

2010

Cold looks and hot tempers: individual-level effects of incivility in the workplace

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**COLD LOOKS AND HOT TEMPERS:
INDIVIDUAL-LEVEL EFFECTS OF INCIVILITY IN THE WORKPLACE**

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The E. J. Ourso College of Business Administration
Rucks Department of Management

by
Shannon G. Taylor
B.S., Bradley University, 2004
May 2010

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I offer my deepest and most heartfelt thanks to my dissertation chair, Art Bedeian, for all of his advice and mentoring efforts throughout my graduate studies. Further appreciation goes to my dissertation committee members, Professors Hettie A. Richardson, Donald H. Kluemper, and Timothy D. Chandler for their time and guidance. In addition, thanks go to Dean Eli Jones, Jennifer Loftin, Wendy Leudtke, and everyone at the Office of Alumni and External Relations who helped provide me with a pool of sample respondents. Finally, I would like to thank my parents, Scott and Kristel Taylor, and my sister, Alyson Taylor, for their continuous encouragement and belief in me.

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ABSTRACT

The deleterious effects of workplace incivility have been widely decried by practitioners and the popular press, but empirical evidence in this regard has only recently begun to accrue in the academic literature. As such, the present study examines the empirical validity of theoretically relevant attitudinal, health-related, and performance outcomes affected by workplace incivility. Hypotheses were tested with data obtained from individuals employed in a diverse range of for-profit and not-for-profit industries, organizations, and occupations and their supervisors. Results demonstrate that experiences of workplace incivility adversely affect employee attitudes and well-being; that workplace incivility experiences may indirectly affect feelings of burnout and employee engagement levels through their influence on employee perceptions of trust and justice; and that employee responses to incivility differ depending on the source (i.e., supervisor or co-worker incivility). These findings broaden the focus of prior research by illustrating that the effects of workplace incivility experiences are more nuanced than previously believed.

CHAPTER 1: THE DISSERTATION TOPIC

When I walked into the office this morning, something was different. Several of my colleagues seemed to be keeping their distance. I couldn't tell if their intense stares were disapproving or otherwise. What was the matter? Was it my new shirt? Did I have something stuck between my teeth? I ate lunch at my desk so I could get some work done. Andy, a co-worker, suddenly popped his head over our cubicle wall. "Hey, Mr. Overachiever, could you chew any louder?" he seemed to sneer. As I began to apologize, he interrupted: "And what are you eating? It smells awful." Insulted and embarrassed, I finished eating in the office break room. Toward the end of the day, my boss stopped by to discuss the layout of a preliminary report I had prepared. I tried to explain that the formatting was correct, but she didn't seem to care. "Just fix it!" she snapped.

* * *

The preceding vignette offers a glimpse into one aspect of an all too typical day for many employees. As documented by the popular press, such workaday annoyances have become the source of countless cartoons (e.g., S. Adams, 2008), films (e.g., M. Judge, 1999), and practitioner-oriented texts and articles (e.g., Forni, 2002, 2008; Gonthier, 2002; Sutton, 2007; "Workplace Bullies," 2005). The popular press has generally made light of what is often simply seen as *workplace rudeness* (Porath & Erez, 2007). Within an emerging academic literature, however, evidence has begun to mount suggesting that such events – broadly characterized as forms of *workplace deviance* – are injurious to organizations at both the macro- and individual-levels. At the macro-level, workplace deviance is believed to increase employee turnover, absenteeism, and litigation, and lower productivity (Hoel, Einarsen, & Cooper, 2003). Viewed at an individual level, direct and more overt forms of workplace deviance such as bullying

(Einarsen, 1999; Rayner & Hoel, 1997), bodily aggression (Barling, 1996), and abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000) have been shown to negatively impact victims' psychological health and physical well-being.

Perhaps because of the manifest and immediate consequences of such acts, the academic literature has largely focused on these more visible forms of workplace deviance. It has been gradually recognized, however, that the majority of such acts are more covert and subtle (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; R. A. Baron & Neuman, 1996; Stewart, Bing, Davison, Woehr, & McIntyre, 2009). In contrast to overt forms of workplace deviance, where the intent to harm another is clear, the goal of these more covert and subtle acts is often difficult, if not impossible, to establish unequivocally. Such acts might include the feeling that one's supervisor or co-workers have been cold or aloof or, perhaps, been insensitive to one's feelings. Though these or similar acts may be perceived to be uncivil by a victim or target, their indirect and abstruse nature makes a perpetrator's actual intent hard to discern with certainty. Indeed, incivility may not be necessarily intentional or malicious (Milam, Spitzmueller, & Penney, 2009).

Irrespective of a perpetrator's true design, however, if such acts are perceived by a target as offensive, they will be experienced as real. It has long been recognized that one's "behavior is a reaction to the field as perceived." Relevant to the present study, reactions to workplace events such as uncivil acts can be best understood by gaining, to the extent possible, a victim's "internal frame of reference" (Rogers, 1951, p. 494). As a form of workplace deviance, these more covert and subtle acts have been the subject of a nascent body of research into what has become known as *workplace incivility* (e.g., S. Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008; Pearson, Andersson & Wegner, 2001). As is true of other forms of workplace deviance, reducing incivility is recognized as

important to maintaining the daily interactions necessary for interpersonal, work group, and organizational effectiveness (Estes & Wang, 2008).

Statement of the Problem

The deleterious effects of workplace incivility have been widely decried by practitioners (e.g., Moyer, 2008; Yeung & Griffin, 2008) and the popular press (e.g., Prasso, 2002; Swartz, 2008). Empirical evidence in this regard, however, has only recently begun to accrue in the academic literature. For instance, based on interviews and focus groups conducted with more than 700 individuals from a cross-section of for-profit, non-profit, and governmental employees across the United States, Pearson and colleagues (Pearson et al., 2001; Pearson & Porath, 2004, 2005) concluded that incivility is a serious and prevalent workplace problem. Nearly 20% reported experiencing workplace incivility at least weekly (Pearson & Porath, 2004). As a result, some 53% had lost work time worrying about an incident or possible future interactions, 22% intentionally decreased work efforts, 37% expressed reduced organizational commitment, and 46% contemplated changing jobs to avoid a perpetrator (Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2000). As a second example, in a study of more than 1,100 public-sector employees, Cortina and Magley (2003) uncovered a negative relationship between being mistreated at work and physical health and psychological well-being. Taken together, these and other studies (to be reviewed anon) suggest that workplace incivility may more generally affect employee attitudes, performance, and well-being.

Workplace Incivility in Relation to Other Similar Constructs

As intimated, workplace deviance appears in various forms. Although these forms are theoretically related, it has been argued that workplace incivility is a conceptually distinct construct. In the present application, workplace incivility is defined as conduct of unclear intent

that is judged by a target or victim to be offensive. This definition is consistent with that offered by Andersson and Pearson (1999, p. 457), who describe incivility as “low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target.” In this connection, Robinson and Bennett (1995) distinguish between two categories of deviant behaviors: (a) those directed toward an organization and (b) those directed toward co-workers. In referring to the latter category, *interpersonal deviance* as a construct may seem similar to incivility. G. Blau and Andersson (2005), however, argue that interpersonal deviance and incivility are dissimilar. They reason that, in contrast to incivility, interpersonal deviance includes behaviors such as sexual harassment and stealing from co-workers that are of higher intensity and reflect an *overt* intent to harm a target and, as such are more closely related to intentional acts of workplace aggression (Anderson & Bushman, 2002; R. A. Baron, 2004; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002; Neuman, 2004; O’Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996).

Workplace incivility may also be distinguished from both abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000) and petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997). Abusive supervision and petty tyranny refer to leader or supervisor mistreatment of subordinates. Workplace incivility, on the other hand, may be targeted downward, upward, or laterally. Additionally, petty tyranny within a work setting is a term generally used to describe supervisors who exercise authority oppressively and erratically. In contrast, workplace incivility is – by definition – passive and more subtle in nature.

Bullying involving an employee’s supervisor or co-workers (Einarsen, 1999; Quine, 2001) is another construct that, like incivility, describes a form of workplace deviance. Bullying within a work setting occurs when a target is systematically subjected to aggressive behavior by one or more co-workers or superiors over an extended period of time (Einarsen, 1999). As such, in the current context, the major difference between bullying and incivility concerns intensity. As

bullying encompasses *overt* behavior reflecting a clear intent to harm a target, it is therefore more similar to workplace aggression than incivility (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007). Beyond being passive and more subtle, uncivil behaviors are generally non-physical in nature.

Duffy and colleagues (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Duffy, Ganster, Shaw, Johnson, & Pagon, 2006) have introduced a construct, social undermining, that also resembles workplace incivility. Both constructs refer to behaviors that may be mild or subtle, in that one or two actions of either type “would not necessarily destroy an interpersonal relationship, or irrevocably damage [a target’s] ability to attain success at work” (Duffy et al., 2002, p. 332). The two constructs differ, however, in their intent. Because social undermining involves an instigator purposely and openly harming a target, its lack of subtlety makes a perpetrator’s intent obvious.

Concerns have also been raised regarding the conceptual overlap between workplace incivility and interactional justice (Penney & Spector, 2005). Although both constructs relate to the quality of interpersonal exchanges, interactional justice primarily pertains to treatment of employees by a supervisor in the course of enacting formal organizational policies and procedures (Bies & Moag, 1986). As noted, workplace incivility may involve downward, upward, or lateral relationships and is not bound to the implementation of policies or procedures (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001).

Theoretical Background

Given the prevalence of workplace incivility, the goal of the present study will be to examine its consequences. In doing so it seeks to examine the empirical validity of theoretically relevant attitudinal, health-related, and performance outcomes affected by workplace incivility. It is anticipated that a further understanding of workplace incivility will lead to the development of interventions to help ameliorate its impact on each of these outcomes. A number of stress-based

explanations regarding the processes through which employees exhibit and express uncivil behavior have been advanced (e.g., Cortina et al., 2001; S. Lim & Cortina, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005). According to Spector's (1998) control model of job stress, incivility is considered a workplace stressor that elicits a negative emotional response. In a similar vein, Cortina et al. (2001) regard incivilities as daily hassles that, because of their repeated and ambiguous nature, can adversely affect various job-related, psychological, and somatic outcomes. S. Lim and Cortina (2005), on the other hand, regard workplace incivility as more proximate to workplace harassment, as they observed the deleterious effects prompted by the co-occurrence of three distinct but related forms of mistreatment: incivility and sexual and gender harassment. Regardless of incivility's relation to other forms of employee deviance, Pearson and Porath (2004) argue that the negative impact of such work and life stresses hinders employees' willingness and ability to develop and maintain interpersonal relationships. As such, the stress and coping literatures suggest that as innocuous as workplace incivility may seem, it can have serious consequences for employee performance and well-being.

Other research emphasizes the role of social-exchange processes underlying workplace incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). The line of reasoning underlying this research is consistent with notions of workplace deviance as a general construct (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Greenberg & Scott, 1996). As Andersson and Pearson (1999) point out, acts of rudeness or incivility have the potential to foster hostile exchanges or even lead to greater antagonism. They therefore describe these episodes of mounting animosity as "incivility spirals," where mild indiscretions are likely to escalate into more intense forms of mistreatment, which in turn provoke more severe acts of deviance. To date, however, the social exchange-based

processes explaining workplace incivility's incidence and impact have yet to be fully investigated (G. Blau & Andersson, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005).

In conceptualizing workplace incivility and identifying its nomological network, I have drawn on the literatures of several related constructs, including workplace aggression (Anderson & Bushman, 2002), abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000; Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008), and workplace bullying (Einarsen, 1999; Quine, 2001). These constructs share a common theoretical perspective that cuts across various disciplines. This shared perspective draws on social-exchange theory (P. M. Blau, 1964), as well as on insights drawn from stress and coping studies (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) to explain the consequences of workplace incivility. As presently conceived, see Figure 1, workplace incivility is thought to be directly associated at the individual-level with attitudinal (viz., job satisfaction, affective commitment, turnover intentions, perceptions of fairness, interpersonal trust), health-related (viz., job burnout, employee engagement), and performance (viz., task performance, organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior) outcomes. Further, the effects of workplace incivility on task performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior are expected to be partially mediated by interpersonal trust and fairness perceptions. These relationships are detailed in Chapter 2.

Contribution of the Dissertation

The present dissertation contributes to our understanding of workplace incivility in several ways. First, it links the experience of workplace incivility to health-related and performance outcomes. Excluding experimental and self-reported data (e.g., Cortina et al., 2001; Porath & Erez, 2007), there appears to be no published account that simultaneously investigates relations between experienced incivility and job performance. Second, it examines the

mediational mechanisms underlying uncivil exchanges, specifically the processes of trust and justice. In doing so, the reported study extends research by focusing on the interpersonal nature of workplace incivility and the experience of rudeness as an exchange between organization members. Such a view has been advocated by theoretical arguments (e.g., Andersson & Pearson, 1999), but most research has tended to adopt a stress-based perspective (e.g., S. Lim & Cortina, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005). Finally, as much research fails to specify the instigator, or source, of incivility (e.g., Cortina et al., 2001), a third contribution of the present dissertation is its separate consideration of supervisor and co-worker mistreatment. This distinction provides insights into the differential effects of supervisor and co-worker incivility.

Delimitations

Figure 1 presents only one of many possible sets of relationships among the specified focal variables. Being neither longitudinal nor experimental, the study results thus do not permit causal inferences (Cook & Campbell, 1979). The conceptual scheme contained in Figure 1 was not intended to test a fully specified model, but rather to describe workplace incivility as a phenomenon, to examine its consequences, and to explore how and why the specified relationships develop. Thus, the term “conceptual scheme,” rather than model is used in the current discussion.

Summary of the Remaining Chapters

This chapter introduced the dissertation topic by establishing the nature of workplace incivility and its widespread prevalence. It also compared and contrasted workplace incivility to other forms of workplace deviance. Chapter 2 further develops the nomological network surrounding workplace incivility and presents formal hypotheses concerning the relationships among several variables associated with workplace incivility. Chapter 3 presents the results of a

pilot study to refine a proposed measure of workplace incivility. Chapter 4 outlines the methodology used for testing the aforementioned hypotheses, together with a discussion of a sample, design procedure, instrumentation, and statistical analyses employed for this purpose. Chapter 5 presents the results of statistical analyses used to test study hypotheses. A respecification of the conceptual scheme presented in Figure 1 is suggested in Chapter 6. As such, new hypotheses are offered and the results of subsequent analyses are reported. Finally, Chapter 7 discusses these results, study limitations, and implications for practicing managers.

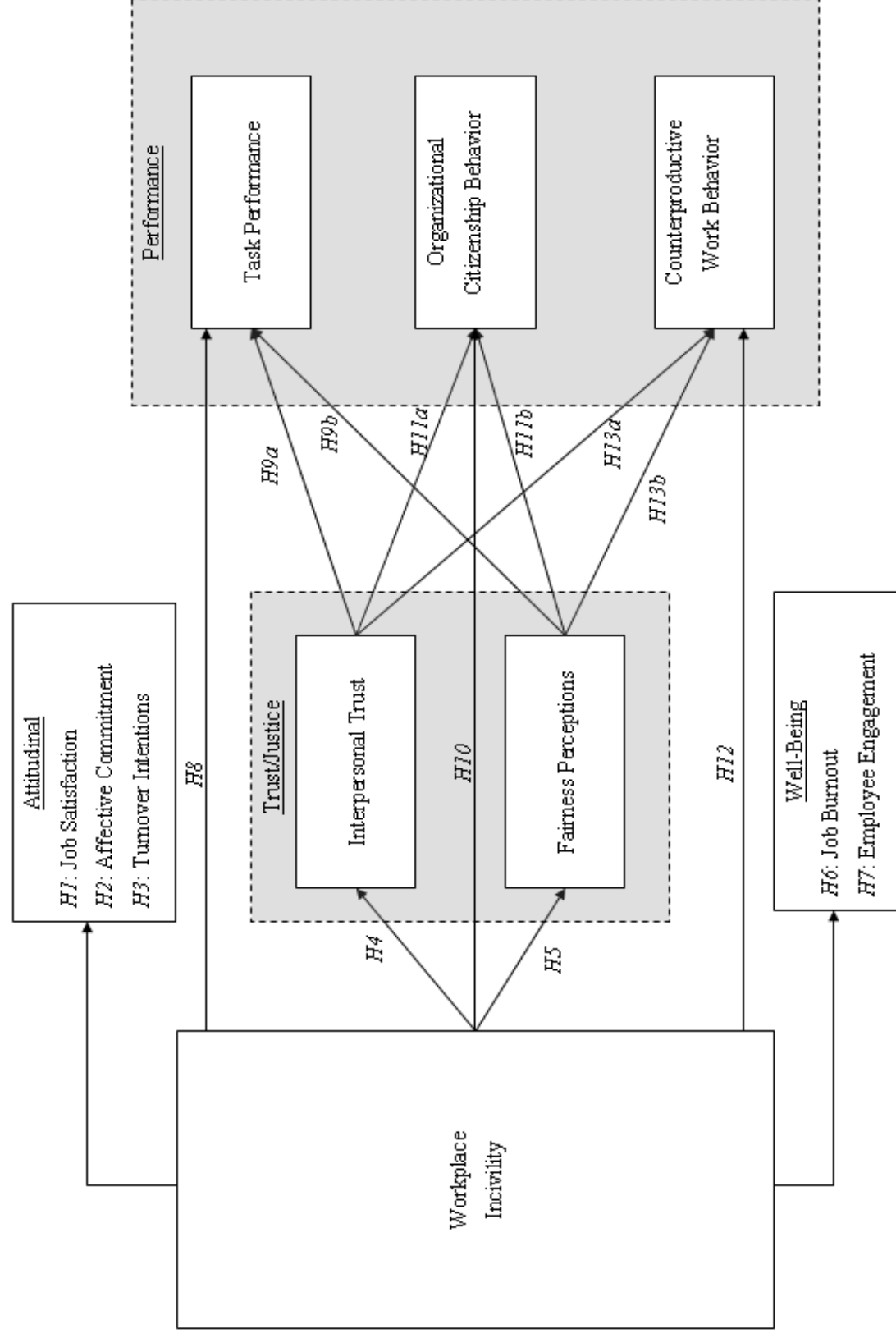


Figure 1: Workplace Incivility – A Conceptual Scheme

CHAPTER 2: THE MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

As one of the most common forms of deviant work behaviors, workplace incivility has been shown to affect employee attitudes, well-being, and performance. With respect to employee attitudes, for example, Cortina et al. (2001) found that federal court employees reported higher levels of psychological distress the more frequently they were involved in uncivil exchanges with superiors or co-workers. With respect to employee well-being, S. Lim et al. (2008) found that experiences of workplace incivility negatively influenced employees' psychological health which, in turn, affected their physical well-being. Whereas incivility's impact on task performance has been examined in a laboratory setting, empirical results from field studies are lacking. In three experimental tests, Porath and Erez (2007) found that college students were less helpful and performed more poorly on cognitive tasks when they were treated rudely. Although the generalizability of this finding to full-time employees has yet to be established, it does suggest a link between workplace incivility and performance.

