirical examination, largely because it depends on psychoanalytical theory. In earlier research, clinical interest has produced over 1,000 books and articles on the subject, whereas quantitative research in psychology has produced fewer than 50 articles which relate directly to the measurement or empirical exploration of narcissism (Raskin & Terry, 1988). The limited empirical research of the narcissism construct focused on the development of scales to measure narcissism and subsequently focused on validation evidence for one or more of the scales (Emmons, 1984; Raskin & Terry, 1988). For example, in the workplace narcissism has been researched in connection with defective bosses (Carson & Carson, 1998) and ineffective leadership (Sankowsky, 1995).

The attempts to measure narcissism fall into two global categories. The first category includes scales that attempt to measure narcissism as one variable in a taxonomy of several other (Raskin & Terry, 1988). The second category of empirical efforts to measure narcissism includes scales that were developed apart from any taxonomic consideration, where narcissism is the principle variable interest (Raskin & Terry, 1988). Lack of a suitable measuring instrument hampered the empirical study of narcissism until Raskin and Hall (1979) developed the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) (Emmons, 1984).

The Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) is used to measure individual differences in narcissism in non-clinical populations.

Raskin and Hall (1979) constructed the NPI forced choice questionnaire. The Narcissistic Personality Inventory is based on the DSM - III criteria (Raskin & Terry, 1988). This criteria include (a) a grandiose sense of self-importance and uniqueness, (b) preoccupation with fantasies of unlimited success, power, beauty or ideal love, (c) exhibitionistic – requires constant attention and admiration, (d) entitlement – expectation of special favors without reciprocation and (e) interpersonal exploitiveness (Emmons, 1987). Using the DSM-III criteria for the narcissistic personality, the researchers piloted a list of 220 dichotomous items representing narcissism which was piloted on a sample of undergraduates (Raskin et al., 1979). An internal consistency and item-total correlation strategy was used (Kubarych et al., 2004) which produced the 80 item NPI instrument. In a series of published (Raskin & Hall, 1981) and unpublished follow-up studies, an internal consistency approach was used to produce the 54-item measure of narcissism with high internal consistency (Raskin & Terry, 1988).

Emmons (1984, 1987) performed a principal-component analysis with oblique rotation on the 54-item NPI and extracted four components, which he labelled Leadership/Authority (LA), Superiority/Arrogance (SA), Self-Absorption/Self-Admiration (SS) and Exploitiveness/Entitlement (EE). Each subscale was composed of 9 – 12 non-overlapping items. Of the Emmons factors, Exploitiveness/Entitlement has been by far the most associated with maladaptive behaviours and psychopathology (Kubarych et al., 2004). According to Emmons (1987), Exploitiveness / Entitlement also correlate with mood variability and intensity. The Superiority/Arrogance subscale, however, correlates significantly with mood variability but not intensity (Emmons, 1987). The highest correlation Emmons (1987) found for the total scale score was with the Selfism Scale. The latter is a 28 item scale and was developed by Phares and Erskine (1998) to measure the construct of selfism. The Leadership/Authority factor (from the Emmons study) has been argued to measure an adaptive form of narcissism (Watson et al., 1992). Following the Emmons study, Raskin and Terry (1988) reviewed Emmons's pattern loadings and argued that, since several items loading on the same factors seemed to address different conceptual dimensions, Emmons used a conservative selection criterion in retaining only four factors. They conducted a study within which they performed a principal-components analysis of the

questionnaire. They examined the response characteristics of the 54-item NPI to determine whether each item was monatomic with respect to the overall score. Seven items were dropped because they showed non-monotonic patterns with respect to the overall distribution of the total scale, and negative or near zero correlations with the total scores. Of the 47-item remaining items, a further seven were also dropped because of poor factor loadings, leaving a 40-item NPI which correlated 0.98 with the 54-item NPI (Raskin & Terry, 1988).

The NPI measures narcissism along a continuum, extreme manifestations represent pathological narcissism and the less extreme form reflects a personality trait (Morf et al., 2001). Consistent with the DSM grandiosity characteristics, the NPI correlates positively with high self-reported self esteem (e.g., Emmons, 1984, 1987; Raskin, Novacek & Hogan, 1991; Raskin & Terry, 1988; Rhodewalt & Morf, 1995) and self-focused attention (Emmons, 1987). It is also associated with need for power (Carroll, 1987), and uniqueness (Emmons, 1984), as well as with a lack of discrepancy between the actual and perceived self (Rhodewalt & Morf, 1998). It also correlates positively with hostility (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Raskin et al., 1991; Rhodewalt & Morf, 1995). Furthermore, Morf & Rhodewalt (2001) found that people who score high on the NPI will hold positive self-views and also have the most adversarial view of others. Rhodewalt and Morf (1995) also found associations of the NPI with high cynical hostility and antagonism.

The most influential account of normal narcissism conceives the syndrome as a dynamic self-regulatory system aimed at maintaining and creating grandiose views of self (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). According to this account, the vulnerability of the narcissistic self drives narcissistic individuals to seek continuous external validation. Baumeister and Vohs (2001) found that narcissistic individuals tend to interpret social situations in terms of their own reflections and protect their self-esteem with self-regulatory strategies accordingly. Rhodewalt and colleagues (1998) (cited in Thomaes, 2007) demonstrated that narcissists' self-esteem is much more reactive and subject to fluctuation in response to negative evaluations, than is the self-esteem of less narcissistic individuals. In addition, Smalley and Stake (1996) and Bushman, Baumeister, Thomaes, Ryu, Begeer, and West (2006) found that narcissist react angrily and aggressively to negative evaluations and tend to externalize blame.

2.4. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

2.4.1. The Origins of Emotional Intelligence

Recent research findings suggest that higher Emotional Intelligence (EI) is related to positive outcomes such as prosocial behaviour, parental warmth and positive peer and family relations (Mayer et al., 1999; Rice, 1999; Salovey, Mayer, Caruso & Lopes, 2001) and that EI play a significant role in the work environment (George, 2000; Boyatzis & McKee & Goleman, 2002; Law et al., 2004; Sy & Côte, 2004).

The conceptualisation of EI appear to lie in the limitation of traditional measurements of 'rational thinking' (e.g. I.Q test) to predict success in life (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000a). It is well known that the interest in the concept propelled the study of the construct ahead of measurement development in terms of reliability and validity. For this reason many authors have questioned EI because a lack of available concrete models and measures (Fox, 2000). The origin of the EI construct lies in the construct of Social Intelligence, coined by Thorndike (1920) (cited in Dulewicz, Higgs & Slaski, 2003, p.228) which he defined as, "...the ability to perceive one's own and others' internal states motives, and behaviours, and act toward them optimally on the basis of that information" However, Gardner's model of multiple intelligence (1983) included two varieties, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence, which has provided the foundation for the recent work on EI (cited in Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p.5) and has contributed to reviving EI theory in psychology (Goleman, 2001).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) were the first to theoretically explain the construct of EI and use the term "emotional intelligence" in an academic publication. Their original model postulated that EI is the ability to understand feeling in the self and others, and to use these feelings as informational guides for solving problems and regulating behaviour (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). According to this definition, EI was defined to consist of three components: (a) appraisal and expression of emotions, (b) regulation of emotions, and the (c) utilisation of emotional information in thinking and acting (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). This mental ability model of EI makes predictions about the internal structure of the intelligence. The model make further predictions that emotionally intelligent individuals are more likely to: (a) have grown up in biosocially adaptive households, (b) be non-defensive, (c) be able to reframe emotions effectively, (d) choose good emotional role models, (e) be able to communicate and discuss feelings and (f) develop problem-solving, leadership abilities or spiritual feelings

abilities (Mayer & Salovey, 1995). Daniel Goleman's book (Goleman, 1995) certainly created intense interest in the field of EI and the popularity of the book led to a range of books and articles which examine the application and development of EI (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000).

2.4.2. Theoretical models and measures of Emotional Intelligence

EI was popularised and introduced with a mixture of sensationalism and science. Since its inception, opposing views with different definitions and models of EI has developed. One view holds that EI includes almost everything related to success that is not measured by IQ (e.g. trait EI and mixed models) (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995, 1998), whereas the other (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000) argues for a more restrictive view with EI being the ability to perceive and understand emotional information (e.g. information processing model).

There are both mental ability and mixed models of EI. The ability model focuses on emotions themselves and their interaction with thought (Mayer & Salovey, 1997); Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Ability models place EI within the sphere of intelligence, in which emotion and thought interact in meaningful and adaptive ways. In this view, EI is much like verbal or spatial intelligence, except that it operates on, and with, emotional content (Caruso et al., 2002). The mixed model approach include not only emotion and intelligence per se, but also motivation, non-ability dispositions and traits, and global personal and social functioning states of consciousness and social activity, as a single EI entity (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995). According to critics of this approach, the resulting conglomerate of traits, dispositions, skills, competencies, and abilities is labeled EI, even though the model predominately involves neither emotion nor intelligence (Caruso et al., 2002).

2.4.2.1. Mayer and Salovey's ability model of Emotional Intelligence

The concepts of interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence (Gardner, 1983) and emotional literacy (Steiner, 1984) were the building blocks of what Mayer and Salovey first termed EI (Mayer and Salovey, 1990).

In a reformulation of their original 1990 model, Mayer and Salovey (1997) developed a revised framework to refine the original conceptualisation of EI into cognitive-emotional terms. The ability model of EI centers on a person's skill in recognizing emotional information and carrying out abstract reasoning using this emotional information (Mayer &

Salovey (1997). More specifically, according to these authors, EI involves the, "...abilities to perceive, appraise, and express emotion; to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 10). Numerous empirical research studies support the four-branch model (e.g. Mayer et al., 1999; Roberts, Zeidner & Matthews, 2001).

The first branch of the ability model is identifying emotions. This branch includes a number of skills, such as the ability to identify feelings, express emotions accurately and differentiate between real and phony emotional expressions. The second branch, emotional facilitation of thought, includes the ability to use emotions to redirect attention to important events, to generate emotions that facilitate decision making, to use moods swings as a means to consider multiple points of views and harness different emotions to encourage different approaches to problem solving. The third branch, understanding emotions, is the ability to understand complex emotions and consequence of emotions and the ability to understand relationships among emotions. The fourth branch of the ability model is managing emotions. Managing emotions includes the ability to stay aware of one's emotions, even those that are unpleasant, the ability to determine whether an emotion is clear or typical and the ability to solve emotion-laden problems without necessarily suppressing negative emotions (Mayer, et al., 2000). According to this definition Mayer and Salovey (1997) connected emotion to intelligence and positioned their theory into one that viewed EI as a cognitive ability (Mayer et al., 2000).

The researchers developed a multitask, ability measure of EI, the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS), based on the four-branch ability model of EI (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 1989). In follow-up research, a more recent measure of ability EI, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000) was developed. The MSCEIT is shorter and has adequate internal consistency reliability.

2.4.2.2. Goleman's competency based model

In addition to the Mayer and Salovey conceptualisation, EI was also described in the very popular book "Emotional Intelligence" by Goleman (1995), where the author, with meager empirical support claimed that, "...EI may be the best predictor of success in life" (as cited in TIME, 1995). Goleman (1995, 1998) based his work on the initial Salovey and Mayer (1990)

definition but added components such as zeal, persistence, and social skills. According to Goleman (2001), a definition of EI would include the abilities to recognise and regulate emotions in oneself and others. Goleman created a mixed model with five categories: (i) self-awareness of one's internal states, preferences, resources and intuitions; (ii) self-regulation of one's internal states, resources and impulses; (iii) motivational tendencies that guide and facilitate reaching goals; (iv) empathy towards others' feelings, needs and concerns; and (v) social skills to assist one in inducing desirable responses in others (Goleman, 1995, 1998).

Goleman (1995) suggested that successful life outcomes are more a function of emotional, rather than cognitive intelligence. Goleman (2001, p.27) defines EI as "a learned capability which is based on emotional intelligence which results in outstanding performance at work". This competency-based model of EI has been designed specifically for workplace applications (Goleman, 2001). The model predicts exceptional leadership qualities, management skills and success of individuals in organisations (Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee, 2000; Rozell, Pettijohn & Parker, 2004).

Goleman's (1995) Emotional Quotient (EQ) test endeavors to measure emotional abilities, general social competencies and "character". Goleman, together with Richard Boyatzis, developed the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI). The ECI is a 360-degree instrument that gathers information from the self, subordinate, peer and supervisor on twenty social and emotional competencies (Gowing, 2001). Little research is available on the validity of the instrument, and there is little evidence of convergent or discriminant validity with other measures of different or similar constructs (Gowing, 2001).

2.4.2.3. Bar-On's non-cognitive model of EI

The result of this popularisation of the construct was a broad range of approaches to the subject, from the Mayer-Salovey ability - based conception, to the lists of competencies by Goleman (Goleman, 1998), to approaches centering on psychological well being (Bar-On, 1997). Bar-On (1997, p. 16) for example, defines EI as, "...an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures". Bar-On's (1997) model of EI was intended to answer the question, "Why are some individuals more able to succeed in life than others?"

The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory was based on Bar-On's professional experience and his review of the literature (Schutte, Malouf, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, & Dornheim, 1998). Bar-On (1997) developed the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), which conceptualises EI to consist of a collection of interrelated emotional, personal and social abilities that determine the ability to cope with environmental pressures and demands. The EQ-i (Bar-On, 1997) is a 133-item inventory that measures such traits as emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualisation, independence, problem solving, reality testing, flexibility, stress tolerance, happiness and optimism. Bar-On (1997) identified five broad areas of functioning relevant to success: (i) intrapersonal components such as emotional self-awareness, self-actualisation and independence; (ii) interpersonal components such as empathy, healthy interpersonal relationships and social responsibility; (iii) adaptability components such as problem solving and flexibility; (iv) stress management components such as stress tolerance and impulse control; and (v) general mood components such as happiness and optimism.

The EQ-i has been correlated with a number of other scales (Bar-On, 1997) but there are few reported predictions of actual behavioural outcomes (Mayer et al., 2000). Bar-On's model places more emphasis on adaptation to environmental demands, and it seems to exclude cognitive skills but includes cognitive abilities, such as problem solving (Zeidner, Matthews & Roberts, 2004).

Critics suggest the EQ-i may be characterised as a kind of personality inventory, and may also attempt to measure intellectual and emotional dimensions (Robins, 2002). According to Conte (2005), it is not clear how the composite scales are conceptually related to EI and Matthews and Zeidner (2002) note that the theory behind the measure is vague. Bar-On's model is viewed as a mixed model because it correlates high with mental abilities (such as problem solving) and personality traits (such as optimism) (Mayer et al., 2000).

2.4.2.4. Other measures of EI

A number of other approaches to and measures of EI have been developed, which has not risen to the level of recognition as other theories and measures (e.g. MSCEIT, EQ-i and ECI).

Based on Salovey and Mayer's model (1990) of EI, Schutte et al., (1998) developed and validated a self-report scale within the trait EI framework. The questionnaire, the SSRI by Schutte et al. (1998) comprises of 33 items and attempts to measure emotion management (in self and others), emotion perception and emotion utilisation. Schutte et al. (1998) claimed that their measure is conceptually similar to Salovey and Mayer's model. The scale showed evidence of validity and scores were related to eight of nine measures predicted to be related to the EI (Schutte et al., 1998). Petrides and Furnham (2000) found that Schutte et al's (1998) SSRI has many psychometric problems and criticised its low reliability and validity. They argued that the test cannot measure a general EI factor and has not been successfully mapped on Salovey and Mayer's model (1990) (Petrides & Furnham, 2000).

Mayer and Gaschke (cited in Salovey & Mayer, 2002) demonstrated that individuals continually reflect upon their feelings by monitoring, evaluating and regulating them. They term this process the meta-mood experience and developed what is called the State Meta-Mood Scale to measure individuals' moment-by-moment changes in reflection about ongoing moods (Salovey, Stroud, Woolery & Epel, 2002). The Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS) (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, Palfai, 1995) was developed to measure more stable individual differences. The TMMS is composed of three subscales: (a) Attention to feelings (i.e. perceived ability to attend to moods and emotions), (b) Clarity (i.e. the perceived ability to discriminate clearly among feelings) and (c) Repair (i.e. the perceive ability to regulate moods).

Another overlapping concept of the mixed model of EI (Mayer et al., 2000) is the concept of Alexithymia (Bagby, Parker & Taylor, 1994). The Alexithymia construct describes a deficit in the cognitive processing of affect (Palmer, Donaldson & Stough, 2002). The ability to perceive and express emotions is assessed by using the Twenty-Item Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20; Bagby et al., 1994). The measure contains three latent dimensions: difficulties in identifying and describing subjective feelings, a limited imaginable capacity and an externally oriented style of thinking (Palmer et al., 2002). The TAS-20 was designed to measure the limited ability to perceive and express emotions. Research has also shown that the TAS-20 is both a reliable and valid measure (Palmer et al., 2002).

In an attempt to deduce the most definitive dimensions of EI from the plethora of models and measures that existed at the time, Palmer and Stough (2001) performed a large factor

analytic study involving six of the predominant and representative measures of EI, including: (i) the Mayer, Salovey and Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Mayer, Salovey et al., 1999); (ii) the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (Bar-On 1997); (iii) the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (Salovey & Mayer, 1995); (iv) the Twenty Item Toronto Alexithymia Scale-II (TAS-20; Bagby et al., 1994); (v) the scale by Schutte, et al., 1998); and (vi) the scale by Tett, Wang, Fischer, Martinez, Griebler and Linkovich (1997). The result of this study was the development of the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT). The SUEIT is a uni-dimensional empirically based model of EI which consists of five factors that represent a set of related abilities concerning how effectively emotions are dealt with in the workplace (Palmer & Stough, 2001).

The five factors include: (i) Emotional Recognition and expression (the ability to identify one's own feelings and emotional states and to express them to others);(ii) Understanding emotions (external) (the ability to identify emotions and pick up on emotional-overtones in the environment); (iii) Emotions direct cognition (the ability to incorporate feelings in daily reasoning, problem solving and decision making); (iv) Emotional management (the ability to effectively regulate and manage positive and negative emotions within oneself and others); and (v) Emotional control (the ability to effectively control strong emotional states experienced at work such as anger, stress, anxiety and frustration and to prevent strong emotions from affecting work performance).

The Genos EI 70-item inventory was preceded by the SUIET (Palmer & Stough, 2001). Gignac (2005) examined the factor structure associated with the SUIET in an extensive CFA investigation and concluded that the SUIET measured a total of 9 dimensions, seven of which were substantively relevant to EI. The seven substantive dimensions identified by Gignac (2005) were: Emotional Recognition, Personal Expression, Understanding Emotions External, Affirmation of Emotions, Emotional Management of the Self, Emotional Management of Others and Emotional Control. Based on this empirical investigation (Gignac, 2005) it was decided to revise the SUIET. Focus groups with human resources professionals were conducted to ascertain their views of an ideal measure of EI for the work environment. Thus, based on the quantitative information reported in Gignac (2005), and qualitative information derived from the HR focus groups, a revised version of the SUIET was developed. The revised psychometric measure is known as the Genos EI inventory. The items in the Genos EI self report inventory is designed to measure the frequency with

which an individual displays emotionally intelligent behaviours across seven dimensions. The items are scored on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 'Almost Never' to 'Almost Always'. The Genos EI model is purely relevant to the demonstration of EI skills across the following seven subscales are: (i) Emotional Self-Awareness (measures the relative frequency with which an individual consciously identifies their emotions at work); (ii) Emotional Expression (measures the relative frequency with which an individual expresses their emotions in an appropriate way at work); (iii) Emotional Awareness of Others (measures the relative frequency with which an individual identifies the emotions expressed by others in the workplace); (iv) Emotional Reasoning (measures the relative frequency with which an individual incorporates emotionally relevant information in the process of decision making or problem solving at work); (v) Emotional Self-Management (measures the relative frequency with which an individual manages their own emotions at work); (vi) Emotional Management of Others (measure the relative frequency with which individuals manages the emotions of others at work), and (vii) Emotional Self-Control (measures the relative frequency with which an individual controls their strong emotions appropriately in the workplace).

2.4.3. The impact and benefits of Emotional Intelligence

2.4.1. Value of EI

Considerable research has correlated workplace success and success in interpersonal relationships with EI (e.g. Bastian, Burn, & Nettelbeck, 2005). Research found that EI correlated positively with social network size and control (Ciarrochi, Forgas & Mayer, 2001), positive relations with others, perceived parental support and fewer negative interactions with close friends (Lopes, Salovey & Straus, 2003), prosocial behaviour, parental warmth and positive peer and family relations (Mayer et al., 1999; Rice, 1999; Salovey, Mayer & Caruso, 2001), as well as more optimism (Schutte et al., 2001). Some findings suggest that EI is negatively related to involvement in self-destructive behaviours such as deviant behaviour, poor relationship with friends, cigarette smoking, alcohol consumption and illegal drug use (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Trinidad & Johnson, 2001), unauthorised absences and exclusions from schools (Petrides, Frederickson & Furnham, 2004) and depression (Dawda & Hart, 2000; Schutte et al., 1998).

2.4.2. EI and Leadership

Researchers and practitioners recognise the importance of both cognitive intelligence and EI for gaining success in leadership (George, 2000; Sosik & Megerian, 1999). Changes in organisations structure (e.g., hierachal to flat structure) increase the need for leaders to be more interpersonally effective (Blackman, 2001). Goleman (1998) proposed that effective leaders, deal effectively with emotions and may contribute to how one handles the needs of individuals, how one motivates employees and make them ‘feel’ at work. There are an increasing number of empirical research studies which assess the relationship between EI and effective leadership. For example, studies by Barling, Slater and Kelloway (2000) and Palmer, Walls, Burgess and Stough (2001) examined the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership paradigm and EI. These studies provided empirical justification for the theorised relationship between EI and effective leadership (Gardner & Stough, 2002).

2.4.3. EI and Job Performance

Research also suggests that EI and job performance are positively related (Côte & Miner, 2006). Various studies have found that EI predicts the performance of undergraduate students on a single task (Lam & Kirby, 2002), the performance of managers and professionals (Sue-Chan & Latham, 2004), the collective performance of account officers (Bachman, Stein, Campbell & Sitarenios, 2000), sales performance (Wong, Law & Wong, 2004) and supervisory ratings of job performance (Slaski & Cartwright, 2002, Law, Wong & Song, 2004).

Previous research by Law et al., (2004) and Wong et al., (2002) found that employees with high EI have higher job performance, suggesting that employees with high EI are more adept at using their emotions to facilitate job performance. Employees with high EI seems to be more aware of how certain emotions can influence their behaviour and work outcomes and are more skilful at regulating their emotions in such a manner that they are aligned with the requirements of the task. Employees with high EI are likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction because they utilise their ability to appraise and manage emotions in others (Wong et al., 2002). Cooper and Sawaf (1997) proposed that employees with higher EI are more likely to have higher levels of job satisfaction because they are more attentive to appraising and regulating their own emotions than are employees with low EI. Such employees may also be better in identifying feelings, frustration and stress, subsequently

regulating those emotions to reduce stress (Sy, Tram & O'Hara, 2006). In addition, Cooper and Sawaf, (1997) have shown that employees with higher EI are more resilient because they are able to understand the causes of stress better. Shimazu, Shimazu and Odahara (2004) claim that these skills become significant in groups settings where employees with higher EI can use their skills to foster positive interactions that will help assist in increasing their own morale, as well as the moral of the group. This should contribute positively to the experience of job satisfaction.

2.4.4. Life Satisfaction

EI has also been theoretically related to several important human values (e.g. quality of interpersonal relationships, empathy), effective reasoning in occupations which involve emotional reasoning (e.g. creativity, leadership, sales and psychotherapy) (Bar-On, 1997, Goleman, 1995, Palmer & Stough, 2001) and life satisfaction (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Several studies have examined the relationship between EI and Life Satisfaction (Bar-On, 1997; Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi, 2000; Martinez-Pons, 1997, 1999; Mayer et al., 2000). Moderate positive correlations between self-report EI measures (e.g. EQ-i, Bar-On-On, the TMMS, Martinez-Pons) and Life Satisfaction (e.g. the total EQ scale score of the EQ-i correlated with the Kirkcaldy Quality of Life Questionnaire $r= 0.41$, $p< 0.001$, as reported by Bar-On, 1997) has been found. Research with the performance-based measure of EI (e.g. MEIS, Mayer et al., 2000a) has found that EI correlated with life satisfaction ($r=0.22$, $p<0.05$) even after controlling for IQ and personality variables, suggesting that EI accounts for unique variance in life satisfaction.

Palmer, Donaldson and Stough (2002) also examined the relationship between EI and life satisfaction. EI was assessed using the modified version of the TMMS (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey & Palfai, 1995) and TAS-20 scale (Bagby et al., 1994). Life Satisfaction was assessed using the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS, Diener, Wolsic & Fujita, 1995). Their findings provided support for the notion that EI accounts for individual differences in life satisfaction. The Clarity subscale of the TMMS and the Difficulty Identifying Feelings sub-scale of the TAS-20 were found to predict life satisfaction, over and above both positive and negative affect (Palmer et al., 2002).

2.5. The relationships between Workplace Aggression, Narcissism and Emotional Intelligence

2.5.1. Workplace Aggression and Narcissism

According to Baumeister et al. (1996) and Bushman and Baumeister (1998) the “threatened egotism” hypothesis may be a plausible explanation for aggression by a narcissistic person against the source of an ego threat (e.g. another person). The threatened egotism hypothesis describes the combination of highly favourable self-appraisals and an ego-threat, that is, some person or circumstance challenging or denying the favourable appraisal. Stucke and Sporer (2002) confirmed this relation between narcissism, self-concept clarity, anger and aggression. This offered evidence for the assumptions that people with inflated, unstable self-views are prone to angry and aggressive reactions (e.g. verbal aggression) after an ego threat event.

Reich (1960) cited in Stucke and Sporer (2002) claimed that early theories about high narcissism could be considered as a form of defensive maintenance of the self-esteem. Kernberg (1975) and Kohut (1976) have theorised that underneath the inflated self image of the narcissist there is a weak and fragmented self and that, to sustain the image, the narcissist is dependent on others to provide confirmation of the grandiose ego ideal. The fragile self-esteem of a narcissist causes them to be highly sensitive toward, and intolerant to criticism; their response to negative feedback is typically, “...disdain, rage, or defiant counterattack” (American Psychiatric Association, 1994, p. 659).

The threatened egotism theory of Bushman and Baumeister (1998, 1996) contradicts longstanding theories as it proposes that high, and not low self-esteem, produces high aggression. Based on the theory of threatened egotism it is suggested that the individual difference characteristic of narcissism may be useful in predicting workplace aggression (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Kernis, Grannemann & Barclay, 1989). In addition, Baumeister et al., (1996) proposed that violence tends to result from very positive views of self that are threatened by others. In their analysis, hostile aggression was an expression of the self’s rejection of esteem-threatening evaluations received from other people. Baumeister et al., (1996) argued that individuals with high self-esteem (narcissists) are more prone to aggressive behaviour, particularly in response to stimuli (negative feedback, provocation) perceived as a threat to their self-esteem. To support their theory, the authors

reviewed evidence from a wide range of areas including laboratory aggression; domestic violence, murder; assault and violence exerted by political groups (see Baumeister et al., 1996). Baumeister et al. (1996) stipulate that the threat to self-esteem precipitates aggression by eliciting negative affectivity, i.e. anger. In addition, Penney and Spector (2002) proposed that individuals high in narcissism would be more likely to engage in CWB (i.e. workplace aggression), especially in response to perceived threats to their ego. Both real-life events and previous psychological research suggest that narcissism might be a crucial moderator of aggressive and anger reactions to negative feedback (rejection) (Twenge & Campbell, 2003). The link between narcissism and aggression has been firmly established in adults (e.g. Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Bushman, Bonacci, van Dijk, & Baumeister, 2003; Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robins, Moffitt & Caspi, 2005; Konrath, Bushman, & Campbell, 2006; Stucke & Sporer, 2002; Twenge & Campbell, 2003). A recent series of studies found the highest levels of aggression in narcissistic individuals with high self-esteem (Bushman, Baumeister, Thomaes, Ryu, Begeer, & West, 2006).

As discussed, narcissism is a complex trait (Twenge & Campbell, 2003) that includes views of self, intrapsychic and interpersonal strategies for maintaining these inflated self views, and poor relationship functioning (Morf, Weir & Davidov, 2001). Narcissists also maintain their inflated self-views interpersonally by seeking to dominate others (Carrol, 1987) and showing off (Buss & Chiodo, 1991). Narcissists distort their own positive contributions to tasks and blame others for failures (Campbell et al., 2000; Farwell & Wohlwend-Lloyd, 1998; John & Robbins, 1994). They make derogatory remarks to competitors (Morf et al., 1993) and individuals who give them unflattering feedback (Kernis & Sun, 1994). They have highly positive self-views in the domain of physical attractiveness (Campbell, Rudich, & Sedikides 2002; Gabriel, Critelli & Ee, 1994). Narcissist' self-views are unstable and associated with highly unstable self-esteem (Rhodewalt, Madrian & Cheney, 1998). Stucke and Sporer (2002) suggested that individuals with such inflated and extremely positive self-views are unstable and insecure, and at the same time might be prone to anger, aggression and emotional reactivity, labelled as narcissistic rage when their positive self-view is threatened by negative feedback.

Psychological research also supports the view that narcissism is linked to increased violence and aggression (Twenge et al., 2003). Based on a broad review of empirical research, narcissism appears to be an important factor in a range of violent incidents, from

marital violence to rape (Baumeister, Catanese & Wallace, 2002, Baumeister et al., 1996). Narcissism was also linked to aggression in a laboratory situation (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). In addition, it has been noted that narcissism is associated with unstable high self-esteem (Rhodewalt et al., 1998). Hence, narcissists rely on several strategies (e.g. derogating the source of the threat and devaluating the negative feedback) to maintain their inflated self-beliefs. When such individuals are confronted with failure, it can be accompanied by anger (Rhodewalt et al., 1998). On clinical and theoretical grounds, Kernberg (1975) cited in Bushman et al., (1998) proposed that narcissism includes patterns of rage that began in response to parental rejection. Rejection by others during adulthood could reactivate that rage. Contrary to Kernberg, Millon (1981) proposed that narcissism stems from an individual having parents who overvalued him or her as a child and instilled a sense of entitlement and deservingness, which clearly could generate rage whenever events fail to confirm this inflated sense (cited in Bushman et al, 1998).

2.5.2 Emotional Intelligence and Narcissism

To summarize, Bushman and Baumeister (1998) found that aggressiveness and aggression was associated with narcissistic characteristics. When narcissists experience an ego-threat they respond to negative feedback with anger (Rhodewalt et al., 1998) and aggression (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). The narcissistic personality is also characterised by an indifference to others, lack of empathy and interpersonal exploitiveness. Narcissism is furthermore often associated with poor relational functioning (Twenge & Campbell, 2003). Morf (2006) recognised the grandiose and vulnerable aspect of narcissism by suggesting that while narcissists posses an overly, highly positive sense of self, they also simultaneously possess a covertly fragile and vulnerable sense of self, making them constantly dependent of obtaining validation and affirmation from their social environment and interpersonal relationships. Instead of intimacy, narcissists seem willing to use or exploit relationships with others for their own ends (Biscardi & Schill, 1995; Campbell, 1999). Watson, Grisham, Trotter & Biderman (1984) cited in Morf (1996) reported that narcissist have lower levels of empathy. Carrol (1987) also reported that narcissist have low levels of (intimacy (Carrol, 1987).

Empathy is related to the appraisal and expression of emotion in others and is the ability to understand and experience another person's feelings or emotions (Wispe, 1986). Empathy is a contributor to EI (it is often included in EI models, for example, the Bar-On

EQ-i model, Bar-On 1997) and is an important skill which enables people to provide useful social support and maintain positive interpersonal relationship (Batson, 1987). Therefore, it is argued that narcissists may have poor interpersonal relationships and show a lack of empathy, whilst struggling to appraise the emotions and feelings of others. On a broader level, and in the absence of empirical research on the association between aggression and EI, it is furthermore argued that higher narcissism will be associated with lower EI.

Mikolajczak, Nelis, Hansenne and Quoidbach (2008) report that trait EI promoted the use and appropriate choice of adaptive strategies in the case of anger, fear, jealousy, stress and shame. Narcissists have an inflated sense of self and continuously need to uphold this false sense of self. As noted, narcissists get angry when they receive failure feedback (Rhodewalt & Morf, 1998). Emotional regulation refers to the process through which an individual influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience or express these emotions (Gross, 1998). Hence, is it argued that higher narcissism will probably be associated with lower EI (i.e. low emotional management and control abilities) as low EI individuals have less of a capacity to access adaptive coping strategies when experiencing negative / strong emotions. This lack of regulation abilities associated with low EI in the high narcissist may also lead to more verbal / psychological aggression. Narcissists with low EI will not be able to effectively regulate their feelings of shame and anger, which will most probably lead to verbal abuse or other forms of aggression.

From previous research it is clear that narcissists experience poor interpersonal relationships and little social support. Research also confirms a definite positive relationship between trait EI and the quality and quantity of social support (Austin, Saklofske & Egan, 2005; Mikolajczak, Menil & Luminet 2007). Moreover, studies have shown that efficient regulation of emotions was essential to ensure high-quality social relationships (Keltner & Kring, 1998, Lopes, Salovey, Côté & Beers, 2005). This research provides further grounds to argue that an inverse relationship may be expected between narcissism and EI.

2.5.3 Emotional Intelligence and Aggression

The workplace environment can induce strong emotions, as it is the source of both physical (e.g. money) and psychological needs (e.g. esteem) fulfilment (Fox & Spector, 2002). Individuals in the workplace will monitor situations, and those deemed as particularly relevant for enhancing or hurting well-being will tend to induce strong emotions. These emotions will produce action tendencies and intentions that might enhance positive and reduce negative (i.e. WA) states (Fox & Spector, 2002). Emotions influence and represent the immediate responses to situations that are perceived as stressful in the workplace and can even undermine rational selection of optimal courses of action (Lazarus, 1991; Leith & Baumeister, 1996; Lovallo, 1997; Payne, 1999). Experimental and social psychology evolved from an initial focus on frustration mainly as a situational condition (Dollard et al., 1939) to modern theories. The modern theories incorporate a variety of negative emotional states in response to situational frustration and other environmental conditions. Injustice and stressful conditions have been specifically linked to negative emotions and both aggression and CWB (e.g. Fox et al., 2001). For example, Spector and colleagues (Chen & Spector, 1992; Fox & Spector, 1999; Fox et al., 2001) reported significant positive correlations between negative emotions (e.g. frustration, anger and anxiety) and a variety of CWB (e.g. sabotage, interpersonal aggression, absenteeism and theft).

Emotions play a central role in human interaction and serves as an adaptive function in response to environmental events that have implications for survival (Plutchik, 1998). The role of emotion is to energise the individual physiologically and to induce appropriate action (Fox & Spector, 2002). The concept of EI is rooted in the idea that there is a link between reason and emotion (Ciarrochi, Forgas & Mayer, 2001) and that emotional and intellectual reasoning are integral to human success and survival (Brackett & Salovey, 2006). The abilities that make up EI (e.g. perception of emotions, regulation of affective states and the use of emotional knowledge) have been hypothesised to relate to psychological adaptation (Mayer et al., 1995; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Schutte, et al., 1998). Salovey and Mayer (1999) and Jordan, Ashkanasy, Häuper and Hooper (2002) have argued that taken together, the four dimensions of EI can moderate employees' emotional reactions to negative outcomes and their ability to cope with the associated stress. Salovey & Mayer (1999) argued that higher levels of EI can promote effective coping by decreasing the extent to which individuals ruminate on negative events, by promoting emotional disclosure and by increasing individuals' proclivity to seek social support after negative events occur. Jordan

et al. (2002) suggested that people high on EI tend to deal with their negative emotional reactions in ways that promote a productive result. The essence of their argument is that people high on EI are able to cope better with stressful events (e.g. frustration) and therefore have less extreme reactions (e.g. less aggression) to such events.