Employee Attitudes

As suggested by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), the most proximal outcomes of aversive work experiences should be affective or attitudinal in nature, in that, social interactions and interpersonal relationships have the ability to elicit strong negative feelings. As a form of mistreatment, it follows that workplace incivility may likewise impact employee attitudes. That is, employees are likely to respond to uncivil treatment by altering their affective responses so as to perceptually rebalance social-exchange relationships (P. M. Blau, 1964; Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). Research supports this reasoning, as it has shown that various types of mistreatment affect employee attitudes (e.g., Duffy et al., 2006; Mathisen, Einarsen, & Mykletun, 2008; Tepper, 2000). Because of its potential to promote negative affective responses,

one might similarly expect workplace incivility to influence employee attitudes. Indeed, workplace incivility has been found to be associated with satisfaction and turnover intentions (e.g., S. Lim et al., 2008; V. Lim, Teo, & Chin, 2008).

Job Satisfaction

As one of the most widely studied phenomena in workplace research (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002), job satisfaction describes an evaluative judgment made about one's job (Bedeian, 2007). Job satisfaction has been investigated from several perspectives. Taking a stress-based approach, research has demonstrated that exposure to job stressors is negatively related to job satisfaction (Penney & Spector, 2005; Spector, Dwyer, & Jex, 1988). As an example, relational characteristics such as interpersonal conflict are associated with lower levels of job satisfaction because appraisals of social interactions and other environmental features often involve judgments about one's level of satisfaction (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). More recent research has shown that chronic stressors or daily hassles can reduce job satisfaction as the summation of their effects can erode employee morale over time (Fuller et al., 2003). Cortina et al. (2001) suggest these effects occur because employees cognitively appraise persistent stressors as threatening (e.g., offensive, inappropriate). Recently, S. Lim and colleagues (2008) have equated workplace incivility with chronic stressors and daily hassles, in that, many instances of workplace incivility do not have a discrete onset in time (i.e., they are insidious) and are ongoing rather than episodic.

Research has likewise established an association between interpersonal treatment and job satisfaction in general (Donovan, Drasgow, & Munson, 1998; S. Lim & Cortina, 2005). Because employee mistreatment is generally viewed as negative (T. A. Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006), individuals are expected to experience lower levels of job satisfaction as a result of feeling that

they have been mistreated. Empirical evidence supports the notion that job dissatisfaction is associated with various forms of workplace mistreatment, including abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), hostile interpersonal behavior (Keashly, Trott, & MacLean, 1994), and bullying at work (Einarsen & Mikkelsen, 2003).

By extension, it is reasoned that workplace incivility can likewise be expected to produce negative affective reactions. Affective experiences at work have been repeatedly shown to have a strong influence on overall job satisfaction (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Thus, by evoking negative affective reactions, workplace incivility can be expected to contribute to an overall sense of dissatisfaction with both perpetrators and those aspects of work related to uncivil interactions (Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2005; Pearson & Porath, 2004). Empirical evidence supports this notion, as several studies have found direct links between workplace incivility and lower job satisfaction (Cortina et al., 2001, 2002; Pearson et al., 2000, 2001; Penney & Spector, 2005).

Hypothesis 1: Workplace incivility will be negatively related to job satisfaction.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is a second workplace attitude that may be influenced by employee perceptions of mistreatment. In general, affective commitment is indicative of an employee's positive emotional attachment to an organization. As such, it may be expected to lessen as targets of uncivil behavior experience negative feelings at their perceived mistreatment. To the extent that targets feel that their employing organization is partly responsible for allowing or, perhaps, even encouraging, if not condoning, uncivil behavior, it is reasonable to anticipate an association between workplace incivility and affective commitment.

A link between workplace incivility and affective commitment is further suggested by social-exchange theory, which holds that employees' perceptions of interpersonal mistreatment shape their judgments regarding the quality of their exchange relationships with their employing organizations. These judgments, in turn, may compel employees to reciprocate in ways that further damage offending exchange relationships (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000). As one possible act of reciprocation, individuals may reduce their positive emotional attachment (i.e., affective commitment) to their employing organization. Findings from Shore et al. (2006) support this logic, as they indicated the quality of employee-employer social exchanges tends to be positively correlated with affective commitment. Other empirical evidence relating to various types of employee deviance further suggests a potential relation between workplace incivility and affective commitment (Barling & Phillips, 1993; Duffy et al., 2002; McCormack, Casimir, Djurkovic, & Yang, 2006).

Hypothesis 2: Workplace incivility will be negatively related to affective commitment.

Turnover Intentions

Turnover intentions reflect an individual's desire to terminate employment. According to tenets of social-exchange theory, employees exposed to workplace incivility may react to their perceived mistreatment by physically or psychologically withdrawing from their work environment (Cortina et al., 2001). Because individuals likely regard favorable treatment and positive social interactions as meaningful work outcomes, employees may consider decreasing their work inputs as a result of perceived mistreatment. This may involve being absent or quitting in an attempt to retaliate and restore equity or balance to a relationship following a provocation (J. S. Adams, 1965; Donovan et al., 1998; Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006).

Workplace incivility may also affect turnover intentions because uncivil behavior may create target stress (Penney & Spector, 2005; Spector, 1998). To the degree that individuals perceive workplace incivility as a source of stress to be avoided, such behavior may prompt a desire to turn over or terminate employment (N. P. Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). S. Lim et al. (2008) found that incivility was indirectly related to turnover intentions; the relationship was partially mediated by job satisfaction. In line with affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), this finding suggests that job stressors like incivility, as negative affective events, can drive turnover-related judgments and attitudes.

A number of empirical studies provide support for a link between various forms of interpersonal mistreatment (including workplace incivility) and intended turnover (e.g., Cortina et al., 2001; Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter, & Kacmar, 2007; Keashly et al., 1994; S. Lim et al., 2008; S. Lim & Cortina, 2005; Mathisen et al., 2008; Pearson et al., 2005; Pearson & Porath, 2004). In a study of managers and professionals across a variety of organizations and industries, Pearson et al. (2000) report, for instance, that nearly half the targets of workplace incivility considered changing jobs, and a smaller number (12%) actually quit.

Hypothesis 3: Workplace incivility will be positively related to turnover intentions.

Trust

Trust is generally considered a critical component underlying social-exchange relationships because, as P. M. Blau (1964) remarked, “social exchange tends to engender feelings of personal obligation, gratitude, and trust” (p. 94). Though research examining social-exchange relationships in terms of trust is limited (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), Colquitt, Scott, and LePine (2007) assert that interpersonal trust is particularly relevant to social-exchange relationships because the lack of enforceable employment contracts fosters vulnerability between

exchange partners. Elsewhere, Van Dyne, Vandewalle, Kostova, Latham, and Cummings (2000) also note the importance of trust in ill-defined situations. They suggest that individuals attribute benevolent intent to other individuals and expect to be treated with respect when trust is present. When such expectations are met, interpersonal interactions will be increasingly positive because of the importance individuals place on maintaining equitable social-exchanges. In counterpoint, lower levels of trust in one's supervisor or co-workers would be expected to result from less than positive social interactions.

The association between workplace incivility and interpersonal trust has yet to be explored, but the possibility of such a relationship has been suggested. Interpersonal relationships rely on trust and, when sustained, denote high quality exchanges (Philips & Smith, 2003). When employees feel interpersonal or workplace norms have been violated, however, increasing levels of distrust are likely to develop (Pearson et al., 2001). In particular, interpersonal trust can deteriorate when incivility pervades a workplace culture (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Zauderer, 2002). In discussing abusive supervision, Zellars, Tepper, and Duffy (2002) have suggested that hostile behaviors may act as a signal from an employer that it has little trust in employees to fulfill their contractual agreements. Because abusive supervision and workplace incivility both reflect interpersonal mistreatment, a negative relationship between workplace incivility and interpersonal trust would be expected.

Hypothesis 4: Workplace incivility will be negatively related to interpersonal (viz., supervisor and co-worker) trust.

Justice

As a multidimensional construct, organizational justice is often conceptualized as consisting of distributive, procedural, and interactional components (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson,

Porter, & Ng, 2001). All three dimensions may be possible reactions to workplace incivility. As interactional justice reflects the interpersonal aspect of fairness (Bies & Moag, 1986), experiences of incivility are likely to evoke feelings of interactional injustice because such mistreatment involves a lack of respect and dignity for others (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Similarly, employees who experience workplace incivility may feel that their organization has not done an adequate job of developing or enforcing procedures that penalize instigators or protect targets of mistreatment. These feelings might suggest to targets that one or more of the procedural justice rules described by Leventhal (1980) has been violated. Finally, perceptions of distributive justice reflect comparisons employees make to referents vis-à-vis their inputs and outcomes at work. Targets of incivility may feel they are getting less than they deserve compared to referents because acts of fairness are perceived as contributions that enhance the quality of work relationships (Masterson et al., 2000; Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). Given these possibilities, employees might perceive all three forms of injustice when they experience incivility in the workplace.

Based on a series of interviews and focus groups, Pearson and Porath (2005) found issues of equity and fairness to be “repeated themes” among individuals who had experienced workplace incivility (p. 10). In particular, it has been suggested that workplace incivility may be considered unfair if it violates social, occupational, or workplace norms for mutual respect (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). When expectations of fairness are violated, P. M. Blau (1964) noted that individuals may be more inclined to react with “bitterness and perhaps belligerence” and they may take advantage of or harm others (p. 162). Such reactions may occur as individuals seek to restore equity to social-exchange relationships (J. S. Adams, 1965; Colquitt et al., 2005). In that the intervening mechanisms underlying social-exchange processes are based on

expectations of fairness (P. M. Blau, 1964), it follows that workplace incivility may affect justice perceptions. Fairness perceptions are central to social-exchange theory in that they underlie relational quality (Masterson et al., 2000; Moorman & Byrne, 2005). Hence, the behavior of a partner in an exchange relationship (e.g., one's co-workers or supervisor) provides information as to whether the relationship is socially or economically based (Zellars et al., 2002). In this vein, prior studies have used measures of justice to gauge relational quality (Colquitt et al., 2005; Zellars & Tepper, 2003). For instance, Zellars et al. (2002) suggest that the effects of abusive supervision on subordinates' behavior are transmitted through social-exchange processes because such hostility communicates an organization has little confidence that its employees can be depended on to discharge their contractual agreements or contribute to the organization's success. In terms of empirical evidence, prior research has linked related types of perceived mistreatment to feelings of unfairness (e.g., Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007; Barling, Rogers, & Kelloway, 2001; Tepper, 2000). As a breach of standards involving mutual respect, workplace incivility can engender feelings of injustice, the strength of which are in direct proportion to the perceived mistreatment (Duffy et al., 2006). Thus, perceptions of unfairness may constitute another salient consequence of workplace incivility.

Hypothesis 5: Workplace incivility will be negatively related to fairness perceptions.

Well-Being

As a source of stress, deviant workplace behavior is believed to affect the health and well-being of employees by generating feelings of harm and prompting negative emotions (Averill, 1983; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Indeed, research has generally found negative relationships between forms of interpersonal mistreatment and health-related outcomes (e.g., Duffy et al., 2002; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Evers, Tomic, & Brouwers, 2002; Grandey, Kern,

& Frone, 2007; Harvey et al., 2007; Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Yagil, 2006). Findings, however, have been inconsistent regarding the impact of workplace incivility on psychological and somatic outcomes (Cortina et al., 2001; S. Lim & Cortina, 2005). At the same time, because seemingly minor stressors within a work setting can accumulate over time to affect psychological functioning and distress, one might reasonably expect workplace incivility to impair employees' sense of personal well-being (Fuller et al., 2003; S. Lim et al., 2008).

Job Burnout

Job burnout describes a prolonged response to chronic interpersonal job conditions indicative of exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy at work (Leiter & Maslach, 2005). Accordingly, traditional conceptualizations of burnout consist of three interrelated dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Studies from various streams of research that have found positive associations between mistreatment and burnout suggest this relationship stems from interpersonal conflict and the associated recurrent harm to individuals' feelings of self-worth and competence (Frone, 2000; Harvey et al., 2007; Mathisen et al., 2008; Yagil, 2006).

Workplace incivility may similarly affect job burnout. First, emotional exhaustion refers to a state of physical and emotional depletion that often results from excessive job demands and continuous hassles (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998; Zohar, 1997). Workplace incivility has been considered a daily hassle because of its non-episodic nature (Cortina et al., 2001; S. Lim et al., 2008). As such, employees may experience burnout if subjected to workplace incivility on a regular basis because of its ability to drain emotional resources. Second, the depersonalization dimension of burnout represents the interpersonal context aspect of burnout and refers to "a negative, callous, or excessively detached response to various aspects of the job" (Maslach &

Leiter, 2008, p. 498). In response to perceived mistreatment, targets of workplace incivility may psychologically disengage from their work in an effort to mentally detach from their workplace surroundings (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). In doing so, they may acquire depersonalized views of the people with whom they interact as a defensive response to shield themselves from psychologically threatening emotions (Cole, Bruch, & Vogel, 2006). Third, the reduced accomplishment component of burnout reflects feelings of incompetence and a lack of achievement at work. Such feelings may result from abusive and hostile work behaviors as interpersonal mistreatment can erode employees' sense of self-esteem and self-efficacy (Ashforth, 1997; Burton & Hoobler, 2006). In a similar manner, targets of workplace incivility may experience heightened levels of job burnout when others, for example, question their judgment or make derogatory or demeaning remarks about their person or performance (Kern & Grandey, 2009; Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007).

Hypothesis 6: Workplace incivility will be positively related to job burnout.

Employee Engagement

Employee engagement describes a “positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74). Whereas engagement is considered by some to be the conceptual antithesis of burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), findings from the positive psychology domain acknowledge engagement's potentially unique contribution to understanding workplace behavior (Turner, Barling, & Zacharatos, 2002). Bakker and Schaufeli (2008) argue for supplementing a traditional emphasis on negative work-related outcomes with a distinct wellness perspective. They contend that a more comprehensive understanding of

workplace behavior may not only unearth unique insights into employee attitudes and behavior, but may also reduce the amount of one-sided and potentially biased research.

There are several reasons why interpersonal mistreatment, in general, and workplace incivility, in particular, may affect employee engagement. First, vigor (as an aspect of employee engagement) reflects an employee's energy level and mental resilience while working, as well as a willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence in the face of difficulties (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). J. A. LePine, Podsakoff, and LePine (2005) note that hindrance stressors can reduce motivation if employees believe effort expended on coping with such stressors is unlikely to be successful. To the extent workplace incivility entails hindering or constraining (i.e., hindrance stressors) rather than challenging or rewarding work experiences (i.e., challenge stressors), it is likely to reduce employees' vigor. Second, dedication (as a further aspect of employee engagement) indicates a strong involvement in one's work and the attendant experiences of significance, enthusiasm, and challenge (Schaufeli et al., 2006). Colbert and colleagues (2004) suggest that employees are more likely to withdraw from their work when they hold negative perceptions regarding the degree to which their co-workers challenge, support, and encourage them. Such unfavorable perceptions may result from rude comments that belittle or disparage employees, thus affecting their workplace dedication. Finally, absorption (as a final aspect of employee engagement) is characterized by acute concentration, happiness, and a preoccupation with one's work (Schaufeli et al., 2006). Because workplace incivility may be perceived as a daily hassle (e.g., Cortina et al., 2001), it has the potential to induce negative attitudes (S. Lim et al., 2008) and distract employees so as to reduce task-focused cognitive resources (Porath & Erez, 2007) and, thus, engagement.

Hypothesis 7: Workplace incivility will be negatively related to employee engagement.

Performance

The performance-related consequences of various forms of employee mistreatment have been widely researched (e.g., Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska, 2007; Zellars et al., 2002). Though studies involving employee mistreatment and job performance in general have been prevalent, relationships between workplace incivility and other job-performance criteria remain largely unexamined. One of the few exceptions, a laboratory study reported by Porath and Erez (2007), found that undergraduate college students who experienced direct or indirect forms of rudeness performed more poorly on cognitive tasks than those in a control condition. Two other job-performance criteria, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and counterproductive work behavior (CWB), may also be affected by experiences of workplace incivility. Based on social-exchange theory, research in other forms of workplace deviance has found that individuals who perceive they have been mistreated are more inclined to withhold OCB and exhibit CWB to restore balance in their social-exchanges (e.g., Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004; Zellars et al., 2002). Though limited, these findings suggest the possibility that workplace incivility may be related to other job-performance criteria.

Thus, for the purposes of the present application, I have conceptualized performance broadly, as research suggests that, in contrast to their unidimensional counterparts, multidimensional models of job performance capture a larger portion of criterion variance (Borman & Brush, 1993; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). A few recent studies exemplify this investigative tack (e.g., Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, & Zapata-Phelan, 2006; T. A. Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006). Following this lead, I explored the association between workplace incivility and

three dimensions of performance: (a) task performance, (b) organizational citizenship behavior, and (c) counterproductive work behavior.

Task Performance

Research has long shown that task performance can be impaired when employees experience negative exchange-based relationships (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2007; Erdogan & Liden, 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Negative exchanges are characterized by adversarial relationships, as well as affective responses to such antagonistic behavior (Perugini, Gallucci, Presaghi, & Ercolani, 2003; Sparrowe, Liden, Wayne, & Kraimer, 2001). As such, these relationships can create negative perceptions of a work situation because, as Colbert and colleagues (2004) have noted, such perceptions may result from perceived unfair treatment or other stressors that lead employees to feel anguish or indignation. These negative perceptions, which may be shaped in part by experiences of workplace incivility, may then encourage employees to respond by decreasing their work effort (Colbert et al., 2004; Harris et al., 2007; Pearson & Porath, 2005). In the only study to directly link experienced workplace incivility to task performance, Porath and Erez (2007) suggested performance decrements were due to disruption of cognitive processing resulting from distraction associated with being mistreated. In three separate experiments, Porath and Erez found that college students subjected to incivility, whether directly or indirectly, performed more poorly on cognitively complex, flexible, and creative tasks than those who were not exposed to such interpersonal mistreatment.

Hypothesis 8: Workplace incivility will be negatively related to task performance.

Mediating Influences of the Incivility – Task Performance Relationship

In addition to a direct link between workplace incivility and task performance, incivility may indirectly influence task performance through various mediating mechanisms. As

experiences of workplace incivility have been described as reciprocal exchanges of unpleasanties (e.g., Pearson & Porath, 2005) and “tit-for-tat” interactions (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), it is surprising so few studies have investigated the potential performance-related influences of social-exchange processes. This is not to say, however, that various exchange-based mechanisms have not been found to predict in-role or task performance (e.g., Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Shore et al., 2006).

As one possible mediating mechanism, workplace incivility may influence task performance through its effects on fairness perceptions. This possibility is consistent with the notion that acts of fairness are perceived as contributions that enhance the quality of exchange relationships (Masterson et al., 2000; Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). Such feelings then obligate employees to reciprocate through constructive work behaviors. Because workplace incivility aggravates norms of fairness, it may discourage positive behavioral outcomes. Indeed, when individuals feel treated unfairly at work, their performance at work tends to suffer (Colquitt et al., 2001; Masterson et al., 2000; Robbins, Summers, Miller, & Hendrix, 2000). In this way, perceptions of fairness may be expected to mediate the incivility – task performance relationship.

Drawing on a similar logic, it is likewise possible that interpersonal trust may mediate the relationship between incivility and task performance. As noted above, social exchange requires trusting others, and violating the norm of reciprocity is likely to produce hostility between exchange partners (P. M. Blau, 1964, p. 113). Because uncivil acts violate norms of mutual respect, experiences of mistreatment are likely to engender feelings of distrust (Pearson et al., 2001). It has been shown that employees who expect to be mistreated in exchange relationships and believe that they are held in low regard may be especially unwilling to exceed minimum performance standards (Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999). Further, it may be reasoned that

when employees are predisposed to mistrust their supervisor or co-workers due to prior violations of the reciprocity norm, their task performance may suffer if, as a result, they engage in preventive, but counterproductive actions to avoid blame, loss, or harm (Mayer & Gavin, 2005). To the extent that such acts draw one's attention away from one's primary responsibilities, task performance may, in turn, decline. Indicative of trust's standing as a universal predictor of job performance, prior research has established associations between trust and workplace behaviors, including individual task performance and effort expenditure (Colquitt et al., 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Shore et al., 2006). Thus, it is reasonable to expect that workplace incivility may indirectly influence task performance through its effects on interpersonal (viz., supervisor and co-worker) trust.

Hypothesis 9: The relationship between workplace incivility and task performance will be mediated by (9a) interpersonal trust and (9b) perceptions of fairness.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

As a component of job performance, organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006) represents voluntary actions beyond role-prescribed duties that employees perform to contribute to workplace effectiveness. OCB research has viewed such actions from a social-exchange perspective, which posits that employees are motivated to reciprocate favorable treatment by others in their work environment (e.g., Bowler & Brass, 2006; Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007). Conversely, employees who experience interpersonal mistreatment are more inclined to withhold these discretionary behaviors (Zellars et al., 2002). Indeed, Pearson et al. (2000) found that targets of incivility tended to abandon tasks and activities that went beyond the requirements of their job. As OCB is influenced by social-exchange processes and the norm of reciprocity, which holds that acts of kindness or malevolence will be returned in

kind (Gouldner, 1960), theory suggests that mistreated employees may not assist (voluntarily or otherwise) those who offend them (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). In the aforementioned study by Porath and Erez (2007), college students subjected to an exchange of unpleasanties were less likely to offer help to a rude instigator. These findings highlight the notion that incivility may undermine reciprocity, as targets may intentionally withhold actions that benefit perpetrators. Because citizenship research indicates that individuals and organizations may benefit from social-exchange processes associated with reciprocation (Settoon et al., 1996; Williams & Anderson, 1991), incivility may influence both organization-directed (OCBO) and individual-targeted (OCBI) citizenship.

Hypothesis 10: Workplace incivility will be negatively related to OCB.

Mediating Influences of the Incivility – OCB Relationship

As with its hypothesized relation to task performance, workplace incivility may also directly and indirectly influence OCB. Social exchange notions have been widely used to explain citizenship behaviors (e.g., Organ et al., 2006; P. M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000), and both trust and justice have been employed as exchange mechanisms in association with OCB (e.g., Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999; Shore et al., 2006; Zellars & Tepper, 2003). Given the interpersonal nature of workplace incivility and the view that experiences of rudeness are exchanges between individual employees (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), mediated relationships between incivility and OCB seem likely.

Workplace incivility may indirectly influence OCB through its effect on fairness perceptions. Andersson and Pearson (1999) noted that workplace incivility connotes unjust treatment and, as such, may provoke feelings of unfairness. As unfairness in dealing with others at work enhances the quality of employees' exchange relationships, the norm of reciprocity

maintains that individuals may then feel obligated to reciprocate through curtailing voluntary behaviors benefiting the parties responsible for these feelings (Masterson et al., 2000). Indeed, research has shown that when individuals feel treated unfairly at work, they tend to perform fewer acts of citizenship (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2001; Conlon, Meyer, & Nowakowski, 2005; P. M. Podsakoff et al., 2000). Because this negative association may be due, in part, to violations of social norms of fair exchange, perceptions of unfairness may mediate the relationship between incivility and OCB.

Likewise, interpersonal trust may also explain the link between incivility and OCB because, according to previous research, it can function as an exchange-based mechanism predicting citizenship performance (Shore et al., 2006; Zellars & Tepper, 2003). Because interpersonal relationships rely on trust and signify the quality of exchange (Philips & Smith, 2003), social interactions characterized by mistreatment and incivility are likely to diminish trust between individuals. Distrust has been identified as both an outcome of mistreatment (Aquino & Thau, 2009; Duffy et al., 2006) and as an antecedent of citizenship performance (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Van Dyne et al., 2000). As such, interpersonal trust may mediate the relationship between workplace incivility and OCB.

Hypothesis 11: The relationship between workplace incivility and OCB will be mediated by (11a) interpersonal trust and (11b) perceptions of fairness.

Counterproductive Work Behavior

Counterproductive work behavior is another component of job performance that may result from employee mistreatment (Duffy et al., 2002; Flaherty & Moss, 2007; Penney & Spector, 2005). Such behavior is considered discretionary and to encompass employee acts that are intended to harm an organization or its members (Sackett & DeVore, 2001). According to

social-exchange theory, individuals who receive favorable workplace treatment are likely to react by expressing positive behaviors, whereas individuals who perceive their work situation as unfavorable may reciprocate by responding to both others in their work environment and general work demands in counterproductive ways (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Perugini et al., 2003). Such behaviors, which may be directed at an organization or its employees, can obstruct an employee's job performance if they are deemed important to an organization's goals (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Following instances of perceived interpersonal mistreatment, counterproductive work behaviors are likely to occur as employees attempt to resolve perceived inequity or imbalance in an exchange relationship (Penney & Spector, 2005). For example, Bennett and Robinson (2000) note that employees may direct such actions toward co-workers (e.g., making racial slurs, cursing at others) or their employing organization (e.g., stealing company property, violating established policies).

In a similar manner, as Pearson and Porath (2004) note, targets of workplace incivility may also react counterproductively. Although there is no prior evidence linking incivility and CWB, research indicates that a related concept, abusive supervision (i.e., various forms of nonphysical hostility sustained by managers' against their subordinates), is positively associated with workplace deviance (e.g., Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper et al., 2008). This suggests the possibility that there may also be a positive relationship between incivility and CWB. Because it has been suggested that incivility may prompt behaviors intended to harm an organization or its members (Pearson & Porath, 2004; Penney & Spector, 2005), relations between incivility and both individual- and organization-directed CWB are possible.

Hypothesis 12: Workplace incivility will be positively related to CWB.

Mediating Influences of the Incivility – CWB Relationship

As with the preceding hypotheses, workplace incivility may exert both direct and indirect effects on CWB. Employees who feel they have received fewer benefits or resources than their contributions merit may engage in behaviors intended to restore equity or balance to exchange relationships. Toward this end, employees who feel they have been treated uncivilly may engage in a number of alternatives to restore this balance. For instance, they may either mentally adjust their perceptions of their work environment or alter their behavior. With respect to the latter, employees may engage in counterproductive behaviors aimed at getting even or harming an organization (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In support of this reasoning, social-exchange variables have been found to predict deviant behavior in general (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Colquitt et al., 2001; Dalal, 2005). Dalal (2005), for instance, observed that social exchange and reciprocity are notions reflected in much of the CWB literature to explain why employees retaliate against dissatisfying working conditions and unjust workplaces.

In this vein, justice perceptions may mediate the relationship between incivility and CWB. Employee mistreatment may engender feelings of unfairness (Aryee et al., 2007; Barling et al., 2001; Duffy et al., 2006) which, in turn, may then spur mistreated employees to reciprocate by engaging in counterproductive behaviors (e.g., Pearson & Porath, 2004; Penney & Spector, 2005). Skarlicki and Folger (1997), for example, argued that employees punish their organization and its representatives for perceived injustice by performing retaliatory behaviors such as theft, sabotage, and disobeying orders. Regardless of the type of injustice (i.e., distributive, procedural, interactional), such feelings can predict CWB (e.g., Flaherty & Moss, 2007). Hence, fairness perceptions may mediate the relationship between workplace incivility and CWB.

Similarly, trust may also function as an exchange mechanism predicting CWB (e.g., Bies & Tripp, 1996; Colquitt et al., 2007). In line with social-exchange theory, even occasional interpersonal mistreatment can elicit feelings of distrust which, in turn, may deter employees from responding positively (through job tasks and acts of citizenship) and stimulate negative responses (counterproductive work behavior). Consistent with the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), individuals involved in social exchanges understand that favorable treatment from others creates an expectation of reciprocation (Colquitt et al., 2007). Conversely, mistreatment from a supervisor or co-workers may elicit negative reciprocity behaviors (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Perugini et al., 2003). As such, trust is expected to mediate the relationship between incivility and CWB.

Hypothesis 13: The relationship between workplace incivility and CWB will be mediated by (13a) interpersonal trust and (13b) perceptions of fairness.

The Influence of the Source of Incivility

To date, research investigating mistreatment in the workplace has largely focused on supervisor behaviors directed toward a subordinate (e.g., Ashforth, 1997; Tepper, 2000). Researchers, however, have begun to recognize that harm can also result when mistreatment is instigated by other individuals, such as workgroup members or customers (Burnfield, Clark, Devendorf, & Jex, 2004; Kern & Grandey, 2009). Unfortunately, previous incivility research has failed to distinguish the effects of incivility from these diverse sources. Rather, supervisor and co-worker incivility have been assumed to have identical effects on employee attitudes and well-being (e.g., Cortina et al., 2001). The source of workplace incivility, however, may moderate the influence of mistreatment on employee attitudes and behaviors. Given the lack of research

investigating the effects of incivility from separate sources, competing hypotheses that predict either stronger or weaker effects may be derived from the literature.

Several reasons may be offered to explain why supervisor incivility may have weaker effects on employee outcomes than co-worker incivility. First, supervisor incivility may be tolerated if seen as a necessary part of an organization's operation and success (Mathisen et al., 2008). Boswell and Olson-Buchanan (2004) maintain that mistreatment will be perceived more negatively when individuals feel they have been personally attacked. To the degree targets believe mistreatment resulted from a supervisor enforcing an impersonal organizational policy or procedure, the negative impact on their attitudes may be reduced. Second, incivility may be more easily dismissed if an instigator (i.e., a supervisor contrasted with a peer) holds a more powerful position (Pearson & Porath, 2004, 2005; Sutton, 2007). In such situations, victims may be less inclined to react overtly given the inherent power differential and their potential vulnerability. Third, incivility by higher ranking supervisors may be reinforced by subordinate silence (Pearson & Porath, 2005; Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003). Subordinates who are fearful of speaking up may inadvertently convey acceptance of perceived mistreatment and, as such, encourage continued mistreatment (Pearson & Porath, 2004). Other empirical evidence provides support for the idea that workplace incivility may have weaker effects when instigated by a supervisor (Frone, 2000; Penhaligon, Louis, & Restubog, 2009). Penhaligon et al. (2009), for example, found that co-worker mistreatment contributed to employee feelings of rejection over and above mistreatment by the supervisor.

In contrast to the idea that supervisor incivility will produce weaker effects on employee outcomes than co-worker incivility, one might argue that supervisor incivility may have stronger effects. First, supervisors may be held to higher standards of conduct than rank-and-file

employees, so their transgressions might be viewed more critically. Second, as supervisory roles often include providing support and developmental feedback to subordinates (Seltzer & Bass, 1990), mistreatment by supervisors with whom subordinates have developed close emotional ties may be particularly damaging to employee attitudes and well-being. Duffy et al. (2002), for instance, found that social undermining negatively affected employee self-efficacy and commitment when undermining derived from the supervisor, but not when it came from co-workers. That supervisor undermining was a stronger predictor of employee outcomes may reflect the notion that employees are more likely to perceive a violation of the psychological contract in asymmetrical power relationships (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Research relating to similar types of employee deviance further suggests that targets may suffer more psychologically when mistreated by superiors than by co-workers (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997).

Hypothesis 14a: The effects of incivility on employee attitudes and well-being will be stronger when uncivil acts are committed by supervisors than co-workers.

Hypothesis 14b: The effects of incivility on employee attitudes and well-being will be weaker when uncivil acts are committed by supervisors than co-workers.

In addition to affective and psychological reactions, employee performance-related outcomes may be uniquely influenced by the source of incivility. In particular, targets with less power than their instigators (e.g., a supervisor contrasted with a peer) may be more likely to respond with organization-directed behaviors (i.e., citizenship, deviance) rather than individual-directed behavior (Pearson et al., 2005). When a power differential favors an instigator, targets may choose to indirectly harm their employing organization rather than taking actions to retaliate against the instigator directly (Pearson et al., 2000; Pearson & Porath, 2004). As Pearson and Porath (2005) note, the uncivil acts of reciprocation by lower level employees are more likely to

be “curtailed to covert omission” because “lower level targets of incivility act in ways mindful of the ability of the powerful individual to harm the less powerful person’s career” (p. 11). Indeed, this strategy allows greater safety through anonymity (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999).