EI has been shown to be an important factor that determines success in life and general psychological well-being (Bar-On, 2001; Goleman, 1995). EI enables people to recognise their own and other people's emotions, as well as make appropriate choices for thinking and action (Cooper et al., 1998; Mayer & Salovey (1997) and is an important adaptive mechanism for helping individuals to interact with their work environment (Svyantek & Rahim, 2002). EI has been described as the ability to use the awareness and sensitivity to discern the feelings underlying interpersonal communication and to resist the temptation to respond impulsively and thoughtlessly, but instead to act from receptivity, authenticity and candour (Ryback, 1998).

To the knowledge of the author, studies which explore the relationship between EI and WA are scarce. One particular theoretical research paper, which explores the relationship between WA and EI, is based on a theoretical model and not empirical results (Quebbeman & Rozell, 2002). Quebbeman and Rozell (2002) presented a theoretical model of EI and dispositional affectivity as moderators of workplace aggression. The model was based on the five components of EI, as defined by Goleman (1995), which include self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills. Two components from Goleman's model, self-awareness and self-regulation have a strong link to behavior choice because it encompasses self-control, adaptability and self-monitoring within a situational context (Quebbeman, 2002). According to Goleman (1995) self-awareness is the keystone of EI. Knowing one's emotions (i.e. possessing the ability to monitor feelings on an ongoing basis) is important to psychological insight and self-understanding. Self-awareness impacts the ways in which individuals react to perceived injustice. Emotional management or self regulation is the second core competency of EI and involves managing one's internal states, impulses and resources (Goleman, 1995). This element of EI includes self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability and innovation. Those individuals that are highly aware of their feelings may have a clearer emotional picture of events. It was argued that individuals with higher EI and high positive affect were more likely to react to perceived injustices with adaptive/constructive behaviors (Quebbeman & Rozell, 2002). According to

research by Carmeli (2003), intelligent individuals with high EI, experience continuous positive moods and feelings that generate higher levels of satisfaction and well-being, compared to individuals with lower EI who more regularly experience disappointment, depression and anger (Carmeli, 2003). This might be an indication that people with a higher level of EI will experience less anger and subsequent aggression in their workplace, when faced with stressors (e.g. perceived in justice) than their lower EI counterparts.

2.5.4 The interrelationship between Narcissism, EI and Aggression

According to the job stress/emotion/CWB model presented by Fox and Spector (1999), it is suggested that CWB (e.g. WA) and job stress are responses to job stressors at work. Furthermore, the theory of threatened egotism argues that when narcissists encounter ego-threatening information, negative emotions such as anger, (Rhodewalt et al., 1998) and frustration is elicited, which may lead to aggression. This portion of the theory of threatened egotism mirrors Spector's model of organisational frustration (Spector, 1978; Spector, 1997). According to Spector's model, an individual will experience frustration if he or she interprets an event or situation at work as interfering with a goal. Studies in the domain of organisational frustration indicated that frustrating events, which interfere with employees' goal attainment and/or maintenance in organisational settings, might cause aggressive behaviours, theft and substance use at work (Chen & Spector, 1992; Spector, 1997; Storms & Spector, 1987) as well as latent hostility (e.g., Keenan & Newton, 1984).

Chen and Spector (1992) found that workplace stress and frustration were significantly correlated with hostility, interpersonal aggression and intentions to quit. An important environmental stimulant of aggression may be the presence of stress in the workplace (Chen & Spector, 1992, Neuman & Baron, 1998). Stress can result from frustration or triggering inducing events (Neuman & Baron, 1998) and negative performance feedback (Geddes & Baron, 1997). Preceding arguments have been put forward which suggest that narcissists' one possible goal is being better than everyone else, and thus any information that indicates otherwise would be a source of frustration. The individual's experience of the emotional reaction (e.g. anger) caused by frustration (e.g. negative feedback) could range from "minor annoyance to rage" (Spector, 1997, p. 2). Aggravating this is the fact that narcissist tend to be impulsive (Vazire & Funder, 2006), fail to learn from their mistakes (Campbell, Goodie & Foster, 2004) and are prone to many forms of aggression including verbal, physical and violence (Baumesiter et al., 1996, Bushman & Baumeister, 1998).

Salmivalli (2001) and Baumeister (1997) proposed two possible reactions to an ego-threat experienced by a narcissistic individual: accepting the ego-threat, which lowers the self-esteem of the individual (i.e. you blame yourself), or denial and blaming others (i.e., the source of the negative feedback) (Salmivalli, 2001; Baumeister, 1997). Thus the frustration/stress inducing event is seen as the threat to the narcissist ego. In response to the ego threat (e.g. negative evaluation), an individual makes a choice to either choose aggressive behaviour or constructive behaviour (Quebbeman & Rozell, 2002). Emotions influence behaviour choices in the workplace and may undermine the rational selection of optimal courses of action (Leith & Baumeister, 1996). In a study by Leible and Snell (2004), for example, it was reported that individuals with higher levels of narcissistic personality disorder symptomatology described themselves as lacking emotional control and emotional repair, and as being emotionally preoccupied and concerned with the public impression of their emotional experiences. Thus, it is argued that emotional regulation (as part of the EI construct) might play a significant role in the choice of deconstructive (aggression or withdrawal) or constructive behaviour by the narcissist that experiences an ego threat. Hence it is argued that EI will moderate the relationship between narcissism and aggressive behaviour.

Emotions can, furthermore, aid in the understanding of adaptive social behaviour (Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler & Mayer, 1998). The features of EI (e.g. emotional regulation, appraisal and emotional expression) can aid in an individual's ability to adapt to life's changes through the use of both rational and emotional coping skills. EI involves emotional problem solving as well (Mayer & Geher, 1996). In order to solve emotional problems, individuals must first become aware of their own emotions and then use that information to recognize emotions in others (Leible & Snell, 2004). This ability to recognise emotions is vital to emotional well being, because the ability to recognise emotions in others is related to additional aspects of EI, including empathy and openness (Mayer & Salovey, 1993, 1997). Without the mental ability to detect what other people feel, individuals would probably be less prone to experience empathy and understanding toward others (Leible & Snell, 2004). Thus, EI involves personal components (e.g. emotional insight and emotional self management) and interpersonal components (e.g. empathy and handling relationship), all of which may be important contributors to an individual's ability to respond constructively to workplace challenges (e.g. difficult interpersonal relationships).

Emotionally Intelligent individuals are, furthermore, likely to experience higher levels of psychological well-being and lower levels of emotional deficit than individuals who possess a low level of EI (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Emotionally Intelligent individuals are able to maintain positive mental states due to their ability to effectively manage (by recognising, understanding, generating, regulating and promoting) their emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Another area where the effect of EI might be influential is in the experience and managing of stress. For example, the Bar-On EI model claims that EI influences one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures (Bar-On, 1997). According to Schutte et al., (2001), individuals high in trait EI are good at managing their stress levels and demonstrate enhanced psychological functioning, such as better social relationships.

In a study examining the relationship between EI (using the EQ-i, Bar-On, 1997), stress, well-being and performance on a sample of 224 managers, those with higher scores on the EQ-i reported significant lower stress and distress, significantly higher morale and quality of working life, and better health and work performance, than managers with lower EI (Slaski & Cartwright, 2002). A recent study by Carmeli, Yitzhak-Halevy and Weisberg (2007) examined the relationship between EI and four aspects of psychological wellbeing (self-acceptance, life satisfaction, somatic complaints and self esteem). They found that individuals reporting higher EI also reported higher levels of life satisfaction, self-acceptance (positive evaluation of oneself and one's past life acknowledging both unsatisfactory and satisfactory achievements) (Gough & Bradley, 1996) and self esteem (an overall evaluation of one's worth or value, Rosenberg, 1989) than individuals who are low in EI.

Further research by Schutte, Malouff, Simunek, McKenley, Hollander (2002) found that higher EI was related to positive moods and higher self-esteem. Petrides and Furnham (2003) showed that the EI trait contribute significantly to the explanation of the variance in happiness after the personality traits (Big Five) had been accounted for. Petrides and Furnham (2006) found that trait EI had a positive effect in perceived job control among both male and female adults; they also noted the men with high EI felt low level of job stress. Mikolajczak and colleagues (2006) provide evidence that trait EI influence the cognitive appraisal of a stressor and they found that high trait EI scores are associated with less threatening appraisal and higher self-efficacy. Ciarrochi, Deane and Anderson (2002)

assessed whether EI is distinctive and useful in understanding the relationship between stress and mental health. The researchers found that EI was a moderator in the relationship between stress and other measures of psychological health, such as depression, hopelessness and suicidal proneness. This indicated that a negative relationship between stress, poor health and levels of EI exist. Individuals with higher levels of EI will be able to cope more effectively with environmental pressures and demands, than individual with lower levels of EI. Given these research results, it is argued that narcissistic individuals with higher EI may experience an ego threat as a less intense stressor, than their lower EI counterparts. Higher EI narcissistic individuals may also be more psychologically healthy than those low on EI, further reducing the impact of various stressors (e.g. frustration) and subsequent stress on the individual (due to better coping resources), which may contribute to less incidences of generalised aggressive behaviours from such individuals. Both these factors may reduce the incidences of aggressive behaviour observed in the high EI narcissistic individual, providing grounds to argue for EI as a moderator in the narcissism, WA relationship.

2.6 SUMMARY

Having reviewed the literature on WA, narcissism and EI, it is clear that research is needed to investigate the complex relationships between these three constructs, as well as to establish whether EI plays a moderating role in the narcissism - WA relationship. The present research aims to explore the relationships between the three variables. Ultimately, the objective of this research is to ascertain if EI can be viewed as a possible protective quality that could minimise the experiences of an ego-threat in a narcissist and limit consequential WA. The next chapter will state the various research hypotheses and the methodology to be used to test these relationships.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter two reviewed the theoretical background of WA, narcissism and EI. This chapter will focus firstly on the rationale, aims and objective of this research. The discussion will then culminate in the development of various research hypotheses to test the anticipated relationships between the constructs. The second part of the chapter will focus on the research methodology, the sample, how the data was collected and the measurement instruments that were utilised to measure the respective constructs.

3.2. RATIONALE AND AIM OF THIS RESEARCH

3.2.1 Rationale for this research

Previous research has shown that narcissism offers a link between egotism and hostile aggression (Bushman et al., 1998). Narcissists display self-aggrandizement and fantasies about unlimited ability and power, and they react with rage, shame or humiliation when their self-esteem is threatened. Aggression in the workplace has detrimental consequences for the organisation and its employees. Deviant, antisocial, violent and aggressive behaviour can directly influence the productivity of employees, which impacts on the profitability of the organisation (Barling, 1996; Budd, Arvey & Lawless; 1996; Dupré et al., 2001). For example, LeBlanc and Kelloway (2002) showed that experiencing aggression from co-workers directly predicated negative outcomes related to emotional and psychosomatic well-being, as well as affective commitment.

Gardner et al. (2002) demonstrated a negative relationship between EI and occupational stress. According to Ogińska-Bulik (2005), "...EI as expressed in the ability to recognize, express, and control emotions may have an impact on the perceived job stress and the consequences of experienced stress" (p.168). Research evidence supporting the notion that EI can be developed is increasing (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004; Fletcher, Leadbetter, Curran, & O'Sullivan, 2009; Nelis, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak, & Hansenne, 2009). Hence it is argued that increased EI could assist individuals in dealing with stress and frustrations in the work environment (Nelis et al., 2009). Individuals with higher levels of EI will generally display lower levels of perceived stress and be less prone to be affected by stress. Slaski and Cartwright (2002) view EI as a potential moderator in the stress process. In this study

it is therefore argued that the association between EI and stress may provide a theoretical basis in order to investigate if higher EI could help reduce the negative consequences associated with WA, a negative response to frustrations (often associated with stress, caused by an ego-threat in the narcissist) in the workplace.

3.2.2 Aims and Objectives of this Research

The aim of this research is to investigate the relationships between narcissism, WA and EI. Four research objectives are formulated. Firstly; this study will focus on whether significant negative relationships exist between EI and the two dimensions of WA: verbal aggression and physical aggression. Prior studies (e.g. Harvey & Dasborough, 2006) found that higher EI promoted the utilisation of adaptive coping strategies not only in cases of stress, but also in periods of anger, sadness, fear, jealousy and shame. It is proposed that the emotionally intelligent individuals' choice of adaptive strategies to down-regulate various negative emotions (e.g. anger and aggression) and maintain positive ones, will explain such an individuals' decreased propensity to experience negative emotions as well as increased propensity to experience positive emotions (Mikolajczak, 2008). Employees with higher EI may be better in identifying feelings (e.g. frustrations, anger) and may therefore be more effective in regulating such emotions to reduce stress (Sy, et al., 2006) as well as subsequent counterproductive behaviours, like aggression. It is therefore argued that higher EI will be associated with a decreased tendency to engage in verbal and/or physical aggression.

Secondly, this study will investigate whether a relationship exists between EI and narcissism. It is argued that individuals that score higher on narcissism will score lower on EI. To the knowledge of the researcher, no previous research on the direct relationship between EI and narcissism exist. Previous research has shown that narcissism is negatively related to empathy (a known sub facet of EI), gratitude, affiliation and need for intimacy whereas it is positively related to competitiveness, exploitations, Machiavellianism, anger, hostility and cynical mistrust of others (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Rhodewalt, 2001; Sedikides, Campbell, Reeder, Elliot & Greeder, 2002). In addition, narcissism has been shown to be negatively related to agreeableness (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001), whilst recent research has shown that global Trait EI is positively related to agreeableness (Petrides, Vernon, Schermer, Ligthart, Boomsma, & Veselka, 2010). An individual high on narcissism will typically engage in maladaptive strategies when

confronted with stress, frustration or negative feedback. When experiencing an ego-threat such an individual typically experience a lowered level of self-appraisal and negative emotions towards self (e.g. depression) or towards the source of the threat in the form of anger, aggression or even violence. It is argued, therefore, that individuals high on narcissism may be less adept at controlling emotions (i.e. lower EI) when confronted with an ego-threat.

Thirdly, this study will investigate if a significant positive relationship between narcissism and WA exists. Recent theory (Baumesiter et al., 1996) and research (Bushman et al., 1998, Penney et al., 2002) has suggested that narcissism may be useful in predicting anger and aggression. Based on this it is anticipated that positive relationships between WA and the various sub-dimensions of narcissism will emerge.

Finally, this research will investigate whether EI is a moderating variable in the relationship between narcissism and WA. It is expected that higher levels of EI, as measured by the Genos EI (Gignac, 2008), will equip a narcissistic individual with the ability to manage and control their emotions (i.e. anger and aggression) more effectively when confronted with an ego-threat, than those who lack skills that pertain to emotionally intelligent behaviours (i.e. low EI).

This research is expected to highlight the importance of emotional regulation and control (as aspects of EI) in the work environment. It will also contribute to the empirical research base in the field of EI, narcissism and WA.

3.5 Research Hypotheses

The overall aim of this study is to explore the relationships between WA, EI and narcissism, as well as the moderating role of the emotional intelligence construct in the narcissism - WA relationship. To this end it is argued that higher EI may possibly help decrease the incidences of workplace aggression, specifically when narcissistic behavioural tendencies in the workplace are encountered. Previous research has provided evidence to suggest that the personality construct, narcissism, is a good predictor of aggression. Therefore, a narcissist will be prone to aggress when experiencing an ego-threat. In recent research by Baumesiter et al. (1996), the relationship in accordance with theory of threatened egotism, aggression and narcissism were explored. According to the

theory, acts of aggression is caused by a combination of high self esteem and ego threat, described as any event that challenges or jeopardizes their views of the narcissistic self. Individuals with a narcissistic self-esteem hold a positive self-image that is not grounded in objective reality. Because their self-appraisal is distorted by their desire to be superior, narcissists expect to be better than most across situations and may seek confirmation of their dominance in situations that may not always provide feedback consistent with their self-appraisal. Narcissists encounter information that expose their inaccurate self-appraisal and threatens their self-esteem. This portion of the theory of threatened egotism mirrors Spector's model of organizational frustration (Spector 1978; Spector, 1997). According to Spector's model, an individual will experience frustration if he or she interprets an event or situation at work as interfering with a goal. For narcissists, one possible goal is being better than everyone else, and thus any information that indicates otherwise, may be a source of frustration.

The emotional reaction (e.g. anger) caused by frustration (due to negative feedback) could range from “minor annoyance to rage” (Spector 1997, p. 2). It is argued; therefore, that narcissists will be more likely to engage in workplace aggression when they experience frustration due to, for example, job constraints. In addition it is argued that higher levels of EI in narcissists may possibly equip such individuals with the ability to cope better with strong emotional states (i.e. anger) which may result in less workplace aggression.

Therefore, in light of the research findings and arguments put forward in the preceding sections, the following research hypotheses can be formulated:

Hypothesis 1: Significant negative relationships exist between EI (total score) and the dimensions of Verbal Aggression (Verbal Aggression towards Colleagues, Verbal Aggression towards Superiors, and Verbal Aggression towards Subordinates).

Hypo 2: Significant negative relationships exist between the dimensions of EI (Emotional Self-Awareness, Emotional Expression, Emotional Awareness of Others, Emotional Reasoning, Emotional Self-Management, Emotional Management of Others, and Emotional Self-Control) and dimensions of Verbal Aggression (Verbal Aggression towards Colleague, Verbal Aggression towards Superior, and Verbal Aggression towards Subordinates).

Hypothesis 3: Significant negative relationships exist between EI (total score) and the dimensions of Physical Aggression (Physical Aggression towards Colleagues, Physical Aggression towards Superiors, and Physical Aggression towards Subordinates).

Hypothesis 4: Significant negative relationships exist between the dimensions of EI (Emotional Self-Awareness, Emotional Expression, Emotional Awareness of Others, Emotional Reasoning, Emotional Self-Management, Emotional Management of Others, and Emotional Self-Control) and dimensions of Physical Aggression (Physical Aggression towards Colleague, Physical Aggression towards Superior, and Physical Aggression towards Subordinates)

Hypothesis 5: A significant negative relationship exists between EI (total) and narcissism (NPI total score).

Hypothesis 6: Significant negative relationships exist between narcissism (NPI total score) and the dimensions of EI (Emotional Self-Awareness, Emotional Expression, Emotional Awareness of Others, Emotional Reasoning, Emotional Self-Management, Emotional Management of Others, and Emotional Self-Control).

Hypothesis 7: Significant positive relationships exist between narcissism (NPI total score) and the three respective dimensions of Verbal Aggression (Verbal Aggression towards Colleagues, Verbal Aggression towards Superiors, and Verbal Aggression towards Subordinates).