Although the association between the source of incivility and performance outcomes has yet to be explored, the possibility of differential effects have been suggested. In a study of social undermining, such behaviors from supervisors and co-workers were significantly associated with active forms of CWB, but only supervisor undermining was related to passive counterproductive behaviors (Duffy et al., 2002).

Hypothesis 14c: Uncivil acts committed by supervisors will be associated with organization-targeted performance outcomes (i.e., OCB-O, CWB-O), whereas uncivil acts committed by co-workers will be associated with individual-targeted performance outcomes (i.e., OCB-I, CWB-I).

CHAPTER 3: PRETESTING

Pretesting has been recommended as a means of honing the design of a proposed study before full-scale data collection (e.g., Prescott & Soeken, 1989). In particular, pilot testing of measurement instruments during a pretest allows for the reduction of items in an initial pool to a more manageable number by deleting items that do not meet pre-established psychometric criteria (Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003, p. 116). To develop and validate a measure of workplace incivility, I followed procedures outlined in the survey development literature (e.g., Netemeyer et al., 2003). Below, the results of these procedures are presented in three phases. Phases 1 and 2 describe the initial generation of a pool of potential items and the refinement of the items into a 12-item measure. In Phase 3, the psychometric properties (reliability estimates and factor structure) of the 12-item measure are investigated. Whereas there are existing measures of workplace incivility, none has been derived following clearly articulated and documented validation procedures necessary for yielding reliable and content-valid scores. In addition, Burnfield et al. (2004) recently criticized the most widely used measure of incivility, Cortina et al.'s (2001) Workplace Incivility Scale, because of its failure to distinguish among sources of incivility (i.e., supervisors and co-workers).

Item Generation

Using systematic item-generation procedures, 52 items were developed to represent the full range of the workplace incivility content domain. Care was taken to clearly delineate the focal content domain and avoid redundancy with other related constructs by explicitly defining workplace incivility as specified above. Nine knowledgeable judges with advanced training in psychometric theory, acting alone, served as a review panel to assess items for clarity and meaningfulness. The nine expert judges were asked to rephrase or eliminate any redundant,

ambiguous, or poorly worded items. A total of 18 items were retained because they were deemed to best reflect the content domain by all nine judges.

In Phase 2, the 18 items from this initial assessment were resubmitted to the same panel of judges for further purification. Judges were asked to indicate whether they “Agreed,” “Disagreed,” or were “Uncertain” as to the relevance and representativeness of each item vis-à-vis the focal content domain. Following standard recommendations, items were retained for further testing if they were endorsed by 100% of the judges as a content valid indicator of workplace incivility (cf. 80% endorsement suggested by Miller, 1997). Based on this feedback, 12 items were selected for pilot testing to uncover any further difficulties in item wording or response options. The cover letters and content validity assessments for the two rounds of expert rating are included as Appendices A and B.

Pilot Test

In Phase 3, the 12 surviving items were pilot tested with a sample of 337 full- and part-time masters of business administration students. An email cover letter that contained a link to an online survey was sent to each student, 104 (31%) of which submitted complete responses. It has been suggested that for pools with a small numbers of items (≤ 20) associated with narrowly defined constructs, samples comprised of 100 to 200 respondents are appropriate (Clark & Watson, 1995). Most respondents (91%) were employed full time; those currently employed worked, on average, 38.2 hours per week. A majority of respondents were male (54%) and Caucasian (82%). Mean age of respondents was 29.0 years (range 21-50 years), with an average of 7.0 years’ work experience. The cover letter and survey are listed in Appendix C. Respondents were asked the frequency with which their supervisor or co-workers had engaged in the behavior described in each item. Responses were anchored on a 5-point continuum (0 =

never; 1 = *hardly ever [about once every few months or less]*; 2 = *rarely [about once a month]*; 3 = *sometimes [about once a week]*; 4 = *frequently [about once a day]*). All responses were averaged and coded such that a high score indicates a high level of frequency. Given that the recommended minimum 5:1 subject-to-item ratio (Gorsuch, 1983) was met, a principal-axis factor analysis was conducted to assess the underlying structure of the 12 items. Typically, principal-axis factoring is preferred over principal components analyses because most survey measure development efforts seek to understand a construct in terms of its number of underlying latent factors, as well as to reduce the number of items in a measure (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Moreover, principal-axis factor analysis yields solutions that are more closely replicated when subsequently estimated with confirmatory factor analysis than principal components analysis (Floyd & Widaman, 1995, p. 291). The solutions derived from either technique tend to be similar, however, when commonalities exceed .60 for most items (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006, p. 119).

Factor loadings, means, and standard deviations for the 12-item workplace incivility measure, dubbed the Taylor Incivility Measure (TIM), are presented in Table 1. The original solution yielded a single factor (eigenvalue = 7.62) that accounted for over 63% of the item variance. This meets the benchmark proposed by Hair et al. (2006, p. 120), who suggested that the number of factors extracted should account for 50% to 60% of item variance. A one-factor solution fit the data well, in that, all items significantly loaded ($ps < .01$; Hair et al., 2006, p. 128) on their assigned factor and did not significantly cross load. The mean factor loading for the 12 items was 0.77, demonstrating their homogeneity. A mean inter-item correlation of 0.60 supported the presence of a unidimensional factor structure and suggested that the target construct was systematically and comprehensively measured (Clark & Watson, 1995, p. 316). In

addition, item-to-total correlations were all above the .35 benchmark suggested by Bearden, Hardesty, and Rose (2001). Examination of the item standard deviations revealed that restriction of range was not a concern. To estimate the extent to which item scores were free of measurement error (i.e., reliable), I computed both Cronbach's (1951) coefficient alpha (α) and Raykov's (1997) composite reliability for unidimensional measures (ρ_Y). Item scores displayed high reliability according to both estimators: $\alpha = 0.95$, with a 95% confidence interval of .932 to .962 (Duhachek & Iacobucci, 2004), and $\rho_Y = 0.95$, with a 95% confidence interval of .947 to .953 (Raykov, 2002). The similarity between the two estimators indicates that the items are essentially tau-equivalent (Bedeian, 2007). Finally, general comments received from pilot-test respondents indicated that the survey instructions and all survey items were interpreted as intended.

Table 1**Factor Loadings, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Taylor Incivility Measure**

Item		Factor Loading	Item <i>M</i>	Item <i>SD</i>
“I feel that my supervisor(s) or co-workers have . . .”				
1	spoken to me in a demeaning way	.87	1.25	1.12
2	addressed me in an unprofessional manner	.86	1.22	1.21
3	been abrasive toward me	.80	1.06	1.13
4	stared at me disapprovingly	.62	.91	1.08
5	used sarcasm that hurt or offended me	.71	1.01	1.10
6	been cold or aloof toward me	.74	1.28	1.14
7	been cranky or short with me	.89	1.66	1.17
8	been unapologetic for making a mistake	.69	1.39	1.21
9	shunned my attempts to constructively resolve a disagreement	.78	.82	.97
10	been arrogant toward me	.81	1.38	1.29
11	been insensitive to my feelings	.81	1.16	1.12
12	used an unpleasant tone of voice when speaking to me	.80	1.21	1.11
Eigenvalue		7.62		
% of item variance explained		63.47		
Coefficients α/ρ_V		.95/.95		

Note. $n = 104$.

CHAPTER 4: METHOD

Sample

The principal study sample consisted of master's of business administration (MBA) students and alumni ($N = 2,055$) from a land-grant university located in a large urban area of the Southeastern United States. Targeted participants were employed in a diverse range of for-profit and not-for-profit industries, organizations, and occupations, thereby increasing the generalizability of study results. To minimize evaluation apprehension, potential participants were assured of the confidentiality of their responses, informed that their participation was voluntary and could be terminated at any time without penalty, and promised that only aggregate data would be reported. As an incentive to participate, targeted participants were informed that those with complete paired data from their supervisor (as explained below) would be included in a drawing to win \$10 gift cards.

Procedure

In an effort to reduce common-method variance, data were obtained from multiple sources and at multiple points in time. Specifically, to minimize common-source bias, separate online surveys were developed and administered to individuals and their supervisors using Qualtrics. Research suggests that, relative to other forms of data collection, computerized self-administration may lessen social-desirability effects, especially when eliciting information on sensitive topics (Tourangeau & Yan, 2007). Negative affectivity and workplace incivility scores were obtained from respondents in an initial round of data collection. Employee attitude and well-being scores were collected in a second round two weeks later. Supervisor email addresses were solicited from respondents in both survey administrations. Following the verification of email addresses, supervisors were sent a link to an online job performance rating form two weeks

after employee attitude and well-being scores were obtained from respondents. With respect to second-round survey respondents, temporally separating the measurement of focal variables has been shown to decrease common-method variance by reducing consistency motifs, item-demand characteristics, and item-priming effects (P. M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Measures

Appendix D lists the measures for all study variables. Unless otherwise noted, all measures were anchored by a 5-point Likert response ramp ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). All responses were averaged and coded such that a high score indicates a high level of agreement or frequency.

Workplace incivility. The Taylor Incivility Measure (TIM) was administered to assess workplace incivility. As noted, the TIM consists of 12 items that can be used to measure the frequency with which either a respondent's supervisor or co-workers had engaged in a specified behavior. In the present application, respondents were asked, using separate measures, to report incivility experienced from their supervisor and co-workers. Sample items include "Used sarcasm that hurt or offended me" and "Stared at me disapprovingly." Participants responded on a 5-point scale (0 = *never*; 4 = *frequently*). Alpha reliability coefficients were .94 for co-worker incivility and .95 for supervisor incivility.

Job satisfaction ($\alpha = .95$). Job satisfaction was measured with three items from Bedeian (2007) that gauge respondents' overall global feeling about their job: (1) "All in all, I am satisfied with my job"; (2) "In general, I am dissatisfied with my job" (reverse-scored); and (3) "Generally speaking, I feel satisfied with my present job."

Affective commitment ($\alpha = .88$). Given evidence of its construct validity and widespread sample reliability (Allen & Meyer, 1996), Meyer and Allen's (1990) 8-item measure was used to

tap affective commitment. Exemplary items include “I really feel as if this organization’s problems are my own” and “I do not feel ‘emotionally attached’ to this organization” (reverse-coded).

Turnover intentions ($\alpha = .96$). Turnover intentions were assessed with a 4-item measure from Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham (1999). Illustrative items include “I am planning to look for a new job” and “I intend to ask people about new job opportunities.”

Trust ($\alpha = .72$). Trust was tapped with a 7-item measure from Schoorman and Ballinger (2006). Items were adapted by applying a referent-shift to reflect sentiments concerning both supervisors and co-workers (Chan, 1998). Sample items include “My supervisors or co-workers keep my interests in mind when making decisions” and “It is important for me to have a good way to keep an eye on my supervisor or co-workers” (reverse-coded).

Justice (overall $\alpha = .94$). Distributive justice ($\alpha = .86$) and procedural justice ($\alpha = .91$) were measured with items from Niehoff and Moorman (1993). Sample items include “I think that my level of pay is fair” (distributive justice) and “Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner” (procedural justice). Interactional justice ($\alpha = .90$) was assessed with six items adapted from Moorman (1991). Interpersonal justice ($\alpha = .90$) was gauged with four items adapted from Colquitt (2001). Sample items include “My supervisor and co-workers consider my viewpoint” (interactional justice) and “My supervisor and co-workers treat me with respect” (interpersonal justice).

Job burnout ($\alpha = .91$). Job burnout was measured with the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS; Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996). The MBI-GS is the only measure that assesses all three core job burnout dimensions (Maslach et al., 2001). It contains 16 items, which respondents rate on a frequency scale (ranging from *never* to *daily*).

Burnout is reflected in higher scores on exhaustion and cynicism and lower scores on efficacy. Sample items include “I feel emotionally drained from my work” (exhaustion), “I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job” (personal efficacy), and “I have become less enthusiastic about my work” (cynicism).

Employee engagement ($\alpha = .94$). Although Maslach and colleagues (e.g., Maslach & Leiter, 2008) suggest that burnout and engagement are theoretical opposites, others believe they are independent constructs (e.g., Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). As such, I included the Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli et al., 2002) to explicitly measure the engagement facets of vigor (6 items), dedication (5 items), and absorption (6 items). Respondents rated each item on a frequency scale (ranging from *never* to *daily*). Sample items include “At work, I feel full of energy” (vigor), “My job inspires me” (dedication), and “Time flies when I’m working” (absorption).

Task performance ($\alpha = .84$). Supervisors assessed subordinate task performance with a 7-item measure developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). Sample items include “Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description” and “Fails to perform essential duties” (reverse-coded).

Organizational citizenship behavior. OCB was measured with 14 items from Williams and Anderson (1991). Items assess behaviors directed at individuals (i.e., OCBI, $\alpha = .87$) and behaviors directed at an employing organization (i.e., OCBO, $\alpha = .79$). Sample items include “Helps others who have heavy workloads” (OCBI) and “Takes undeserved work breaks” (OCBO, reverse-coded).

Counterproductive work behavior ($\alpha = .81$). CWB was tapped with Bennett and Robinson’s (2000) measure. Consistent with Stewart and colleagues’ (2009) other-rated measure,

a 5-point response format was used (1 = *never*, 2 = *several times a year*, 3 = *monthly*, 4 = *weekly*, 5 = *daily*) to assess the frequency with which respondents “had engaged in each of the behaviors in the last year.” Due to scale length constraints, only items assessing behaviors directed at an organization (i.e., CWB-O) were included. Sample items include “Left their work for someone else to finish” and “Put little effort into their work.”

Control variables. As recommended by Becker (2005) and Breaugh (2008), relevant theoretical arguments and empirical evidence were reviewed in assessing the need to statistically control for potential nuisance variables. Because it is possible that individuals with a generally negative disposition may be the target (or perceive themselves to be the target) of workplace incivility more often than their positive counterparts, negative affectivity was considered as a likely confounding variable. Using Watson, Clark, and Tellegen’s (1988) 10-item measure of negativity ($\alpha = .85$), respondents were asked to describe their feelings in general based on such adjectives as “distressed,” “upset,” and “irritable.”

Similarly, individual respondent characteristics may influence the degree to which employees are liked and, thus, be associated with the amount of supervisor and co-worker incivility they experience (Milam et al., 2009). That likeability may influence supervisory performance ratings (Hogan & Holland, 2003; Wayne & Liden, 1995) argues for controlling for this variable. Following Bolino and Turnley (2003), supervisors assessed employee likeability with three items ($\alpha = .88$) from Wiggins (1979). Moreover, demographic information was collected to control for potentially spurious effects associated with age, gender, race, and job tenure. Past research has shown that such demographics can affect several of the study’s focal variables (e.g., turnover intentions; Harvey et al., 2007; citizenship behavior; P. M. Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Tests of Model Fit and Construct Distinctiveness

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Before testing the proposed hypotheses, confirmatory factor analysis was used to establish the construct validity of the study variables. In terms of acceptable sample size, some researchers (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) suggest a minimum of 10 observations per parameter estimated, although others offer a guideline as low as 5 to 10 observations parameter estimated (Floyd & Widaman, 1995). Model fit was assessed using Pearson's chi-square goodness-of-fit test, as well as with absolute and comparative fit indices. In particular, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) were inspected to ensure that they fell within the acceptable levels of below .10 and above .90, respectively (Hair et al., 2006, pp. 748-749). Finally, standardized residuals were assessed; values greater than |2.57| are considered statistically significant and those greater than |4.0| identify possible items for deletion, suggesting a potentially unacceptable amount of measurement error (Hair et al., 2006, p. 797).

The results of nested model comparisons appear in Table 2. The two-factor model containing supervisor and co-worker incivility demonstrated an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 693$, $df = 251$, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .070) and was a significantly better fit than a one-factor model in which the two constructs were combined into one factor ($\chi^2 = 3620$, $df = 252$, CFI = .83, RMSEA = .320). This comparison indicates that employees perceive supervisor and co-worker incivility as distinct constructs.

For the remaining sets of analyses, each outcome variable was separately included with supervisor and co-worker incivility. To distinguish, for example, job satisfaction from workplace incivility, three variables were included in a model: job satisfaction, supervisor incivility, and co-worker incivility. The fit of this baseline model was assessed and then compared to alternative

models in which the outcome (e.g., job satisfaction) was combined with either form of incivility. The results of these confirmatory factor analyses generally indicated that supervisor and co-worker incivility were distinct from employee attitudes, well-being, and performance variables.

Other discriminant validity tests. In addition to CFA, I also assessed standardized factor loadings, composite reliability coefficients, and variance extracted estimates. All factor loadings were statistically significant and all study variables (except negative affectivity, trust, and organization-directed citizenship behavior) had satisfactory average variance extracted (AVE) estimates (i.e., above .50; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Additionally, following P. M. Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994), I assessed discriminant validity by ensuring the average variance shared among incivility and its indicators was greater than the shared variance between incivility and other constructs. Although negative affectivity, trust, and OCBO had low AVE estimates, results from these comparisons confirmed that all of the study variables were conceptually distinct.