Hypothesis 8: Significant positive relationships exist between the dimensions of narcissism (authority, self sufficiency, exhibitionism, exploitiveness, vanity and entitlement) and the dimensions of Verbal Aggression (Verbal Aggression towards Colleague, Verbal Aggression towards Superior, and Verbal Aggression towards Subordinates).

Hypothesis 9: Significant positive relationships exist between narcissism (NPI total score) and the three respective dimensions of Physical Aggression (Physical Aggression towards Colleagues, Physical Aggression towards Superiors, and Physical Aggression towards Subordinates).

Hypothesis 10: Significant positive relationships exist between the dimensions of narcissism (authority, self sufficiency, exhibitionism, exploitiveness, vanity and entitlement) and the dimensions of Physical Aggression (Physical Aggression towards Colleague, Physical Aggression towards Superior, and Physical Aggression towards Subordinates).

Hypothesis 11: EI (total score) is a moderator in the relationship between narcissism (NPI total score) and WA (both Verbal and Physical Aggression).

The proposed theoretical model and anticipated relationships between the variables is graphically represented in figure 3.1. The model suggests that narcissistic individuals will be prone to exhibit more workplace aggression. Furthermore, it is suggested that higher levels of EI possessed by a narcissistic individual might assist such an individual in utilising more effective emotion regulation strategies, which may provide them with the ability to effectively manage their emotions in the workplace and possibly lessen incidences of workplace aggression.

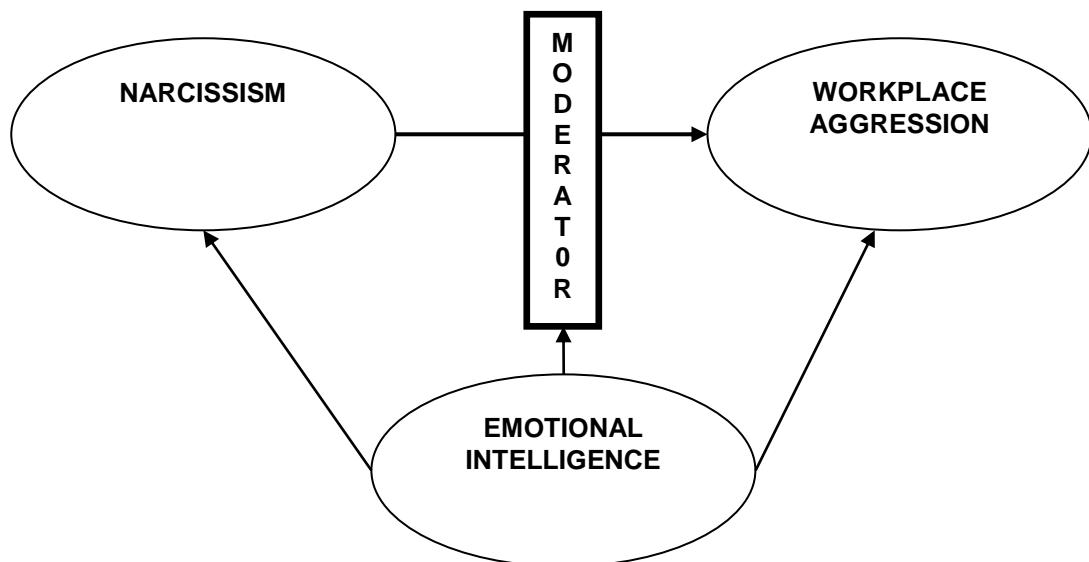


Figure 3.1 Theoretical Model of the proposed relationship between narcissism and WA and the moderating effect of EI in the relationship

3.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

3.6.1 Research Design

A non-experimental research design was used to explore the relationships between WA, narcissism and EI. Non-experimental research is used when the researcher wants to observe relationships between variables without controlling or manipulating the variables in any way (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The hypotheses of the relationships between the variables are based on the theoretical framework (presented in chapter 2) and will be investigated without direct manipulation of the variables (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Hence, the present research requires a relational approach whereby the researcher aims to determine how two or more variables are related to each other (Elmes, Kantowitz & Roediger, 1999). Both correlation and multivariate statistical techniques will be used to determine the strength and direction of the relationships between the variables.

3.6.2 Sampling

A number of tertiary institutions were contacted to determine their interest in participating in the current investigation. A convenient sampling approach was used; simply meaning that individuals who are available were selected to participate in the study. The sample consisted of 134 academic (permanent and temporary) and support staff (middle and upper level) of two tertiary educational institutions within the Western Cape. The sampling technique employed for this survey research was non-probability sampling, more specifically availability sampling (Babbie & Mouten 2001).

3.6.3 Participants

Twenty males and 114 females of the two universities participated in this study. The participants in this study consisted of five hierachal levels of employees (i.e. non-managerial, lower level management, middle level management, upper level manager and top management). Further details regarding the sample characteristics will be discussed in section 4.2 of chapter four.

3.6.4 Data Collection

Upon receipt of ethical clearance to conduct this research the researcher invited three different universities located in the Western Cape to take part in this study. Data collection for this research was preceded by numerous negotiations and correspondence with the two universities that eventually agreed to take part in the study.

The data was collected by way of an electronic survey. The survey included the following sections: informed consent, demographic information and the three questionnaires (i.e. to measure EI, narcissism, and WA). The method of dissemination of the questionnaire was through both the institution's weekly electronic bulletins (which are sent to all employees by e-mail). This allowed employees to partake in the study on a completely voluntary basis. The method of data collection proved to limit the amount of participants taking part in the research and the response rate was extremely low (even after several reminders to take part in the study were placed in the bulletins). This is, however, a known disadvantage of this type of data gathering approach and is in line with trends for online research data collection (Babbie et al., 2001).

3.5 MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS

Three questionnaires were utilised to measure the constructs as contained in the proposed theoretical model.

3.5.1 Workplace Aggression

Greenberg and Barling (1999) developed a measure of employee WA based on Straus's (1979) Conflict Tactics Scale. Although Straus's (1979) scale was designed to measure the use of reasoning, verbal aggression, and violence within the family, its list of behaviors is generalisable to other contexts, such as the workplace. Hence, Greenberg and Barling (1999) made modifications and additions to the original Conflict Tactics Scale. This modified version of the questionnaire was used in this study. The first change Greenberg and Barling made was to the introductory wording of the scale which was amended for applicability to the workplace. Secondly, the 'Reasoning' subscale was omitted in the workplace version of the test. Thirdly, several items were added to the 'Verbal aggression' subscale. These include the items that refer to: 'gossiped about', 'spread rumors about', 'played mean pranks', 'argued with', 'name-called', and 'made rude gestures to'. Fourthly, two items ('threatened with a knife or gun' and 'used a knife or gun') were deleted from the Violence subscale as it was unlikely that these behaviors would occur in the workplace setting. Lastly, various items consisting of two or more behaviors were divided into separate items. For example, 'insulted and swore at' were separated into two items, as were 'threatened to hit/threatened to throw something at', 'push/grab/shove' and

‘kick/bit/hit with fist’. The modified version of Straus’s Conflict Tactics Scale consists of 22 behaviors ranging from verbal (also called psychological) aggression (e.g. gossiping), to violence / physical aggression (e.g. beating up). Greenberg and Barling (1999) employ Straus’s (1979) scoring system (0 = never, 1 = once, 2 = twice, 3 = three to five times, 4 = six to ten times, 5 = 11 to 20 times, 6 = more than 20 times), and participants have to indicate separately the number of times they displayed any of the behaviors against a colleague, subordinate, or supervisor at work during the past 12 months (or during their tenure at a current job, if they had been at their current job for less than a year). The composite Greenberg et al. (1999) workplace aggression measure consists of six different scales: (a) Amount of Alcohol consumed, (b) History of Aggression, (c) Job Security, (d) Formal procedures, Interactional Justice and Distributive Justice, (e) Workplace Surveillance and (f) Workplace Aggression. For the current research project only the latter scale was used to measure aggression in the workplace.

3.5.1.1 Descriptives statistics and item analysis

Item analyses were conducted with the SPSS Scale Reliability Procedure (SPSS Version 16, 2007) on the WA questionnaire. Item analysis is performed to identify and eliminate possible items not contributing to an internally consistent description of the latent dimensions comprising the construct in question. The results of the item analyses are shown in tables 3.1 and 3.2.

As is evident from the descriptive statistics in table 3.1, the Physical Aggression subscales (i.e. aggression towards colleague, superior, and subordinates), unfortunately, did not present any variance in the current dataset. The items in these subscales included item 12 (“threaten to throw something”), item 13 (“threw something”), item 14 (“pushed someone”), item 15 (“grabbed someone”), item 16 (“shoved someone”), item 17 (“slapped someone”), item 18 (“kicked someone”), item 19 (“bit someone”), item 20 (“hit or tried to hit with something”), item 21 (“hit or tried to hit with my fist”) and item 22 (“beat up someone”).

In recent years researchers have focused their attention on the various forms of aggression at work (e.g. Greenberg & Barling, 1999; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002), and in opposition to the impression typically fostered by the media, research shows that the most frequent aggressive acts are not overt, but less dramatic, psychological aggressive acts (Baron et al., 1999, Greenberg et al, 1999, Neuman & Baron, 1998). This is in accordance

with research by Kaukianen, Salmivalli, Björkqvist, Österman, Lahtinen, Kostamo and Lagerspelz (2001) who reported that the majority of aggressive behaviours in the workplace do not involve physical assault but rather aggression that is verbal and covert in nature. Behaviours under the heading overt aggression are typically associated with workplace violence. Human aggression involves any act in which one individual intentionally attempts to harm another (Neuman et al., 1998). Therefore, all forms of intentional harm-doing in organizations would qualify as WA and the term violence would be applied to serious instance of physical assault (Neuman et al., 1998). It is apparent the physical aggression subscale did not show any variance in the current study and hence this subscale was not investigated in terms of its reliability. This can be a sample specific phenomenon, given that the work environment of the respondents (educational institution) is not prone to the display of overt aggressive behaviours.

Table 3.1: Descriptive statistics and reliability of the Physical Aggression (towards colleague, supervisor and subordinate) subscales

WA Dimension	Mean	Std. Deviation	N of items
Phys Agg Col	10.0149	.122	10
Phys Agg Sup	10.0149	.122	10
Phys Agg Sub	10.0224	.200	10

n = 134; Phys Agg Col = Physical Aggression towards Colleague; Phys Agg Sup = Physical Aggression towards Superior; Phys Agg Sub = Physical Aggression Subordinate

The descriptive statistics and Cronbach alphas obtained for the sample in this research for the verbal aggression subscales (i.e. verbal aggression towards colleagues, verbal aggression towards supervisor, and verbal aggression towards subordinate) are set out in table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Descriptive statistics and reliability of the Verbal Aggression (towards Colleagues, Superior, Subordinate) subscales

WA Dimension	Means	Standard Deviations	N of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Verb Agg Col	17.72	5.05	12	.676
Verb Agg Sup	13.77	4.34	9	.606
Verb Agg Sub	10.21	3.74	6	.603

n = 134; Verb Agg Col = Verbal Aggression towards Colleague; Verb Agg Sub = Verbal Aggression towards a Subordinate; Verbal Agg Sup = Verbal Aggression towards Supervisor

Initially, the Cronbach Alphas were calculated based upon all 12 indicator variables for the respective verbal aggression subscales. The results revealed that the Cronbach Alpha value for the Verbal Aggression towards Colleagues subscale ($\alpha = .676$) was marginally lower than the acceptable 0.70 value, recommended by Nunnally (1978). Inspection of the item total statistics revealed that the Cronbach Alpha would increase to .687 if item Acol3 ("played a mean prank on them") was deleted. This minimal predicted change was not deemed to be enough of a justification to delete the item, which was retained in subsequent analyses. It is possible that the term 'prank' is not familiar to the sample and that the differential understanding of the term caused some item bias in this sample.

The item statistics of the Verbal Aggression towards Supervisor and Verbal Aggression towards Subordinate subscales were investigated and poor performing items in both subscales were identified for deletion in order to increase the subscale reliability scores (see table 3.3 for a summary of these items).

The results of the first subscale reliability analysis (with all 12 original items) for the Verbal Aggression towards Supervisor subscale revealed a Cronbach Alpha of .591 which is substantially lower than the acceptable .70 benchmark. After inspection of the item statistics, item 11 ("threaten to hit someone") was identified as a poor item and was subsequently deleted from the original item pool. The item analysis was repeated and the alpha score increased to .596 from .591. Next, item 12 ("threaten to throw something at someone") was further identified as a poor performing item and was also deleted from the item pool. The item analysis was once again repeated and the alpha score increased to .606 from 0.591. Further investigation of the item statistics revealed that no substantial increase in reliability would be gained by deleting any of the other items. It could be argued that the content of the two deleted items ("threaten to hit" or "threaten to throw something at") may be considered as very overt aggressive actions and individuals may not display, or be willing to report, on displaying this type behaviour in the work environment (Kaukianen et al., 2001). Although these items refer to verbal references regarding these overt aggressive actions, it may be that respondents would be less likely to report on aggressive behaviours of this nature – as it has a very strong overt tone. It is also interesting to note that these are the only two items in the verbal aggression subscale that refers to acts of physical aggression. This could be another reason why these items do not contribute to the internal consistency of the subscale. Furthermore, it is also possible that

due to the nature of the university work environment, this type of verbal aggressive behaviour will not specifically be induced.

The Cronbach Alpha result ($\alpha = .541$) for the analysis with all 12 original items in the Verbal Aggression towards Subordinate subscale, were substantially lower than the .70 acceptable benchmark. After investigation of the item statistics the first poorly performing item, was item 4 (“swore at”). After deleting this item, and rerunning the analysis a slightly better result was evident ($\alpha = .556$). Further investigation of the item statistics indicated that the deletion of item 11 (“threaten to hit”) would further increase the reliability of the sub-scale to .563. This item was also deleted. The process of inspecting the item statistics was repeated further and resulted in the deletion of four more items in an iterative process [i.e. item12 (“threaten to throw something”), item 3 (“played a mean prank on them”), item 5 (“insulted/name called”) and item 6 (“made rude gestures”)]. The results of the reliability analysis after the deletion of each separate item, is presented in table 3.3. The final sub-scale reliability was .603. This is still below the .70 benchmark. However, no further increase in the reliability was evident by deleting more items. This mediocre reliability score is noted as a limitation of the research, and the research results will be interpreted with the boundaries of this limitation.

It is interesting to note that of the three subscales, the “verbal aggression towards colleagues” subscale, obtained the best reliability results, relative to the other two. It is known that WA is target specific and the impact of WA is influenced by the relationship between an aggressor and the target, such that more detrimental outcomes may result when aggression emanates from someone with greater legitimate power, or when one’s relationship with aggressor the is ongoing (Inness, Le Blanc & Barling, 2008). Hence, respondents may not so readily engage in verbal aggression towards supervisors or subordinates (i.e. due to power distance), as they would towards colleagues of the same status. For example, Barling et al, (2006) suggest that individuals may be motivated to control their habitual aggressive impulses in their work relationships, and that habitual aggression can be controlled given sufficient motivation, such as when sanctions are present, when dealing with someone in power or in an ongoing relationship. In hindsight, in any examination of WA, it is important to consider that for any particular type of aggression against specific targets, there may be variation in the antecedents and consequences of this aggression (Dupré & Barling, 2002). This may perhaps influence the success of

measurement (as is evident in these results) if one set of behaviours (i.e. similar behaviours) are used for measurement over different target groups.

Table 3.3 Total Item Statistic: Items deleted from subscales

Subscale	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Verb Agg Sup			
Asuper11	15.79	19.039	.596
Asuper3	14.78	19.013	.601
Asuper12	13.77	18.856	.606
Verb Agg Sub			
Asub4	14.34	14.841	.556
Asub11	13.32	14.821	.563
Asub12	12.32	14.821	.514
Asub3	11.25	14.431	.581
Asub5	10.11	13.544	.594
Asub6	9.07	13.161	.603

n = 134; Verb Agg Sub = Verbal Aggression towards a Subordinate; Verbal Agg Sup = Verbal Aggression towards a Supervisor

3.5.1.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

3.5.1.2.1 Missing values, variable type and normality

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to perform Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) on the refined sets of indicator variables for each of the three aggression subscales. Prior to conducting a CFA, the data needs to be inspected for missing values. The frequency analysis of the dataset revealed that missing values did not pose a problem and imputation was not required. This is probably due to the fact that the data was collected online where the system would not allow a respondent to skip a question.

In addition, the variable type must be specified and the normality of the data should be investigated. The responses of the items were captured on an ordinal scale. Hence, it has been argued that the ordinal nature of the data requires that polychoric correlations and the asymptotic covariance matrix should be analysed (Jöreskog, 2005). A Monte Carlo study by Muthén and Kaplan (1985) investigated results derived from different estimation

techniques (i.e. ML, Generalized Least-Squares, Asymptotically Distribution Free, Categorical variable methodology) when applied within a CFA SEM framework on non-normal categorical variables, treated as interval scale (continuous) non-normal variables. The results suggested that the practice of using Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation, where the scales are specified to be continuous and where these variables are moderately skewed and kurtotic, is allowable as no severe distortion of the standard error and chi-square estimates were observed. The authors concluded that, "...these normal theory estimators (ML, Generalized Least-Squares) perform quite well even with ordered categorical and moderately skewed/kurtotic variables" (Muthén & Kaplan, 1985, p.187). Hence in this study the observed variables (items) were specified to be continuous.

Lastly, the univariate and multivariate normality of the indicator variables for the three subscales were routinely inspected with PRELIS (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996). In all three cases the null hypothesis of the univariate and multivariate normality was rejected. Therefore, Robust Maximum Likelihood (RML) was specified as the estimation technique (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) in all the analyses.

3.5.1.3 Results: evaluation of the measurement model

LISREL 8.80 (Du Toit & Du Toit, 2001; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996b) was used to determine the fit of the data to the three individual subscale measurement models. The results of the Verbal Aggression towards Supervisor and Verbal Aggression towards Subordinate subscales are presented below. Unfortunately an estimation problem was encountered in the analysis of the Verbal Aggression towards Colleague subscale and no results could be generated for this subscale.

The goodness of fit for each model was assessed by reviewing the Satorra-Bentler chi-square statistic ($S-B\chi^2$), the RMSEA (Steiger, 1990), the Comparative Fit Index, (CFI; Bentler, 1990), the Tucker Lewis Index / Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI, Tucker & Lewis, 1973), as well as the Standardised Root-Mean-Square Residual (SRMR, Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1981). Cut-off values were determined by taking the model characteristics (i.e. number of observed variables, sample size) into consideration. To this end, suggestions based on simulation research results as described in Hair et al., (2006) were utilised. Hence, cut-off values for the CFI and NNFI was set at 0.95, SRMR at 0.80 or less and RMSEA < 0.07.

The results of the single group CFA analyses conducted with LISREL 8.80 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2002) for the two different measurement models are reported in table 3.4. Overall, the results provided fair evidence for the unidimensionality of the adapted subscales. For example, for the Verbal Aggression towards Supervisor analyses, an RMSEA of 0.045 was obtained. Evidence for close fit was also obtained ($p>0.05$). The incremental fit indices obtained values on and above the 0.95 cut-off. However, the SRMS value of 0.10 did not underscore these conclusions of good model fit. For the Verbal Aggression towards Subordinate subscale, the results (e.g. RMSEA = 0.022, CFI = 1.00, NNFI = 1.00, SRMR = 0.064) provided sufficient evidence of the construct validity of the adapted subscale.

Table 3.4 Goodness of fit statistics of the CFA for the two Aggression subscales

Model	χ^2	S-B χ^2	Df	S-B χ^2/df	NNFI	CFI	RMSR	SRMR	RMSEA	P
									(CI)	(close)
ASuper	85.53*	34.14	27	1.27	0.95	0.96	0.050	0.10	0.045	0.54
ASub	16.44	8.70	9	.97	1.00	1.00	0.044	0.064	0.022	0.70

Note: χ^2 , Chi-square, S-B χ^2 , Sattora-Bentler Scaled Chi-square; NNFI, non-normed fit index; CFI, comparative fit index; RMSR, root mean squared residuals; SRMR, standardised root mean residual; RMSEA, root mean square error of approximation

* $p < 0.05$

3.5.2 Narcissism

The Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI, Raskin & Hall, 1979) was developed using the DSM-III behavioural criteria as a conceptual template to measure, "...individual differences in narcissism in non-clinical populations" (Raskin & Terry, 1988, p. 892). According to Raskin and Terry (1988) the NPI is composed of seven factors: (a) Authority ("I am a born leader"); (b) Self-Sufficiency ("I am more capable than other people"); (c) Superiority ("I am an extraordinary person"); (d) Exhibitionism ("I really like to be the centre of attention"); (e) Exploitativeness ("I can read people like a book"); (f) Vanity ("I like to look at my body"); and (g) Entitlement ("If I ruled the world it would be a much better place"). Construct validity of the NPI is indicated by positive relationships with the California Psychological Inventory (CPI; Gough 1956). For example, significant positive correlations for Dominance ($r = .66$; $p < .05$), Social Presence ($r = .62$; $p < .05$), and Capacity for Status ($r = .37$; $p < .05$) and negative correlations with Femininity ($r = -.39$; $p < .05$), Self-Control ($r = -.36$; $p < .05$),

and Tolerance ($r = -.30$; $p < .05$) has been reported. Higher scores on the NPI also generally are associated with higher levels of anger and CWB (Penney & Spector, 2002). The 40 NPI items are presented with a Likert format response scale, ranging from 'Disagree Very Much' to 'Agree Very Much'. Higher NPI scores indicate higher levels of narcissism. The descriptive statistics and Cronbach alphas obtained from the sample in this research for the NPI sub-dimensions authority, self-sufficiency, superiority exhibitionism, exploitativeness, vanity and entitlement are set out in table 3.5.

3.5.2.1 Descriptive statistics and item analysis

Item analyses were conducted with the SPSS Scale Reliability Procedure (SPSS Version 16, 2007). Overall the reliability results were very good. All of the subscales, except for Superiority, met the .70 Nunnally (1978) benchmark for acceptable reliability. The .698 for the Superiority sub-scale, however, borders on .70 and is not considered to indicate a reliability problem in this sub-scale. In addition, the upper range of .903 and .902 for the respective Authority and Exhibitionist sub-scales, point towards very strong evidence of reliability in these sub-scales.

Table 3.5: The standard deviations and reliability statistic for the NPI

NPI Dimensions	Mean	Standard Deviation	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
NPIauth	33.72	7.74	8	.885
NPIselfs	24.84	5.26	6	.715
NPIsuper	16.80	4.89	5	.687
NPlexhibi	16.46 16.08	6.29	7	.772
NPlexploi		4.65	5	.765
NPIvanity	7.72	3.80	3	.826
NPlentitlem	20.97	5.50	6	.730
NPItotal	139.44	30.22	40	.941

n = 134; NPIauth = Authority; NPIselfs = Self Sufficiency; NPIsuper = Superiority; NPlexhibi = Exhibitionist; NPlexploi = Exploitativeness; NPIvanity = Vanity; NPlentitlem = Entitlement

3.5.2.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

3.5.2.2.1 Missing values, variable type and normality

Similar to the analyses conducted on the aggression questionnaire, SEM was used to perform CFA on the full NPI questionnaire. Consistent to the aggression results, no missing values were evident in the dataset. The univariate and multivariate normality were inspected, and the results indicated that RML should be employed in the analysis to correct for the lack of normality of the data. Lastly the data was once again specified to be continuous, based on the simulation research by Muthén and Kaplan (1985), as the Likert scale contained six response options.

3.5.2.2.2 Results: evaluation of the measurement model

LISREL 8.80 (Du Toit & Du Toit, 2001, Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996b) was used to determine the fit of the data to the measurement model. The results are presented below in table 3.6. The goodness of fit for the model was assessed by reviewing the similar set of indices as mentioned in section 3.5.1.3.

Overall the results of the CFA revealed sufficient evidence for good model fit. Except for the SRMR result, all of the specified cut-off values (CFI and NNFI = 0.95, and RMSEA = 0.07) were met. For the SRMR a value of 0.089 was attained, which is only marginally above the 0.08 cut-off point. It is concluded that reasonable evidence exist for the validity of the questionnaire in the current sample.

Table 3.6 Goodness-of-fit statistics results of CFA for the NPI

Model	X ²	S-BX ²	Df	S-BX ² /df	NNFI	CFI	RMSR	RMSEA (CI)	P (close)
NPI	1288.35*	1190.77*	719	1.65	0.95	0.95	0.16	0.089 (0.063; 0.077)	0.00

Note: X², Chi-square, S-BX², Sattora-Bentler Scaled Chi-square; NNFI, non-normed fit index; CFI, comparative fit index; RMSR, root mean squared residuals; SRMR, standardised root mean residual; RMSEA, root mean square error of approximation with 90% confidence interval

* p < 0.001

3.5.3 Emotional Intelligence

EI was measured with the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory (Gignac, 2008), the revised version of the original SUEIT, developed by Palmer and Stough (2001). The Genos EI self-report inventory consists of 70 items designed to measure the frequency with which an individual displays emotionally intelligent behaviours across seven dimensions. The items are scored on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 'Almost Never' to 'Almost Always'. The English reading level of the items has been determined to be associated with a grade level of 7.4 based on the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level analysis (Gignac, 2008). The normative sample consists of individuals ranging in age from 18 to 76. Thus, the Genos EI inventory is considered applicable to adults older than 18 years in the workplace (Gignac, 2008). The inventory can produce an inconsistency index score, an impression management score, a total EI score, and seven subscales scores. The names of the seven subscales are: (i) Emotional Self-Awareness (measures the relative frequency with which an individual consciously identifies their emotions at work); (ii) Emotional Expression (measures the relative frequency with which an individual expresses their emotions in an appropriate way at work); (iii) Emotional Awareness of Others (measure the relative frequency with which an individual identifies the emotions expressed by other in the workplace); (iv) Emotional Reasoning (measures the relative frequency with which an individual incorporates emotionally relevant information in the process of decision making or problem solving at work); (v) Emotional Self-Management (measures the relative frequency with which an individual manages their own emotions at work); (vi) Emotional Management of Others (measures the relative frequency with which individuals manages the emotions of others at work);, and (vii) Emotional Self-Control (measures the relative frequency with which an individual controls their strong emotions appropriately in the workplace).

3.5.3.1 Descriptive statistics and item analysis

The descriptive statistics and Cronbach Alphas obtained for the sample in this research for each of the dimensions of EI (including total EI) are presented in table 3.7. The Cronbach Alpha for "Emotional Reasoning" (.654) was marginally below the acceptable .70 benchmark. However, this is not a cause for concern, as previous research on the SUEIT (Ekermans, 2009; Gignac, 2005) has shown a similar trend for the Emotional Reasoning subscale (formally referred to as the Emotions Direct Cognition subscale) in previous

research. In fact, in the technical manual Gignac (2008) reports an alpha value of .67 for the Emotional Reasoning subscale in another South-African sample ($n=419$). In a more recent study, Gignac and Ekermans (2010) report further similar results for the Emotional Reasoning subscale, in a sample of black ($\alpha = .67$) and white ($\alpha = .70$) South Africans. This is in line with results obtained in this study.

Table 3.7: Means, standard deviations and reliability statistics for the Genos EI inventory

SUIET Dimensions	Mean	Standard Deviation	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
ESA	41.25	3.71	10	.702
EE	37.80	4.64	10	.781
EAO	39.28	4.15	10	.784
ER	37.80	3.86	10	.654
EMO	38.37	4.66	10	.827
EMS	37.50	4.44	10	.718
ESM	36.31	4.28	10	.706
Eltot	268.30	23.20	70	.935

n = 134; ESA = Emotional Self Awareness; EE = Emotional Expression; EAO = Emotional Awareness of Others; ER = Emotional Recognition; EMO = Emotional Management of Other; EMS = Emotional Management of Self; ESC = Emotional Self-Control; ESM = Emotional Self Management; Eltot = EI total score.

The internal consistency reliability results for all the subscales in the Genos EI inventory on a South African sample is reported in the technical manual and is very similar to the results of the current study: Emotional Self Awareness (0.95), Emotional Expression (0.074), Emotional Awareness of Other (0.82), Emotional Recognition (0.67), Emotional Management of Self (0.74), Emotional Management of Other (0.83) and Emotional Self Control (0.75) (Gignac, 2008)

3.5.3.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

The Genos EI measurement model was tested by conducting one CFA analysis on the entire questionnaire. Prior to the analysis the dataset was inspected for missing values. Similar to the other data used in this study, no missing values were present in the dataset. RML was also used as an estimation method (as the null hypothesis of multivariate

normality was rejected in this dataset). The indicator variables were specified as continuous, given that the Likert response scale had five response options.

3.5.3.3 Results: evaluation of the measurement model

The results of the CFA analyses are reported in table 3.8. Overall, good model fit was obtained. The RMSEA value is 0.058. This is well below the .07 specified cut-off value. Evidence of close fit ($p > .05$) underscored the RMSEA result of good model fit. The incremental fit indices (all exceeding .95) further underscored this conclusion. The SRMR was, however, above the .08 cut-off value. However, overall it is concluded that good model fit was obtained.

Table 3.8 Goodness-of-fit statistics results of the Genos EI CFA

Model	χ^2	S-B χ^2	df	S-B χ^2/df	NNFI	CFI	RMSR	SRMR	RMSEA (CI)	P (close)
SUIET	292.86	243.17	168	1.45	0.98	0.98	0.20	0.096	0.058	0.20

Note: χ^2 , Chi-square, S-B χ^2 , Sattora-Bentler Scaled Chi-square; NNFI, non-normed fit index; CFI, comparative fit index; RMSR, root mean squared residuals; SRMR, standardised root mean residual; RMSEA, root mean square error of approximation with 90% confidence interval

* $p < 0.001$

3.6 STATISTICAL ANALYSES

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to perform a range of statistical analyses on the questionnaire data and to test the theoretical model. More specifically, Pearson's Product Moment Correlations were calculated, and Multiple Regression analyses were conducted to test to the relationships between EI, WA and narcissism, as well as the moderating effect of EI on the narcissism and WA relationship.

3.7 SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the rationale, aims, objectives and resultant research hypotheses to be investigated in this research. In addition the research methodology was discussed, details regarding the sampling, how the data was collected and the types of measurement instruments that were used to assess the identified constructs were included. The next chapter will set out in detail the results obtained in this research.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the results of the research and whether they support the various research hypotheses stated in chapter 3. Various statistical techniques were utilised to determine the relationships amongst the constructs, as well as the moderating effect of EI on the narcissism and WA relationship.

Based on the literature review presented in chapter two, it was hypothesised that a significant positive relationship will exist between WA and narcissism as this relationship has been confirmed in previous studies (e.g. Stucke & Sporer, 2002). Furthermore, it was expected that significant negative relationships will exist between, firstly, EI and narcissism and, secondly, between EI and both the physical and verbal aggression dimensions of WA. Therefore, it was argued that higher levels of EI in narcissists should perhaps equip such individuals with the ability to cope better with strong emotional states (i.e. anger) which should result in less WA from such individuals. Hence, it was anticipated that EI could play a moderating role in the relationship between narcissism and WA. That is, higher levels of EI, as measured by the Genos EI, will equip an individual with the ability to better identify feelings and emotional states, to more effectively manage positive and negative emotions and to control strong emotional state (i.e. anger, stress, frustration). This capacity to effectively deal with one's emotions may reduce the amount of strong emotions (e.g. anger, frustration) experienced and hence subsequent WA, as well as the negative consequences thereof in the workplace. For example, Rhodewalt and Morf, (1998) found that a negative emotional reaction of narcissistic individuals after negative feedback might influence their interpersonal behaviour and result in aggressive or antisocial acts against others. High levels of EI are known to improve social skills (Goleman, 1995) and handling of interpersonal relationships (Salovey & Sluyter, 1997). Furthermore, higher EI is related to positive outcomes such as prosocial behaviour, positive peer and family relations (Mayer et al., 1999; Rice, 1999; Salovey et al., 2001).

There is limited research with regards to EI and WA, thus it is expected that the current research will contribute to this knowledge base. In addition it is known that lower levels of EI predispose an individual to a plethora of negative emotions, like fear, anger and hostility

(Bagshaw, 2000). These uses up a lot of energy, lower morale, increase absenteeism and apathy, and are an effective block to collaborative effort in the workplace (Bagshaw, 2000). Hence it was argued that a negative relationship would exist between EI and WA. To this end it is anticipated that the outcomes of this study will provide organisations with insight into possible antecedents of WA.

It is expected that this study will highlight the importance of emotional regulation (for example, recognising and appraising emotions; expressing emotions effectively, being able to read colleague's emotions) in the organisation. Furthermore, it is anticipated that this research will expand the research base on EI and provide further empirical support for the value of EI assessment and development in the workplace.

4.2. SAMPLE

One hundred and thirty four employees from two different tertiary institutions in the Western Cape completed the electronic survey. The descriptive statistics reflect that 114 participants were female and 20 male. The race distribution is reported in table 4.2. According to tables 4.1 and 4.3 the largest proportion of the sample was female (85.1%), Afrikaans speaking (64.9%), with a post graduate degree (69.4%), working on non-managerial (38.8%) and middle management levels (32.1%). Descriptive statistics for the sample group are presented in tables 4.1 to 4.3 below.

Table 4.1: Gender distribution

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
FEMALE	114	85.1	85.1	85.1
MALE	20	14.9	14.9	100.0
Total	134	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.2: Ethic Group distribution

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
WHITE	94	70.1	70.1	70.1
AFRICAN	3	2.2	2.2	72.4
ASIAN	1	.7	.7	73.1
COLOURED	34	25.4	25.4	98.5
BLACK	2	1.5	1.5	100.0
Total	134	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.3: Sample descriptive statistics

Item	Category	N	Percentage
First Language	Afrikaans	87	64.9
	Xhosa	2	1.5
	English	45	33.6
Second Language	Other	1	.7
	Afrikaans	44	32.8
	English	89	66.4
Level of Education	Grade 12/Std 10	4	3.0
	Post Matric certificate	11	8.2
	Under Graduate Degree/3 Year Diploma	26	19.4
	Post Graduate Qualification	93	69.4
Job Level	LowM	29	21.6
	MiddleM	43	32.1
	NonM	52	38.8
	TopM	2	1.5
	UpperM	8	6.0

Note: LowM= Lower Management; MiddleM= Middle Management; NonM= Non-Managerial, TopM= Top Management; UpperM=Upper Management

4.3. CORRELATION RESULTS

The first objective of this study was to determine whether relationships exist between the three constructs, narcissism (as measured by the NPI; Raskin & Hall, 1979), WA (as measured by the Greenberg and Barling 22 Item Scale, 1999) and EI (as measured by the Genos EI inventory, Gignac 2008). The convention proposed by Guilford (cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002, p. 184) and depicted in table 4.4 was used to interpret all of the sample correlation coefficients.

Table 4.4: Guilford's interpretation of the magnitude of significant r

Absolute value of r	Interpretation
< 0.19	Slight; almost no relationship
0.20 – 0.39	Low correlation; definite but small /weak relationship
0.40 – 0.69	Moderate correlation; substantial relationship
0.70 – 0.89	High correlation; strong relationship
0.90 – 1.00	Very high correlation; very dependable relationship

4.3.1 The relationship between Emotional Intelligence and WA

In order to explore the relationship between EI and WA, the following hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1: Significant negative relationships exist between EI (total score) and the dimensions of Verbal Aggression (Verbal Aggression towards Colleagues, Verbal Aggression towards Superiors, and Verbal Aggression towards Subordinates).

Hypothesis 2: Significant negative relationships exist between the dimensions of EI (Emotional Self-Awareness, Emotional Expression, Emotional Awareness of Others, Emotional Reasoning, Emotional Self-Management, Emotional Management of Others, and Emotional Self-Control) and the dimensions of Verbal Aggression (Verbal Aggression towards Colleague, Verbal Aggression towards Superior, and Verbal Aggression towards Subordinates).

Hypothesis 3: Significant negative relationships exist between EI (total score) and the dimensions of Physical Aggression (Physical Aggression towards Colleagues, Physical Aggression towards Superiors, and Physical Aggression towards Subordinates).