Discriminant validity was assessed with two additional tests. First, the correlation between salient constructs was specified (fixed) as equal to one. If the 95% confidence interval for each correlation excludes this value (1.0), there is evidence that the constructs are unique. Second, I compared the AVE estimates for two constructs with the correlation between them. If the AVE estimates for each construct are greater than the squared correlation between them, there is evidence of discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2006, p. 778). Results from both tests provided further evidence of discriminant validity.

Table 2
Comparison of Measurement Models

Model	Factors	χ^2	<i>df</i>	RMSEA	CFI	<i>n</i>
<i>Workplace incivility</i>						
	Two factors	693	251	.070	.98	375
	One factor: CINC/SINC	3620†	252	.320	.83	375
<i>Negative affectivity (NA)</i>						
	Three factors	1289	524	.063	.97	375
	Two factors: CINC/NA	2075†	526	.110	.94	375
	Two factors: SINC/NA	2163†	526	.110	.93	375
<i>Job satisfaction (JS)</i>						
	Three factors	660	321	.067	.97	234
	Two factors: CINC/JS	1378†	323	.110	.92	234
	Two factors: SINC/JS	1340†	323	.110	.92	234
<i>Affective commitment (AC)</i>						
	Three factors	865	461	.060	.97	234
	Two factors: CINC/AC	1702†	463	.140	.92	234
	Two factors: SINC/AC	1624†	463	.130	.92	234
<i>Turnover intentions (TI)</i>						
	Three factors	705	347	.068	.97	234
	Two factors: CINC/TI	1812†	349	.130	.89	234
	Two factors: SINC/TI	1787†	349	.130	.89	234
<i>Trust (TR)</i>						
	Three factors	798	431	.062	.97	234
	Two factors: CINC/TR	1048†	433	.089	.95	234
	Two factors: SINC/TR	981†	433	.081	.96	234
<i>Justice (JUST)</i>						
	Three factors	2863	942	.110	.94	234
	Two factors: CINC/JUST	4455†	944	.190	.88	234
	Two factors: SINC/JUST	3875†	944	.160	.90	234

Note. CINC = co-worker incivility; SINC = supervisor incivility; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = Comparative Fit Index. † = a significant increase in χ^2 from the baseline model ($p < .05$).

Table 2 (continued)

Model	Factors	χ^2	<i>df</i>	RMSEA	CFI	<i>n</i>
<i>Job burnout (JB)</i>						
	Three factors	2497	737	.110	.91	234
	Two factors: CINC/JB	3989†	739	.180	.83	234
	Two factors: SINC/JB	3869†	739	.170	.83	234
<i>Employee engagement (EE)</i>						
	Three factors	1910	776	.082	.95	234
	Two factors: CINC/EE	4316†	778	.230	.84	234
	Two factors: SINC/EE	4121†	778	.230	.85	234
<i>Task performance (TASK)</i>						
	Three factors	904	431	.087	.91	93
	Two factors: CINC/TASK	1269†	433	.140	.85	93
	Two factors: SINC/TASK	1245†	433	.140	.85	93
<i>Organization citizenship behavior (OCB)</i>						
	Four factors	1191	659	.077	.91	93
	Three factors: OCBI/OCBO	1276†	662	.088	.90	93
	Three factors: CINC/OCBI	1489†	662	.130	.86	93
	Three factors: SINC/OCBI	1489†	662	.130	.86	93
	Three factors: CINC/OCBO	1399†	662	.110	.88	93
	Three factors: SINC/OCBO	1400†	662	.110	.88	93
	Two factors: INC and OCB	1873†	664	.190	.80	93
<i>Counterproductive work behavior (CWB)</i>						
	Three factors	989	431	.100	.90	93
	Two factors: CINC/CWB	1427†	433	.160	.83	93
	Two factors: SINC/CWB	1409†	433	.160	.83	93

Note. CINC = co-worker incivility; SINC = supervisor incivility; OCBI = individual-directed citizenship behavior; OCBO = organization-directed citizenship behavior.

† = a significant ($p < .05$) increase in χ^2 from the baseline model.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

Exactly 446 return surveys were received in the initial round of data collection. The 391 respondents who supplied usable data were then asked to provide employee attitude and well-being scores in a second survey posted two weeks later. Of this total, 310 (79.3%) completed second-round surveys, with 137 respondents furnishing supervisor contact details. In turn, 102 (74.5%) of the supervisors contacted provided job-performance ratings. A more complete description of the supervisors, as well as those respondents who completed both surveys and whose responses form the basis for the following analyses, is presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Sample Characteristics

	Employees		Supervisors	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age (years)	39.49	11.36	46.98	9.46
Job tenure (years)	6.79	5.83	8.55	6.33
Organization tenure (years)	11.64	8.79	18.18	9.84
Work experience (years)	19.18	10.02	27.25	7.33
Hours worked per week	46.52	7.96	51.08	7.82
Gender (%)				
Male	68.8		72.0	
Female	29.5		25.8	
No response	1.7		2.2	
Race (%)				
White	91.9		84.9	
Non-white	6.8		11.9	
No response	1.3		3.2	

Note. Employee $n = 233$ -234; Supervisor $n = 90$ -91.

To ensure that participants who completed the second-round survey were representative of the round-one sample, I conducted a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to ascertain whether the two groups differed on any of the study variables. Results revealed that, with the

exception of race, Time 2 non-respondents did not differ from Time 1–Time 2 respondents with respect to negative affectivity, supervisor incivility, co-worker incivility, or demographics. Those respondents who completed both surveys were more likely to be Caucasian ($n = 304$, $M = 1.19$, $SD = .72$) than respondents who did not ($n = 95$, $M = 1.44$, $SD = 1.06$). As race was not correlated with any other study variable, these results provide some indication that full and partial survey respondents did not, in general, differ with regard to the variables of interest (Armstrong & Overton, 1977; Blair & Zinkhan, 2006).

Further comparisons were made to determine whether respondents with matched supervisor-rated performance data differed from those without supervisor ratings. Results from a one-way ANOVA revealed a significant difference between the groups on supervisor incivility, $F(1, 386) = 5.86$, $p < .05$, such that respondents with matched supervisor data reported experiencing less incivility from their supervisor ($n = 100$, $M = 1.42$, $SD = .60$) than those without supervisor performance data ($n = 288$, $M = 1.62$, $SD = .74$). Such a finding suggests respondents were more likely to provide supervisor contact information when they had experienced less incivility from their supervisors. Finally, difference tests further indicated that respondents with matched supervisor data reported higher levels of trust and justice ($M = 3.43$, $SD = .53$ and $M = 4.06$, $SD = .49$) than those without performance ratings ($M = 3.24$, $SD = .58$ and $M = 3.78$, $SD = .66$). To the extent that a quality interpersonal relationship with one's supervisor may be associated with a favorable performance assessment, the data on which the related analyses are based may be positively biased.

Data analyses proceeded in three phases: (1) examining the pattern of correlations among study variables, (2) conducting tests of relative importance, and (3) performing mediation analyses with a bootstrapping technique. Whereas the pattern of intercorrelations indicates the

strength of the relationships among the various study variables, the tests of relative importance assess the degree to which supervisor incivility and co-worker incivility contribute to the prediction of employee attitudes, well-being, and performance. In addition to calculating regression (beta) coefficients to determine the relative contribution of supervisor and co-worker incivility to the prediction of each criterion variable, dominance analysis (Azen & Budescu, 2003) and epsilon statistics (Johnson, 2000) were also performed. Mediation hypotheses (*H9*, *H11*, and *H13*) were tested using a technique outlined by Preacher and Hayes (2004). This technique uses bootstrapped confidence intervals to more directly assess mediation than the more common R. M. Baron and Kenny (1986) multistep procedure. In addition, it avoids problems associated with non-normal sampling distributions when testing for indirect effects (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004).

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Table 4 presents means, standard deviations, zero-order correlations, and alpha reliability coefficients for all study variables. The pattern of correlations corresponds closely to those reported in the literature. Workplace incivility was correlated ($p < .05$) with employee attitudes and well-being, but relationships with supervisor-rated job performance generally did not reach conventional levels of statistical significance ($p > .05$). Supervisor incivility, however, was significantly associated with task performance ($r = -.32, p < .05$) and counterproductive behavior ($r = .29, p < .05$). Alpha reliability coefficients ranged from .70 to .96. The results of Hypotheses 1-8, 10, and 12 are summarized in Table 5.

To assess whether the various forms of incivility (i.e., supervisor, co-worker) have different effects on employee outcomes, I compared the strength of association between correlations involving both sources of incivility and employee outcomes. As shown in Table 4,

Table 4
Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations among All Study Variables

Variable	<i>r</i>														
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1 Negative affectivity	(.85)														
2 Supervisor incivility	.31**	(.95)													
3 Coworker incivility	.35**	.29**	(.94)												
4 Job satisfaction	-.29**	-.26**	-.10	(.95)											
5 Affective commitment	-.27**	-.27**	-.11	.70**	(.88)										
6 Turnover intentions	.23**	.20**	.12	-.70**	-.66**	(.96)									
7 Trust	-.24**	-.38**	-.23**	.50**	.51**	-.51**	(.72)								
8 Justice	-.32**	-.58**	-.27**	.57**	.50**	-.52**	.70**	(.94)							
9 Burnout	.37**	.31**	.18**	-.68**	-.58**	.59**	-.39**	-.47**	(.91)						
10 Engagement	-.21**	-.23**	-.02	.64**	.60**	-.53**	.44**	.40**	-.64**	(.94)					
11 Task performance	-.14	-.32**	.04	.07	.12	-.11	.11	.19	-.08	-.11	(.84)				
12 OCBI	-.01	-.04	-.00	.05	.21	-.21	.24*	.21	-.04	-.02	.33**	(.87)			
13 OCBO	.08	-.05	.16	.12	.14	-.02	.09	.15	-.01	-.04	.62**	.48**	(.79)		
14 CWB	.17	.29*	.04	.12	-.08	.06	-.14	-.10	-.12	.11	-.39**	-.40**	-.47**	(.81)	
15 Likeability	.06	.01	.08	.09	.10	-.10	.20	.20	-.03	-.02	.29*	.40**	.40**	-.31**	(.88)
<i>M</i>	1.50	1.56	1.74	3.80	3.45	2.45	3.33	3.87	2.64	5.54	4.56	4.21	4.35	1.17	4.61
<i>SD</i>	.46	.70	.70	1.03	.83	1.23	.57	.62	1.01	1.00	.50	.58	.56	.39	.50

Note. $n = 234$ for employee-rated measures, $n = 74$ for supervisor-rated measures. Alpha reliability coefficients appear on diagonal. OCBI = Individual-directed organizational citizenship behavior; OCBO = organization-directed organizational citizenship behavior; CWB = counterproductive work behavior.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 5
Summary of Hypotheses 1-8, 10, and 12

<i>H</i>		<i>Supported?</i>	
		Supervisor	Coworker
1	Workplace incivility will be negatively related to job satisfaction.	Yes	No
2	Workplace incivility will be negatively related to affective commitment.	Yes	No
3	Workplace incivility will be positively related to turnover intentions.	Yes	No
4	Workplace incivility will be negatively related to interpersonal trust.	Yes	Yes
5	Workplace incivility will be negatively related to fairness perceptions.	Yes	Yes
6	Workplace incivility will be positively related to job burnout.	Yes	Yes
7	Workplace incivility will be negatively related to employee engagement.	Yes	No
8	Workplace incivility will be negatively related to task performance.	Yes	No
10	Workplace incivility will be negatively related to OCB.	No	No
12	Workplace incivility will be positively related to CWB.	Yes	No

Note. *H* = Hypothesis. OCB = organizational citizenship behavior; CWB = counterproductive work behavior.

supervisor incivility tended to correlate more strongly with employee attitudes, well-being, and performance than co-worker incivility. Table 6 provides further evidence relating to these effects. Tests for differences between independent correlations were conducted between supervisor and co-worker incivility and employee outcomes. The significant *z*-values indicate that organizational justice, employee engagement, and task performance were more strongly correlated (all *ps* < .05; two-tailed) with supervisor than with co-worker incivility. Overall, these results provide some support for Hypothesis 14a, which proposed that the effects of incivility on employee attitudes and well-being are stronger when uncivil acts are committed by supervisors than co-workers.

Tests of Relative Importance

To further assess the nature of the relationships between workplace incivility and employee outcomes, I conducted two tests to compare the relative strength of supervisor and co-worker incivility in predicting employee outcomes: dominance analysis (Azen & Budescu, 2003)

Table 6**Correlation Differences between Supervisor and Co-worker Incivility**

	Incivility			Difference z-score	2-tailed p value
	Overall	Supervisor	Co-worker		
Job satisfaction	-.23**	-.26**	-.10	-1.77	.076
Affective commitment	-.24**	-.27**	-.11	-1.83	.067
Turnover intentions	.20**	.20**	.12	.93	.354
Trust	-.38**	-.38**	-.23**	-1.74	.081
Justice	-.53**	-.58**	-.27**	-4.13	.001
Burnout	.30**	.31**	.18**	1.53	.125
Engagement	-.15*	-.23**	-.02	-2.26	.024
Task performance	-.16	-.32**	.04	-2.23	.026
OCBI	-.02	-.04	-.00	-.23	.821
OCBO	.07	-.05	.16	-1.28	.201
CWB	.19	.29*	.04	1.57	.116

Note. $n = 234$ for employee-rated measures; $n = 74$ for supervisor-rated measures.

OCBI = individual-directed citizenship; OCBO = organization-directed citizenship;

CWB = counterproductive work behavior.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

and the epsilon statistic (Johnson, 2000). Both tests provide an indication of relative importance, which refers to “the contribution each predictor makes to the total predicted criterion variance when a predictor is considered by itself and in combination with other predictors” (LeBreton & Tonidandel, 2008, p. 330). These tests determine whether incivility from one source (e.g., supervisors) contributes more to the prediction of employee outcomes than incivility from another source and, consequently, directly assess Hypothesis 14.

In the first test, the general dominance statistic (denoted D in Table 7) was computed by averaging the squared semipartial correlations across all possible subset regression models (see LeBreton & Tonidandel, 2008). These values were then divided by the total variance explained (i.e., R^2) in the outcome to create an index of each predictor’s average usefulness. For the second test, the epsilon statistic (denoted ϵ in the table) was calculated by employing an SPSS macro

developed by Johnson (2000). More specifically, the epsilon statistic was calculated by transforming the original (correlated) predictors into uncorrelated principal components and subsequently regressing the outcome on these orthogonal components. The resulting statistic provides an index of the proportionate contribution each predictor makes to total variance explained, providing a metric analogous to relative effect size. LeBreton, Ployhart, and Ladd (2004) suggest dominance analysis and relative weights (i.e., epsilon weights) are superior techniques for evaluating the relative importance of correlated predictors. Table 7 reports the decomposed effects of supervisor and co-worker incivility on each employee outcome, the total predicted criterion variance (R^2) for each model, and the standardized regression weights associated with a change of 1 *SD* unit in each outcome when holding either supervisor or co-worker incivility constant.

Workplace incivility predicted each of the attitudinal and well-being outcomes. When decomposing the effects of the source of incivility on these outcomes, supervisor incivility accounted for a majority of the total effect, as D and ε values were above 75% for each employee outcome. To determine the statistical significance of these relative weights, I employed a technique recommended by Tonidandel, LeBreton, and Johnson (2009). In particular, a SAS macro used a bias corrected accelerated (BCa) method to obtain 95% confidence intervals around each relative weight. Findings revealed the relative contribution of supervisor incivility was statistically significant ($ps < .05$) for job satisfaction, affective commitment, trust, fairness perceptions, and job burnout, as 95% confidence intervals did not contain zero. In addition, co-worker incivility contributed a significant proportion of variance in predicting trust and justice. With respect to performance criteria, supervisor incivility contributed more than co-worker incivility to the prediction of task performance. Neither of the relative weights, however, was

statistically significant ($ps > .05$). Overall, these findings provide further support for Hypothesis 14a by suggesting that supervisor incivility generally has stronger effects than co-worker incivility.

Tests of Mediation

Tests of mediation have traditionally been conducted using R. M. Baron and Kenny's (1986) 3-step procedure, which requires that (a) an outcome variable Y be regressed on a predictor variable X , (b) a mediator variable M be regressed on the predictor, and (c) the outcome be regressed on both the predictor and mediator. The indirect effect of X on Y is, therefore, defined as the product of the $X \rightarrow M$ path (a) and the $M \rightarrow Y$ path (b), or ab . Recently, however, researchers (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002) have identified conceptual and mathematical limitations associated with the Baron and Kenny multi-step procedure and, consequently, have recommended that mediational analyses be based on formal tests of significance of the indirect effect ab . Such tests, of which a procedure developed by Sobel (1982) is perhaps the best known, have been recommended to assess mediation more directly. These tests are considered more powerful because they compare the strength of an indirect effect of X on Y to the null hypothesis that it is 0. Yet the Sobel test, too, has statistical limitations. In particular, an assumption underlying the Sobel test requires that the product ab be normally distributed. Because the product of two normal random variables is usually positively skewed and kurtotic, however, the normality assumption underlying the indirect effect ab is generally untenable. The results obtained from such tests may thus lack statistical power, being more prone to Type II error (MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004; Preacher & Hayes, 2004).