Hypothesis 4: Significant negative relationships exist between the dimensions of EI (Emotional Self-Awareness, Emotional Expression, Emotional Awareness of Others, Emotional Reasoning, Emotional Self-Management, Emotional Management of Others, and Emotional Self-Control) and the dimensions of Physical Aggression (Physical Aggression towards Colleague, Physical Aggression towards Superior, and Physical Aggression towards Subordinates).

The relationships between EI (total score) and Verbal Aggression towards Colleague (AColVerbal), Verbal Aggression towards Superior (ASuperVerbal), and Verbal Aggression towards Subordinates (ASuboVerbal) were investigated through the calculation of various Pearson Product-Moment Correlation coefficients. The results are presented in table 4.5.

Table 4.5: The correlations between EI (total) the and verbal dimensions of WA

Construct	AColVerbal	ASuperVerbal	ASuboVerbal	
EI	EItotal	-.205*	-.207*	-.205*

N=134; **. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (1 -tailed); * Correlation is significant at the .05 level (1-tailed); AColVerbal = Aggression towards Colleague; ASuperVerbal = Aggression towards Superior; ASuboVerbal = Aggression towards Subordinates

Weak significant negative relationships was evident between the EI (total score) and each of the dimensions of WA: Verbal Aggression towards Colleagues ($r = -.205$, $n = 134$, $p < .05$), Verbal Aggression towards Superior ($r = -.207$, $n = 134$, $p < .05$) and Verbal Aggression towards Subordinates ($r = -.205$, $n = 134$, $p < .05$). As is evident from the results, it would seem that individuals with higher EI scores seem to report engaging less frequently in verbal aggressive behaviours. These results suggest that individuals with higher EI engage in a diverse variety of emotionally intelligent behaviours relevant to the identification of emotions, the reasoning with emotions and the general management of emotions (Gignac, 2008) which may assist in lessening the incidences of engaging in verbal aggressive behaviours, should opportunities to do so, arise in the workplace. People high on EI tend to deal with their negative emotional reactions in ways that promote productive results (Jordan, Spencer & Zanna, 2001). Clearly, the display of disruptive verbal aggressive behaviours in the workplace (e.g. arguing, yelling, swearing at, and insulting others) does not promote healthy and productive interpersonal relationships. Individuals with higher EI, however, seem to have the capacity for acknowledging this, and tend to down regulate strong and/or negative emotional responses in order to preserve good interpersonal relationship (i.e. display less aggression). Hence, hypothesis 1 is supported.

Table 4.6: The correlations between the EI sub-dimensions and the sub-dimensions of verbal aggression

Constructs		AColVerbal	ASuperVerbal	ASuboVerbal
EI	EI sub-dimensions			
	ESA	-.035	.012	-.086
	EE	-.146	-.149	-.141
	EAO	-.078	-.034	-.109
	ER	-.207*	-.181*	-.181*
	ESM	-.159	-.224**	-.120
	EMO	-.117	-.129	-.173*
	ESC	-.357**	-.394*	-.295**

N=134; **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed); * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed); **ESA** = Emotional Self Awareness; **EE** = Emotional Expression; **EAO** = Emotional Awareness of Others; **ER** = Emotional Reasoning; **EMO** = Emotional Management of Others; **EMS** = Emotional Management of Self; **ESC** = Emotional Self-Control; **AColVerbal** = Aggression towards Colleague; **ASuperVerbal** = Aggression towards Superior; **ASuboVerbal** = Aggression towards Subordinate

The results revealed no significant relationships between the emotional self-awareness and expression components (i.e. **ESA**, **EE**, **EAO**) of EI with the respective verbal aggression sub-dimensions. However, Emotional Reasoning (**ER**) obtained weak significant negative relationships with the three dimension of WA: verbal aggression towards colleagues ($r = -.207$, $n = 134$, $p < .05$) superior ($r = -.181$, $n = 134$, $p < .05$) and subordinate ($r = -.181$, $n = 134$, $p < .05$). **ER** measures the relative frequency with which an individual incorporates emotionally relevant information in the process of decision making or problem solving at work. These results indicate that employees who incorporate more emotional information in the process of decision making or when faced with problem solving at work, engage in less verbal aggressive behaviours. Individuals who are able to make use of relevant emotional information when making decisions / facing problems, are better able to manage and control their emotions. In addition, such individuals tend not to be overwhelmed by their emotions when considering decisions or facing problems (Gignac, 2008). These results, therefore, suggests that individuals with higher **ER** capabilities, probably downplay the emotional aspects of problems / decisions. Aggressive behaviours are often emotion laden. The capacity to think more rationally about problems or decisions (as opposed to being more emotionally inclined) may thus help individuals to not so frequently engage in negative verbal aggressive behaviours at work, when frustration or stress occurs.

Emotional Self-Management (ESM) measures the relative frequency with which an individual manages their own emotions at work (Gignac, 2008). The results revealed a weak negative significant relationship with verbal aggression towards a superior ($r = -.224$, $n = 134$, $p < .05$) and ESM. This result may indicate the when an individual with higher ESM engages with a superior, they will display a greater capacity to manage their emotions in this interaction. Higher ESM also help foster positive moods and assist an individual in controlling strong emotions from affecting their thoughts and actions. This result suggests that all of these emotional regulation abilities associated with ESM will most likely assist such an individual to engage in less verbal aggressive behaviours towards a superior. It is interesting to note that no significant correlations between this particular EI dimension was obtained with any of the other two verbal aggression subscales. This may point towards the fact that most individuals may not find it necessary to engage the capacity to regulate negative / unwanted emotional reactions towards individuals of a similar peer group (colleagues) or lower status group (subordinates), when situations arise which may lend itself to verbal aggressive responses. However, in interactions with individuals from a higher status group the influence of display rules (i.e. social norms for acceptable behaviour / rules about the appropriateness of emotion expressions in specific situations; Ekman & Friesen, 1975) may become much more pronounced. The higher EI individual would thus engage in more emotional self regulation to conform to the norm of preserving good interpersonal relationships (especially with superiors), which may be the reason for the results reported here.

A weak significant negative relationship emerged between Emotional Management of others (EMO) at work and verbal aggression towards a subordinate ($r = -.173$, $n = 134$, $p < .05$). Individuals, who are able to manage the emotions of others at work, generally have the capacity to motivate colleagues or subordinates. Such individuals also find it naturally easy to help others in resolving issues that is causing distress. Higher EMO employees effectively manage the emotions of others at work, and will foster a positive work environment (Gignac, 2008). This result, therefore, suggest that individuals higher on EMO would tend not to revert to maladaptive behaviours (Petrides, Pérez-Gonzalés & Furnham, 2007) like verbal aggression, as they would be attuned to the effect of negative counterproductive workplace behaviours on others.

Weak (but leaning towards moderate) negative significant relationships emerged between Emotional Self Control (ESC) and all three respective dimensions of WA: verbal aggression towards colleague ($r = -.357$, $n = 134$, $p < .01$), superior ($r = -.394$, $n = 134$, $p < .05$) and subordinate ($r = -.295$, $n = 134$, $p < .01$). ESC measures the relative frequency with which an individual controls their strong emotions (e.g., frustration) appropriately in the workplace. Individuals, who are able to control such strong emotions appropriately, demonstrate the ability to focus or concentrate on the task at hand in the face of emotional adversity. Such individuals are also able to control intense reactive emotions, like anger or jubilations at work (Gignac, 2008). These results suggest that this dimension of EI seems to be the most influential emotional intelligence skill that contributes to an individual's capability to abstain from engaging in verbal workplace aggressive behaviours. Overall it is concluded that partial support for hypothesis two emerged from these results.

Given the fact that no variance was evident in the data for the physical aggression sub-dimension of the Greenberg and Barling (1999) aggression scale, no data analyses could be performed to investigate hypotheses 3 and 4. In the absence of such evidence it is not possible to provide any conclusions regarding support for/or against these hypotheses in this study.

4.3.2 The relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Narcissism

In terms of the relationships between EI and narcissism, it was proposed that:

Hypothesis 5: A significant negative relationship exists between EI (total score) and narcissism (NPI total score).

Hypothesis 6: Significant negative relationships exist between narcissism (NPI total score) and the dimensions of EI (Emotional Self-Awareness, Emotional Expression, Emotional Awareness of Others, Emotional Reasoning, Emotional Self-Management, Emotional Management of Others, and Emotional Self-Control).

The relationships between EI (total score, as well as the various sub-dimensions) and narcissism were investigated through the calculation of various Pearson Product-Moment Correlation coefficients. The results are represented in table 4.7.

Table 4.7: The correlations between the EI dimensions and NPI (total score)

Constructs	NPI TOTAL	
EI	EI TOTAL	.264**
	ESA	.232**
	EE	.170*
	EAO	.249**
	ER	.239**
	ESM	.233**
	EMO	.332**
	ESC	.009

N=134; **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1 -tailed); * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed); **ESA** = Emotional Self Awareness; **EE** = Emotional Expression; **EAO** = Emotional Awareness of Others; **ER** = Emotional Reasoning; **EMO** = Emotional Management of Others; **ESM** = Emotional Management of Self; **ESC** = Emotional Self-Control

Contrary to the expectation, a significant weak positive relationship emerged between the NPI and EI total scores. Hence hypothesis 5 is not supported. One way to make sense of the contradiction is to consider that two types of narcissism exist. Researchers have associated narcissism with maladjustment and misery (Cooper & Ronningstam, 1992; Kernberg, 1975) and others have emphasised that narcissism is associated with some indicators of psychological well-being (Kohut, 1977; Rhodewalt et al., 1998; Rhodewalt & Morf, 1995; Watson, Hickman & Morris, 1996; Watson et al., 1992). In previous research, a distinction has been made between overt and covert narcissism (Cooper & Ronningstam, 1992; Gabbard, 1989). Overt narcissists experience a grandiose sense of self, tend to demand others' attention and are socially charming even though they are relatively oblivious of others' needs (Rose, 2002). Covert narcissists, on the other hand feel profoundly inferior to others, are hypersensitive to others' evaluations, and are generally dissatisfied (Cooper & Ronningstam, 1992; Gabbard, 1989). Both types of narcissist are extraordinary self-absorbed and arrogant, but in another respect, overt and covert narcissist are distinguishable (Wink, 1991).

Watson et al., (1992) suggested that narcissism vary along a continuum, from this perspective, covert narcissism may lie toward the maladjustment end of the continuum, whereas overt narcissism may lay toward more the adjusted end of the continuum. Researchers have noted that some aspects of narcissism are more strongly related to psychological well-being (Hickman et al., 1996; Watson et al., 1992, 1996, Rhodewalt &

Morf, 1995), happiness and self esteem (Rose, 2002) and tend to correlate negatively with depressive symptoms (Rathvon & Holmstrom, 1996). Overt narcissist' happiness is mediated more by their level of self esteem, than by their level of self deception. Although their self-esteem levels are generally high, overt narcissist experience a wide variability in their day-today self-esteem level (Rhodewalt et al., 1998). They also experience a combination of high explicit self-esteem and low implicit self-esteem, which suggest that their conscious and unconscious self-views conflict (Brown, Bosson & Swann, 2001; Jordan et al., 2001). These unique aspects of overt narcissist' self-esteem may explain why they react so defensively when they are evaluated negatively (e.g. Bushman et al., 1998, Raskin et al., 1991; Rhodewalt et al., 1998). EI involves the capacity to carry out reasoning in regard to emotions, and the capacity of emotions to enhance reasoning and the ability to perceive and accurately express emotion, to use emotion to facilitate thought, to understand emotions and to manage emotions for emotional growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). There is substantial evidence for positive life-enhancing aspects of EI with positive association being found with life satisfaction, psychological health, social network quality and size and happiness (Austin, Saklfske & Egan, 2005, Day, Therrien & Carroll, 2005, Petrides & Furnham, 2003). In the current study, the NPI may have measured overt narcissism. The preceding argument suggests that if narcissism (overt) is related to well-being and subjective feelings of happiness and high self esteem, whilst EI is also related to many of these outcome variables, overt narcissism may then also be related to EI in a positive manner.

Further inspection of the results in table 4.7 revealed that a significant positive relationship emerged between Emotional Self-Management (ESM) and the narcissism total score ($r = .233$, $n = 134$, $p < .01$). This result suggests that narcissists seem to have the ability to overcome an emotional set-back at work and engage in activities to maintain a positive emotional state while at work. The moderate positive significant relationship between the NPI (total) score ($r = .332$, $n = 134$, $p < .01$) and Emotional Management of Others (EMO) indicate that narcissist can successfully manage the emotions of others at work and create a positive work environment whilst helping others to resolve issues that causes them to stress. It is important to note that, according to Baumeister, Bushman and Campbell (2000), narcissists are not angry and aggressive all the time. Such behaviours mostly emerge when they are rejected or their status is threatened For example, narcissists report more anger following feedback of task failure and social rejection (Rhodewalt et al., 1998;

Stucke & Sporer, 2002; Twenge & Campbell, 2003). Thus, these results suggests that narcissists may be able to display most EI abilities and use them in an adaptive manner (i.e. maintaining positive emotional states themselves, or helping others to create a positive work environment), in situations where the false sense of self is not being challenged. However, when an ego-threat is introduced (e.g. social rejection), these results may not hold. This research, however, did not measure the frequency of ego-threats the respondents may or may not experience on a daily basis. Therefore, the 'true' narcissistic personality may not have been measured in the way that would provide support for the expected relationships between EI and narcissism.

From the rest of the results it is evident that there is a positive and significant weak relationship between Emotional Self-Awareness (ESA) and the NPI (total score) ($r = .232$, $n = 134$, $p < .01$), meaning that higher levels of Emotional Self Awareness (ESA) is associated with higher levels of narcissism. ESA measures the relative frequency with which an individual consciously identify their emotions at work. Research has shown that narcissism is inversely related to agreeableness, empathy, gratitude, affiliation and need for intimacy, whereas it is positively related to competitiveness, exploitativeness, Machiavellianism, anger, hostility and cynical mistrust of other (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001, Sedikides et al., 2002). It has been discussed that narcissist have unstable self-esteem and are highly dependent on social validation with other (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). Narcissist also react angry (Rhodewalt & Morf, 1998) and aggressively to threatening feedback (Bushman et al, 1998). From the research it is clear that narcissist must, more often than not, be aware of their own emotions to maintain high levels of self-esteem and positive self perception, in order to avoid emotional lows and subsequent aggressive behaviours. Once again, the current research (i.e. the positive association) may have resulted from measuring a type of overt narcissism, that allows the individual to be socially charming (Rose, 2002), which would require the capability to be aware of one's own emotions.

The results further revealed that there was a significant weak positive relationship between Emotional Expression (EE) and the NPI total score ($r = .170$, $n = 134$, $p < .01$), suggesting that higher levels of Emotional Expression (EE) are associated with increased narcissism. EE measures the relative frequency with which an individual expresses their emotions (verbal or non verbal) in an appropriate manner at work. Narcissist have an inflated sense

of personal control over their environment (Watson et al., 1992), and a heightened need for status and power (Bradlee & Emmons, 1992; Carroll, 1987). Narcissist also exhibits a dominant interpersonal style (Cain, Pincus & Ansell, 2008). All of this research suggests that narcissist generally will be able to communicate emotions and emotional information effectively in the workplace, even if it is to accomplish their own selfish goals.

In addition, the findings also indicated a weak positive significant relationship between Emotional Awareness of Others (EAO) and the NPI (total score) ($r = .249$, $n = 134$, $p < .01$). EAO is the frequency with which an individual places emphasis on the awareness of both verbal and non-verbal expression of emotion by others. Narcissists continuously need to protect their unrealistic self perception and self esteem regulation. Thus, for the narcissist, self-esteem regulation involves the act of seeking admiration and protecting the self from failure or shame (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993). In their attempt to maintain positive self-evaluations, narcissists will try by all means to structure social situations in ways that will allow them to gain the feedback they desire (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993). This would require the ability to be able to read the verbal and non-verbal emotional expression of the individuals they are surrounded with in the workplace (as this result suggests). Hence, they may place an emphasis on the awareness of other's verbal and non-verbal expressions as part of the mechanism to protect them from encountering an ego-threat and maintaining positive self-evaluations.

A significant positive relationship between Emotional Reasoning (ER) and the NPI (total score) ($p = .239$, $n = 134$, $p < .01$), emerged. ER measures the relative frequency with which an individual incorporates emotionally relevant information in the process of decision making or problem solving at work (Gignac, 2008). It would seem that individuals that are higher on narcissism seem to report using more emotionally relevant information in their decision making processes. This may be linked to the previous argument, i.e. that the heightened ability of the narcissist to read other's emotions (in order to avoid social rejection / an ego threat) may facilitate their self esteem regulation. It is probable that the decision making processes (internal and external) in such cases is very emotionally laden (given that it involves mainly social interaction processes) and hence the heightened inclusion of emotional information may help the narcissist to more effectively execute this cognitive process.

Given the results of the separate correlations of the EI subscales with the NPI total score presented above, it can be concluded that no substantive evidence was found in this study to support hypothesis 6.

It should be noted that, given these results, the possibility for a curvilinear relationship between the EI (total score) and NPI (total score) was also investigated. Analysis of the scatterplot, however, showed no conclusive evidence that the relationship between these variables is curvilinear.

4.4.3 The Relationship between WA and Narcissism

In terms of the relationship between WA and narcissism, it was proposed that:

Hypothesis 7: Significant positive relationships exist between narcissism (NPI total score) and the three respective dimensions of Verbal Aggression (Verbal Aggression towards Colleagues, Verbal Aggression towards Superiors, and Verbal Aggression towards Subordinates).

Hypothesis 8: Significant positive relationships exist between the dimensions of narcissism (Authority, Self Sufficiency, Exhibitionism, Exploitiveness, Vanity and Entitlement) and the dimensions of Verbal Aggression (Verbal Aggression towards Colleague, Verbal Aggression towards Superior, and Verbal Aggression towards Subordinates).

Hypothesis 9: Significant positive relationships exist between narcissism (NPI total score) and the three respective dimensions of Physical Aggression (Physical Aggression towards Colleagues, Physical Aggression towards Superiors, and Physical Aggression towards Subordinates).

Hypothesis 10: Significant positive relationships exist between the dimensions of narcissism (Authority, Self Sufficiency, Exhibitionism, Exploitiveness, Vanity and Entitlement) and the dimensions of Physical Aggression (Physical Aggression towards Colleague, Physical Aggression towards Superior, and Physical Aggression towards Subordinates).

Table 4.8 The correlations between NPI (total score) and respective Verbal Aggression sub-dimensions

	Narcissism	Verbal Aggression		
		AColVerbal	ASuperVerbal	ASuboVerbal
	NPI (total score)	.162	.048	-.024

N=134; **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1 -tailed); * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed); AColVerbal = Aggression towards Colleague; ASuperVerbal = Aggression towards Superior

As is evident from the results, and contrary to what was expected, no significant relationships emerged between the NPI (total score) and any of the aggression subscales. Previous researches argued that narcissists maintain their inflated self-views interpersonally by seeking to dominate others (Carroll, 1987). When narcissists fail to win, they react badly. They tend to distort their own positive contributions to tasks and blame others for their failures (Campbell & Forster, 2000, Farwell & Wohlwend-Lloyd, 1998, John & Robins, 1994). Narcissists derogate competitors (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993) and individuals who give them unflattering feedback (Kernis et al., 1994). The link between narcissism aggression and ego-threat (e.g. unflattering feedback, failing, social rejection) has been documented across a range of situations (Baumeister et al., 1996). However, as this research did not explicitly measure the ego threats the respondents may or may not, have experienced, the narcissism – aggression association may have been weakened in the current results. Hence, no support for hypothesis 7 is evident from the current research results.

Table 4.9: The correlations between the NPI dimensions and Verbal Aggression sub-dimensions

Constructs	Measurement	AColVerbal	ASuperVerbal	ASuboVerbal
Scale sub- dimensions				
NPI	NPIauth	.092	.045	-.086
	NPIselfs	.099	.043	-.042
	NPIsuper	.148	.068	-.010
	NPIexhib	.121	-.046	.040
	NPIexploi	.190*	.049	.027
	NPIvanity	.25	-.007	-.031
	NPIentitlem	.213*	.113	-.009

N=134; **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1 -tailed); * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed); NPIauth = Authority; NPIselfs= Self Sufficiency; NPIsuper= Superiority ; NPIexhib= Exhibitionism; NPIexploi= Exploitiveness; NPIvanity = Vanity; NPIentitlem = Entitlement

In line with the total score correlation results, almost no support was found for the hypothesised relationships between the respective NPI subscales and the three dimensions of Verbal Aggression. Only two significant positive relationships emerged. These were, Entitlement ($r = .213, n = 134, p < .05$) and Exploitiveness ($r = .190, n = 134, p < .05$) with Verbal Aggression towards a colleague. No significant correlations were evident with these two NPI subscales and the other two dimensions of verbal aggression. This may, once again, point towards the fact that individuals may be more willing to report on aggressive behaviours towards their peers, as opposed to reporting on aggressive behaviours towards superiors / subordinates.

Exploitiveness is associated with characteristics, such as rebelliousness, nonconformity, hostility and lack of consideration and tolerance of other, whereas ambitiousness, need for power, dominance, hostility, toughness and lack of self control and tolerance of others is associated with Entitlement (Raskin & Terry, 1988). These results suggest that higher levels of exploitiveness and entitlement are associated with higher levels of verbal aggression towards co-workers. This is in line with previous research that has shown that narcissist lack in empathy (Watson et al., 1984), and so it is not surprising that they exploit others in striving for self-enhancement (Campbell & Foster, 2000). Narcissists also tend to be domineering in their personal interactions (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993; Raskin et al, 1991 1b). In the DSM IV the description of a Narcissist also includes “obliviousness to the hurt their remarks may inflict”. In general, “interpersonal relationships are typically impaired due to the problems derived from entitlement, the need for admiration and the relative disregard for the sensitivities of other” (Dattner, 2000, p659). Anger, hostility and rage seem to be central to the emotional life of the narcissist and consequently narcissistic behaviour may allow the expression of these emotions in a way that protects a sense of positive self-regard (Raskin et al., 1991). Narcissist may use verbal aggression to turn against others who challenge their sense of grandeur. These tendencies may even be exacerbated in the workplace, where, compared to a voluntary personal relationship in which the parties are relatively equal and from which the other party can freely choose to exit, a narcissist's position of power and colleagues' inability to exit the situation, may remove such checks and balances. Very weak partial evidence emerged in support for hypothesis 8.

Once again, given the fact that no variance was evident in the data for the physical aggression sub-dimension of the Greenberg and Barling (1999) aggression scale, no data analysis could be performed to investigate hypotheses 9 and 10. In the absence of such evidence it is not possible to provide any conclusions regarding support for/or against these hypotheses in this study.

4.4.4 The moderating effect of EI on the relationship between Narcissism and WA

It was proposed that the relationship between narcissism and WA (both verbal and physical aggression) is moderated by EI. More specifically, it was hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 11: EI (total score) is a moderator in the relationship between narcissism (NPI total score) and WA (both Verbal and Physical Aggression).

The moderating effect of EI on the relationship between narcissism and WA could only be tested if a moderate / high correlation and dependable relationship was found between the independent variable (NPI) and dependent variable (WA). Clearly a restriction of range limited the utility of the WA data (more so in the physical aggression data, but also in the verbal aggression data) obtained in this study. Hence, it was not possible to conduct the moderated regression analysis to establish the moderating effect of EI in this relationship, due to an absence of evidence of significant, strong relationships between the independent (narcissism) and dependent variables (i.e. physical and verbal aggression). In the absence of these analyses, and subsequent evidence, it is unfortunately not possible to provide any conclusion regarding support for/or against hypothesis 11, in this study.

4.5. SUMMARY

In this chapter the research results were reported and interpreted. Results obtained through the various data analyses were discussed. The following chapter will focus on a consolidated discussion of the reported results, with the reference to relevant literature. Limitations of this study will then be noted and recommendations for future research will be proposed.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The research findings of this study are presented in chapter four. This final chapter will discuss the findings as well as general conclusions related to the empirical evidence obtained in this research. References to, and comparisons with, the relevant literature and previous research will also be presented. This chapter concludes with limitations of this study as well as recommendations for future research.

Workplace aggression is an ever-increasing and multi-faceted phenomenon that managers and human resources practitioners will have to address in the twenty first century (Pietersen, 2005). A greater awareness of the presence and negative consequences of human aggression in the workplace and the ability to cope with it will become necessary to maintain an effective organisation (Pietersen, 2005). A substantial body of research (Anderson & Pearson, 1999; Chen & Spector, 1992; Geddes & Baron, 1997) suggests that personality traits may predispose individuals to respond in a particular way, in this instance to behave aggressively or not. The aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between narcissism and WA, and the moderating effect of EI on the abovementioned relationship. It was proposed that narcissists will generally have lower levels of EI, making it probable that such individuals could be prone to more aggression. In the current research the relationship between EI and WA was also investigated. Furthermore, the current research explored whether higher levels of narcissism is related to forms of physical and verbal aggression. It was also investigated whether narcissist posses a higher intent to aggress, as well as whether individuals that are narcissistic generally possess lower levels of EI. It has been argued that Narcissists are more likely to aggress when an ego threat is experienced (ego-threat) (Bushman et al., 1998) thus it was proposed that narcissists may be less prone to respond with aggression, when EI is enhanced.

5.2. FINDINGS: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORKPLACE AGGRESSION, NARCISSISM AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

5.2.1 Emotional Intelligence and Workplace Aggression

EI provides a framework to understand individual differences in the attending to, processing and utilising of affect-laden information of an intrapersonal (e.g. regulating one's own emotions) or interpersonal (e.g. regulating others' emotions) nature (Petrides & Furnham, 2003). EI consist of the interaction between emotion and cognition which leads to adaptive functioning (Salovey & Grewal, 2005; Ciarrochi, Forgas & Mayer, 2001). As is evident from the results, it would seem that individuals with higher EI scores seem to report engaging less frequently in verbal aggressive behaviours. In addition, Salovey et al. (1999) argued that high levels of EI can promote effective coping by decreasing the extent to which individuals ruminate on negative events, promoting emotional disclosure and by increasing individuals' proclivity to seek social support after negative events occur. Hence, higher EI may increase constructive coping with stress (e.g. frustration), minimising negative behaviours, such as aggression. To summarise, higher EI may enable better coping mechanisms as well as enable more appropriate emotional reactions to stress, frustration and ego threat.

Individuals high in EI have the capacity to carry out reasoning in regard to emotions (Brackett, Mayer & Warner, 2004). As mentioned previously, EI facilitates the effective regulation of emotions and is associated with adaptive coping styles. Mikolajczak et al. (2008) found trait EI is positively related to the use of positive reappraisal methods, with which such individuals invoke pleasant thoughts or memories in order to counter their current emotional state (e.g. negative). EI contributes to promoting the choice of more adaptive regulation strategies and prevent the choice of maladaptive strategies (Saklofske, Austin, Galloway & Davidson, 2007; Petrides et al., 2007). The current results (inverse relationship between EI and aggression) provide further evidence of this notion.

Furthermore, EI is found to be unrelated to rumination. That is, high EI individuals use more adaptive coping strategies to maintain joy and to down-regulate fear, anger, sadness, envy and shame (Mikolajczak et al., 2008). Given these research findings, the conclusion can be made that higher EI individuals would engage less frequently in inappropriate and destructive aggressive behaviours, as evidenced by the current study.

Individuals with higher EI levels experience more emotional well-being, understand and regulate emotions to maintain a better outlook on life and experience better emotional health (Schutte, Malouff, Simunek, McKenley & Hollander, 2002). Conversely, the frequent display of aggressive behaviours in the workplace has been linked to poor occupational health and well-being (Baron, & Neuman, 1996; Lapierre, Spector & Leck (2005). Hence, the inverse association between EI and aggression found in this current research is also substantiated when both these construct's relationships to outcome variables (e.g. well being) are considered.

Individuals with higher EI experience an increase in quality and quantity of social support (Austin et al., 2005, Mikolajczak et al., 2007) probably due to better interpersonal skills and subsequent healthy intrapersonal relationships. For example, Pau, Croucher, Sohanpal, Muirhead, and Seymour (2004) reported that individuals with higher levels of EI are more likely to adopt reflection, appraisal, and social management skills. Moreover, efficient regulation of emotions is essential to ensure high-quality social relationship (e.g. Keltner & Kring, 1998; Lopes, Salovey, Côté & Beers, 2005). Individuals with higher EI will be able to maintain healthy and productive relationships due to the ability to down regulate strong and negative emotions. Such individuals have the ability to connect and disconnect from an emotion depending its usefulness in any given situation. When an individual is faced with, for example, perceived injustice during a conflict episode, an individual's feelings of anger may distract them from resolving the conflict. Individuals with high EI would be aware of their anger, be able to connect to their anger and regulate it to motivate their behavior constructively (as evidenced by die negative association between ESC and aggression reported in this study). The individual with low EI may not be aware of their emotions or the source of these emotions and allow anger to consume their thoughts and dwell on the injustice that may have precipitated the anger (Jorden & Troth, 2004). Hence, higher EI could result in more constructive behaviours in the face of conflict inducing environments, which should result in less subsequent aggression. This will help preserve better interpersonal relationships, which may lead to increased social support.

When the correlations of the EI subscales with the verbal aggression subscales were investigated, various associations were evident which more clearly elucidate the nature of the relationship between EI and aggression. Individuals high on EI have the ability to assimilate information to prioritise thinking by focusing on important information that

explains why feelings are being experienced. Mayer and Salovey (1997) refer to this ability as assimilation (emotional reasoning) and it includes the ability to adopt multiple perspectives to assess a problem from all sides, including pessimistic and optimistic perspectives. ER is the relative frequency with which an individual incorporates emotionally relevant information in the process of decision making or problem solving at work. Individuals high in EI are not overwhelmed by their emotions when they make decision or solving problems (Gignac, 2008). Emotional Reasoning (ER) obtained weak significant negative relationships with the three dimension of verbal WA. In the current research it was found that individuals high on ER will be able to downplay emotional aspects of problems, assimilate relevant emotions, and would be able to think more rationally when faced with problems or decisions. This ability will cause such individuals to reconsider their emotions before engaging in verbal aggression and subsequently it should help foster productive interpersonal relationships and better team performance.

Emotion regulation (e.g. ESM) is defined as the efforts that people exert to increase, maintain or decrease one or more aspect of an emotion (Gross, 1999). Within the Genos EI model, ESM measures the relative frequency with which an individual manages their own emotions at work (Gignac, 2008). The results revealed a weak negative significant relationship between ESM and verbal aggression towards a superior. This may indicate that when individuals with higher ESM engage with a superior, they will display a greater capacity to manage their emotions in this interaction. These results makes sense if one considers the fact that individuals possess an array of emotion regulation strategies and make decisions about which strategy to use, depending on the features of context. The features of the context may include the nature of the task and the people with whom one interacts (Côté, Miners & Moon, 2006). ESM is clearly more important in potential aggressive displays towards superiors, probably in order to save face in such interactions. It was, however, not deemed to be such an important skill to access in interactions with subordinates / colleagues (as no correlations were evident between ESM and verbal aggression towards subordinate and colleague). Higher EI (e.g. ESM) is linked with aspects of better psychological function (i.e. social support), intrapersonal factors such as greater optimism and interpersonal factors such as better social relationship (Brown & Schutte, 2006, Salovey & Grewal, 2005, Schutte et al., 1998, Schutte et al., 2001). Higher ESM also help foster positive moods and assist an individual in controlling strong emotions from affecting their thoughts and actions. The results suggest that all of the emotional

regulation abilities associated with ESM will most likely assist such an individual to engage in less verbal aggressive behaviours towards a superior. The result may also support the notion that individuals will assess and adjust their behavior/responses to suit the social norms of acceptable behavior (Ekman & Friesen, 1975) and maintain good relationships. In the current research it was found that no significant correlations between this particular EI dimension was obtained with any of the other two verbal aggression subscales. Hence it is concluded that the regulation of emotions and responses towards individuals from a similar peer group (e.g. colleagues) or lower status group (subordinates), may not be as pronounced compared to emotional regulation towards individuals from a higher status group.

EI may contribute to the quality of people's relationship at work because emotions serve communicative and social functions, conveying information about thoughts and intentions, and helping to coordinate social encounters (Keltner & Haidt, 2001). A negative association between Emotional Management of Others (EMO) at work and verbal aggression towards subordinates were evident in this research. Higher EMO employees effectively manage the emotions of others at work, and will foster a positive work environment (Gignac, 2008). Individuals, who are able to manage the emotions of others at work, generally have the capacity to motivate colleagues or subordinates. Research by Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schütz, Selling, and Salovey (2004) reported, for example, that individuals high in EI are able to nurture positive relationships at work, work effectively in teams and build social capital (networks) (Lopes et al., 2004). Such outcomes (e.g. better team work; positive relationships) would probably be associated with more healthy interpersonal relationships and less negative verbal aggression (i.e. arguing, yelling). High EMO individuals also find it naturally easy to help others in resolving issues that is causing distress. Such individuals tend not to revert to maladaptive behaviours (Petrides, Pérez-Gonzalés & Furnham, 2007) like verbal aggression, as they would be attuned to the effect of their negative counterproductive workplace behaviours on others.

According to Mikolajczak et al. (2008), higher EI individuals are not less emotional; they rather have the capacity to effectively regulate emotions (Mikolajczak et al., 2008). Emotional Self Control (ESC) obtained weak significant relationships with all three dimensions of verbal aggression. Individuals with high ESC are able to control intense reactive emotions, like anger or jubilations at work (Gignac, 2008). From this result it would

seem that individuals high in EI have the insight to understand that it is important to control strong emotions in the workplace. This increased efficiency to better regulate strong emotions may account for high-quality social relationships (Keltner & Kring, 1998, Lopes et al., 2005). Emotional control also refers to the ability to control strong emotions appropriately, whilst demonstrating the ability to focus or concentrate on the task at hand in the face of emotional adversity. This may lead to better work performance, through increasing the individual's capacity to work effectively in teams and manage work stress (Caruso & Salovey, 2004). These associations between ESC and verbal aggression across all three dimensions of aggression suggest that this dimension of EI seems to be the most influential EI skill that contributes to an individual's capability to abstain from engaging in verbal workplace aggressive behaviours.

5.2.2 Workplace Aggression and Narcissism

It was anticipated that strong associations would be found between the respective dimensions of WA (physical and verbal) and narcissism (NPI total score) as well as the various dimensions of narcissism. Contrary to what was expected, no significant relationships emerged between narcissism (total NPI score) and any of the aggression subscales. Various reasons can be proposed for this non result. Firstly, narcissists are somewhat less negative in public than in private (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993). Given the respondent's views regarding the nature of the questionnaire (i.e. 'public' information/sensitive information – although anonymity was guaranteed), a narcissist may not readily admit to aggressive behaviours, as part of the strategy to present a constant positive self image. For example, narcissists worry obsessively about what others might think of them, and are highly sensitive to circumstances that challenge or disconfirm their grandiosity (DSM-IV, 1994). Secondly, and perhaps more importantly, the theory of threatened egotism (Baumeister et al., 1996) state that the narcissist will aggress when faced with an ego threat. An aggressive reaction is always directed against the perceived sources of the ego-threat (Stucke & Sporer, 2002) or social exclusion (Twenge & Campbell, 2003). In this study, negative provocative feedback (i.e. ego-threat) was not incorporated in the aggression questionnaire as a trigger for possible aggressive behaviour. Hence, the absence of the trigger event may have attenuated the strength of the narcissism-aggression relationship.

Thirdly, it is known that individuals with aggressive tendencies tend to mask their hostile intentions before acting aggressively, thereby making their identification difficult (Baron et al., 1998; James, 1998). Self-report instruments (such as the aggression questionnaire utilised in this study) have traditionally been used to measure dispositional aggressiveness even though an array of problems with this methodology have been identified in the literature, including ego-protective and ego-enhancing biases (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; James, 1998; Spector, 1994; Stone & Stone, 1990). Aggressive individuals may distort their responses on self-report measures to avoid describing themselves in negative terms (Heneman, Heneman & Judge, 1997). Furthermore, the absence of correlations may also be a result of the restriction of range in the aggression data. This was a much more pronounced problem in the physical aggression data (to such an extent that the data could not be used in any analysis), but were also present in the verbal aggression data, possibly weakening the outcomes of the study.