Table 7
Relationships between Workplace Incivility and Employee Outcomes

Variable	Job satisfaction			Affective commitment			Turnover intentions			Trust		
	R ²	β	D	ε	R ²	β	D	ε	R ²	β	D	ε
Workplace incivility	.05**	-.23**			.06**	-.24**			.04**	.20**		
									.14**	-.38**		
Supervisor incivility	.07**	-.25**	92.0	91.9*	.08**	-.26**	91.3	91.6*	.04**	.18**	80.7	80.4
Co-worker incivility		-.03	8.0	8.1		-.03	8.7	8.4		.06	19.3	19.6
										-.13*	21.5	21.6*

General factor

Specific source

Variable	Fairness perceptions				Job burnout				Employee engagement			
	R ²	β	D	ε	R ²	β	D	ε	R ²	β	D	ε
Workplace incivility	.28**	-.53**			.09**	.30**			.02*	-.15*		
					Specific source							
Supervisor incivility	.35**	-.55**	87.9	87.8*	.10**	.28**	81.3	81.3*	.05**	-.24**	98.1	97.6
Co-worker incivility		-.11*	12.1	12.2*		.09	18.8	18.7		.05	1.9	2.4

Note. $n = 234$.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 7 (continued)

Variable	Task performance			OCBI			OCBO			CWB		
	R^2	β	D	ε	R^2	β	D	ε	R^2	β	D	ε
Workplace incivility	.01	-.10			.00	-.04			.01	.07		
	General factor											
	Specific source											
Supervisor incivility	.07*	-.29**	84.5	84.4	.00	-.07	100.0	96.1	.03	-.12	20.6	21.7
Co-worker incivility		.16	15.5	15.6		.01	0.0	3.9		.19	79.4	78.3
											10.0	11.8

Note. $n = 93$. OCBI = individual-directed citizenship; OCBO = organization-directed citizenship; CWB = counterproductive work behavior.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Given these drawbacks, bootstrapping the *ab* sampling distribution has been recommended as a superior approach to test the size and significance of proposed mediating effects (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). It was on this basis that I employed an SPSS macro developed by Preacher and Hayes (2004) to test Hypotheses 9, 11, and 13. By estimating the sampling distribution nonparametrically through bootstrapping and then deriving a confidence interval based on the empirically bootstrapped *ab* sampling distribution, the macro makes no assumptions about the shape of the sampling distribution. It, thus, avoids problems associated with asymmetries and other forms of non-normality in the *ab* sampling distribution and, because it is not based on large-sample theory, may be more confidently used with small samples. Moreover, employing tests that do not assume the intervening variable effect is normally distributed (or directly address skew in an underlying distribution) prevents reductions in statistical power when testing mediation effects (MacKinnon et al., 2002; Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

The incivility – task performance relationship. Hypothesis 9 proposed that employee perceptions of (a) trust and (b) justice would mediate the relationship between workplace incivility and task performance. As Table 8 illustrates, the regression coefficients do not meet statistical guidelines indicating a pattern of mediation for either supervisor or co-worker incivility. Moreover, results from the bootstrapping technique show that none of the indirect effects were statistically significant. As such, Hypothesis 9 is not supported.

The incivility – OCB relationship. Hypothesis 11 proposed that employee perceptions of (a) trust and (b) justice would mediate the relationship between workplace incivility and organizational citizenship behavior. As Table 9 shows, only three of the eight sets of relationships received empirical support. First, supervisor incivility had an indirect effect on individual-directed citizenship behavior (OCBI) through its effects on employee perceptions of

Table 8

Mediation Analyses for Task Performance

Trust					Justice				
Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Supervisor incivility</i>									
b(YX)	-.23	.09	-2.51	.014	b(YX)	-.25	.08	-3.17	.002
b(MX)	-.27	.09	-3.09	.003	b(MX)	-.38	.08	-5.10	.001
b(YM.X)	.01	.12	.10	.917	b(YM.X)	.09	.12	.75	.454
b(YX.M)	-.23	.10	-2.33	.022	b(YX.M)	-.22	.09	-2.39	.019
Indirect effect	-.00				Indirect effect	-.03			
<i>n</i> = 84					<i>n</i> = 84				
<i>Co-worker incivility</i>									
b(YX)	.05	.08	.58	.562	b(YX)	.02	.07	.28	.782
b(MX)	-.13	.08	-1.54	.129	b(MX)	-.23	.07	-3.21	.002
b(YM.X)	.09	.11	.78	.438	b(YM.X)	.26	.11	2.29	.025
b(YX.M)	.06	.09	.70	.484	b(YX.M)	.08	.08	1.03	.306
Indirect effect	-.01				Indirect effect	-.06			
<i>n</i> = 85					<i>n</i> = 85				

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients (*B*) are reported. Bootstrap sample size = 1,000.

trust and fairness. Whereas supervisor incivility did not have a direct effect on OCBI ($B = -.06$, $p > .05$), both the $X \rightarrow M$ paths and the $M \rightarrow Y$ paths were significant. In other words, as illustrated in the top-half of Table 9, supervisor incivility was related to trust and justice ($Bs = -.27$ and $-.38$, $ps < .01$, respectively) and both trust and justice were related to OCBI when controlling for the effects of supervisor incivility ($Bs = .25$ and $.30$, $ps < .05$, respectively). Additionally, the indirect effects obtained from the bootstrapping approach corroborated these results, as both indirect effects ($-.07$, $-.12$) were negative and significant.

Second, co-worker incivility had a similar effect on organization-directed citizenship behavior (OCBO). As shown in the bottom half of Table 9, co-worker incivility did not have a direct effect on OCBO, but it did exert indirect effects through employee perceptions of fairness.

Table 9

Mediation Analyses for Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Trust					Justice				
Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Individual-directed Citizenship Behavior (OCBI)									
<i>Supervisor incivility</i>									
b(YX)	-.06	.10	-.62	.538	b(YX)	-.06	.10	-.59	.559
b(MX)	-.27	.09	-3.04	.003	b(MX)	-.38	.08	-5.04	.001
b(YM.X)	.25	.12	2.11	.038	b(YM.X)	.30	.14	2.21	.030
b(YX.M)	.01	.10	.07	.945	b(YX.M)	.06	.11	.54	.588
Indirect effect	-.07*				Indirect effect	-.12**			
<i>n</i> = 85					<i>n</i> = 85				
<i>Co-worker incivility</i>									
b(YX)	.01	.08	.06	.953	b(YX)	.01	.08	.15	.883
b(MX)	-.12	.08	-1.52	.133	b(MX)	-.23	.07	-3.17	.002
b(YM.X)	.26	.11	2.35	.021	b(YM.X)	.28	.13	2.21	.030
b(YX.M)	.04	.08	.44	.658	b(YX.M)	.08	.09	.86	.391
Indirect effect	-.03				Indirect effect	-.06			
<i>n</i> = 86					<i>n</i> = 86				
Organization-directed Citizenship Behavior (OCB-O)									
<i>Supervisor incivility</i>									
b(YX)	-.06	.10	-.59	.559	b(YX)	-.06	.10	-.58	.566
b(MX)	-.27	.09	-3.00	.004	b(MX)	-.37	.08	-4.93	.001
b(YM.X)	.08	.12	.68	.500	b(YM.X)	.22	.14	1.61	.110
b(YX.M)	-.04	.10	-.34	.732	b(YX.M)	.03	.11	.26	.798
Indirect effect	-.02				Indirect effect	-.08			
<i>n</i> = 85					<i>n</i> = 85				
<i>Co-worker incivility</i>									
b(YX)	.14	.09	1.60	.113	b(YX)	.14	.09	1.67	.100
b(MX)	-.12	.08	-1.45	.151	b(MX)	-.21	.07	-2.90	.005
b(YM.X)	.11	.11	1.03	.307	b(YM.X)	.28	.12	2.22	.029
b(YX.M)	.15	.09	1.75	.085	b(YX.M)	.20	.09	2.30	.024
Indirect effect	-.01				Indirect effect	-.06*			
<i>n</i> = 86					<i>n</i> = 86				

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients (*B*) are reported. Bootstrap sample size = 1,000.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Co-worker incivility was related to justice ($B = -.21, p < .01$) and justice, in turn, was related to OCBO when controlling for the effects of co-worker incivility ($B = .28, p < .05$). Bootstrapping demonstrated that the indirect effect ($-.06$) was significant, as bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals around the indirect effect ab did not contain zero. Taken together, these results provide partial support for Hypothesis 11, but are contrary to Hypothesis 14c, which proposed that supervisor incivility would be associated with organization-targeted performance outcomes and co-worker incivility would be associated with individual-targeted performance outcomes.

The incivility – CWB relationship. Hypothesis 13 proposed that employee perceptions of (a) trust and (b) justice would mediate the relationship between workplace incivility and counterproductive work behavior. As Table 10 illustrates, the regression coefficients did not fulfill statistical requirements indicating mediation for either supervisor or co-worker incivility. This was further corroborated by the bootstrapping results. As such, Hypothesis 13 is not supported.

Table 10

Mediation Analyses for Counterproductive Work Behavior

Trust					Justice				
Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Supervisor incivility</i>									
b(YX)	.16	.06	2.60	.011	b(YX)	.16	.06	2.58	.012
b(MX)	-.27	.09	-3.07	.003	b(MX)	-.39	.08	-5.13	.001
b(YM.X)	-.04	.08	-.52	.604	b(YM.X)	.02	.09	.26	.795
b(YX.M)	.15	.06	2.28	.025	b(YX.M)	.17	.07	2.36	.020
Indirect effect	.01				Indirect effect	-.01			
<i>n</i> = 86					<i>n</i> = 86				
<i>Co-worker incivility</i>									
b(YX)	.01	.06	.16	.870	b(YX)	.01	.06	.13	.898
b(MX)	-.13	.08	-1.54	.127	b(MX)	-.23	.07	-3.25	.002
b(YM.X)	-.09	.07	-1.24	.217	b(YM.X)	-.08	.09	-.95	.344
b(YX.M)	-.00	.06	-.04	.966	b(YX.M)	-.01	.06	-.19	.846
Indirect effect	.01				Indirect effect	.02			
<i>n</i> = 87					<i>n</i> = 87				

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients (*B*) are reported. Bootstrap sample size = 1,000.

CHAPTER 6: CONCEPTUAL RESPECIFICATION

Given mixed support for the *a priori* mediation hypotheses (Hypotheses 9, 11, and 13), both the theoretical rationale offered in Chapter 2 and the results presented in Chapter 5 were reconsidered. Upon further review, both the underlying theory and study results suggested that the logic supporting the mediation hypotheses related to employee performance may also apply to the effects of workplace incivility on employee well-being outcomes. To explore this possibility, the conceptual scheme presented in Figure 1 was re-specified and supplementary analyses were performed in which relationships between workplace incivility and employee well-being (i.e., job burnout and employee engagement) were hypothesized to be mediated by employee perceptions of trust and fairness. This chapter thus presents a new conceptual scheme (Figure 2), new hypotheses, and results of subsequent analyses.

The Incivility – Burnout Relationship

In addition to proposing a direct link between workplace incivility and job burnout (Hypothesis 6), as indicated in Figure 2, incivility may indirectly influence job burnout through various perceptual mediating mechanisms. In a recent review, Maslach and Leiter (2008) identified organizational risk factors associated with burnout, two of which seem to correspond closely with employee perceptions of trust and justice: community and fairness. The former pertains to quality social interactions at work reflected by mutual support and closeness, two characteristics related to trust (Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler, & Martin, 1997; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004). The latter simply refers to employees' perceptions of equity. According to Maslach and Leiter, when these characteristics mismatch with an employee's needs and abilities, feelings of burnout are likely to develop. Conversely, greater congruence predicts better adjustment and less strain. Further supporting their possible role as

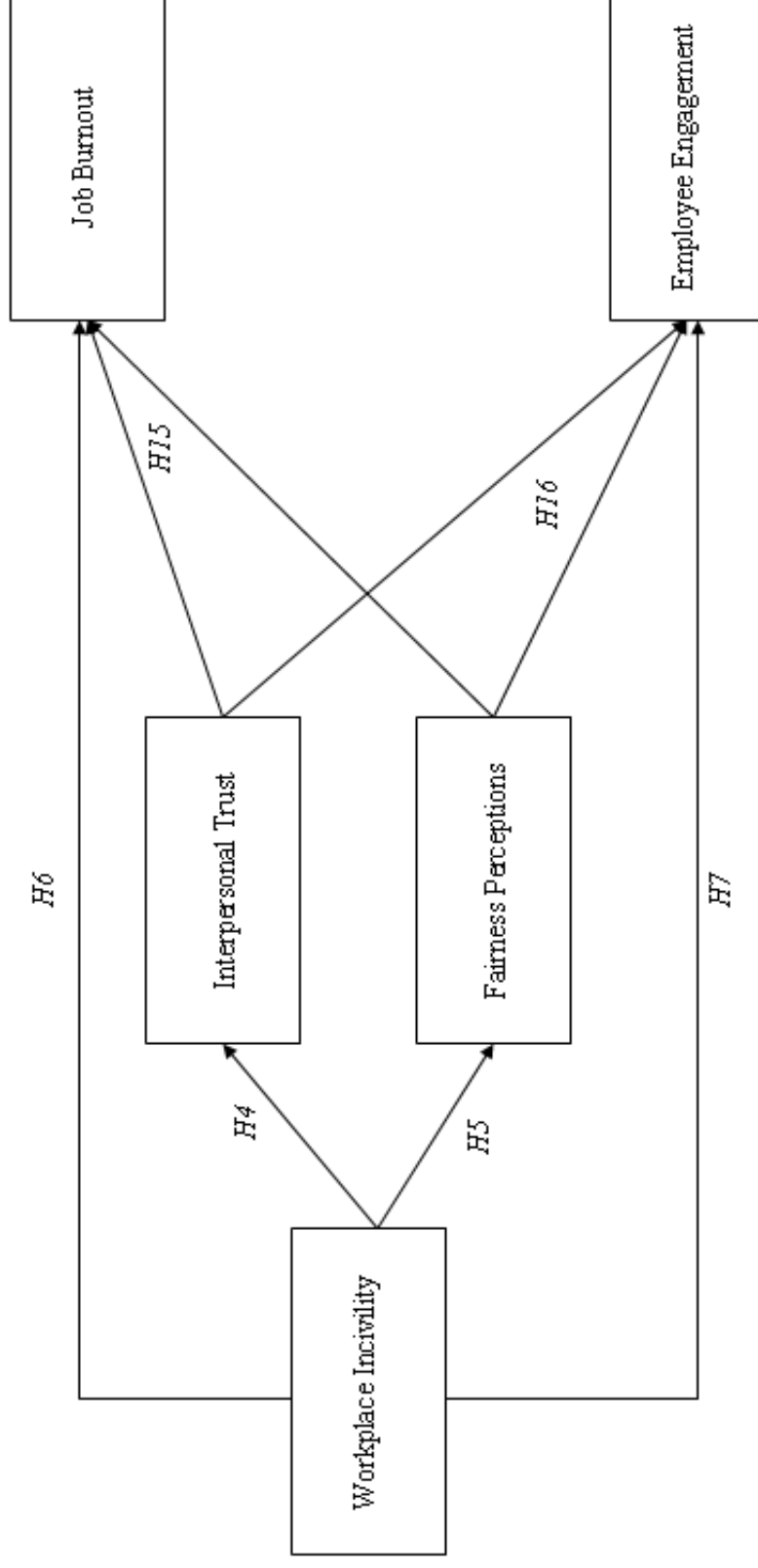


Figure 2: A Conceptual Respecification for Understanding Workplace Incivility

mediating variables, trust and justice have been found to be related to burnout or its sub-dimensions (e.g., Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, & Walker, 2007; Moliner, Martínez-Tur, Peiró, & Ramos, 2005; Simmons, Gooty, Nelson, & Little, 2009).

First, workplace incivility may influence job burnout through its effects on fairness perceptions. This possibility is consistent with the notion that violating basic expectations of equity can have a persistent and far-reaching impact on employees (Maslach et al., 2001). To the extent that workplace incivility violates accepted norms of fairness, it may heighten employees' feelings of burnout. More specifically, Maslach and Leiter (2008) suggested that the experience of unfair treatment is emotionally upsetting and exhausting and may elicit cynicism. Past empirical research has found that interventions aimed at reducing employees' feelings of job burnout did so by altering program participants' perceptions of inequity (van Dierendonck, Schaufeli, & Buunk, 1998). Thus, perceptions of fairness may be expected to mediate the incivility – job burnout relationship.

Second, in drawing on a similar logic, it is possible that interpersonal trust may mediate the relationship between workplace incivility and job burnout. A lack of supportive and trusting co-workers may lead to feelings of exhaustion, inefficacy, and cynicism because such support enables adaptive responses to work stress (Kahn, Schneider, Jenkins-Henkelman, & Moyle, 2006; Zellars & Perrewé, 2001). Conversely, employees who can trust their supervisors and co-workers are likely to perceive them as supportive and, thus, may be less susceptible to job burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). As such, workplace incivility may indirectly influence job burnout through its effects on interpersonal trust.