Significant positive relationships emerged between the two narcissism dimensions, Entitlement and Exploitiveness, with the verbal aggression towards a colleague subscale. These results were not replicated for the verbal aggression towards subordinate and verbal aggression towards superior subscales. Entitlement and Exploitiveness is the combined belief that you are entitled to things and a narcissist propensity to exploit others to gain things. Entitlement is associated with such characteristics as rebelliousness, non conformity, hostility, lack of consideration for others and little tolerance for others (Raskin & Terry, 1988). Ambitiousness, need for power, dominance, hostility, toughness and lack of self-control and tolerance for others are characteristics associated with entitlement (Raskin & Terry, 1998). Entitlement and Exploitiveness represent extreme psychological maladjustment (Raskin & Novacek, 1989) and scores correlate most strongly with DMS-III-reference Antisocial, Passive-Aggressive and Paranoid personality disorders (Reidy, Zeichner, Foster & Martinez, 2008). Bushman, Baumeister, Philips and Gilligan (1999) (cited in Baumeister, Bushman & Campbell, 2000) found that violent offenders endorsed elevated levels of narcissism, and obtained the highest scores on the NPI subscales of Entitlement and Superiority. This suggests that the dangerous aspect of narcissism is the inflated sense of superiority and sense of entitlement to special privileges (Baumeister et al., 2000) and not vanity and self-admiration. In their study, Reidy et al. (2008) examined the relationship between narcissistic traits and aggression. Their results indicated that narcissistic entitlement and exploitativeness are the sub traits that best predicted all the

measures of aggression. The conclusion can be drawn that narcissistic individuals may use aggression more frequently across different interpersonal context, in various forms (e.g. direct, indirect, physical, and verbal) and at greater levels within each of those contexts (Bushman & Anderson, 1998).

The differential effect of narcissism in its relationship with aggression towards different groups found here may be explained by the notion that WA is target specific. Hershcovis and Barling (2007) proposed a relational model of aggression which posits that the impact of WA is influenced by the relationship between an aggressor and target, such that more detrimental outcomes may result when aggression emanates from someone with greater legitimate power, or when one's relationship with the aggressor is ongoing. For example, Baron, Neuman and Geddes (1999) provided research which indicated that respondents reported that they were most likely to aggress against a colleague (which corroborates with the results in this study) or their immediate supervisor, and less likely to aggress against subordinates. This is further substantiated by research by Innes, Le Blanc and Barling (2008), who argue that due to their ongoing contact with each other, and the hierarchical nature of organisations, peers often feel closer to one another than to supervisors or subordinates. Peers may therefore have a great expectation of positive interactions and mistreatment by one's peers may be particularly salient.

5.2.3 Emotional Intelligence and Narcissism

Contrary to what was expected, a significant positive weak relationship emerged between the NPI and EI total scores. A possible explanation for this result is to consider that two types of narcissism exist. Narcissism has been described as a mixed-blessing (Paulhus, 1998) because it comprises adaptive and maladaptive features. Narcissist can be outgoing (Bradlee & Emmons, 1992), confident (Emmons, 1984), perform well under pressure (Wallace & Baumeister, 2002) and implement self-regulatory tactics that preserve self-esteem (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). On the other hand, narcissist tend to be impulsive (Vazire & Funder, 2006), fail to learn from their mistakes (Campbell, Goodie & Foster, 2004), and prone to many forms of aggression behaviour (i.e. verbal, physical and violence) (Baumeister et al., (1996); Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). Other researchers have associated narcissism with maladjustment and misery (Cooper & Ronningstam, 1992; Kernberg, 1975) whilst others have emphasised that narcissism is positively associated with some indicators of psychological well-being (Kohut, 1977, Rhodewalt,

Madrian & Cheney, 1998, Rhodewalt & Morf, 1995, Watson, Hickman & Morris, 1996; Watson, Little, Swarie & Biderman, 1992). In addition, some researchers have noted that some aspects of narcissism are more strongly related to psychological well-being (Hickman et al., 1996; Watson et al., 1992, 1996, Rhodewalt & Morf, 1995), happiness and self esteem (Rose, 2002) and tend to correlate negatively with depressive symptoms (Rathvon & Holmstrom, 1996). A distinction can be made between overt and covert narcissists (Cooper et al., 1992; Gabbard, 1989). Overt narcissists experience a grandiose sense of self, tend to demand others' attention and are socially charming even though they are relatively oblivious of others' needs (Rose, 2002). Covert narcissists, on the other hand, feel profoundly inferior to others, are hypersensitive to others' evaluations, and generally dissatisfied (Cooper et al., 1992, Gabbard, 1989). Both types of narcissist are extraordinary self-absorbed and arrogant, but overt and covert narcissists are distinguishable (Wink, 1991).

Watson et al., (1992) suggested that narcissism vary along a continuum. According to this perspective, covert narcissism may lie toward the maladjustment end of the continuum, whereas overt narcissism may lie toward the more adjusted end of the continuum. All of this research suggests that the construct of narcissism may contain strong components of adaptive and maladaptive behaviours. Hence, it is proposed that the positive correlation with EI found in this current research perhaps reflects the association with the adaptive components of narcissism. This finding may be sample specific, given the relative heterogeneity of the sample (mostly female employees working at tertiary institutions). It may also have emerged as an artefact of the measurement of narcissism, given that a restriction of range may have been present in the sample.

It is known that lower levels of trait EI are associated with higher levels of depression, anxiety and stress. High EI individuals are likely to experience a higher level of psychological well-being and lower levels of emotional deficit than individuals who possess lower levels of EI (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). High EI individuals are also able to maintain positive mental states due to their ability to effectively manage (by recognising, understanding, generating, regulating and promoting) their emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, Salovey & Mayer, 1990). In addition, Liau, Liau, Teoh and Lia (2003) and Mavroveli, Petrides, Rieffe, and Bakker (2007) found an inverse relationship between trait EI and problem behaviour, whilst Schutte and colleagues (2002) reported that higher EI was

characteristically related to positive moods and higher self-esteem. More specifically, Schutte et al., (2002) found that high EI was associated with less decrease in positive mood as well as less decrease in self-esteem, after a negative mood induction. Individuals with higher EI were better able to maintain positive mood and self esteem when faced with negative induction and maximise the positive mood impact of a positive state induction (Schutte et al., 2002). Given the importance of self esteem to the maintenance of the narcissists' self concept (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001), and the positive correlation between EI and self esteem (Schutte et al, 2002) it is further argued that the NPI, EI correlation observed here may reflect the overt narcissist' capability to positively regulate self-esteem, as a function of higher EI, lessening destructive / maladaptive behaviours (e.g. aggression). .

On the subscale level, significant positive relationships were found between the NPI total score and six of the seven EI subscales. More specifically, a significant positive relationship between Emotional Self-Management (ESM) and the total score of narcissism emerged. Management of one's own moods and emotions relies on knowledge and consideration of the determinants, appropriateness and flexibility of moods and emotions. This regulation entails a reflective process, which has been referred to as the meta-regulation of mood (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The result suggests that narcissists (overt) may have the ability to engage such a reflective process and overcome emotional setbacks at work, whilst also staying engaged in activities to maintain positive emotional states at work. A moderate positive significant relationship emerged between narcissism (NPI total score) and Emotional Management of Others (EMO). This implies that narcissists may possess some ability to successfully manage the emotions of others at work, create a positive work environment and help other to resolve issues that causes them to stress. However, it has been argued that a narcissist may use the ability to manage the emotions of others in a manipulative manner. Austin, Farrelly, Black and Moore (2007) operationalised emotional manipulation as the "dark side" of EI. Emotional manipulation is the capability of individuals to manipulate the emotions of others within a self-serving framework. The researchers explored emotional manipulation by investigating the relationship with EI and psychopathy. According to Baumeister et al., (2000) narcissists are not angry and aggressive all the time but only when they are rejected or their status is threatened. For example, narcissists report more anger following feedback of task failure and social rejection (Rhodewalt et al., 1998; Stucke et al., 2002; Twenge et

al., 2003). Thus it may be argued that, narcissists can display EI abilities, which may be a natural part of their socially charming personality (Rose, 2002), until their false sense of self is challenged and high self esteem is lowered. Given the absence of an ego threat trigger in the current research, this notion could not be investigated in this study.

A positive significant association between Emotional Self-Awareness (ESA) and narcissism emerged. This implies that higher levels of ESA are associated with higher levels of narcissism. ESA measures the relative frequency with which an individual consciously identify their emotions at work. Narcissist must frequently be aware of their own emotions and what they experience to maintain their level of self-esteem and positive self perception. Narcissist commonly report frequent emotional highs and lows (Bogart et al, 2004, Rhodewalt & Shimoda, 2002), confirming that the heightened emotional awareness most probably is associated with higher levels of EI (i.e. ESA).

A weak positive association between Emotional Expression (EE) and narcissism suggest that narcissistic individuals may be able to appropriately express emotions (verbal or non verbal) at the work. This ability is important, given that emotional regulation of self and others depend on appropriate emotional expression. Furthermore, EE may also come into play when the narcissist is actively maintaining an inflated self-opinion (Twenge & Campbell, 2003) to preserve their positive self perception and maintain ‘healthy’ interpersonal relationships.

Narcissism was also positively associated with the Emotional Reasoning (ER) dimension of the EI construct. This implies that narcissists may display the ability to incorporate emotionally relevant information into their process of decision making or problem solving at work. Individuals with high ER display the ability to use their emotions to guide thinking and to consider both emotions and technical information when evaluating interpersonal problems (Hatfield, Cacioppo & Rapson, 1994). Self esteem regulation of the narcissist will mainly happen within the context of interpersonal relationships (often emotionally laden) and hence the ER ability may help to constructively facilitate this process in the narcissist (overt). It also implies that the narcissist may have the ability to use emotions to guide thinking when evaluating feedback from a source, and adapt responses accordingly.

Finally, in addition to the findings above, a positive relationship between Emotional Awareness of Others (EAO) and narcissism (NPI total score), emerged. EAO is the frequency with which an individual places emphasis on the awareness of both verbal and non-verbal expression of emotion by others. Narcissists may generally not be able to maintain healthy interpersonal relationships, but they should be able to determine the emotions of others in order to adapt their approach to maintain their self- esteem or false sense of self. This is because narcissists continuously need to protect their unrealistic self perception, which involves the act of seeking admiration and protecting the self from failure or shame (Morf et al., 1993). The emotional reactions of others on their self perception are important situational cues to facilitate this process. Hence, it makes sense that narcissists may have a natural ability to read the emotions of individuals they are surrounded with.

The results of the present study indicate that the relationship between narcissism and EI is not as straightforward as anticipated by the researcher. For example, the possibility of a curvilinear relationship between the EI (total score) and NPI (total score) to further explain the results, was investigated, although no such evidence was found. Despite the lack of statistical support for the hypotheses as originally conceptualised, the present results should be considered along with other theoretical accounts regarding the construct of narcissism to suggest alternative hypotheses and directions for future research.

5.3 Emotional Intelligence as a moderator

One of the main objectives of this study was to investigate whether the relationship between narcissism and WA (verbal aggression) is moderated by EI. The moderating effect of EI on the relationship between narcissism and WA could only be tested if a significant correlation was found between the independent variable (NPI) and dependent variable (WA). This was not the case, and hence the moderating effect of EI on this relationship could not be explored.

5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Like any research, this study has several limitations (primarily related to the research design) which may have affected the results. A first limitation of this study was that the data was collected via self-report measurement instruments. All three measures utilised, the NPI, the Genos EI and the WA questionnaire, are self report measures. The utilisation

of self-report measurement is a common way of collecting data in the social sciences (Babbie & Mouton, 2002). However, this method is generally criticised for two main reasons. Firstly, the inferences (as to correlation and causal relationships between the variables in question) may be artificially inflated by the problem of common method variance. Secondly, self report data are prone to response biases which should be acknowledged and understood when the results are interpreted (Donaldson & Gran-Vallone, 2002). Unfortunately, it is difficult to obtain measures of personality with using self-report (Penney & Spector, 2002). This problem may be exacerbated when measuring narcissism. For example, Rhodewalt and Morf (1995) pointed out that self report measures pose unique challenges for narcissist whose responses may be subject to distortion, or whose surface self-conceptions or “ideal” selves may radically diverge from their deeper views of their “real” selves. These authors advocated for a multi-method approach to the assessment of narcissism.

One such response bias that could have influenced the results in this study is social desirable responding. Social desirable responding occurs when respondents tend to create a more favourable impression of themselves by over-reporting admirable attitudes and behaviours, and under-report attitudes and behaviours that they feel are not socially acceptable or respected (Zammuner & Galli, 2005b). Generally, this is a great concern in studies relying only on self-report questionnaires. This study utilised three self-report measures, and hence the results from the data should be interpreted in terms of this possible limitation. However, the assessment of individual engagement in WA is difficult to assess through objective measures or supervisor, peer or subordinate ratings, because very often WA occurs in a covert manner, making it difficult to identify. In a study by Baron et al. (1998) which surveyed 452 persons: 70.6% had never witnessed physical assault and 20.6% indicated that they had witnessed them rarely. When asked if they had ever personally experienced such an assault, 88.1% indicated that they had not.

A further limitation to this study was the relatively small sample size and convenience sampling method (i.e. non-probability sampling) which limits the generalisability of the results to larger populations. A greater degree of confidence can be placed in the results of studies with large sample sizes and, therefore, this research could have been benefited from a larger sample size. Cross-validation of the results (if an adequate sample size was available to split the sample) would also have benefitted the results in terms of its

replication status. In this research study, restriction of range also limited the results. Range restriction occurs when the full range of scores on the characteristic under study is not present in a sample, thereby reducing the variance in scores on a measure (i.e. Physical Aggression, Narcissism).

Finally, a significant amount of research has also demonstrated that there is a low level correlation between aggression and adverse working conditions such as a high level of noise, overcrowding, high or low temperatures, threat to safety, as well as rigid rules and procedures (Martinko et al., 2006). Generally, a university work environment does not contain much of these adverse working conditions which may contribute to aggressive behaviour, attenuating the range and frequency of aggressive behaviours the respondents in this study may have experienced / experience on a day to day basis, as well as the results of this study.

The NPI does not contain reverse-coded (i.e. negatively worded) items. Participants are more likely to agree with positively worded items, than with those worded negatively (Weems, Onwuegbuzie, Schreiber, Eggers, 2003). Since the items on the NPI were all worded so that higher scores indicated more narcissism, it may be a less valid measure and less likely to reflect participant's actual responses. In future work, it would be useful to examine reverse coded items in the scale to counteract a response set and possible social desirability response bias (often enhanced when no negatively worded items are present).

5.5 CONCLUSION

The overall aim of this study was to empirically examine the relationships between EI, WA and narcissism. It was also proposed that EI possibly acts as a moderator in the narcissism - WA relationship. Due to the fact that no significant relationship between narcissism and WA emerged in this study, the proposed hypothesis that EI moderates the relationship between narcissism and WA, could not be investigated.

The study provides evidence that increased EI may contribute to decreasing the propensity for individuals to engage in verbal aggressive behaviours. Individuals high on EI have the ability to regulate their emotions and manage emotions of others. EI may enable individuals to apply better coping mechanisms and use more appropriate emotional reactions to events which may induce aggressive behavior. Effective regulation of

emotions will assist individuals to use more adaptive coping strategies and down-regulate strong feelings / emotions. The display of aggressive behavior has been linked to poor occupational health and well-being. EI may play an important role in increasing the experience of emotional health and well-being, by lessening aggressive incidents in the workplace. In the current research it was found that individuals high on EI will be able to downplay emotional aspects of problems, assimilate relevant emotions and are able to think more rationally, when faced with problems or decisions through ER. This ability will cause individuals to reconsider their emotions before engaging in verbal aggression and subsequently it will foster productive interpersonal relationships and team performance. In the current research it was found that higher EI individuals manage their emotions when interacting with superiors to maintain positive working relationship as they may be well aware of the social norms expectations. Individuals high in EI also effectively manage the emotions of others and have a greater understanding of others, how to engage, motivate and connect with them. It was also found that EI can contribute to positive social interaction in the workplace, by lessening incidences of verbal aggression. To conclude, EI plays a role in regulating emotions and is associated with decreased incidences of verbal aggression in the workplace.

No significant relationships were found between the dimensions of verbal aggression and narcissism (total score). The absence of an ego threat, as well as the narcissists' proclivity to hide aggressive tendencies, may have contributed to these results. Narcissism represent a mix an adaptive (e.g. Self-Sufficiency) and maladaptive (e.g. Entitlement and Exploitativeness) traits. The current research sought to examine the relationship between narcissistic traits and aggression. The results indicated that narcissistic entitlement and exploitativeness were indeed associated with more verbal aggression towards colleagues, but not towards superiors and subordinates. These findings support existing research of the linkage between narcissism and the perpetration of WA.

In the current research data it was found that EI is positively related with narcissism, contrary to the researchers' hypothesis. The negative association between narcissism and EI was not supported in the current research, but numerous positive relationships were found between narcissism and EI. The findings may lead to an interesting conclusion that is that individuals with a fragile high self-esteem may be 'emotionally intelligent'. The following EI subscales, ESM, EMO, ESA, EE, ER, and EAO were found to have positive

relationships with narcissism. Individuals with high levels of narcissism may use emotional adaptive strategies and effectively manage their own emotions (ESM), influence the moods and emotions of others (EMO), perceive and understand own other's emotions (ESA), express their emotions towards colleagues and create a greater understanding about themselves (EE), utilise emotional information when making a decision (ER) and have a better understanding of others, how to engage, respond, motivate and connect with them (Gignac, 2008). Narcissist use various strategies for maintain inflated self-opinions (Twenge & Campbell, 2003). For example, narcissists are willing to use or exploit relationships with others for their own ends (Campbell, 1999). It can be argued that narcissists may use their EI abilities to maintain interpersonal relationships and dominate other individuals with the intent to merely maintain their fragile self-esteem and not to experience feelings of social rejection. To provide more clarity regarding this relationship, future research should include a measure of self esteem construct, when the relationship between EI and narcissism is being investigated. This will help clarify whether it is indeed so that EI may have a 'dark side' (i.e. emotional manipulation) or if it is rather the case that narcissism most definitely have two sides (i.e. adaptive/maladaptive or overt/covert).

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