Hypothesis 15: The relationship between workplace incivility and job burnout will be mediated by (15a) interpersonal trust and (15b) perceptions of fairness.

The Incivility – Engagement Relationship

As with its hypothesized relation to job burnout, workplace incivility may also directly and indirectly influence employee engagement (see Figure 2). Although employee engagement is a relatively new topic of academic interest (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008) and empirical findings are limited, researchers have suggested that emphasizing fairness and building trust may be critical to the development of an engaged workforce (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Given the interpersonal nature of workplace incivility and the notion that uncivil exchanges between employees may foster feelings of distrust and unfairness, mediated relationships between incivility and employee engagement seem likely.

Workplace incivility may indirectly influence employee engagement levels through its effect on fairness perceptions. When managers make expectations clear and are fair in their interactions with subordinates, employees are likely to feel engaged and behave in constructive ways (Macey & Schneider, 2008, p. 22). Conversely, employees may experience psychological distress if they feel their supervisor makes unfair decisions at work (Ali Chughtai & Buckley, 2008). More specifically, employees may respond to fair treatment at work with reciprocation, by investing their time and energy into their work (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Saks, 2006). As workplace incivility connotes unfair treatment and underlies processes of social exchange (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), fairness perceptions may mediate the relationship between workplace incivility and employee engagement.

Likewise, interpersonal trust may also explain the link between workplace incivility and employee engagement. Prior researchers (e.g., Ali Chughtai & Buckley, 2008; Saks, 2008) have proposed such linkages because feelings of trust may function as a form of social support, which allows employees to concentrate on the work at hand. Indeed, individuals become engaged when

they perceive that their workplace environment is one founded by trust (Dittmar, Jennings, & Stahl-Wert, 2007). Similarly, May et al. (2004) have hypothesized that employees who support one another and show mutual respect engender trust and heightened perceptions of engagement. In particular, they found that rewarding interpersonal relationships foster engagement by enhancing individuals' feelings of psychological safety. As prior research has established trust as an outcome (negative) of mistreatment (Aquino & Thau, 2009; Duffy et al., 2006) and as an antecedent (positive) of employee engagement (Lane, 2008/2009), interpersonal trust may mediate the relationship between workplace incivility and employee engagement.

Hypothesis 16: The relationship between workplace incivility and employee engagement will be mediated by (16a) interpersonal trust and (16b) perceptions of fairness.

Analyses and Results of Respecification

As with the original mediation hypotheses, the bootstrap approach recommended by Preacher and Hayes (2004) was used to test Hypotheses 15 and 16. Results of these mediation analyses are shown in Tables 11 and 12.

Hypothesis 15 proposed that employee perceptions of (a) trust and (b) justice would mediate the relationship between workplace incivility and job burnout. As Table 11 illustrates, supervisor incivility was positively associated with job burnout ($Bs = .47$ and $.47$, both $ps < .01$). Co-worker incivility was likewise associated with job burnout ($Bs = .27$ and $.29$, both $ps < .01$). Moreover, supervisor incivility was negatively related to perceptions of trust and justice ($Bs = -.31$ and $-.51$, both $ps < .01$, respectively). Co-worker incivility was also negatively related to perceptions of trust and justice ($Bs = -.31$ and $-.51$, both $ps < .01$). Additionally, consistent with Hypothesis 15, the relationships between both trust and justice and job burnout were significant

($Bs = -.61$ and $-.72$, both $ps < .01$) when controlling for supervisor incivility. The relationships between trust and justice and job burnout were likewise significant ($Bs = -.67$ and $-.77$, both $ps < .01$) when controlling for co-worker incivility. Finally, supervisor incivility had a unique positive effect on job burnout when controlling for trust ($B = .29$, $p < .01$), but not when controlling for justice ($B = .10$, $p > .05$). In the case of co-worker incivility, the relationship between incivility and job burnout was not significant when controlling for either mediator variable. These results suggest that the relationship between supervisor incivility and job burnout is partially mediated by trust, but the other sets of relationships between workplace incivility and job burnout are completely mediated by employee perceptions of trust and justice.

Given doubt about the normality of the ab distribution (MacKinnon et al., 2004; Preacher & Hayes, 2004), I estimated the indirect effect of workplace incivility on job burnout with a bootstrapping technique. Bootstrapping, which needs no assumptions about the shape of a sampling distribution, demonstrated that the indirect effects were significant, as bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals around the indirect effect ab did not contain zero. Taken together, these results support Hypothesis 15.

Hypothesis 16 proposed that employee perceptions of (a) trust and (b) justice would mediate the relationship between workplace incivility and employee engagement. Table 12 reveals that supervisor incivility was negatively associated with engagement ($Bs = -.34$ and $-.33$, both $ps < .01$). Further, supervisor incivility was negatively related to both trust and justice ($Bs = -.30$ and $-.49$, both $ps < .01$) and both mediators were, in turn, associated with higher levels of engagement when controlling for supervisor incivility ($Bs = .75$ and $.71$, both $ps < .01$). Finally, the relationship between supervisor incivility and employee engagement was reduced when separately controlling for the effects of trust and justice, revealing a pattern of complete

Table 11

Mediation Analyses for Job Burnout

Variable	Trust				Variable	Justice			
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Supervisor incivility</i>									
b(YX)	.47	.09	5.31	.001	b(YX)	.47	.09	5.33	.001
b(MX)	-.31	.05	-6.36	.001	b(MX)	-.51	.04	-11.66	.001
b(YM.X)	-.61	.11	-5.62	.001	b(YM.X)	-.72	.12	-6.19	.001
b(YX.M)	.29	.09	3.15	.002	b(YX.M)	.10	.10	.96	.339
Indirect effect	.19**				Indirect effect	.37**			
<i>n</i> = 260					<i>n</i> = 256				
<i>Co-worker incivility</i>									
b(YX)	.29	.09	3.30	.001	b(YX)	.27	.09	2.98	.003
b(MX)	-.19	.05	-3.96	.001	b(MX)	-.26	.05	-4.97	.001
b(YM.X)	-.67	.11	-6.38	.001	b(YM.X)	-.77	.10	-8.15	.001
b(YX.M)	.16	.09	1.93	.055	b(YX.M)	.07	.08	.79	.432
Indirect effect	.13**				Indirect effect	.20**			
<i>n</i> = 268					<i>n</i> = 263				

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients (*B*) are reported. Bootstrap sample size = 1,000.

** $p < .01$.

mediation. Bootstrapping demonstrated that the indirect effects ($-.23$ and $-.37$) were significant, as bootstrapped 99% confidence intervals around the indirect effect ab did not contain zero.

The results pertaining to co-worker incivility were somewhat different than those for supervisor incivility. In particular, co-worker incivility was not associated with employee engagement directly ($Bs = -.03$ and $-.04$, both $ps > .05$). The $X \rightarrow M$ and $M \rightarrow Y$ paths, however, were significant for perceptions of trust and justice. That is, co-worker incivility was negatively related to trust and justice ($Bs = -.18$ and $-.25$, both $ps < .01$) which, in turn, were positively related ($Bs = .78$ and $.71$, both $ps < .01$) to employee engagement (when controlling for the effects of co-worker incivility). Despite the lack of direct association between co-worker incivility and engagement, indirect effects can still exist (Hayes, 2009). Indeed, bootstrapping

results demonstrated that the indirect effects (–.14 and –.18) were significant, as bootstrapped 99% confidence intervals around the indirect effect *ab* did not contain zero. Overall, then, these results support Hypothesis 16.

Table 12
Mediation Analyses for Employee Engagement

Trust					Justice				
Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Supervisor Incivility</i>									
b(YX)	-.34	.09	-3.68	.001	b(YX)	-.33	.09	-3.75	.001
b(MX)	-.30	.05	-6.30	.001	b(MX)	-.49	.04	-11.24	.001
b(YM.X)	.75	.11	6.85	.001	b(YM.X)	.71	.12	6.04	.001
b(YX.M)	-.11	.09	-1.24	.216	b(YX.M)	.02	.10	.17	.868
Indirect effect	-.23**				Indirect effect	-.37**			
<i>n</i> = 266					<i>n</i> = 262				
<i>Co-worker Incivility</i>									
b(YX)	-.03	.09	-0.31	.757	b(YX)	-.04	.09	-0.43	.669
b(MX)	-.18	.05	-3.73	.001	b(MX)	-.25	.05	-4.69	.001
b(YM.X)	.78	.10	7.67	.001	b(YM.X)	.71	.10	7.43	.001
b(YX.M)	-.12	.09	-1.36	.176	b(YX.M)	.14	.09	1.60	.111
Indirect effect	-.14**				Indirect effect	-.18**			
<i>n</i> = 274					<i>n</i> = 269				

Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients (*B*) are reported. Bootstrap sample size = 1,000.

** *p* < .01.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION

The goal of this dissertation was to examine the consequences of workplace incivility. In particular, the reported study investigated the links between workplace incivility and attitudinal, health-related, and performance outcomes. Mediating mechanisms underlying uncivil exchanges, specifically the processes of trust and justice, were also examined. The different effects of supervisor and co-worker incivility were likewise explored.

Consistent with previous research (e.g., Cortina et al., 2001, 2002; S. Lim et al., 2008), workplace incivility was generally found to be related to employee attitudes. Results supported Hypotheses 1-5, indicating that workplace incivility was significantly related to job satisfaction, affective commitment, turnover intentions, interpersonal trust, and organizational justice. Thus, it appears that in the present instance, aversive workplace experiences such as workplace incivility can elicit strong negative feelings.

With respect to employee well-being, both supervisor and co-worker incivility were positively related to job burnout. Only supervisor incivility, however, was significantly (negatively) related to employee engagement. These findings are consistent with previous research, which has shown that related forms of workplace deviance can adversely affect employee health and well-being (Duffy et al., 2002; Grandey et al., 2007; Yagil, 2006). Moreover, the results provide further support for the notion that the source of incivility has differential influences on employee outcomes.

Results provide little support for the notion that workplace incivility directly or indirectly affects employee job performance. The general lack of findings may be due to the nature of the study's effective sample, which was reduced in size due to missing supervisor-rated performance data. Two of the mediation analyses involving OCB, however, revealed that workplace incivility

exerted indirect effects on these discretionary behaviors. In particular, results showed that supervisor incivility exerts indirect effects on individual-directed citizenship (OCBI) through both perceptions of trust and justice, whereas co-worker incivility exerts indirect effects on organization-directed citizenship (OCBO) through fairness perceptions. Such findings are contrary to expectations and previous literature (e.g., Pearson et al., 2000, 2005), which have suggested that employees are mindful of power or status differences when deciding (whether and) how to reciprocate workplace mistreatment.

Mediation analyses were also performed with respect to well-being outcomes. As the exploratory post hoc analyses found, relations between workplace incivility and employee well-being (i.e., job burnout and employee engagement) were mediated by employee perceptions of trust and fairness. Although workplace incivility exerted indirect effects on job burnout and employee engagement, the pattern of results was somewhat different for these two outcomes. In particular, unlike supervisor incivility, co-worker incivility was not significantly related to engagement in a direct manner. Bootstrap analyses revealed, however, that co-worker incivility can still affect engagement levels indirectly through employees' perceptions of trust and justice. Such a pattern of results is unsurprising given that job burnout is primarily predicted by job demands (such as workplace incivility), whereas employee engagement is primarily predicted by the availability of job resources such as trust and justice (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

With regard to the source of workplace incivility, whether mistreatment originates with a supervisor or co-workers appears to make a difference. In general, supervisor incivility exerted stronger effects on employee outcomes than co-worker incivility. More specifically, only supervisor incivility (and not co-worker incivility) was significantly correlated with job satisfaction, affective commitment, turnover intentions, employee engagement, task

performance, and counterproductive performance. Results further revealed that correlations with organizational justice and employee engagement were significantly stronger with supervisor than co-worker incivility. Finally, tests of relative importance corroborated these results, indicating that, when contrasted with co-worker incivility, supervisor incivility contributed to the prediction of attitudinal, well-being, and performance outcomes.

Practical Implications

As discussed, workplace mistreatment may occur in a variety of forms with varying frequency; studies suggest 37% of American workers have been bullied at work (Workplace Bullying Institute & Zogby International, 2007) and approximately 15% of employees have been subjected to abusive supervision (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006). Workplace incivility, however, may occur in upwards of 70% of organizations (Cortina et al., 2001). Given the current climate of high unemployment, these estimates may be conservative (Queenan, 2009). In particular, because people are simply happy to have jobs, it is thought that they “are not complaining nearly as much [about workplace mistreatment] as they did a couple of years ago” (p. A13). Regardless of economic conditions, however, organizations must consider the potentially high costs of such mistreatment (Pearson & Porath, 2009; Sutton, 2007). It is hoped that a further understanding of workplace incivility will lead to the development of interventions to help ameliorate its deleterious impact on employees and organizations.

Indeed, several “best practices” have been recommended to address workplace incivility (Pearson et al., 2000; Pearson & Porath, 2005). First, organizations must clearly set expectations and establish norms for workplace conduct and interpersonal interaction. Repeating expectations regularly, both verbally and in writing, may reduce employees’ feelings of distrust and unfairness because such standards eliminate ambiguity concerning what behaviors will (and will

not) be tolerated (Pearson et al., 2005; Pearson & Porath, 2004). Second, organizations should solicit anonymous, bottom-up input. Perhaps more importantly, managers should attend to this feedback, as evidence suggests many managers are often ill-equipped to deal with rudeness at work (Pearson et al., 2001). Bosses may be unprepared to respond when symptoms of incivility emerge, or they may be reluctant to get involved in these unpleasant events (Pearson & Porath, 2004). With confidential complaint systems in place, managers would be left with the important task of listening carefully and withholding judgment before addressing reported problems. Recent research has found that only 25% of targets were satisfied with the way their organizations responded when they reported being mistreated, suggesting there is much room for organizations to improve (Pearson & Porath, 2005). To this end, a final recommendation concerns the implementation of training and orientation programs for all employees. Whereas training for sexual harassment is primarily information-based, civility training appears to be skills-based (Pearson et al., 2000). Thus, providing guidelines on how to confront “jerks” and how to avoid being one may facilitate respectful, dignified treatment among employees at work.

Limitations and Future Research

Although the present study offers a novel perspective on the role of incivility experiences in influencing employee attitudes and well-being, the reported results should be viewed with certain limitations in mind. First, the proposed hypotheses were tested at the individual level and, thus, the effects of any group-level influences were not modeled. Recent research suggests that emotions prompted by workplace incivility may be contagious. S. Lim and colleagues (2008) report that workgroup incivility – an aggregated climate variable – exerts a negative effect on employees’ job satisfaction and mental health. This suggests that the consequences of uncivil workplace behavior extend beyond individual targets of incivility and, in the aggregate, can have

both individual and organization-wide consequences affecting the performance of indirect victims. A second potential limitation concerns the extent to which the reported results generalize to other workforce populations. The study sample was composed of individuals working for different organizations and in jobs across a variety of industries. It may have been beneficial to sample employees from one organization and, therefore, minimize potential confounds related to socioeconomic status and similar considerations.

Along these lines, the current study was conducted in a single culture. A country's institutional environment, in terms of its societal and economic institutions, has been shown to affect what workplace behaviors are considered discretionary (Markóczy, Vora, & Xin, 2009) and the extent to which certain behaviors are regarded as rude (Yeung & Griffin, 2008). The general applicability of the immediate results to other national and societal contexts would be verified by replication with other samples drawn from different cultural backgrounds, thus, providing an even broader base for comparative analysis.

A further limitation is that the results could have been inflated due to common-method variance. When predictors and criteria are collected from the same source, relationships may be inflated by self-report bias. I attempted to minimize this bias, however, by following suggestions offered by P. M. Podsakoff et al. (2003). In particular, I separated survey administrations over time (approximately two weeks) and I included a measure of negative affectivity to control for potential method effects. Finally, given that the data used to test the proposed hypotheses were separated temporally and collected from multiple referents rather than grounded in a carefully controlled experiment, causal inferences cannot be made with certainty. Additional evidence based on other types of research designs is thus needed before confident attributions of causality are warranted. Moreover, given that workplace incivility is assumed to be dynamic (Pearson et

al., 2000), diachronic studies will be necessary to determine how its effects vary from day-to-day and compound over time.

Final Remarks

The reported study demonstrates that experiences of workplace incivility adversely affect employee attitudes and well-being; that workplace incivility experiences may indirectly affect feelings of burnout and employee engagement levels through its influence on employee perceptions of trust and justice; and that employee responses to incivility differ depending on the source (i.e., supervisor or co-worker incivility). Initial research has examined direct relations between workplace incivility and employee attitudes. Few studies, however, have attempted to explicate the mediational mechanisms underlying uncivil conduct. In particular, I proposed and found support for a model linking workplace incivility to job burnout and employee engagement through the mediating effects of interpersonal trust and organizational justice. These findings broaden the focus of prior research by illustrating that the link between workplace incivility experiences and employee well-being is more nuanced than previously believed.

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APPENDIX A

ROUND 1 CONTENT ANALYSIS – COVER LETTER AND ITEM POOL

Gang –

May I impose for a few minutes of your time?

Might you be so kind as to serve as part of a panel to review a set of items that I have generated to tap “workplace incivility.” That is, viewed within a workplace setting, workplace incivility refers to **low-intensity behavior that intentionally or unintentionally offends another’s sense of personal dignity**.

Would you be so kind as to indicate those items from the following list that you feel most clearly tap “workplace incivility” as defined above? Particularly helpful would be your input on appropriate scale anchors, item clarity, content, possible new items, or wording effects such as double-barreled items and loaded language.

As intended, employee respondents would be asked to complete the items below in reference to their supervisor and co-workers. “Workplace incivility” would be an independent variable in the proposed study’s grand scheme of things. Dependent variables would be collected using supervisor-rated performance measures (e.g., task performance, citizenship, withdrawal and counterproductive behavior). Contemplated mediator variables include interpersonal trust and justice perceptions. Any thoughts on this plan would be more than welcome.

THANK YOU for your professional courtesy!

Shannon

Workplace Incivility Measure

Instructions: Please indicate how often during the PAST YEAR you have been in a situation where any of your superiors or co-workers exhibited the following behavior.

- 0 = Never
- 1 = Hardly Ever (once every few months or less)
- 2 = Rarely (about once a month)
- 3 = Sometimes (at least once a week)
- 4 = Frequently (at least once a day)

My supervisor(s) or co-workers or both have:

- 1. shown disdain for your views
- 2. disregarded your suggestions
- 3. displayed a patronizingly superior attitude
- 4. shown little interest in your opinions
- 5. spoken to you in a demeaning way
- 6. addressed you in an unprofessional manner
- 7. 'spoke over' or cut you off
- 8. made offensive jokes at your expense
- 9. degraded your judgment
- 10. were openly discourteous
- 11. directed a humiliating comment toward you
- 12. behaved abrasively toward you
- 13. tried to intimidate you
- 14. shot you a disapproving glare
- 15. put you in your "place"
- 16. criticized you in front of others
- 17. challenged your credibility
- 18. talked down to you
- 19. used innuendo to belittle you
- 20. made insinuating remarks about you
- 21. used sarcasm to hurt or offend you
- 22. attacked your integrity
- 23. unfairly deflected blame onto to you
- 24. were dismissive of your views
- 25. were cold or aloof
- 26. did not show you the same courtesy as others
- 27. mocked or ridiculed you
- 28. made you feel invisible
- 29. became unnecessarily contentious
- 30. were unresponsive to what you asked for
- 31. maliciously gossiped about you
- 32. were unforgivingly rude
- 33. were cranky or short with you

34. engaged in excessive teasing
35. were unapologetic for making a mistake
36. shunned attempts to constructively resolve a disagreement
37. were arrogant toward you
38. were close-minded to you
39. were unappreciative of your efforts
40. made obscene gestures
41. made inappropriate eye contact
42. used threatening body language to establish authority
43. were belligerent in their views
44. were insensitive to your feelings
45. used foul/abusive language
46. made inappropriate facial expressions
47. used an unpleasant tone of voice
48. were unprofessional in their demeanor
49. ridiculed your opinions
50. ignored you
51. treated you with contempt
52. gave you a scornful look

APPENDIX B

ROUND 2 CONTENT ANALYSIS – COVER LETTER AND ITEM POOL

Gang –

First let me THANK YOU for your kind and helpful responses to my request to serve as an “expert panel” in my efforts to develop a measure of workplace incivility. Of the 52 items comprising my initial item pool, 13 survived unscathed, and 5 have been revised. The pool is now comprised of 18 items.

Might you be so kind as to assist me one more time in my efforts to purify these remaining items? Please note that I have substantially revised my construct definition based on your feedback. Also, I have purposely avoided defining incivility as a deviant behavior, believing that some uncivil behaviors may in fact be the norm in some work settings. Finally, I’ve requested your comments on 2 specific items – you’ll note the interlinear questions below. If you’d simply mark each item as Agree (this item reflects the content of the given definition), Disagree, or ? and offer any comments that come to mind regarding my new construct definition, I’d be most grateful. Please return your judgments either via email (using the “Track Changes” function in MS Word) or by dropping the attached form in my mailbox.

Your comments have been invaluable!

Thanks again.

Shannon

Workplace Incivility

Construct definition: Workplace incivility refers to conduct of doubtful or uncertain intent that is judged by a target to be offensive.

- 0 = Never
- 1 = Hardly Ever (about once every few months or less)
- 2 = Rarely (about once a month)
- 3 = Sometimes (about once a week)
- 4 = Frequently (about once a day)

Request: Please read each of the following statements and indicate whether you Agree, Disagree or are Uncertain (?) as to whether the statement reflects the content of the given definition as it applies to your workplace.

I feel that my supervisor(s) or co-workers have:

- 2. disregarded my suggestions
- 4. shown little interest in my opinions
- 5. spoken to me in a demeaning way
- 6. addressed me in an unprofessional manner
- 10. been openly discourteous toward me
- 12. been abrasive toward me
- 14. stared at me disapprovingly
- 21. used sarcasm that hurt or offended me
- 25. been cold or aloof toward me
- 30. been unresponsive to what I asked for
- 33. been cranky or short with me
- 34. teased me in a non-playful way
- 35. been unapologetic for making a mistake

Q: In contrast to other items, Item 35 makes no reference to “me.” Do you see this as a possible problem vis-à-vis wording effects? If so, might you suggest a wording change?

36. shunned my attempts to constructively resolve a disagreement

37. been arrogant toward me

39. been unappreciative of my efforts

44. been insensitive to my feelings

47. used an unpleasant tone of voice when speaking to me

Q: Is this item redundant with Item 6?

APPENDIX C

PILOT TEST – COVER LETTER AND SURVEY

Flores MBA Students:

Amid growing pressures for productivity, it seems workplace incivility and other rude behavior has become a way of life in many organizations. Given the prevalence of such conduct and its attendant costs, it may have widespread implications for business efficiency. Surprisingly, how workplace incivility affects employee attitudes, well-being, and job performance has yet to be systematically investigated.

To address these issues, researchers at LSU have undertaken a study of the dynamics underlying how workplace incivility influences employees. We ask that you participate in their efforts and help them contribute to a more complete understanding of this phenomenon by completing the accompanying survey. To ensure candor, you will not be asked for your name, your email address, or any other identifier that will be linked to your survey responses. Thus, all responses will be COMPLETELY anonymous and only reported in the aggregate. The survey should take just a few minutes to complete.

To complete the survey, simply click on the following URL:

<http://surveys.bus.lsu.edu/efm/wsb.dll/s/79g3be>

Thank you for your time and effort in completing this survey. We hope that you will find it interesting and thought provoking.

Jennifer K. Loftin
Associate Director, Flores MBA Programs
E. J. Ourso College of Business
3176 Patrick F. Taylor Hall
225.578.8545 (v)
225.578.2421 (f)

LSU Workplace Survey

This survey was prepared by organizational researchers at Louisiana State University to learn how people feel about certain aspects of their work situation. This is not a test. The only "right" answers to the various items will be your honest and thoughtful replies. The information obtained will be used to better understand workplace relationships. The survey will take just a few minutes to complete.

We would like to assure you that your answers to this questionnaire will be completely confidential. No one other than the LSU research group will see your individual answers. If the survey is to be helpful in advancing our understanding of workplace relationships, it is important that you provide honest and candid answers, and that you "tell it like it is."

If you have any concerns, please feel free to contact Shannon Taylor at (225)578-6129 or via email at stayl31@lsu.edu.

[Next Page](#)

(Page 1 of 3) 33%

LSU Workplace Survey

Please read each of the following statements and indicate the response that best represents your opinion.

- 0 = Never
- 1 = Hardly Ever (about once every few months or less)
- 2 = Rarely (about once a month)
- 3 = Sometimes (about once a week)
- 4 = Frequently (about once a day)

I feel that my supervisor(s) or co-workers have:

- 1. spoken to me in a demeaning way
 - 2. addressed me in an unprofessional manner
 - 3. been abrasive toward me
 - 4. stared at me disapprovingly
 - 5. used sarcasm that hurt or offended me
 - 6. been cold or aloof toward me
 - 7. been cranky or short with me
 - 8. been unapologetic for making a mistake
 - 9. shunned my attempts to constructively resolve a disagreement
 - 10. been arrogant toward me
 - 11. been insensitive to my feelings
 - 12. used an unpleasant tone of voice when speaking to me
-
-

[Next Page](#)

(Page 2 of 3) 67%

LSU Workplace Survey

On this page, please provide your demographic information.

13. Gender

Male
Female

14. Age

___ years

15. Race

White/Caucasian
Black/African-American
Hispanic
Asian
Other (please specify)

16. Are you currently employed?

No
Yes

17. Average number of hours worked per week

___ hours

18. Years of work experience

___ years

19. Student status

Full-time MBA
Professional MBA
Executive MBA
JD-MBA
Other (please specify)

[Submit Survey](#)

(Page 3 of 3) 100%

APPENDIX D
STUDY MEASURES

1. Workplace Incivility

A. Supervisor incivility

0 = *never*; 4 = *frequently*

I feel that my supervisor has:

1. spoken to me in a demeaning way
2. addressed me in an unprofessional manner
3. been abrasive toward me
4. stared at me disapprovingly
5. used sarcasm that hurt or offended me
6. been cold or aloof toward me
7. been cranky or short with me
8. been unapologetic for making a mistake
9. shunned my attempts to constructively resolve a disagreement
10. been arrogant toward me
11. been insensitive to my feelings
12. used an unpleasant tone of voice when speaking to me

B. Co-worker incivility

0 = *never*; 4 = *frequently*

I feel that my co-workers have:

1. spoken to me in a demeaning way
2. addressed me in an unprofessional manner
3. been abrasive toward me
4. stared at me disapprovingly
5. used sarcasm that hurt or offended me
6. been cold or aloof toward me
7. been cranky or short with me
8. been unapologetic for making a mistake
9. shunned my attempts to constructively resolve a disagreement
10. been arrogant toward me
11. been insensitive to my feelings
12. used an unpleasant tone of voice when speaking to me

2. Job satisfaction (Bedeian, 2007)

5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*)

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I am dissatisfied with my job. (R)
3. Generally speaking, I feel satisfied with my present job.

3. Affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990)

5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*)

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own
4. I think that I could easily become attached to another organization as I am to this one. (R)
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization (R)
6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization (R)
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (R)

4. Turnover intentions (Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham, 1999)

5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*)

1. I am thinking about leaving this organization.
2. I am planning to look for a new job.
3. I intend to ask people about new job opportunities.
4. I don't plan to be in this organization much longer.

5. Trust (Schoorman & Ballinger, 2006)

5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*)

1. My supervisor or coworkers keep my interests in mind when making decisions.
2. I would be willing to let my supervisor or coworkers have complete control over my future in this company.
3. If my supervisor or coworkers asked why a problem occurred, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame.
4. I feel comfortable being creative because my supervisor and coworkers understand that sometimes creative solutions do not work.
5. It is important for me to have a good way to keep an eye on my supervisor or coworkers. (R)
6. Increasing my vulnerability to criticism by my supervisor or coworkers would be a mistake. (R)
7. If I had my way, I wouldn't let my supervisor or coworkers have any influence over decisions that are important to me. (R)

6. Justice

A. Distributive justice (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993)

5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*)

1. My work schedule is fair.
2. I think that my level of pay is fair.
3. I consider my work load to be quite fair.
4. Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.
5. I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.

B. Procedural justice (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993)

5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*)

1. Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner.
2. My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.
3. To make job decisions, my general manager collects accurate and complete information.
4. My general manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.
5. All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.
6. Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager.

C. Interactional justice (Moorman, 1991)

5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*)

1. My supervisor and coworkers consider my viewpoint.
2. My supervisor and coworkers are able to suppress personal biases.
3. My supervisor and coworkers provide me with timely feedback about a decision and its implications.
4. My supervisor and coworkers treat me with kindness and consideration.
5. My supervisor and coworkers show concern for my rights as an employee.
6. My supervisor and coworkers deal with me in a truthful manner.

D. Interpersonal justice (Colquitt, 2001)

5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*)

1. My supervisor and coworkers treat me in a polite manner.
2. My supervisor and coworkers treat me with dignity.
3. My supervisor and coworkers treat me with respect.
4. My supervisor and coworkers refrain from improper remarks or comments.

7. Job burnout (Schaufeli et al., 1996)

0 = *never*; 6 = *every day*

Exhaustion

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.
3. I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.
4. Working all day is really a strain for me.
5. I feel burned out from my work.

Personal efficacy

1. I can effectively solve the problems that arise in my work.
2. I feel I am making an effective contribution to what this organization does.
3. In my opinion, I am good at my job.
4. I feel exhilarated when I accomplish something at work.
5. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.
6. At my work, I feel confident that I am effective at getting things done.

Cynicism

1. I have become less interested in my work since I started this job.
2. I have become less enthusiastic about my work.
3. I just want to do my job and not be bothered.
4. I have become more cynical about whether my work contributes anything.
5. I doubt the significance of my work.

8. Employee engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2002)

0 = *never*; 6 = *always*

Vigor

1. At work, I feel full of energy.
2. In my job, I feel strong and vigorous.
3. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
4. I can continue working for very long periods at a time.
5. In my job, I am mentally very resilient.
6. At work, I always persevere, even when things do not go well.

Dedication

1. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.
2. I am enthusiastic about my job.
3. My job inspires me.
4. I am proud of the work I do.
5. I find my job challenging.

Absorption

1. Time flies when I'm working.
2. When I am working, I forget everything else around me.
3. I feel happy when I am working intensely.
4. I am immersed in my work.
5. I get carried away when I'm working.
6. It is difficult to detach myself from my job.

9. Task performance (Williams & Anderson, 1991)

5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*)

1. Adequately completes assigned duties.
2. Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.
3. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.
4. Meets formal performance requirements on the job.
5. Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.
6. Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform. (R)
7. Fails to perform essential duties. (R)

10. Organizational citizenship behavior (Williams & Anderson, 1991)

5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*)

OCBI

1. Helps others who have been absent
2. Helps others who have heavy workloads
3. Assists supervisor with his/her work (when not asked)
4. Takes time to listen to coworkers' problems and worries
5. Goes out of way to help new employees
6. Takes a personal interest in other employees
7. Passes along information to coworkers

OCBO

1. Attendance at work is above the norm
2. Gives advance notice when unable to come to work
3. Takes undeserved work breaks (R)
4. Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations (R)
5. Complains about insignificant things at work (R)
6. Conserves and protects organizational property
7. Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order

11. Counterproductive work behavior (Bennett & Robinson, 2000)

Participants indicate the extent to which they have engaged in each of the behaviors in the last year (1 = *never*; 5 = *daily*).

Interpersonal deviance

1. Made fun of someone at work
2. Said something hurtful to someone at work
3. Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work
4. Cursed at someone at work
5. Played a mean prank on someone at work
6. Acted rudely toward someone at work
7. Publicly embarrassed someone at work

Organizational deviance

1. Taken property from work without permission.
2. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working.
3. Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spend on business expenses.
4. Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace.
5. Come in late to work without permission.
6. Littered your work environment.
7. Neglected to follow your boss's instructions.
8. Intentionally worked slower than you could have.
9. Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person.
10. Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol in the job.
11. Put little effort into your work.
12. Dragged out work in order to get overtime.

12. Control variables

A. PANAS (Watson et al., 1988)

Participants indicate the extent to which they have felt this way during the past year.
(1 = *very slightly or not at all*; 5 = *extremely*)

1. Distressed
2. Upset
3. Guilty
4. Scared
5. Hostile
6. Irritable
7. Ashamed
8. Nervous
9. Jittery
10. Afraid

B. Likeability (Wiggins, 1979)

Supervisors indicate the extent to which the following adjectives describe their subordinate.

5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*)

1. Likeable
2. Friendly
3. Nice

C. Demographics

1. Gender (male, female)
2. Age (in years)
3. Race (white/Caucasian, black/African-American, Hispanic, Asian, other)
4. Education (high school degree, some college, college degree, advanced degree)
5. Current employment (yes, no)
6. Average number of hours worked per week (in hours)
7. Years of work experience (in years)

VITA

Shannon Grant Taylor received his bachelor of science in finance from Bradley University in 2000. Recognized for his teaching and research throughout his doctoral program at LSU, Shannon is a two-time winner of the James W. Reddoch Award for outstanding teaching by a doctoral student in the Department of Management. In 2009, he received the Graduate Student Teaching Award from the Ourso College of Business. Shannon's research interests include personality, psychometrics, and interpersonal relationships in the workplace. He was awarded the 2006 Best Overall Doctoral Paper and Best Doctoral Paper in the Human Resource Management Track by the Southern Management Association and is the co-author of articles appearing in the *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology* and the *Journal of Business and Psychology*. He is currently employed as an assistant professor of management at Northern Illinois University in DeKalb, Illinois, and continues to be involved in the Academy of Management, the Southern Management Association, and the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology as a presenter, discussant, and reviewer. He was born in Peoria, Illinois, in 1982.